Traducido con **DeepL**

Analysis of school violence in educational centres in Chile

Analysis of School Violence in Educational Centres in Chile

Dania Saladrigas Menes[1] , Misael Reyes Jiménez, Araceli Medel Pinto, Fernanda Lagos Fauré and Eliseo Lara Órdenes

Faculty of Education and Social Sciences. Andrés Bello University (Chile)

Abstract

School violence is any intentional act that causes physical, verbal or psychological harm in the school environment. In Chile, there are no comprehensive studies that allow regional trends to be identified and effective public policies to be designed. Therefore, the objective is to analyse the prevalence and factors associated with school violence in educational centres between 2014 and 2023. Reports from the Superintendency of Education database were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics (multiple regression, Kruskal-Wallis, χ^2 and Tukey) to identify influencing factors and compare the number of reports between different types of municipalities and educational centres. The results indicate an increase in school violence in recent years. In addition, significant differences were found in the number of reports depending on the type of educational centre and region; the most common type of violence is physical abuse of students, and a significant increase in sexual violence was found. The need for specific intervention policies and programmes adapted to the particularities of each environment and specific types of violence is suggested in order to improve the safety and well-being of students. This provides an overview and objective view of school violence in Chile, identifying patterns in different types of establishments and municipalities. Although it does not capture individual experiences, it provides a solid basis for the development of public policies and could be complemented by future qualitative studies to enrich the understanding of the phenomenon.

Keywords: School reports, geographical distribution of violence, abuse, regional trends.

Resumen

La violencia escolar es cualquier acto intencionado que cause daño físico, verbal o psicológico ocurrido en el entorno escolar. En Chile no hay estudios amplios que permitan identificar tendencias regionales y diseñar políticas públicas efectivas, por lo que el objetivo es analizar la prevalencia y factores asociados a la violencia escolar en centros educativos entre

2014 y 2023. Se analizaron las denuncias de la base de datos de la Superintendencia de Educación con estadística descriptiva e inferencial (regresión múltiple, Kruskal-Wallis, χ^2 y Tukey) para identificar los factores influyentes y comparar la cantidad de

---

[1] **Correspondence:** Dania Saladrigas Menes, daniasaladrigas@gmail.com

denuncias entre diferentes tipos de comunas y centros educativos. Los resultados indican un alza en la violencia escolar en los últimos años. Además, se encontraron diferencias significativas en el número de denuncias dependiendo del tipo de centro educativo y la región; el tipo de violencia más común es el maltrato físico a estudiantes y se halló un aumento significativo en las de connotación sexual. Se sugiere la necesidad de políticas y programas de intervención específicos adaptados a las particularidades de cada entorno y a los tipos de violencia específicos, para mejorar la seguridad y bienestar del alumnado. Este proporciona una visión general y objetiva de la violencia escolar en Chile, identificando patrones en distintos tipos de establecimientos y comunas. A pesar de no captar las experiencias individuales, ofrece una base sólida para el desarrollo de políticas públicas y se podría complementar con futuros estudios cualitativos para enriquecer la comprensión del fenómeno

Palabras clave: Denuncias escolares, distribución geográfica de la violencia, maltrato, tendencias regionales.

Introduction

School violence is defined as any violent, aggressive, or antisocial act in the school environment, including interpersonal conflicts, discrimination, sexual violence, criminal acts, among others (Cerdeño, 2020; González-Moreno and Molero-Jurado 2023; Herrera et al., 2019). These behaviours cause harm and manifest themselves as physical, verbal, psychological violence, or social exclusion (Benbenishty and Astor, 2019; Dias et al., 2021; Fawole et al., 2018; Lamula-Mthanti, 2023 Pundir et al., 2019).

When students are involved in acts of violence, they suffer negative consequences, such as academic difficulties, low self-esteem, truancy, depression, and anxiety, mainly because the victim tries to avoid the aggressor (Acosta-Pérez and Cisneros-Bedón, 2019; Ardestani et al., 2022). Similarly, when teachers are victims of acts of violence, they can suffer negative consequences, such as demotivation, distress, anxiety, sleep disorders, eating disorders, and even abandoning their teaching career (Galdames and Pezoa, 2016).

The causes of school violence are varied and often interrelated. Among the most common causes are the family and social context of students, particularly those who grow up in dysfunctional environments and are exposed to aggression (Márquez et al., 2021; Pacheco-Salazar, 2018). Another important factor is school culture, in which models of dominance-submission and the hidden curriculum can increase school violence (Díaz-Aguado, 2005). In addition, the lack of attention to diversity and gender socialisation in the school environment also plays an important role (Pacheco-Salazar, 2015; Pacheco-Salazary López-Yáñez, 2019).

Chile, like other countries, is not immune to episodes of school violence, which is why it has been a relevant subject of study for various researchers. School violence in Chile has been addressed from different perspectives, including the influence of factors such as sexual orientation, migration, discrimination, bullying, educational inclusion, skin colour, school coexistence, among other relevant aspects (Ascorra, Bilbao et al., 2016; Campos-Bustos, 2021; Castillo et al., 2017; Guajardo, 2022; Huesca, 2020; Poblete Melis et al., 2021). Other authors have focused on identifying possible strategies to effectively address school violence in the Chilean educational context. For example, López et al. (2011b) analysed discursive practices in Chilean schools to understand the individualisation of school violence, while Maldonado and González (2019) explored school oversight in Chile and its relationship with violence in educational centres.

On the other hand, there is evidence to suggest that many educational centres currently lack mechanisms to promote educational inclusion, which has led to the reproduction of discriminatory practices that affect certain students and teachers, such as migrants or transgender people (Galdames and Pezoa, 2016; Mella and Paz-Maldonado, 2022). In this regard, Poblete Melis et al. (2021) have addressed the issue of bullying of transgender children in Chilean schools, highlighting the challenges and discrimination faced by these groups in the

educational environment ( ). On the other hand, Valdivia-Peralta et al. (2018) have pointed out the invisibility of dating violence in Chile, which has generated interest in enacting a specific law against this form of violence.

However, despite the great importance of in-depth knowledge of data on school violence in Chile, published studies are limited to exploring violence in specific educational centres or regions (e.g. Guerra et al., 2011; Galdames and Pezoa, 2016; Moscoso-Flores et al., 2022; Tijmes, 2012;) or the perceptions of members of the educational community (e.g., Contador, 2001; Guerra et al., 2012; Muñoz Quezada et al., 2007; Saavedra and Cifuentes, 2016). On the other hand, the more extensive works date back more than 15 years (García and Madriaza, 2005, 2006; Madriaza, 2008) or are purely theoretical studies (Carrasco et al., 2012; Magendzo et al., 2013; Medina and Paredes, 2021; Neut, 2017).

Given the above, and considering that data on school violence in Chile is currently available to the general public on the official website of the Superintendency of Education, there is an urgent need for research that analyses the evolution of this phenomenon over time, especially at the macro-geographical level, in order to identify regional trends and patterns and design specific public policies that will enable the prediction of future problems. Therefore, the objective of this study is to analyse the prevalence and factors associated with school violence in Chilean educational centres between 2014 and 2023.

Method

Participants

The information analysed in this study was obtained from the freely accessible database of the Superintendency of Education (Superintendency of Education, n.d.), which was compiled in an Excel file and reviewed to ensure data consistency. Cases reported between 2014 and 2023 were included, excluding 2020 and 2021 because, due to the pandemic, the records were exceptionally low and not representative. Information relating to nursery school level was also discarded, leaving the focus of interest on basic and secondary school levels. Thus, the data analysed in this study correspond to situations of violence involving students, civil servant teachers and/or members of the educational community.

Instruments

In addition to the number of reports of violence, the following types and number of variables were taken into account:

- Type of report: situations with sexual connotations, discrimination, abuse of students, abuse of adult members of the educational community.

- Specific type of abuse: situations of a sexual nature involving adults and students, discrimination due to special educational needs (ADD, physical or intellectual disability, among others), abuse between students, abuse of students by adults, situations of a sexual nature between students, discrimination based on nationality and/or racial origin, discrimination against students due to pregnancy, maternity or paternity, mistreatment of staff by students, discrimination due to health problems, discrimination due to religion or belief, mistreatment of staff by guardians, discrimination due to sexual orientation, discrimination due to physical appearance, mistreatment of guardians by staff, mistreatment among staff, abuse among legal guardians from the same educational community, discrimination based on gender, discrimination based on socioeconomic conditions, discrimination for other reasons, discrimination based on gender ity, discrimination based on academic performance, discrimination based on the marital status

of parents or legal guardians, discrimination based on belonging to an indigenous people or ethnic group, discrimination related to the comprehensive development of students.

- Type of educational centre: private fee-paying, private subsidised, municipal DAEM, municipal corporation, delegated administration corporation, private fee-paying without certification, public institution, local service, private institution.

- Communes: 346 communes in Chile (representing 100% of the country).

- Regions: 16 regions of Chile (representing 100% of the country). Information will be provided on the variables and instruments used.

Procedure

To analyse reports of violence in educational centres in Chile, a data matrix was created with records of reports categorised by year, general and specific type of report, region, commune and type of institution. In the event that any variable presented significant asymmetry, a logarithmic transformation was performed on the data before analysis. The municipalities where the educational centres studied are located were classified as rural, urban or mixed according to information provided by the Office of Agricultural Studies and Policies (Oficina de Estudios y Políticas Agrarias [Odepa], n.d.). The complaint data in this database does not contain any personal information about the individuals involved, and the names of the educational centres analysed were omitted entirely, thus protecting the confidentiality required in this type of study.

Data analysis

Descriptive statistical analyses of the data were performed to visualise the evolutionary trend of reported cases in educational centres. To this end, the median, Q1 and Q3 quartiles and standard deviation of the rates of reports of violence per 100,000 inhabitants were calculated. The rate of reports was then plotted by region and by year to visualise the historical and regional behaviour of these variables, as evidence of the relationship between the number and frequency of reports in the Chilean population.

Several statistical analyses were performed to understand the determining factors in school violence. In general, the methodology used included the grouping and counting of reports by combination of factors, the coding of categorical variables, and the application, first, of a multiple regression analysis to identify the most influential factors in the number of reports. In this regard, a linear regression model was used with the coded variables as predictors and the number of reports as the dependent variable. The variables included were the type of report, the specific type of abuse, the type of educational centre, the municipalities, and the regions. The model coefficients were analysed to determine the influence of each variable on the number of reports.

To analyse whether the number of reports of violence in each region and municipality was directly related to the number of inhabitants in those places, a Pearson correlation analysis was carried out. In addition, the rate of violence per 1,000 inhabitants was calculated for the municipalities and regions to make fairer comparisons. The number of inhabitants in each municipality was compiled from the results of the 2017 national census (National Institute of Statistics, 2017).

The number of reports found in each type of municipality (rural, urban, and mixed) was plotted to make a visual comparison of the annual evolution between them. The same was done for the types of establishments.

The number of complaints made between municipalities, between regions, between types of municipality and between different types of complaints (both general and specific) was compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test. When significant differences were found, a post-hoc test (Tukey's test) was carried out to identify which groups differed from each other.

To determine whether there is a significant association between these two variables, i.e., whether reports of

violence are distributed independently of the type of educational establishment or whether some types of establishments have a higher or lower number of reports than expected, a Chi-square test of independence was performed.

In all analyses, statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (2023), version 29.0.2.0.

Results

Between 2014 and 2023, 58,039 reports of school violence were recorded in Chile, with an overall increase over time, especially in 2022 and 2023 (Fig. 1). The median number of reports increased from 4.5 in 2014 to about 12 in 2023.

When analysing which variables most influence the number of reported incidents of violence, it was found that the type of educational centre, the region and the municipality had a direct influence, with multiple regression coefficient values of 0.11, 0.08 and 0.01, respectively. The type of report, with a negative value (-2.83), had no influence on the number of reports found.
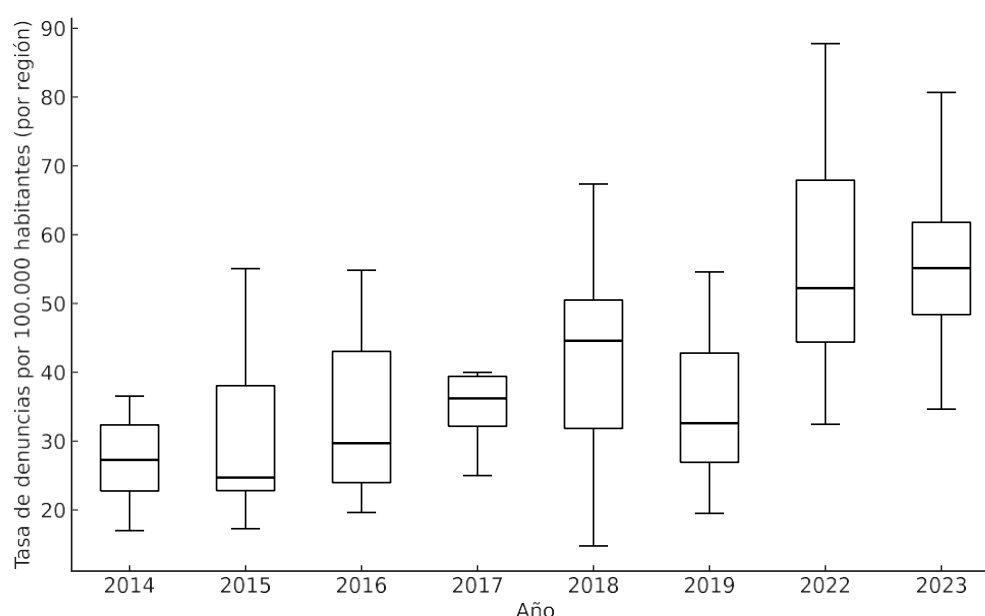

Figure 1. *Distribution of reports per 100,000 inhabitants in educational centres in Chile between 2014 and 2023.*
Note: The horizontal line within the boxes represents the median, the upper and lower edges of each box correspond to quartiles Q1 and Q3, respectively, and the tips of the whiskers indicate the extreme values.

The municipalities with the most reports of violence were San Ignacio (1,880), Río Bueno (1,824), and Penco (1,650), while the municipalities with the fewest reports included Constitución and Lebu, with one case each.

Following this idea, Figure 2A shows that there is considerable variability in the rates of reports of violence between different regions of Chile. For example, some regions such as Aysén show very high peaks, especially around 2018, with more than 120 reports per 100,000 inhabitants. This same region, along with Atacama, shows significant fluctuations over the years, with notable increases in certain periods.

On the other hand, some regions, such as the Metropolitan Region, have relatively more stable and lower reporting rates compared to other regions such as Aysén and Antofagasta. It is worth mentioning that, although the Metropolitan region has the highest absolute number of reports, the reports per 100,000 inhabitants are relatively low. For example, in 2022, there are 45.2 reports per 100,000 inhabitants, in contrast to the other

regions, which have higher rates.

Figure 2B shows the evolution of reports of violence per 100,000 inhabitants in each region, taking into account the years. In general, an increase in the rates of reports of violence can be observed in almost all regions over the years. This increase is more pronounced in some regions, such as Aysén. In addition, 2018 and 2019 appear to be critical points where many regions experienced an increase in reports. In contrast, some regions show fluctuations and decreases in certain periods, such as Tarapacá and Antofagasta.
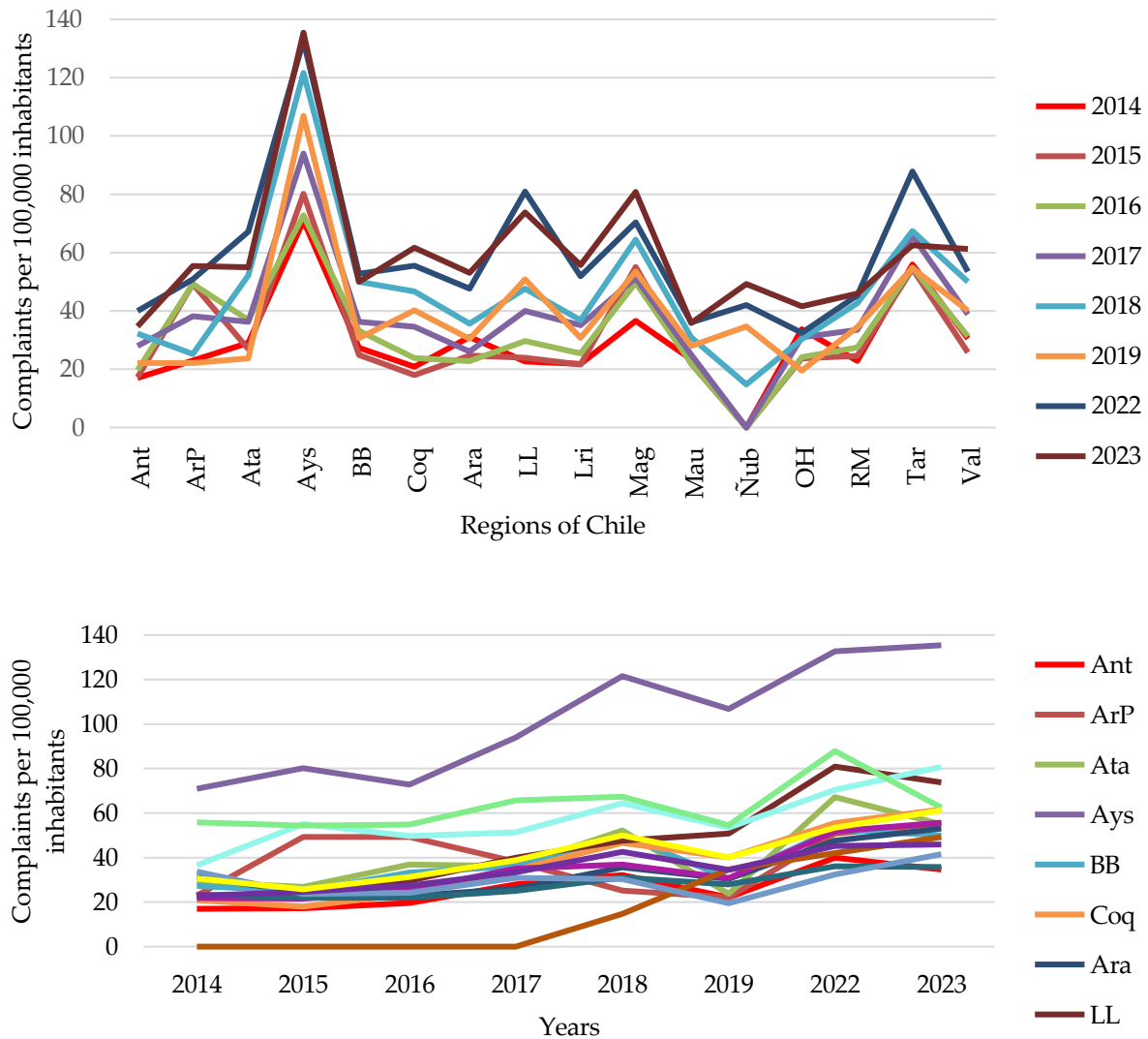

Figure 2. *Evolution of reports of violence per 100,000 inhabitants in Chilean educational centres, by region (A) and year (B).* *Note.* Aric: Arica and Parinacota Region, Tar: Tarapacá Region, Ant: Antofagasta Region, Atac: Atacama Region, Coq: Coquimbo Region, Val: Valparaíso Region, BO: Libertador General Bernardo O'Higgins Region, BB: Biobío Region, Ar: La Araucanía Region, L: Los Lagos Region, Ay: Aysén del General Carlos Ibáñez del Campo Region, M: Magallanes and Chilean Antarctica Region, RM: Santiago Metropolitan Region, Ríos: Los Ríos Region, Ñub: Ñuble Region, Mau: Maule Region.

Given that Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that municipalities with larger populations tend to report a higher number of complaints ($r = 0.777$; $p < 0.001$), the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in the number of complaints between municipalities, taking into account the population rate of each. This test yielded a statistical value of 343 and a p-value of 0.4898, indicating that there are no significant differences in complaint rates between municipalities when adjusted for population ($p > 0.05$).

However, when the type of municipality was analysed, it was found that, apparently, urban municipalities have the highest number of complaints, while mixed municipalities have the lowest (Fig. 3). These data were supported by the Kruskal-Wallis test, which showed that there are highly significant differences between the three types of municipalities (H = 3861.24; p<0.001). This indicates that there is a high probability that the differences observed in the number of reports of violence between rural, urban and mixed municipalities are not due to chance.
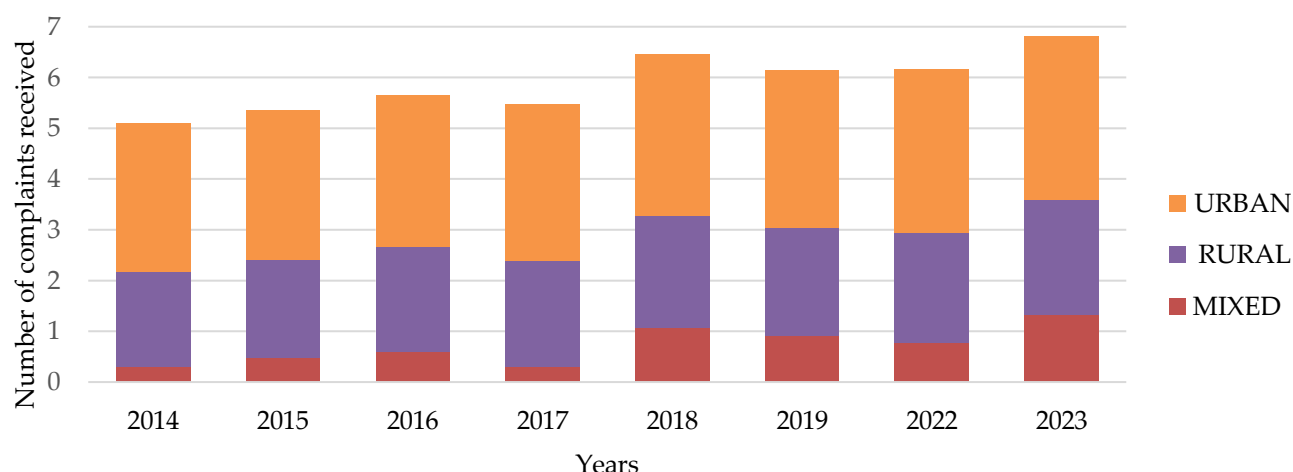

Figure 3. *Reports of violence in secondary schools in Chile between 2014 and 2023 in municipalities across the country, taking into account their sociodemographic characteristics.*
Note: The data have been logarithmically transformed.

Therefore, in order to better understand these differences, a post-hoc analysis was performed to identify in detail the differences between each pair of groups. Thus, Tukey's test showed that there are significant differences in the number of cases of violence between all types of municipalities (Table 1). Thus, rural municipalities have, on average, 147.85 and 345.02 fewer reports than mixed and urban municipalities, respectively, while the latter have, on average, 197.18 more reports than mixed municipalities.

Table 1

Values of Tukey's post-hoc test used to identify specific differences between rural, urban and mixed municipalities where Chilean educational centres that have reported cases of violence are located, between 2014 and 2023.

Group 1	Group 2	Difference in means	Adjusted P-value	Lower Confidence Interval	Upper Confidence Interval
Mixed	Rural	-147.8468	< 0.001	-274.6937	-20.9999
Mixed	Urban	197.1765	< 0.001	41.2167	353.1362
Rural	Urban	345.0233	< 0.001	155.232	534.8145

Note. Own elaboration.

When the number of reports of violence was analysed according to the type of educational centre, it was found that the majority occurred in subsidised private schools and that the number of reports between years in this type of institution remained similar over the years (Figure 4).
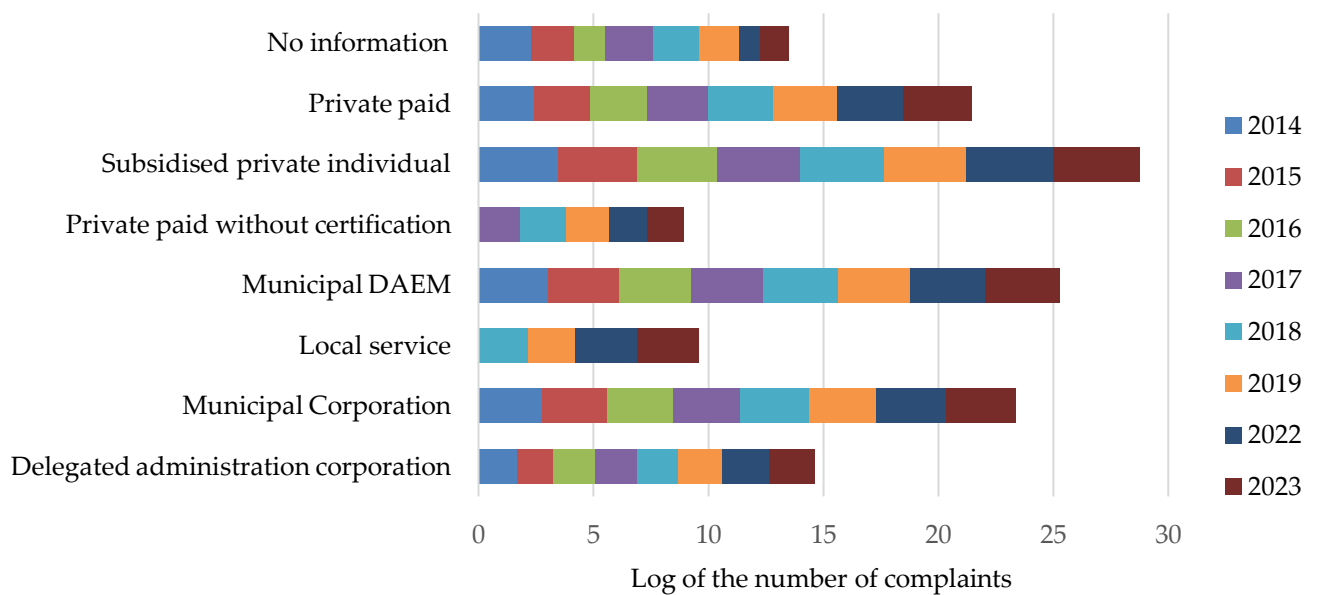
Figure 4. *Number of reports of violence in different types of secondary schools in Chile between 2014 and 2023.*

However, given that most schools in Chile belong to this type (Library of the National Congress of Chile, n.d.), a chi-square test was performed to investigate whether there was a significant relationship between the type of educational establishment and the number of reports of violence in Chile. The value of this test was $\chi^2(1) = 36114.37$, $p<0.001$, which means that there is a statistically significant relationship between the type of educational establishment and the number of reports of violence, so the distribution of reports is not independent of the type of educational establishment.

When analysing the behaviour of the different types of reports (discrimination, abuse of students, abuse of adults, situations with sexual connotations), it was determined that there are statistically significant differences in the number of reports between the different types of abuse and the different years (H= 36.92; p<0.001). It is therefore possible to state that reports of abuse in Chilean educational establishments have undergone significant changes over the years, and that certain types of reports have shown a more pronounced increase than others (Fig. 5). Physical abuse of students is the most frequently reported type and shows a significant increase in some years, although with some variability. On the other hand, reports of physical abuse of adult members of the educational community remain relatively low compared to other types, but show an upward trend in 2023. Finally, reports of a sexual nature have increased in recent years, with a notable peak in 2022.
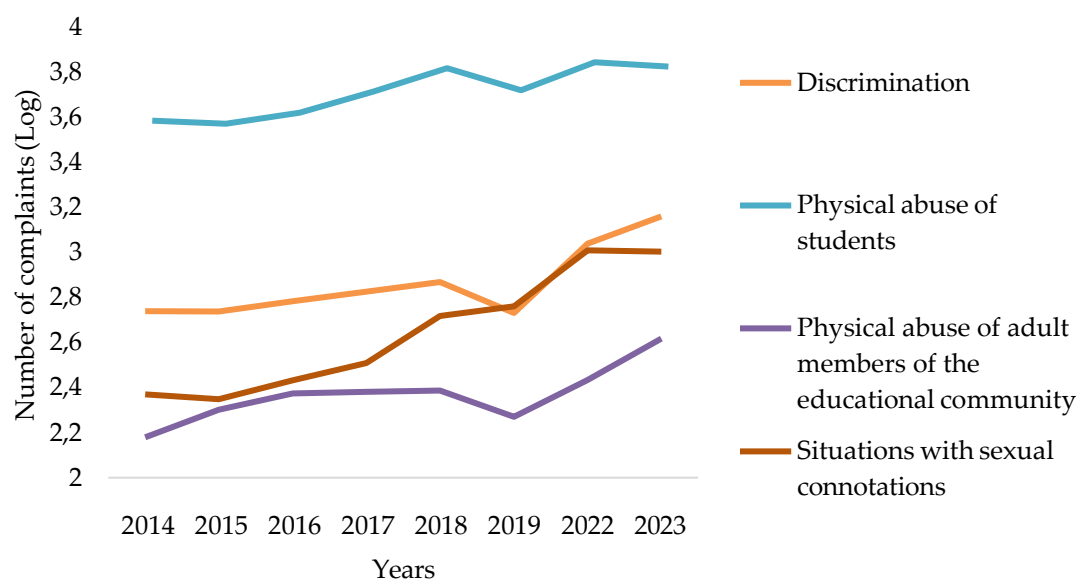
Figure 5. *Evolution of reports of abuse in Chilean educational centres, from 2014 to 2023.*
Note: The data has been logarithmically transformed.

On the other hand, Tukey's post-hoc test demonstrated differences in the average number of reports between the different types (discrimination, abuse of students, abuse of adults, situations of a sexual nature), regardless of the year (Table 2). As can be seen, reports of physical abuse of students are significantly higher than those of discrimination, which in turn are significantly higher than those of physical abuse of adult members. In addition, reports of physical abuse of students are significantly higher than those of situations with sexual connotations and those of physical abuse of adult members.

Table 2

Values of Tukey's post-hoc test used to identify specific differences between pairs of types of abuse reports made in educational centres in Chile between 2014 and 2023.

Group 1	Group 2	Difference in Means	Adjusted P-value	Lower Confidence Interval	Upper Confidence Interval
Abuse of students	Abuse of members of the educational community	-0.04	0.001	-0.07	-0.02
Abuse of students	Situations with sexual connotations	-0.02	0.047	-0.03	-0.00
Abuse of members of the educational community	Situations with sexual connotations	0.03	0.001	0.01	0.05

Note: Own elaboration

However, when analysing the specific type of abuse, statistically significant differences were also found in the number of reports between these types (H= 177.75; p < 0.001), with abuse among students being the most common type of complaint, with a total of 25,453 cases reported, while the least abundant is discrimination based on belonging to an indigenous people and/or ethnic group, with six complaints.

When comparing specific pairs of complaint types using Tukey's *post-hoc* test, significant differences were found only between some of them (Supplementary Material 1). Thus, the results show that certain forms of discrimination, such as discrimination based on pregnancy, maternity or paternity, and discrimination based on personal and/or physical appearance, have statistically significant differences compared to other forms of abuse such as physical and psychological abuse. The adjusted p-values indicate that these differences are highly significant (with extremely low p-values, much lower than 0.05), suggesting that certain types of abuse are reported with a significantly different frequency compared to others. The confidence intervals of the mean differences confirm these significances, as they do not include zero, which validates the existence of real differences between the compared groups.

Discussion

In general, violence in schools has a direct impact on students' academic performance, as students exposed to it show lower levels of academic performance and are more likely to drop out of school (Benbenishty and Astor, 2019). The results of this study provide a comprehensive overview of violence in Chilean schools, highlighting the influence of the type of school and the sociodemographic characteristics of the municipalities. Temporal trends and regional variability suggest the need for specific policies and intervention programmes tailored to the particularities of each environment. The differentiation between types of abuse and discrimination underscores the importance of addressing each form of violence in a targeted manner to improve the safety and well-being of students throughout the country.

The number of reports of violence in Chilean educational institutions between 2014 and 2023 has increased over the years, which could reflect greater awareness and willingness to report these events (López et al., 2020; Muñoz Quezada et al., 2017), as well as possible changes in educational and child protection policies. As mentioned above, the data analysed in this study comes from the official website of the Chilean Superintendency of Education. This body plays a fundamental role in ensuring the quality and equity of the education system by supervising compliance with school regulations, promoting coexistence and safeguarding the rights of the educational community. In addition, by providing public access to systematised and updated data on reports of school violence, it allows stakeholders (including communities and authorities) to identify patterns, trends and associated factors, thus contributing to the design of informed public policies and effective intervention strategies (Cheng and Moses, 2016).

In Chile, there are certain regulations whose function is to balance the protection of fundamental rights such as education and safety, as their mission is to develop effective strategies to improve school coexistence in an increasingly complex context. For example, the National Policy on School Coexistence establishes guidelines to promote safe and inclusive educational environments, aimed at the comprehensive development of students and the prevention of violent behaviour, encouraging the active participation of the entire school community (Superintendency of Education, n.d.). On the other hand, the School Violence Act (Act No. 20,536), enacted in 2011, defines and regulates the different forms of violence in the school context, establishing the obligation of educational establishments to implement action protocols, coexistence plans and training for their staff, with the aim of addressing and preventing conflicts in the school environment. Complementing this framework, the Safe Classroom Act (Act No. 21,128), enacted in 2018, empowers school principals to suspend or expel students involved in serious acts of violence. Although this law seeks to protect the safety of the educational community, it has generated debate due to its punitive approach, which may not sufficiently address the structural causes of school violence. Therefore, although the number of reported cases of violence is on the rise, it is clear that these regulations reflect an institutional effort to address school violence from a preventive and punitive approach. That is why it is suggested that teacher training in conflict management be strengthened, that the punitive measures of the Safe Classroom Law be complemented with preventive strategies such as school mediation, and that resources be increased in schools with high rates of complaints, including interdisciplinary teams. In addition, it is essential to implement a national system for monitoring coexistence and promoting educational inclusion in order to meet the needs of the most vulnerable and y students, reducing inequalities and social tensions.

Another national programme implemented in Chile designed to reduce school violence and improve school coexistence is called "A convivir se aprende" (You learn to live together) (Chilean Ministry of Education, n.d.). Authors such as Rojas-Andrade et al. (2024) report that this programme has had a high initial adoption rate and

significant improvements have been seen in the dimensions evaluated, supporting the effectiveness of a comprehensive school approach as a viable strategy for Latin American countries. However, 70% of the centres where this programme has been implemented are at the pre-school level, and only 24% of the centres consulted in this research are at the secondary level. In this regard, the potential future impact of this programme could be significant, especially if it is addressed continuously and systematically, as children who are now in lower grades will reach secondary education in a few years. However, this will depend on several factors, such as the quality of implementation, staff training, and the integration of the programme into the curriculum and school culture.

This research study reveals patterns and factors that significantly influence the incidence of these events, as the regression coefficients represent the influence of each factor (such as type of educational institution, region, and municipality) on the number of reports of school violence. Each coefficient indicates the expected change in the number of reports of violence when the corresponding variable increases by one unit, while the other factors remain constant. Subsidised private schools had the highest positive value in the multiple regression analysis (0.1122), indicating a significant influence on the number of reports of violence. This suggests that certain types of educational institutions may have environments that are more prone to violence, concentrating the majority of reports and maintaining a constant trend over the years, which could be explained by the significant number of these institutions in the country. Subsidised private institutions often serve a diverse student population in socio-economic terms. This diversity can generate tensions and conflicts due to economic and social disparities among students. Studies have shown that environments with more marked socioeconomic inequalities may be prone to higher levels of conflict and violence (Ascorra, López et al., 2016; Castillo et al., 2018; Garay et al., 2013). It could be that factors such as management, available resources, institutional policy, and the socioeconomic environment of the students attending these establishments are failing. Because of this, it would be advisable for schools with the highest number of complaints to review their policies and practices to address and prevent violence. Internal policies and the availability of resources in private subsidised institutions may also influence the incidence of violence. Unlike public schools, private subsidised schools have different levels of autonomy in the management of their discipline and conflict management policies. This can lead to inconsistencies in the application of preventive and corrective measures, contributing to a higher incidence of violence, which should be considered when planning measures to promote coexistence in educational centres (López et al., 2020; Maldonado and González, 2019). In addition, subsidised private institutions may have different pedagogical and cultural approaches, which impact the dynamics between students and educational staff. Previous studies have suggested that a lack of attention to diversity and inclusion can exacerbate conflicts in the school environment (Pacheco-Salazar, 2015; Pacheco-Salazary López-Yáñez, 2019). In contrast, private fee-paying schools were among those with the lowest number of reports of violence. This was to be expected, as several protective factors can be observed in these educational centres. Firstly, students come from families with higher incomes and parents who are more involved in their children's education and lives, which is associated with greater availability of resources and support, which in turn promotes more balanced behaviour among students (Estévez et al., 2012; Garay et al., 2013; Gómez-Ortiz et al., 2014). Secondly, these schools promote a positive climate with clear rules and healthy relationships, added to which high academic performance acts as a protective factor in some cases (Albaladejo-Blázquez et al., 2013; López et al., 2011a). Finally, private fee-paying schools are generally located in safe and cohesive communities that reduce exposure to violence and promote a climate of peaceful coexistence, while offering access to a wide range of resources and extracurricular activities that enable students to develop social and stress management skills (Jaureguizar and Ibabe, 2012; Román and Murillo, 2011). All of this once again highlights the wide gap faced by Chilean students from different social strata.

On the other hand, when the number of complaints was analysed by type of municipality, those with higher population densities reported a higher number of complaints. However, when the analysis was adjusted for population, no significant differences in complaint rates were found between them. This is explained by the fact that, globally, the proximity of schools to areas with high rates of violent crime is associated with poorer educational outcomes and greater inequality (Pelletier and Manna, 2017). In Latin America, studies indicate that violence in schools is a major concern, being particularly high in regions with urban segregation and social inequality, as observed in countries such as Mexico and Colombia (Briceño-León et al., 2008). In Chile, it has been shown that schools in areas with high concentrations of poverty and inequality face greater challenges in terms of violence and academic performance (Otero et al., 2021). However, each of the schools involved in this study would

need to be analysed in detail in order to confirm what is happening in this case.

Given that some regions, such as Aysén and Atacama, show significant fluctuations in reporting rates over the years (especially around 2018), it may be necessary to gain a deeper understanding of the local factors contributing to these peaks. In particular, the fact that Aysén shows a continuous and marked increase, especially after 2016, suggests a significant deterioration in conditions or a greater propensity to report. In this regard, a study by Infante Rodríguez-Pena and Cubillos (2024) concluded that in Aysén there is a disconnect between school structures and their interpersonal systems, suggesting that education professionals should develop skills to initiate reflective processes that stabilise compassionate responses within the organisation.

In contrast, despite the general upward trend, some regions show fluctuations and decreases in certain periods, which could be related to local initiatives, intervention policies or changes in the population studied.

On the other hand, although rural schools usually have a higher number of incidents of violence (Seo et al., 2022), the present study found that the highest number of reports were in urban educational centres. This suggests that these communities have particular characteristics that make them more susceptible to school violence, possibly due to differences in the environment, population density, and greater exposure to dynamics of violence (Valdivia-Peralta et al., 2018).

It is important to mention that reports of situations with sexual connotations have increased in recent years, with a notable peak in 2022, which could indicate greater awareness and willingness to report such incidents, rather than an actual increase per se. This is important because, in cases of sexual violence, many people who experience or witness it often fail to react as a result of fear of reprisals (González-Gómez et al., 2016).

Finally, the analyses carried out in this research are not capable on their own of capturing the individual experiences and perceptions of students, teachers or parents, which constitutes a limitation. Nor do they allow us to identify the underlying causes of violent incidents in Chilean schools, such as the personal or cultural motives of those involved, or the interpersonal dynamics that may influence violent behaviour and the frequency of reports. That is why conducting a complementary qualitative counterpart could provide contextual and emotional details that would enrich the understanding of the phenomenon of school violence, thus exploring the specific factors that contribute to violence in different types of establishments. In addition, the inclusion of additional variables such as school size, geographical location, student demographics, migration and inequality could provide a more complete picture of the phenomenon at the micro and macro spatial levels.

However, it is important to emphasise the importance of quantitative studies, which allow large volumes of geographically and temporally distributed data to be covered, providing objective and generalisable results that support public policy decisions. Statistical tests identify correlations between demographic factors and types of establishments, which are essential for planning preventive interventions. Although qualitative approaches capture individual experiences, their national application is costly and limits representativeness, so this quantitative approach offers a broad view of school violence in Chile, with the potential for future qualitative studies.

The research carried out in this study can be considered a significant complement to pedagogical studies in Chile, the vast majority of which focus on qualitative methods. Thus, this combination of approaches is valuable because the results obtained in this study provide a structural and descriptive perspective that allows researchers and policymakers to obtain a comprehensive, data-driven view that guides more effective pedagogical and policy interventions.

References

Acosta-Pérez, P. and Cisneros-Bedón, J. (2019). The spectre of bullying in educational institutions. *CienciAmérica*, *8*(1), 74-89. https://doi.org/10.33210/ca.v8i1.207

Albaladejo-Blázquez, N., Ferrer-Cascales, R., Reig-Ferrer, A. and Fernández-Pascual, M. (2013). Does school violence exist in early childhood and primary education? A proposal for its assessment and management. *Anales de Psicología/Annals of Psychology*, *29*(3), 1060-1069. https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.29.3.158431

Álvarez-García, D., García, T., Barreiro-Collazo, A., Dobarro, A. and Antúnez, Á. (2016). Parenting style dimensions as predictors of adolescent antisocial behaviour. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 1383. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01383

Ardestani, Z. F., Saber, M., Dehghan, M., Iranpour, A., & Baniasadi, H. (2022). Teacher violence from the

perspectives of teachers and students and related factors: a survey in southern Iran. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, 942284. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.942284

Ascorra, P., Bilbao, M. Á., Gómez, G., & Morales, M. (2016). Relationship between segregation and school coexistence in Chilean schools with high PISA 2009 scores. *Universitas Psychologica*, *15*(1), 15-27.

Ascorra, P., López, V., Núñez, C. G., Bilbao, M. Á., Gómez, G., & Morales, M. (2016). Relationship between segregation and school coexistence in Chilean public schools. *Universitas Psychologica*, *15*(1), 65-78. https://doi.org/10.11144/Javeriana.upsy15-1.rsce

Benbenishty, R., & Astor, R. A. (2019). Conceptual foundations and ecological influences of school violence, bullying, and safety. In M. J. Mayer and S. R. Jimerson (Eds.), *School Safety and Violence Prevention: Science, Practice, Policy*. (pp. 19-44). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000106-002

Library of the National Congress of Chile. (n.d.). Results of territorial statistics query. Retrieved 5 December 2024, from https://www.bcn.cl/siit/estadisticasterritoriales//resultados-consulta?id=324091

Law 20.536, of 8 September 2011, on School Violence. Library of the National Congress of Chile, 17 September 2011, pp. 1–3. https://bcn.cl/2ep2w

Law 21,128, of 2018, Safe Classroom Law. Library of the National Congress of Chile, 2018, pp. 1–3. https://bcn.cl/2isns

Briceño-León, R., Villaveces, A., & Concha-Eastman, A. (2008). Understanding the uneven distribution of the incidence of homicide in Latin America. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, *37*(4), 751-757. https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyn153

Campos-Bustos, J. L. (2021). Social representations of Haitian migration in Chilean schools. *Latin American Journal of Social Sciences, Children and Youth, 20*(1), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.11600/rlcsnj.20.1.4712

Carrasco, C., López, V., & Estay, C. (2012). Critical analysis of Chile's School Violence Law. *Psicoperspectivas*, 11(2), 31-55. https://doi.org/10.5027/psicoperspectivas-Vol11-Issue2-fulltext-228

Castillo Saavedra, E. F., Bernardo Trujillo, J. V. and Medina Reyes, M. A. (2017). Gender violence and self-esteem among women in the town of Huanja-Huaraz, 2017. *Horizonte Médico (Lima)*, *18*(2), 47-52. https://doi.org/10.24265/horizmed.2018.v18n2.08

Castillo, D., Cruz-Grau, E. S. and Vega-Muñoz, A. (2018). Migrant students in Chilean public schools. *Quality in Education*, (49), 18-49. https://doi.org/10.31619/caledu.n49.575

Cedeño Sandoya, W. A. (2020). School violence through a theoretical review of various prevention programmes worldwide and in Latin America. *University and Society Journal*, *12*(5), 470-478.

Cheng, X. J. and Moses, K. (2016). Promoting transparency through information: A global review of school report cards. UNESCO- International Institute for Educational Planning. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000246358.locale=en

Contador, M. (2001). Perception of school violence among secondary school students. *Psykhe*, *10*(1), 69-80. https://redae.uc.cl/index.php/psykhe/article/view/19441

Dias, G. N., Pamplona, V. M. S., Barbosa, E. da S., Lobato, F. da S., Rodrigues, A. E., Rocha, H. O. da, Reis, C. P. dos, Souza Júnior, J. C. B. de, Pontes Leal, A. P. I., and Ramos, R. J. C. (2021). Violence, trafficking and drug use in public schools in Belém -Pará - Brazil. *International Journal for Innovation Education and Research*, *9*(5), 652-667. https://doi.org/10.31686/ijier.vol9.iss5.3133

Díaz-Aguado, M. J. (2005). Why school violence occurs and how to prevent it. *Ibero-American Journal of Education*, *37*, 17-47. https://doi.org/10.35362/rie370838

Estévez, E. L., Inglés, C. J., Emler, N., Martínez-Monteagudo, M. C., & Torregrosa, M. S. (2012). Analysis of the relationship between victimisation and school violence: the role of antisocial reputation. *Psychosocial Intervention, 21*(1), 53-65. https://doi.org/10.5093/in2012v21n1a3

Fawole, O. I., Balogun, O. D., & Olaleye, O. (2018). Experience of gender-based violence to students in public and private secondary schools in Ilorin, Nigeria. Ghana Medical Journal, 52(2), 66–73. https://doi.org/10.4314/gmj.v52i2.1

Galdames, A. M., & Pezoa, C. (2016). Violence towards secondary school teachers in the Metropolitan Region of Chile. *Rumbos TS. A critical space for reflection in Social Sciences*, (14), 155-172.

Gallardo, M. E. A., Contreras, A. U. and Suárez, M. Á. S. (2023). Prevention of bullying in schools in the Principality of Asturias: families' perceptions. *Educatio Siglo XXI*, *41*(1), 129-146.

https://doi.org/10.6018/educatio.508031

Garay, R. M. V., Ávila, M. E. E., & Martínez, B. (2013). School violence: an analysis from different contexts of interaction. *Psychosocial Intervention, 22*(1), 25-32. https://doi.org/10.5093/in2013a4

García, M. and Madriaza, P. (2005). The meaning and meaninglessness of school violence: a qualitative analysis of the discourse of Chilean students. *Psykhe* (Santiago), *14*(1), 165-180. http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-22282005000100013

García, M. and Madriaza, P. (2006). Qualitative study of the determinants of school violence in Chile. *Estudos de Psicologia (Natal), 11*, 247-256. https://doi.org/10.1590/S1413-294X2006000300001

González-Moreno, A. and Molero-Jurado, M. D. M. (2023). Prosocial behaviours and school violence in adolescence: a systematic review with a qualitative approach. Theory of Education. *Interuniversity Journal*, *35*(1), 143-166. https://doi.org/10.14201/teri.28629

Gómez-Ortiz, O., Rey, R. D., Casas, J. A., & Ortega-Ruíz, R. (2014). Parenting styles and bullying involvement. *Culture and Education*, *26*(1), 132–158. https://doi.org/10.1080/11356405.2014.908665

Guajardo, G. (2022). Violence based on skin colour in primary education in Chile: the problem of the meaning of action? *Revista Chilena De Antropología*, (45), 25-46. https://doi.org/10.5354/0719-1472.2022.67728

Guerra Vio, C., Álvarez-García, D., Dobarro González, A., Núñez Pérez, J. C., Castro Arancibia, L., & Vargas Castro, J. (2011). School violence among secondary school students in Valparaíso (Chile): comparison with a Spanish sample. *Ibero-American Journal of Psychology and Health, 2*(1), 75-98

Guerra Vio, C., Vargas Castro, J., Castro Arancibia, L., Plaza Villarroel, H., and Barrera Montes, P. (2012). Perception of the school climate among secondary school students in Valparaíso from municipal, subsidised private, and private schools. *Pedagogical Studies (Valdivia), 38*(2), 103-115. http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-07052012000200007

Herrera, P., Sances, C., and Tijmes, C. (2019). School violence and bullying. In T. Sota and D. Melero (eds), *School coexistence for educational leaders*. (pp. 125-142). Cedle.

Huesca, O. S. (2020). Documentary analysis of bullying using conceptual mapping from socioformation. Religación *Revista de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades*, *5*(23), 155-162. https://doi.org/10.46652/rgn.v5i23.609

Infante Rodríguez-Peña, B. and Cubillos Romo, J. (2024). What do we need for schools to teach coexistence? Training deficiencies in managing school coexistence among teachers and administrators in the Aysén Region. *Revista Enfoques Educacionales*, *21*(1), 184-216. http://dx.doi.org/10.5354/2735-7279.2024.71598

National Institute of Statistics. (2017). *2017 Census: Final results*. Government of Chile. http://resultados.censo2017.cl/Home/Download

International Business Machines Corporation (IBM). (2023). *IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows version 29.0.2.0* [Computer software]. IBM

Jaureguizar, J. and Ibabe, I. (2012). Violent behaviour by adolescents towards authority figures: the mediating role of antisocial behaviour. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 27(1), 7-24. https://doi.org/10.1174/021347412798844088

Lamula-Mthanti, B. (2023). A new phenomenon of learner-on-educator violence: a case of two secondary schools in Umlazi Township, Durban. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science (2147-4478), 12*(3), 483–491. https://doi.org/10.20525/ijrbs.v12i3.2418

López, V., Bilbao, M., & Rodríguez, J. I. (2011a). The classroom does matter: the impact of classroom climate on perceptions of intimidation and victimisation among schoolchildren. *Universitas Psychologica*, *11*(1), 91-101. https://doi.org/10.11144/javeriana.upsy11-1.scii

López, V., Carrasco, C., Morales, M., Ayala, Á., López, J., and Karmy, M. (2011b). Individualising school violence: analysis of discursive practices in a municipal school in the Valparaíso region. *Psykhe (Santiago)*, *20*(2), 7-23. https://doi.org/10.4067/s0718-22282011000200002

López, V., Ortiz, S. and Alburquerque, F. (2020). The judicialisation of school coexistence within the framework of the Chilean education quality assurance system: the case of school complaints. *Praxis Educativa*, *15*, 1-22. https://doi.org/10.5212/praxeduc.v.15.15452.075

Madriaza, P. (2008). School violence in Chile. In C. Guajardo (Ed.), *Security and prevention: the situation in Argentina, Chile and Uruguay during 2007* (pp. 114-139). Alberto Hurtado University, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime.

Magendzo, A. K., Toledo, M. I. J., & Gutiérrez, V. G. (2013). Description and analysis of the Law on School Violence (N 20.536): two opposing paradigms. *Pedagogical studies (Valdivia)*, *39*(1), 377-391. http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-07052013000100022

Maldonado González, A. L., González Gaudiano, E. J., & Cajigal Molina, E. (2019). Social representations and epistemological beliefs. Convergent concepts in social research. *Culture and Social Representations, 13*(26), 412-432. https://doi.org/10.28965/2019-26-15

Maldonado, C. O. and González, R. S. (2019). School oversight in Chile: initial evidence on regulatory adjustments in municipal and subsidised private schools *RIDE. Ibero-American Journal for Educational Research and Development*, *9*(18), 275-301. https://doi.org/10.23913/ride.v9i18.424

Márquez, D. P. P., Alvarado, J. I. U., Torres-López, T. M., and Tena, R. O. (2021). Student violence against teachers. Case study in a public secondary school in the state of Jalisco. *Dialogues on Education*, (24), 1-25. https://doi.org/10.32870/dse.vi24.1049

Medina, D. C. M. and Paredes, D. A. S. (2021). School violence among adolescents: a systematic review. *Revista de Investigación Enlace Universitario*, *20*(2), 10-24. http://doi.org/10.33789/enlace.20.2.93Mella., S. C., and Paz-Maldonado, E. (2022). Migrant students in Chilean schools. *Ucmaule Journal*, (63), 56-80. https://doi.org/10.29035/ucmaule.63.56

Moscoso-Flores, P., Azócar, P., & Jert, A. (2022). Cartography of violences in municipal schools of Santiago, Chile. A situated case study. *Culture and Education*, *34*(2), 325–368. https://doi.org/10.1080/11356405.2022.2032983

Muñoz Quezada, M. T., Saavedra, E., & Villalta, M. (2007). Perceptions and meanings of coexistence and school violence among fourth-year students at a municipal secondary school in Chile. *Revista de Pedagogía*, *28*(82), 197-224.

Neut, P. (2017). School violence in the Chilean educational setting. Critical analysis of the state of the art. *Quality in Education*, *46*, 222-247. http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-45652017000100222

Office of Agricultural Studies and Policies (n.d.). *Rurality in Chile.* Ministry of Agriculture, Government of Chile. https://www.odepa.gob.cl/dpto-desarrollo-rural/herramientas/ruralidad-en-chile

Otero, G., Carranza, R., & Contreras, D. (2021). Spatial divisions of poverty and wealth: does segregation affect educational achievement? *Socio-Economic Review*, *21*(1), 617-641. https://doi.org/10.1093/SER/MWAB022

Pacheco-Salazar, B. (2015). Reflections on the failure to address diversity as violence in schools. *Science and Society*, *40*(4), 663-684. https://doi.org/10.22206/cys.2015.v40i4.pp663-684

Pacheco-Salazar, B. (2018). School violence: the perspective of students and teachers. *Electronic Journal of Educational Research*, *20*(1), 112-121. https://doi.org/10.24320/redie.2018.20.1.1523

Pacheco-Salazar, B. and López-Yáñez, J. (2019). "She provoked it": the gender approach to understanding school violence. *Journal of Educational Research*, *37*(2), 363-378. https://doi.org/10.6018/rie.37.2.321371

Pelletier, E. and Manna, P. (2017). Learning in Harm's Way: Neighbourhood Violence, Inequality, and American Schools. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *674*(1), 217-239. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716217734802

Poblete Melis, R., Ramírez Muñoz, F., and Galaz Valderrama, C. (2021). Bullying of trans children in Chilean schools and its effects on dissident bodies. *Educational Profiles*, *43*(173), 8-20. https://doi.org/10.22201/iisue.24486167e.2021.173.59942

Priotto, E. P. and Boneti, L. W. (2009). School violence: in school, from school and against school. *Revista Diálogo Educacional*, 9(26), 161–179.

Pundir, P., Saran, A., White, H., Adona, J., & Subrahmanian, R. (2019). Protocol: the effectiveness of interventions for reducing violence against children: an evidence and gap map in low- and middle-income countries. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, *15*(3), e1040. https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1040

Rojas-Andrade, R., López Leiva, V., Varela, J. J., Soto García, P., Álvarez, J. P., & Ramirez, M. T. (2024). Feasibility, acceptability, and appropriability of a national whole-school programme for reducing school violence and improving school coexistence. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *15*, 1395990. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1395990

Román, M. S., & Murillo, F. J. (2011). Latin America: Violence among students and school performance. *CEPAL Review*, *2011*(104), 37-54. https://doi.org/10.18356/8d74b985-es

Saavedra, E., and Cifuentes, J. (2016). Resilience, sexism and intimate partner violence among secondary school students in the Maule region, Chile. Science, Culture and Society, 3(1), 19–31. https://doi.org/10.5377/ccs.v3i1.2959

Seo, C., Kruis, N., and Park, S. (2022). School Violence and Safety Policies and Practices in Urban and Rural Communities: Does Location Matter? *International Journal of Rural Criminology*, 6(2), 273–297. https://doi.org/10.18061/ijrc.v6i2.8341

Superintendency of Education (n.d.). *National Policy on School Coexistence*. https://www.supereduc.cl/denuncias-ingresadas/

Tijmes, C. (2012). Violence and school climate in educational establishments in contexts of high social vulnerability in Santiago, Chile. *Psykhe (Santiago)*, *21*(2), 105-117.

Valdivia-Peralta, M., Fonseca-Pedrero, E., Bravo, L. G., & Piñeiro, M. P. (2018). Invisibility of dating violence in Chile: evidence from empirical research. *Perfiles Latinoamericanos*, 27(54), 1-31. https://doi.org/10.18504/pl2754-012-2019

Traducido con **DeepL**