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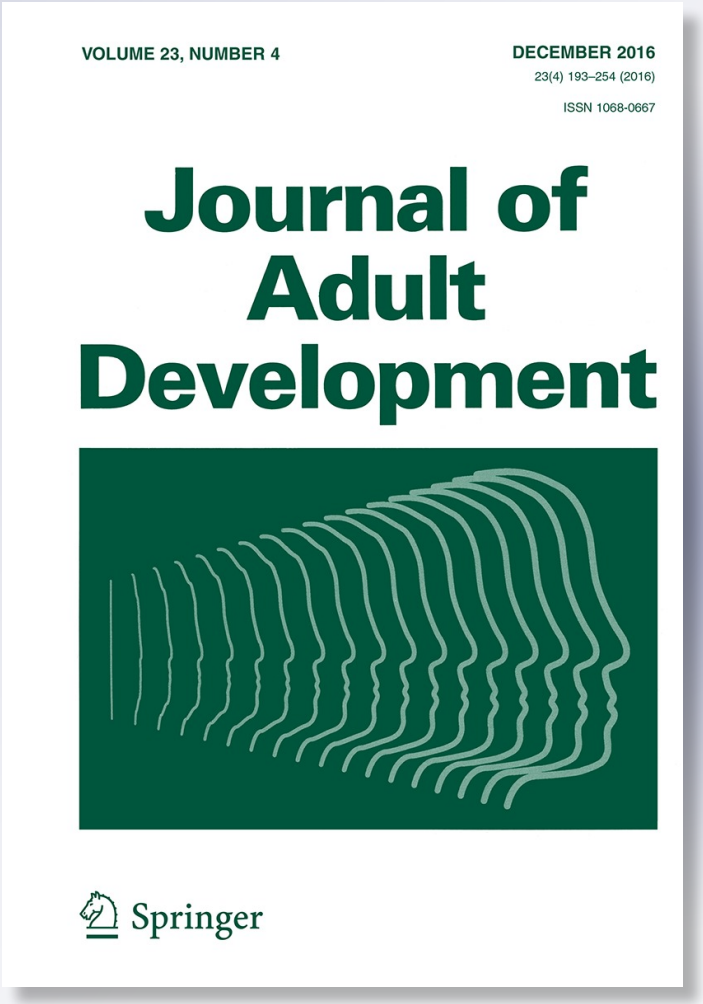
Journal of Adult Development

ISSN 1068-0667
Volume 23
Number 4

J Adult Dev (2016) 23:245-253
DOI 10.1007/s10804-016-9240-y



Springer

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DOI 10.1007/s10804-016-9240-y

Enhancement of Emotional Intelligence, Family Communication, and Family Satisfaction Via a Parent Educational Program

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Published online: 24 August 2016

Abstract In this study, 156 participants were tested before and after attending an 8- to 10-week parent educational program to check if their scores on general EI, perspective taking anger expression, family communication, and family satisfaction changed. Also, the study aimed to explore how individual factors (i.e., age, educational status, number of children, etc.) as well as general and specific EI skills are related to family communication and satisfaction and if the educational intervention modified their relationships. Results showed that on the completion of the educational intervention, parents had a modest improvement in family communication and satisfaction, and emotional intelligence, and a limited enhancement of perspective taking and anger expression. The main effects of parents' age, educational level, and number of children were not significant for any of the variables tested. Also, no statistically significant differences were found between the group of parents attending the program for the first time and the group who had attended similar programs more than once. Finally, emotional intelligence was identified as a mediating variable, which partly explained the relationship of anger expression with family communication and family satisfaction, whereas it fully mediated the relationship of perspective taking with the two family-related variables.

Keywords Emotional intelligence · School for parents · Educational intervention · Family communication

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Introduction

One of the reasons emotional intelligence (EI) has become so popular nowadays is the belief that it can be improved via interventions, such as training or educational programs. Many of these programs (such as "School for Parents") address parents of school-aged children with the aim of improving various general (e.g., emotion regulation and management) or specific EI skills (e.g., empathy, stress management, and emotions expression), in hope that this will enhance their family relations and functioning and avert problems and dysfunctions (Sanders et al. 2000).

"School for Parents" is a non-formal adult education program of group counseling aiming at offering advice, information, and support to parents in their effort to raise their children, and improving the quality of family life (Konstadinidis et al. 2008). Specifically, "School for Parents" is designed to help parents on matters such as: (a) improvement in their communication skills (e.g., listening and assertiveness), (b) extension of their knowledge regarding their children's developing mental, social, and intellectual needs, as well as on issues of crucial importance to their children's upbringing (such as preventing addictions, learning difficulties, and sexual education), and (c) enhancement of parents' emotional skills and competences (such as empathy and anger management) (Gibbs et al. 2003).

Although educational programs, such as "School for Parents," aiming at enhancing EI skills are very popular and widely applied, research evidence regarding the actual effects on the targeted dimensions and the grid of variables lying behind their effectiveness on family relations is limited (Gibbs et al. 2003; Kaminski et al. 2008). The present study aims to contribute to this under-researched area.

Emotional Intelligence

In the last 30 years, EI has been receiving great attention both in the scientific and the popular literature. As a result, a number of theoretical models have been proposed to describe and measure EI. Most of them include a number of general and specific emotional and/or social skills. Petrides and Furnham (2001) categorized them into two types, the ability and the trait EI models. The former type concerns actual abilities and is measured with maximum-performance tests, while the latter encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities, and it is measured with self-reports. For example, in their ability-based model, Mayer and colleagues describe EI as "a type of social intelligence, which involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among these emotions and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Mayer and Salovey 1993, p. 433). This model includes four emotional ability branches: perception of emotions, reasoning with (or using) emotions, understanding of emotions, and managing emotions (Mayer et al. 2001). Bar-On's (2000) mixed model of emotional and social intelligence incorporates an array of personal, emotional and social competences, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (e.g., assertiveness, self-regard, empathy, interpersonal relationship, social responsibility, flexibility, stress tolerance, and impulse control). Finally, Goleman (1998), in his mixed model of EI, describes EI as a constellation of abilities and traits embedded in four categories: self-awareness (emotional regulation and assessment, self-confidence), social awareness (empathy, social orientation), self-management (self-control, adaptability, achievement drive, and initiative), and relational management (inspirational leadership, influence, conflict management).

In the present study, three EI measurements (one general and two specific) were obtained with self-reports: (a) overall EI, (b) perspective taking, which is a component of empathy pertaining to cognitive processes and reflects a tendency or ability of the respondent to adopt the perspective or point of view of other people (Davis 1983), and (c) anger expression. Empathy is closely related to EI, and many models include it to the main EI components (Ioannidou and Konstandinaki, 2008). Regarding anger, research has shown that individuals with low EI have greater tendency to express internal and external anger (both as state and trait) compared to individuals with high EI. On the other hand, those with higher EI are more successful in controlling their anger and are more adaptive (Khodayarifard Fard et al. 2013).

Research has shown that highly developed EI skills have significant implications for a number of human behaviors in academic, personal, social, or occupational settings; for example, high EI is associated with good relationships (Frederickson et al. 2012), efficiency in coping with problems and difficulties (Mikolajczak and Luminet 2008), with lower levels of anxiety and depression (Bastian et al. 2005), and job-related overstress (Platsidou 2010; Platsidou and Salman 2012). The above provide a convincing argument for teaching the relevant skills in children and adults. According to several researchers (Bar-On 2000; Goleman 1998; Mayer et al. 2000; Zeidner et al. 2003), EI can be improved through education, training, or experience. As a result, a variety of programs have been designed aiming at developing EI of student and adult populations.

At the same time, there is much skepticism regarding the effectiveness and value of EI programs. First, in many cases, the positive outcomes noted right after the program were significantly reduced some months later. In addition, the program evaluation is often conducted by the same person(s) who designed and carried out the program. This raises methodological issues regarding the objectivity and integrity of the evaluation process. Finally, control groups are rarely part of the evaluation plan; as a consequence, changes in participants' EI levels cannot be attributed with certainty to the effectiveness of the program (Nelis et al. 2009).

Working place and education, both formal and nonformal, are the main domains where numerous programs aiming to improve EI skills take place. However, a search of the EI literature reveals that very few EI programs have been evaluated for their outcomes. A review of those studies reveals that several emotional abilities and habits can be effectively improved, even using a relatively short training (Boyatzis 2007; Dacre Pool and Qualter 2012), and positive changes can be long lasting (Nelis et al. 2009). However, the same studies suggested that other aspects of EI may not be improved.

Regarding the methods used by such programs, Low and Nelson (2005) argue that in order to develop EI skills, educational programs should include practice, experience-based methods, and assessment. Likewise, Goroshit and Hen (2012) showed that EI can be improved in the traditional classroom, by employing experiential teaching methods. In "School for Parents," education is extensively based on experiential methods, as has been mentioned earlier.

Family Communication and Satisfaction

Family communication is the way verbal and nonverbal information is exchanged between family members; this is greatly important as it enables members to share their

needs, desires, and concerns, and resolve their problems and difficulties (Epstein et al. 1993; Peterson and Green 2009). As Olson and his colleagues point out in their three-part circumplex model of marital and family systems (Olson et al. 1983; Olson and DeFrain 2000), if a family has good communication skills (communication dimension), they are more likely to be close (cohesion dimension) and be able to work out problems when they arise (adaptability dimension). Family communication is an important part of family functioning which, in turn, is determinant for children's emotional and social development (Manuel 2002). Research evidence suggests that parent–adolescent communication impacts family functioning and adolescents' psychosocial well-being (Shek 2000). Open communication facilitates healthy family functioning, as it creates an environment of positive change, understanding, and growth, whereas a lack of communication inhibits the family's ability to change when needed (Olson 2000; Olson et al. 1983).

Family satisfaction reflects the degree to which family members feel happy and fulfilled with each other (Olson and Wilson 1982). Studies in adult and adolescent samples have found a strong link between communication patterns and satisfaction with family relationships (Noller and Fitzpatrick 1990). Positive family communication (e.g., expressiveness) is associated with high family satisfaction, while structural traditionalism and conflict avoidance are inversely related to family satisfaction. In sum, family communication is determined as a major predictor of family satisfaction (Akhlaq et al. 2013).

Research has shown that EI relates to positive family qualities, for example, conversation orientation (vs. conformity), parental warmth, and affection (vs. discipline) (Alegre and Benson 2010; Keaten and Kelly 2008) as well as marital satisfaction (Agha Mohammad et al. 2012; Brackett et al. 2005). Specifically, it seems that factors such as emotional awareness, emotional expression, emotional regulation, and sympathy affect marriage communication and quality (Olson 2000). Based on these, it is plausible that both general EI and specific EI abilities, such as empathy (e.g., perspective taking) and emotion expression (such as anger), may determine the quality and degree of family communication and satisfaction.

Aims of the Study

In view of the above, this study aimed at contributing to the existing literature by exploring, first, whether parents' EI, perspective taking (an empathy dimension), anger expression, family communication, and family satisfaction can change as a result of attending a parent training program such as "School for Parents." Based on relevant findings, it is assumed that proper training of emotional and social skills for sufficient period of time may improve not only EI skills, but also family communication and satisfaction. Second, the study aimed to explore how individual differences factors (i.e., age, educational status, number of children, etc.) as well as general and specific EI skills are related to family communication and satisfaction and if the educational intervention affected their relationships.

Methods

Participants

To meet our research goal, we tested parents who were regular attendants of "Schools for Parents" for 8–10 2-h weekly sessions. The study had a quasi-experimental design, as participants were asked to complete the same series of self-report questionnaires at the beginning and at the end of their training program, that is, 8–10 weeks later. On the completion of this procedure, 156 paired samples of parents were obtained.

Most of our participants were females (94.2 %), as mothers rather than fathers are likely to participate in such parent training programs. Our sample's age varied from 27 to 52 years, with a mean of 39, 14 (SD = 5.23). Most of them were married (90.4 %), and the rest were single, divorced, or widowed. The majority (62.2 %) had two children, some had one (20.5 %), few had three (12.2 %), and very few had 4–5 children (4.4 %). Out of the 156, 103 (66 %) participants attended "School for Parents" for the first time, whereas 53 (34 %) had attended similar programs in the past.

Research Instruments

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

This inventory was developed by Schutte et al. (1998) to measure EI based on the four EI dimensions described by Mayer et al.'s model (2001): emotion perception, utilizing emotions, managing self-relevant emotions, and managing others' emotions. It contains 33 self-report items, and it uses a 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) scale for responses.

Perspective Taking (PT)

This subscale is part of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis 1980) and measures the extent to which individuals spontaneously try to adopt others' points of view. It consists of six items using a 5-point Likert scale for responding.

State–Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI)

It was developed by Spielberger (1988) to assess intensity of anger at a particular moment and frequency of anger experience, expression, and control. The original inventory comprises 44 items, but in the present study, the Greek version of the STAXI was used (adjusted and standardized by Anagnostopoulou and Kioseoglou, 2002), which consists of 24 items rated on a 4-point frequency scale. After few item scores were reversed, so as all higher scores indicated higher anger expression, a mean of all item scores was computed.

Family Communication Scale (FCS)

The FCS is a revised version of the parent–adolescent communication scale (Barnes and Olson, 1989). It was developed by Olson and Barnes (1996) to assess the degree to which family members feel unconstrained and satisfied with communication in their family. It consists of ten self-referencing statements, which participants are asked to rate using a 5-point scale.

Family Satisfaction Scale (FSS)

It was developed by Olson (1995) to assess how satisfied family members are with the functioning of their family. The scale assesses satisfaction of family members in regard to family cohesion, flexibility, and communication using a 10-item format rated on a 5-point scale.

For each inventory, a mean score of all of its items was computed. Higher mean scores indicated higher overall EI, perspective taking, anger expression, family communication, and satisfaction with their family, respectively.

The "School for Parents" Program

Although it first emerged in the 1970s, the "School for Parents" assumed an organized form during the last two decades (Bechraki 2002). Today the "School for Parents" constitutes an institution (i.e., an assembly of principles and guidelines for short-term parent education on issues pertaining to the parental role) rather than a specific training program. This type of education can be provided by various public or private institutes and local authorities, such as municipalities, and it offers free of charge short-term education to parents of school-age children. The most common providers are the National Institute of Continuing Adult Education and Training and the Centers for Addiction Prevention and Psychosocial Health Promotion, which cover almost all prefectures in the country. In the present study, only parents who attended the "School for Parents" programs organized by the above institutes were recruited.

Regardless of who the provider is, two main axes underlie and govern the structure and the operation of every "School for Parents" program, which are set by the International Federation for the Education of Parents. They concern (a) information and guidance for parents and (b) formation of appropriate attitudes and behaviors, and aim at helping parents fulfill their parenting role (Bechraki 2002). More specifically, in such programs, parents are trained in issues related to: (a) improving communication between family members as well as family and school communication; (b) improving parental knowledge of the mental, emotional, social, spiritual as well as various other needs of children at each stage of development, (c) developing the emotional and social skills of a parent, such as empathy and encouragement, in order to improve the latter's ability to figure out and cope with difficult situations and behaviors in his/her family, and (d) raising sensitivity in specific issues, such as learning disabilities, addictive behaviors, use of ICT, sexual education, bullying (Konstadinidis et al. 2008).

As regards the operation of "School for Parents," each group usually consists of 10–15 parents who meet weekly for 1.5–2 h over a period of time varying between 3 and 9 months. In the current study, programs lasted for about 20 h. One of the principles guiding the operation of the program is to create a bonding between group members. Therefore, new members are not welcome to join in after the second or third meeting (Bechraki 2002). Psychologists, social workers, or sociologists usually act as coordinators and facilitators of the group.

The methodology typically used is that of experiential teaching and learning (experiential learning, learning by doing/participating), which is based on the work of Kolb (1984). In other words, transmission of knowledge and training outcomes is based on the active involvement of participants in the learning process. In the light of the above, the methods, techniques, and exercises used in the "School for Parents" include role-playing, case studies, discussion in pairs, small groups or the whole group, drama, free association, feedback, and exercises based on simulating various family events and situations rather than lectures and seminars.

Results

In this study, a number of emotion-related variables, such as EI, perspective taking (a component of empathy), and anger expression, as well as family-related variables, such as communication and satisfaction within a family, were assessed twice in participants attending "School for Parents". Table 1 presents the reliability estimates for the scales administered at the beginning and at the end of the

Table 1 Cronbach's α reliability indices

Measurements	Beginning of program	End of program
SSEIT	.85	.90
PT	.59	.66
STAXI	.88	.88
FCS	.92	.91
FSS	.84	.86

program. Evidently, internal consistency of all measurements was very good, with one exception: the perspective taking scale had adequate reliability indices, probably due to the small number of items (six).

To investigate whether the measurements of the above variables obtained at the beginning and at the end of the training program differed, a series of paired sample *t* test was performed. Results showed that, at the end of the program, participants reported (statistically significantly) improved levels of all measured variables (see Table 2); effect–size estimations (Cohen's d) indicated low effect of the educational intervention for the PT and STAXI and low to moderate effect for the SSEIT, FCA, and FSS scales. Results suggest that educational intervention had a modest effect on improving parents' family communication and family satisfaction, as well as their EI, and a limited effect on perspective taking and anger expression.

Our second aim was to find out how the individual differences factors and the emotion-related skills assessed in this study relate to parents reports on their family communication and satisfaction. As regard the individual differences, analysis of variance showed that main effects of parents' age, educational level, and number of children were not significant for any of the variables tested, including family communication and family satisfaction. Also, no statistically significant differences were found between the group of parents attending "School for Parents" for the first time and the group who had attended similar programs more than once.

Next, correlations of parents' family communication and family satisfaction scores with their EI, perspective taking, and anger expression scores obtained (a) at the beginning and (b) at the end of the program were estimated. Table 3a, b reveals that all correlations are significant and sizable, with EI presenting the highest correlations with all variables. We assumed that some of these correlations may be spurious, due to the effect of EI (as a mediating variable) on the other emotion-related variables. Therefore, we performed partial correlation analysis to measure the degree of the associations between the above variables after removing the effect of EI. *Partial r* (presented in italics in Table 3a, b) shows that, in measures obtained both at the beginning and at the end of the program, only anger expression (and not perspective taking) correlates significantly with family communication ($r_{beginning} = .400$, $r_{end} = .323$) and family satisfaction ($r_{beginning} = .452$, $r_{end} = .285$). In other words, EI, as a mediating variable, partly explained the relationship of anger expression with family communication and family satisfaction, whereas it fully mediated the relationship of perspective taking with the two family-related variables.

Discussion

In this study, 156 participants were tested before and after attending an 8–10-week "School for Parents" program to check if their scores on general EI and specific emotional-related skills, such as perspective taking and anger expression, as well as family communication and family satisfaction changed. Firstly, internal consistency of the measured variables was tested; results showed a very satisfactory reliability for most scales and an acceptable reliability for the perspective taking scale, both in the beginning and at the end of the educational program. These confirm prior evidence which indicated high internal consistency for the SSEIT (Platsidou 2010), the STAXI (Bishop and Quah 1998; Spielberger 1988), the FCS and the FSC (Koutra et al. 2012; Olson 2011; Olson et al. 2007). Also, previous studies have found acceptable to good reliability coefficients for the perspective taking subscale of the IRI (Davis 1980; Fernández et al. 2011). In the light of the above, it is ascertained that the specific scales are reliable for measuring EI, anger expression, family communication and satisfaction, and anger expression, respectively, in our Greek sample.

Table 2 Means (and standard deviations) and statistical indexes of paired sample *t* test

Measurements	Beginning of program	End of program	*F*	*P*	Cohen's d
SSEIT	3.71 (.36)	3.79 (.38)	12.33	.000	−.22
PT	3.61 (.55)	3.69 (.56)	4.50	.036	−.14
STAXI	3.41 (.36)	3.45 (.37)	4.85	.029	−.11
FCS	3.84 (.63)	3.99 (.57)	19.11	.000	−.25
FSS	3.74 (.65)	3.89 (.59)	14.25	.000	−.24

Table 3 Correlations and partial correlations (in *italics*) after controlling for emotional intelligence in measures obtained (a) at the beginning and (b) at the end of the program

	Emotional intelligence	Perspective taking	Anger expression	Family communication
(a)				
Perspective taking	.509**			
Anger expression	.495**	.457**		
		*.274**		
Family communication	.610**	.446**	.577**	
		*.199**	*.400***	
Family satisfaction	.538**	.381**	.597**	.851**
		.147	*.452***	*.783***
(b)				
Perspective taking	.477**			
Anger expression	.522**	.475**		
		*.302***		
Family communication	.598**	.428**	.533**	
		.203	*.323***	
Family satisfaction	.629**	.402**	.518**	.858**
		.149	*.285***	*.763***

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Positive Outcomes After "School for Parents" Attendance

The first hypothesis tested in the present study was that parents' EI, perspective taking, anger expression, family communication, and family satisfaction would be improved after attending the "School for Parents" program. Results indicate that all variables were significantly improved at the end of the program. The effect of the educational intervention was higher for the family communication, the family satisfaction and the overall EI scales than for the perspective taking and the anger expression scales. These results are very encouraging, as they imply a positive impact of the training program on the above variables. However, the lack of a control group, namely, parents that would not attend any kind of parent educational program but would be tested at the same amount of time, prevents us from drawing safe conclusions regarding the causal effect of the educational intervention. That is, although significant positive changes have been noticed after attending the educational program, they cannot be attributed with certainty to the effectiveness of the program. This is a weakness of many studies aiming at evaluating programs seeking to improve skills such as general or specific EI skills (Nelis et al. 2009). In our case, this limitation is attributed to practical reasons, as it is not easy to follow for a 8–10-weeks time adults who are parents of school-aged children, unless they are part of an organized group such as a parent education program.

Even so, our preliminary findings imply that an educational program such as "School for Parents" may contribute in improving parents' EI and related skills, such as perspective taking and anger management, as well as in enhancing communication and satisfaction among family members. Positive communication is believed to facilitate healthy family functioning, whereas a lack of communication is believed to inhibit the family's ability to change when needed (Olson 2000; Olson et al. 1983). Evidence has shown that family environment and functioning are determinant factors in children's emotional and social development (Manuel 2002). Family environment includes dimensions such as emotion expressiveness and emotion control, achievement orientation, and styles of raising the children (Charalampous et al. 2013; Moos and Moos 2002). Family functioning refers to the quality of interactions among family members; cohesion, adaptability, and communication are the key dimensions along which a family may be characterized as being more or less functioning (Koutra et al. 2012). Given the above, any means (e.g., program, method, and endeavor) that may have any contribution to improving family environment, functioning, and communication, and thus result in higher satisfaction among family members, is highly valued.

Relations of Parents' Demographic Factors with Family Communication and Satisfaction

The second aim of this study was to explore how parents individual factors (such as age, educational status, number

of children, and previous attendance of the program), as well as their general and specific EI skills are related to family communication and satisfaction; also we aimed at testing weather the relationships noted between the above variables were the same before and after the educational intervention. It was found that none of the aforementioned individual factors was significantly related to family communication and satisfaction, either at the beginning or in the end of the program. In other words, it seems that demographic characteristics such as parents' age and educational status and family size do not interact crucially with family communication and satisfaction; rather, research has shown that other factors, such as styles of raising the children, emotional skills, family relationships, affect the quality of family communicational and satisfaction (Charalampous et al. 2013; Olson 2000).

Interestingly, those parents who had attended the "School for Parents" more than once in the past did not report higher family communication and satisfaction compared to those who attended it for the first time. Further research is needed in order to determine the explanation of this finding; for example, one possible interpretation may have to do with the duration and endurance of positive changes. In many cases, improvements in variables tested have been noticed immediately or shortly after the end of the training program, but long-term improvements either have not been tested for or were not retained. In the present study, it cannot be concluded if parents who had attended "School of Parents" in the past did not retain the positive outcomes few months or years later, or if the lack of significant differences between them and the subgroup of parents who attended the program for the first time is due to sampling. In general, investigation of longevity of the positive outcomes constitutes a common limitation of studies aiming at evaluating such interventions (Nelis et al. 2009), so future research needs to address this issue.

Finally, it must be noted that 94.2 % of the parents participating in this study were female; consequently, the question of whether these results can be generalized for male participants is put forward. However, a common finding in the international literature is that participants in parenting programs are predominantly mothers, mostly middle class, while only few parent education programs attract fathers (Hendricks and Balakrishanan 2005; Konstadinidis et al. 2012). As earlier studies have shown, participation in the "School for Parents" falls into the same pattern. For example, in the Konstadinidis et al. (2012) study, the percentage of women enrolled was 92.9 %. As Moran et al. (2004) point out, most parenting program evaluation studies contain insufficient numbers of men, making it very difficult to draw firm conclusions about what works for fathers.

In the present study, the high female participation in parent education programs as opposed to the lack of participation or lack of interest of the fathers may be attributed to the strong prejudices regarding gender roles and responsibilities within the family. Specifically, the convictions that mothers should be more concerned, insightful, and accountable for children's upbringing than fathers and that the former are responsible for the family coherence and psychological well-being are still dominant in the Greek society. As a result, mothers are more willing to participate in the "School for Parents" while fathers' participation is restricted. However, the involvement of fathers in such programs is equally important. Participation by only one parent may cause problems in the family, as conflicts are likely to arise from the issues discussed about the upbringing of the children in the "School for Parents" (Moran et al. 2004). The need to make greater attempts to engage fathers (e.g., to redesign programs to increase father involvement) comes through strongly in the research literature (Hendricks and Balakrishanan 2005).

Relations of Emotion-Related Skills with Family Communication and Satisfaction

Furthermore, all correlations between EI, perspective taking, anger expression, family communication and family satisfaction were significant both at the beginning and in the end of the educational program; as shown all these variables were moderately to highly correlated. These findings were anticipated based on previous evidence regarding, for example, the relations of EI to empathy and anger expression (Schutte et al. 1998); these findings suggest that individuals with higher overall EI are better in taking the perspective of another person (which is a component of empathy) and in controlling their anger expression. Moreover, higher general EI and specific emotion-related skills are related to more efficient family communication and higher satisfaction among family members. These findings extend prior evidence regarding the positive role of EI to marital satisfaction (Agha Mohammad et al. 2012; Brackett et al. 2005) to include the whole family network. In other words, the efficiency with which family members perceive, regulate, and manage their own and other people's emotions is closely related to the quality of their family life.

To investigate more thoroughly the correlations mentioned above, we performed a partial correlation analysis. After controlling for overall EI, correlations of family communication and satisfaction with anger expression were reduced in size but remained significant, whereas with perspective taking were not significant any more (in all cases but one). This means that overall EI fully mediates the relationship of perspective taking with the two family-related variables, and it partially mediates their relationship with anger expression. A previous study by Keaten and

Kelly (2008) has also revealed the importance of EI in the family context; it has shown that the relationship between family communication and renitence is mediated by EI. These findings suggest that, in order to improve family communication and family satisfaction, it is advised to train general EI rather than just specific EI skills.

In conclusion, despite the aforementioned limitations, the present study brings to light the role of parents' EI in improving the quality of family life. The consequences of its results for children's rearing can be accumulative. As many experts claim (e.g., Goleman 1998; Gottman and DeClaire 1997), parents who engage in teaching their children to understand and manage their emotions are more likely to raise children with better academic performance, social competence, interpersonal relationships, and psychological wellbeing.

Acknowledgments This study was funded by the Research Committee of the University of Macedonia (program of Basic Research Promotion).

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