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Examining the Relationship Between Parental Bond and Emotional Intelligence in Shaping Adults' Perception of Romantic Relationships.

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Parental relationship dynamics significantly shape young adults' psychological and emotional development, influencing their emotional intelligence (EI) and perceptions of romantic relationships. This study examines the interplay between parental relationship behaviours and young adults' ability to understand, regulate, and express emotions, as well as their expectations and attitudes toward romantic relationships. Method: In the present study, the Parent Adult Child Relationship questionnaire, Relationship belief Inventory and Schutte self-report emotional intelligence test were used. Correlational analysis was employed to analyse the relationships between the variables. Result: The result of the present study shows a significant positive correlation among parental relationship, emotional intelligence and romantic relationship. Conclusion: Preliminary findings suggest the importance of strong family dynamics and emotional intelligence in establishing favourable romantic relationship perspectives.

Keywords: Parental Relationship Dynamics, Emotional Intelligence, Romantic Relationships

1. INTRODUCTION

Parenting

Parenting is viewed as a combination of social and biological processes (Tobach and Schneirla, 1968a; Lerner et al., 1995a). Parenting is the word used to describe the collection of behaviours that occur throughout life in the relationships between organisms that are typically co-specific and belong to separate generations or, at the very least, distinct birth cohorts. In terms of the areas of socialization, reproduction, survival, and nurturing, parenting interactions serve as resources for all generations.

Parenting is a complex interplay of biological and social processes that significantly shape a child's development. It encompasses a broad spectrum of behaviors that influence a child's emotional, cognitive, and social growth. Tobach and Schneirla (1968b) and Lerner et al. (1995b) conceptualized parenting as a lifelong dynamic between generations, contributing to socialization, survival, and nurturing. Parenting styles were further described by Darling and Steinberg (1993a) as "a constellation of attitudes towards the child that are communicated to the child," emphasising the ways in which parents influence their kids' lives.

Parenting is, therefore, a complicated process that involves much more than just giving a baby or child food, protection, and security. because it combines biological and social processes. Social because the

youngster has been interacting with his parents, siblings, peer group, neighbors, and family members continuously since birth. In fact, this affects and molds the child's behavior biological in the sense that a new child is the product of his parents' intergenerational genetic mix.

As a result, his parents and their families are mostly responsible for his behavior. For the child to grow up happy and healthy, parents must provide a safe, secure, nurturing, loving, and supportive environment. This kind of experience enables the youth to acquire the knowledge, values, attitudes, and behaviors needed to become an adult who can contribute positively to their family, community, society, and themselves (Lerner et al., 1995c).

Parenting styles

Darling and Steinberg (1993b) define parenting styles as a "constellation of attitudes towards the child that are communicated to the child".

Baumrind's parenting style model suggests that parenting is a network of interconnected actions that may be investigated through pattern-based approaches. The author's initial explanation of authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles has been revised to include a fourth style, rejecting neglect, based on the two orthogonal dimensions of demandingness and responsiveness. According to proponents, authoritative parenting, when parents respond to their children's needs while setting acceptable limits and demanding adult behaviour, is the most beneficial for children's and teenagers' development across settings and cultures (Smetana, 2017a).

Although research has mostly concentrated on parent-child effects, parenting styles were previously believed to be transactionally related to social skills. More rigorous bidirectionality testing has been made possible by developments in statistical modelling. According to a recent study, parenting techniques were significantly more impacted by teen behaviour than the other way around. Each parenting style had a varied effect, according to another study. Children were significantly impacted by permissive-indulgent parenting, but not by authoritative parenting. In contrast to child-rated authoritarian parenting, bidirectional effects were found for mother-rated authoritarian parenting (Kerr et al., 2012).

Since Baumrind's (1966, 1971) pioneering research, four parenting ideologies have been identified: authoritarian, permissive, authoritative, and neglectful. In addition to being receptive, affectionate, and skilled communicators, authoritative parents also use developmentally appropriate demands and maintain control over their children when needed. Authoritarian parents are not only extremely controlling and demanding, but they also show little affection and hardly ever interact. In addition to having little control and making few demands, permissive parents are incredibly affectionate and receptive. Uninvolved or careless parents hardly interact, make few demands, exercise little authority, and show little affection.
Parenting style is the style in which a parent displays their views on what it means to be a good or bad parent. Five parenting ideologies have been identified by the author: authoritarian, democratic or balanced, permissive, rejecting-neglecting, and dictatorial. Their parents' tendency to adopt one style and quickly and easily switch to another causes psychological harm to children and adolescents. When they are tired, they become permissive, and when they are angry and frustrated, they become authoritarian. They try to make up for this by using democratic methods (Năstasă & Salab, 2012).

There has been much discussion about how parenting styles are influenced by culture. Authoritarian parenting is common in non-Western cultures, as well as among parents from low-income (SES) and

racial/ethnic minority groups in the US. Families from ethnic minorities and immigrants frequently live in underprivileged areas, where authoritarian parenting may offer security. This has sparked discussions on whether authoritarian parenting is always bad in some circumstances and the need to consider parenting from the perspective of particular cultural values and indigenous ideas (Chao, 2011). According to research, Chinese parenting, which is sometimes described as authoritarian, also places a strong emphasis on discipline and training from a child-centered perspective.However, empirical studies show that "tiger parenting" is relatively rare and linked to poor child adjustment, whereas supportive parenting is more common and beneficial (Kim et al., 2013). Similarly, studies on Arab refugee youth in Jordan indicate that authoritative parenting is predominant, with low levels of harshness and high levels of support, leading to better adjustment outcomes (Smetana, 2017b). Children's emotional skills can be developed and enhanced through parent-child interactions (Karreman et al., 2006; Valcan et al., 2017). A child's perception of parental relationships strongly correlates with their emotional growth and ability to regulate emotions.

Parenting style and Emotional intelligence

The family is one of the primary living environments that affect adolescents' development; the environment's response, particularly in the parent-child relationship, to the adolescent's internal conflicts and challenges, is integral to the child's growth (Mannarini et al., 2018a).

Families are significant in the lives of young people. Family relationships have a significant impact on people's lives throughout their lives, according to numerous studies. Positive relationships with their parents aid a child's mental and physical development, whereas a child's later life may suffer from unfavorable family relationships. Adolescents who have a solid relationship with their parents feel safe, well-adjusted, and believe they are welcomed in their home. They also continue to be well-adjusted later in life. The young people become more autonomous and continue to grow while gaining physical, emotional, and cognitive independence during and after adolescence. They will thus continue to feel that society embraces them in the future (Habib, 2020).

According to Mannarini et al., (2018b), a child's emotional growth and ability to learn more or less useful techniques for controlling their inner effects and emotions are highly correlated with how they perceive their parents' connection and how attachment relationships are represented.

Parental bond and emotional intelligence

The family is a child's initial emotional education, and parents teach the majority of emotional learning. Youngsters pay attention to their parents and watch the attitudes, actions, feelings, and responses that parents show toward them or those around them. The child receives guidance from their parents' emotions on how to manage their emotions, communicate their feelings, control impulses, and interpret and respond to the emotions of others.

Parents and familial cultures, therefore, have an impact on a child's emotional development. A child's emotional development can be significantly influenced by the attitudes and behaviours parents exhibit toward their children, which is known as parenting style (Darling & Steinberg, 1993c).

Adults in the young kids' surroundings must look for enriching stimuli so that the child can develop in various areas (Tangney et al., 2004). Children's ability to reach their full potential is facilitated by

experience, such as that provided by parents, and the frequency and quality of this experience will affect how well they perform in the future.

Individual values have a major impact on prosocial behavior, identity development, and emotional intelligence in addition to attachment. According to research, prosocial involvement and social harmony are fostered by self-transcendence principles like kindness and compassion (Schwartz, 1992; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). Additionally, research indicates that people with strong parental attachment have strong emotional intelligence, which enables them to deal with social issues more skillfully, sustain satisfying relationships, and show perseverance in the face of hardship.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence refers to the way people process information about emotions and their responses. These results highlighted a variety of abilities, including self-control, empathy, and developed optimism, which significantly affected results in the family, workplace, and other areas of life.

Being emotionally intelligent means being wise. It takes the combined power of the emotional and cognitive minds to act sensibly. Because thinking and emotions are not entirely separate processes, emotionally intelligent action necessitates mental balance. The emotional mind has numerous beneficial effects on productivity, mental and physical health, and academic success.

Emotional intelligence, according to Alegre (2010a), is the capacity to observe one's own and other people's experiences and emotions, distinguish between them, and utilize this information to inform one's thoughts and behaviour. According to Salovey and Mayer, an emotionally intelligent person is proficient in four domains: recognizing, utilizing, comprehending, and controlling emotions. The five components of emotional intelligence, according to Goleman, are self-awareness (knowing one's own emotions), self-management (controlling them), self-motivation, empathy (recognizing others' feelings), and relationship management.

The concept of emotional intelligence gained widespread recognition thanks in large part to Daniel Goelman. He thought that personality traits like driving, self-control, and determination so-called "emotional intelligence" could account for the little variations in relational or vocational results between people with high and low IQ. (Alegre,2010b)

Studies suggest that individuals with high EI exhibit better interpersonal relationships, enhanced decision-making skills, and greater overall life satisfaction (Robert et al, 2010a).

Motivation, self-regulation, empathy, self-awareness, and interpersonal skills are the five main facets of emotional intelligence. Accurate evaluation, expression, and control of emotions are among the abilities that form the foundation of emotional intelligence.Individuals with high emotional intelligence have abilities that allow them to flourish in a variety of areas of life. emotional intelligence is typically defined as the ability to recognise, comprehend, and control one's emotions.(Robert et al., 2010b).

Both ability and trait emotional intelligence are two distinct conceptualizations of emotional intelligence put out by Petrides and Furnham (2003a). Ability tests are used to examine distinct emotional abilities, which are referred to as emotional intelligence. The idea is derived from the definition of emotional

intelligence by Mayer and Salovey, which is a collection of skills related to processing emotional information. According to much research, emotional intelligence has comparatively moderate associations with general intelligence, which provides credence to its claim as a type of intelligence.

The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) gained prominence with Goleman's assertion that attributes such as motivation, self-regulation, and empathy contribute to an individual's success beyond intellectual capacity. Emotional intelligence is linked to various positive developmental outcomes, including academic performance (Schute et al., 1998a), adaptive coping strategies (Mavroveli et al., 2007a), and psychological well-being (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008a).

Petrides and Furnham (2003b) distinguished between EI and trait EI, with the former focusing on cognitive emotional processing and the latter encompassing broader personality traits. Research has demonstrated that EI positively correlates with academic achievement, peer relationships, and psychological health (Iqbal et al., 2021a; Eisenberg et al., 2010a; Williams & Berthelsen, 2017a). Parents play a crucial role in shaping a child's EI through their emotional responses, modelling behaviours, and fostering emotional regulation strategies (Walter et al., 2024).

Future success was predicted by emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1995). Research confirms the relationship between emotional intelligence and some positive developmental outcomes, including academic achievement (Schute et al., 1998b), mental ability and positive personality charateristics, adaptive coping styles and mental health (Mavroveli et al., 2007b), psychological well-being (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008b), and physical and psychological health, even though his claim may be overstated

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a critical skill that shapes individuals' social, psychological, and emotional well-being. As defined by Sangeetha (2017), EI enables individuals to recognize, understand, and manage their emotions constructively. Research consistently highlights the role of EI in predicting life satisfaction, psychosocial adjustment, and interpersonal relationships (Fernández-Abascal & Martín-Díaz, 2015; Guerra-Bustamante et al., 2019). EI acts as a bridge between personal emotional regulation and social interaction, promoting positive family dynamics (Sánchez-Núñez et al., 2020) and deeper, more meaningful relationships (Bhalla & Ali, 2019). Individuals with low EI, on the other hand, frequently suffer from emotional instability and struggle to manage life's obstacles.

Peer relationship management, behavioural risk factor reduction, and academic success are all positively correlated with emotional intelligence (Iqbal et al., 2021b). In the early learning context, children with more developed emotional skills are better able to interact with peers and teachers, which leads to better academic results and a positive feedback loop for ongoing development (Eisenberg et al., 2010b; Williams & Berthelsen, 2017b).

Romantic relationships and emotional intelligence

Relationship satisfaction may be enhanced by emotional intelligence through several potential strategies. People with strong emotional intelligence might be better able to handle emotional problems in their relationships. Emotional intelligence, for instance, has been linked to improved partner communication, collaboration, and conflict resolution (Jardine et al., 2022a). Additionally, those with higher emotional intelligence are more cooperative when working with partners and are better at taking empathic perspectives. It has been demonstrated that these adaptive skills—communication, cooperation,

perspective taking, and conflict resolution—help people be happy in relationships (Jardine et al., 2022b). These interpersonal capacities also align with growth beliefs in romantic relationships, which emphasize that effort, mutual understanding, and adaptive problem-solving foster lasting and fulfilling bonds (Knee, 1998a). Individuals high in emotional intelligence may therefore be more inclined to endorse growth beliefs, viewing relationship challenges as opportunities for development rather than signs of incompatibility.

Being in a stable, high-quality romantic relationship probably improves one's health and well-being, and establishing and sustaining a long-term romantic relationship is a crucial developmental task in early adulthood. Determining the mechanisms that contribute to the stability and quality of romantic relationships appears to be crucial (Wollny et al., 2019). Emotional intelligence likely serves as one such mechanism, helping individuals not only navigate interpersonal difficulties but also align their romantic expectations with more realistic, mature beliefs—like those observed by Montgomery (2005), who found that older adolescents grow out of idealized romantic notions and move toward more balanced, commitment-focused beliefs.

One of the essential traits of a well-adjusted adult is the ability to establish and sustain fulfilling love relationships. In addition to being a result in and of itself, fulfilling romantic relationships are thought to be linked to mental health, overall well-being, and the ability to deal with life's obstacles (Zysberg et al., 2019). These benefits may be more accessible to individuals whose emotional intelligence allows them to align their romantic ideals with relationship realities. People with high emotional intelligence may be less likely to be disappointed by rigid destiny beliefs, which are the ideas that relationships are either doomed to succeed or fail. This is because they are more likely to think that relationship satisfaction comes from deliberate effort and emotional awareness.

There are numerous advantages to having a fulfilling love relationship for one's physical and mental health. Individual differences in emotional intelligence, for instance, can affect how these interactions work and how satisfied people are with them. According to a systematic review by Schutte and colleagues, people with higher emotional intelligence scored higher on social skills, empathic perspective taking, self-monitoring, reports of close relationships, marital satisfaction, and social satisfaction. They also showed more cooperative responses towards their partner. High emotional intelligence and romantic relationship satisfaction were found to be significantly correlated, with a medium effect size, in a subsequent meta-analysis (Williams et al., 2024). These outcomes suggest that emotional intelligence may act as a moderating factor between romantic beliefs and relationship outcomes, enhancing the ability to actualize romantic ideals in healthy ways while mitigating the risks of unrealistic expectations.

Together, these findings suggest that emotional intelligence serves as a foundational element in fostering healthy, satisfying romantic relationships. By enabling better emotional regulation, enhancing empathy, and supporting effective communication, emotional intelligence contributes to the long-term development and stability of intimate partnerships—especially during the critical period of early adulthood, when romantic ideals begin to crystallize into real-world relational practices. Furthermore, emotional intelligence may influence the type of romantic beliefs individuals endorse and how flexibly they apply those beliefs in the context of relational challenges, ultimately shaping the quality and resilience of romantic bonds over time.

Romantic relationships

Beliefs about romantic relationships profoundly shape how individuals perceive, initiate, maintain, and eventually dissolve intimate partnerships. Rooted in cognitive processes and early socialization, these beliefs serve as interpretative frameworks that influence emotional responses, relational behaviors, and overall satisfaction in relationships (Knee, 1998b). Within the domain of social cognition, implicit theories—people's underlying assumptions about whether personal attributes and relationship dynamics are fixed or can change—have garnered increasing attention. Knee (1998c) categorizes these into two main types in romantic contexts: destiny beliefs, which propose that relationships are either "meant to be" or not, and growth beliefs, which emphasize that successful partnerships require effort and mutual development.

As individuals transition from adolescence to emerging adulthood, their romantic beliefs undergo notable shifts. Montgomery (2005) found that older adolescents increasingly valued commitment and gradually moved away from idealized notions like "love at first sight," reflecting a maturation in relational thinking. These shifts align with Erikson's psychosocial theory, where identity formation and the capacity for intimacy develop in tandem during this life stage.

Despite growing maturity, cultural narratives continue to romanticize ideas such as "the one true soulmate" or "love conquers all" (Sprecher & Metts, 1999a). While these ideals can foster emotional closeness and hope in the early stages of love, they may also set unrealistic expectations that lead to disillusionment. Sprecher and Metts (1999b) argue that although romantic ideals may appear naïve, they often play a vital role in emotional bonding, especially during relationship initiation.

However, these ideals are not developed in isolation. Early childhood experiences and family dynamics play a significant role in shaping romantic expectations. Zagefka et al. (2021) note that individuals raised in dysfunctional or insecure family environments often carry more pessimistic beliefs about love and intimacy into adulthood, which can negatively impact relationship satisfaction and stability. Early attachment experiences, whether secure or insecure, act as prototypes for future romantic relationships. Cultural and gender factors also significantly influence romantic ideologies. Bejanyan et al. (2014) emphasises how collectivistic cultures incorporate social duties and familial expectations into romantic decision-making, whereas individualistic cultures place a higher value on individual freedom and emotional expression.Interestingly, collectivism not diminish romantic idealism, but rather integrates it with traditional ideas and gender roles. Taken together, these findings illustrate that romantic beliefs are complex, multifaceted constructs shaped by individual cognition, developmental stage, early socialization, and broader cultural influences. Understanding these beliefs is crucial for exploring how individuals navigate intimacy, respond to relational challenges, and set expectations for love and partnership. As individuals enter adulthood, romantic relationships often take on the role of primary attachment bonds, offering emotional security and shaping self-perception (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Feeney, 2004). Bowlby and Ainsworth's attachment theory, which originally explained the emotional bond between infants and caregivers, these frameworks have been extended to adult romantic relationships, emphasizing their role in emotional regulation and well-being.

During the phase of emerging adulthood, individuals engage in romantic relationships not just for companionship but also for self-discovery, identity development, and future planning (Arnett, 2000a; Tartakovsky, 2023a). Arnett's (2000b) theory identifies this stage as a time for exploring romantic

connections before making long-term commitments. Yet, modern relationships have become increasingly noncommittal due to shifting societal norms, economic instability, and evolving gender dynamics (Beckmeyer & Jamison, 2020a; James-Kangal et al., 2018a; Norona et al., 2016a). Shulman and Connolly (2013a) suggest that the fluidity of modern relationships provides young adults with the freedom to explore identity and relational preferences without immediate pressure to settle.

Emerging adults may seek romantic relationships for various purposes—personal growth, emotional fulfillment, exploration, or preparing for long-term commitments such as marriage and parenthood (Arnett, 2000c; Tartakovsky, 2024b). However, the foundation for establishing and sustaining such relationships is deeply influenced by earlier familial experiences, particularly parenting styles and the behaviors they instill. Studies by Darling & Steinberg (1993d) and Karre (2015a) show that authoritative parenting styles, characterized by warmth and structure, often foster better interpersonal skills, emotional regulation, and healthier romantic expectations.

In conclusion, romantic relationships are not merely shaped by momentary emotions or personal preferences but emerge from a complex interplay of internal beliefs, developmental experiences, cultural narratives, and family dynamics. A deeper understanding of these intersecting factors provides valuable insight into how individuals approach love, commitment, and emotional connection across the lifespan.

Parental styles and romantic relationship

An understanding that the factors in parenting and EI lead to romantic relationships in one's adulthood represents an insight into human development. With appropriate positive parenting practices and emotional intelligence, people can develop better interpersonal relationships and improve overall well-being.

How a child was raised and their experiences as a young child will ultimately affect the development and continuation of a love relationship into adulthood (Darling & Steinberg, 1993e; Karre, 2015b). The attachment theory of Bowlby and Ainsworth emphasizes the powerful effect of early caregiver experiences on the formation of adult romantic attachment patterns. Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) is a crucial framework for the understanding of the enduring impact of early relationship experiences on psychological and social development. According to this early interaction with primary caregivers, shape child attachment patterns and influences intimate relationships, emotional regulation, and psychological health in general.

Parental observation and interactions with parents can have an impact on an individual's future love relationships. The parental environment frequently influences a person's ability to form romantic relationships (Hare, 2014). Parenting techniques and the form of parent-child attachment have a substantial impact on the development of these connections, as well as the level of emotional intimacy they foster (Nosko, 2011a). According to Dinero et al. (2008a), research has primarily focused on two critical features of this theoretical framework: the attachment bond between parents and children and the growth of attachment types in romantic relationships as adults. According to these studies, insecure attachment—whether anxious or avoidant—can result in issues with self-regulation, self-concept, and interpersonal functioning, while secure attachment—which is promoted by constant parental warmth and sensitivity—contributes to positive emotional development and adaptive social behaviors (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003).

Nosko (2011b) suggests that individuals who have a secure attachment with their parents are more likely to form secure attachments in romantic relationships. On the other hand, those with anxious attachments to their parents are prone to experiencing insecurity in their romantic relationships, often feeling uncertain about their partner's commitment and seeking excessive closeness (Twedt & College of Saint Benedict and Saint John's University, 2013).

The family environment and parental influences continue to shape individuals' expectations and behaviours in romantic relationships. Positive parental relationships instill emotional security, effective communication skills, and conflict resolution strategies, contributing to healthier romantic relationships in adulthood. Conversely, unreliable or negative parental influences can lead to maladaptive relationship patterns (Lindblom et al., 2016).

Children's interactions with their parents can influence how they relate to people both inside and outside the family in the future. Accordingly, it has been discovered that young adults' sense of comfort with intimacy, reduced difficulties relying on others, and decreased fear of being abandoned or rejected are highly correlated with the warmth and constancy of their parents (Glavac & Levpuscek, 2024). Young adult identity formation and romantic attachment are significantly influenced by parental connection. Self-exploration, social skills, and the capacity to build wholesome, trustworthy relationships in adulthood are all facilitated by a stable connection to one's parents (Leondari & Kiosseoglou, 2000; Lopez & Brennan, 2000).

Secure adults tend to trust others and maintain open connections because, as children, their emotional needs were met consistently and with care. In contrast, those who grow up with insecurity often find emotional connections challenging. Having experienced parental unavailability, they may either fear rejection and hold back or seek excessive closeness in their relationships.

Arnett (2000d) emphasized in his theory of emerging adulthood that this stage of life is a time to experiment with romantic and love-related options, figure out the type of person one wants to commit to, and gain experience in romantic relationships before settling down with a stable spouse. Young people nowadays may therefore be involved in a wide variety of romantic relationships, many of which are transient or noncommittal (Beckmeyer & Jamison, 2021b; James-Kangal et al., 2018b; Norona et al., 2017b). Shulman and Connolly (2013b) ascribe the transient character of relationships and noncommittal partnerships to the economy's uncertainty and the modern environment's unpredictability. In this approach, young people should have more choices, freedom, and opportunities. Nonetheless, young people have positive sentiments regarding committed, long-term partnerships and aspire to live like this in the future (Cho et al., 2020). Working in adult relationships is based on the hierarchical specificity of attachment patterns. People who establish a solid attachment style during their early years are likely to carry over this pattern into love relationships. As stated by Papinska,A. (2025a), insecure attachment styles also endure. People with insecure attachment styles frequently struggle to maintain relationships, whereas those with secure attachment styles tend to enjoy long-term relationships. Avoidant people are more likely to end relationships due to their fear of closeness, whereas anxious or ambivalent people may struggle to cope with the pain of being apart. According to evolutionary psychology, low paternal investment indicates to children that they are developing within a mating ecology that is marked by a lack of male investment in romance partners and children, as well as the relative insignificance of this investment for reproduction (Papinska, A. 2025b). Therefore, a person's emotional resilience, relationship satisfaction, and ability to

handle challenging interpersonal situations are all impacted throughout time by the strength of their parents' attachment (Collins et al., 2006).

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Parenting

Parenting, according to Srivastava and Bharti (2022a), is the process of raising a child in a way that is similar to the sustenance needed for a sapling to develop into a robust and healthy tree. This means that good parenting is crucial to developing a well-rounded child. A child's first connection to the outside world is formed by their mother, or more broadly, their parents, from birth. Children experience the world through their parents' eyes and absorb their attitudes and behaviours. Thus, the foundation that moulds a person's life is the relationship between a parent and kid.

Parental function is crucial to a child's whole growth into adolescence and a functioning adult (Frosch, Schoppe-Sullivan and O'Banion, 2019). An individual's well-being at any stage of life is largely determined by the influence of his parents or primary carers and the bonds he forms with them. Adolescent well-being and parental attachment are linked to higher emotional intelligence and emotional development (Bahat & Ovsenik, 2020).

According to the research, children who have warm and positive interactions with their parents exhibit high levels of social competence and a decrease in hostility and internalising issues (Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). This further supports the idea that there is a connection between emotional competence in parents and emotional competence in children.

According to research, children of authoritative parents perform better on tests of prosocial behaviour (Hastings, McShane, & Parker, 2007), social and school competence (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991), resilience (Kritzas & Grobler, 2005), attachment (Karavasilis, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 2003), adjustment (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, & Mounts, 1994), and school achievement (Boon, 2007).

Engels, Finkenauer, Meeus, and Deković (2001) examined the connection between emotional adjustment in adolescents and parental attachment, specifically in regard to relational competence and social skills. Adolescents who reported having strong relationships with their parents showed reduced levels of sadness and greater self-esteem, indicating that parental ties are important for emotional health.

According to a study done on 293 primary school pupils in Australia, parental care improved the adolescents' ability to employ healthy coping mechanisms for their emotions (Jaffe et al., 2010). According to findings from a study conducted in Thailand among teenagers living with HIV, those with a high level of parental care had a higher EI, whereas those with overprotective parents had a lower EI (Thammawijaya, 2012). However, research on how parenting practices affect teenagers' emotional intelligence development is scarce across cultures, particularly in nations where the rise of Confucianism has had a significant influence on parenting practices.

Parenting and Emotional Intelligence

Emotional development is an essential component of the parent-child bond, as children primarily learn about emotions through their parents. This development includes the capacity to regulate impulses,

postpone gratification, cultivate motivation, decipher social cues, and deal with obstacles in life. The family serves as the primary environment for emotional intelligence, both through direct parental guidance and the modeling of emotional regulation demonstrated by caregivers (Srivastava & Bharti, 2022b).

Over the past decade, research has highlighted the critical role of emotions in shaping an individual's happiness and success. Emotional intelligence (EI) facilitates stability, harmony, and strong interpersonal relationships by fostering emotional awareness and conflict resolution. Hein (2012) suggests that individuals with high EI exhibit self-motivation, optimism, moral autonomy, clear reasoning, and strong nonverbal communication skills. They respond rationally under pressure while maintaining emotional balance. Furthermore, emotionally intelligent individuals regulate their emotions, make sound decisions, and provide support to others during adversity. In contrast, individuals with lower EI often struggle to express their emotions, shift responsibility onto others, and engage in criticism rather than constructive dialogue (Barsade, 2001).

A large amount of research has demonstrated how parents' reactions to their kids' feelings can either help or hinder their ability to regulate their emotions. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that children's socioemotional competence and their parents' emotional expression are related (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

Children can successfully express and regulate their emotions when they feel comfortable and encouraged, which is fostered by a strong parent-child relationship. Effective parenting sometimes entails setting clear rules and boundaries in addition to providing warmth and support, especially when using an authoritative parenting style. This kind of framework discourages violent actions like slapping while assisting kids in understanding appropriate methods to express their emotions, such as admitting that anger is a legitimate feeling. As children learn about the requirements for emotional expression in the family, this regularity promotes emotional intelligence, which leads to their resilience and success in many areas of life (Morris et al., 2017a).

Emotional intelligence can be significantly predicted by both parental attachment and childhood maltreatment. According to earlier research, those who have experienced more childhood abuse have a harder time articulating their feelings and recognizing and assessing other people and circumstances. Emotional intelligence can be lowered by childhood maltreatment; abused children may be reluctant to show their emotions and may interpret others' expressions of emotion as negative or a warning sign. Additionally, Zhao and his colleagues discovered that emotional intelligence and malevolent envy are highly predicted by childhood abuse. (Zhao et al., 2020).

Higher emotional competence is linked to fewer psychological problems (Mikolajczak et al., 2007) as well as improved well-being, life satisfaction, and self-esteem (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008c). Additionally, studies have shown that improved social and marital relationships are linked to emotional competence (Lopes et al., 2004). A fundamental requirement for both academic and social achievement is the development of children's emotional competence (Denham, 2006).

In order to investigate the relationship between adult emotional intelligence (EI) and perceived parenting styles, Cameron, Cramer, and Manning (2020a) carried out a retrospective research study. The results showed that those with greater EI were those who remembered growing up in authoritarian or permissive parental settings, which place an emphasis on warmth, responsiveness, and support. The lack of emotional

support and the restrictive character of authoritarian or neglectful parenting styles, on the other hand, are probably the reasons why individuals who reported such experiences had lower EI. These findings imply that while strict or uninvolved parenting may hinder the development of emotional intelligence, parental practices that are marked by emotional support and responsiveness are essential in promoting it (Cameron et al., 2020b).

Alegre (2012) further examined the impact of parent-child interactions on the development of emotional intelligence, emphasizing the importance of both the quality and duration of cooperative engagement between parents and children. His research highlighted that increased parental involvement in meaningful activities contributed positively to children's emotional intelligence, reinforcing the notion that early relational experiences shape emotional competencies.

Supporting these findings, Stack, Serbin, Enns, Ruttle, and Barrieau (2010) conducted a longitudinal study that assessed the lasting effects of parenting styles on children's emotional outcomes. Their research underscored the pivotal role of parenting styles in shaping children's emotional competence, with effects that persist across developmental stages and even influence future generations. These studies collectively suggest that parental relationships, encompassing attachment security, interaction quality, and parenting styles, are critical determinants of emotional intelligence and overall emotional well-being.

Adolescents' development of emotional intelligence was influenced by parenting practices. After reviewing numerous research on the impact of parental behaviours on children's emotions, Goleman came to the conclusion that parents who had warm, healthy relationships with their kids were more likely to see their kids grow emotionally and communicate effectively. Accordingly, children's emotional intelligence is reliant on their parents' love and affection (Srivastava & Bharti, 2022c).

Poor attachment results in "emotional distress and personality disturbances, including anxiety, anger, depression, and emotional detachment to which unwilling separations and loss give rise," according to researchers. Furthermore, they acknowledged that "a wide range of adult dysfunctions as well as later capacities to form affectional bonds are underpinned by childhood attachment". An individual with an anxious attachment style, for instance, may have extremely high expectations of those around them, which may lead to bad or nonexistent long-term relationships in the future. Consequently, a person's ability to relate to and connect with others around them may benefit by achieving stable attachment (Ross et al., 2021).

Better interpersonal interactions, mood management, and a reduction in loneliness are among the advantages of a positive correlation between EI and attachment/higher family functioning that has been noted in a number of nations. Research conducted in many Indian states demonstrates a strong correlation between parental attachment/acceptance and teenage EI, indicating that positive family dynamics have a big impact on adolescents' EI . Accordingly, EI is significantly predicted by secure attachment and significantly predicted by insecure attachment (John & Nagarajan, 2023).

In a thorough analysis of several research studies, Goleman emphasized that parental interactions—from severe discipline to empathetic understanding, and from coldness to warmth—have a long-lasting impact on a child's emotional development. In 2007b, Morris et al. proposed a tripartite model that posits parents have an impact on their children's emotion regulation (ER) through three main channels: direct emotion-

related parenting practices, the general emotional atmosphere in the family, and the children's observation of parental emotion regulation techniques. Parental love, parenting styles, and the caliber of parent-child interactions all have a big impact on a child's emotional intelligence. Furthermore, parental emotional expressiveness acts as a crucial role model via everyday interactions, helping children comprehend and control their emotions in social situations (Srivastava & Bharti, 2022d).

Parenting plays a significant role in fostering psychological flexibility in teenagers with regard to mental health issues. Some psychological constructs, including psychological flexibility and emotional intelligence, are linked to parenting. Previous research has also shown that parental practices affect adolescents' stress cognition, self-motivation, and self-esteem. Adolescents with authoritative parents exhibit better levels of self-esteem and self-regulation, while parents' authoritarian methods are negatively correlated with their children's confidence and self-concept. Additionally, adolescents who have authoritative fathers are more resolute and persistent in the face of obstacles, disruptions, and internal incentives (Bibi et al., 2021).

Emotional Intelligence and Romantic Relationships

According to research, couples with higher emotional intelligence report less trouble forgiving an offence committed by a partner than those with less emotional clarity (Fitness, 200a). It was also discovered that these people were happy together. On the other hand, partners with low emotional intelligence seem more likely to attack their partners and take the partner’s pain and suffering as an indication of animosity. "Negative affect reciprocity," in which spouses (broadly defined) return the unpleasant feelings they see in their partners, can also result from emotional miscommunications. Additionally, studies have shown that marital adjustment and knowledge of one's spouse's self-perceptions are positively correlated (Flury & Ickes, 2006).

Sex differences have been the subject of conflicting findings in studies on emotional intelligence and romantic relationship happiness. In contrast to gender, which is a variable with several categories, it seems that only sex has been taken into consideration thus far as a dichotomous variable. According to Hajihasani and Sim (2018a), women's emotional intelligence had been favourably correlated with their own and their partners' pleasure in romantic relationships.

Intimate interpersonal relationships, including romantic or married partnerships, are frequently thought of as high-conflict social situations and emotional states (Fitness, 2001b). Both emotional highs and lows are frequently caused by the intimacy that unites two people (Carstensen et al., 1996). Accordingly, it has been argued that emotionally intelligent couples may be better at handling disagreements, communicating, and controlling their emotions, all of which can lead to more adaptable solutions and results (Fitness, 2001c).

Other investigations, however, have found that emotional intelligence is directly related to men's relationship happiness (Smith et al., 2008). Male and female romantic relationship happiness and emotional intelligence were found to be similarly correlated by Schutte et al. (2012) nonetheless, we hoped for greater statistical power to enable a more accurate investigation of the possible impact of sex.

Relationship satisfaction may be enhanced by emotional intelligence through a number of potential strategies. People with strong emotional intelligence might be better able to handle emotional problems in their relationships. Emotional intelligence, for instance, has been linked to improved partner communication, collaboration, and conflict resolution (Hajihasani & Sim, 2018b). Additionally, those with higher emotional intelligence are more cooperative when working with partners and are better at taking empathic perspectives (Schutte et al., 2001). It has been demonstrated that these adaptive skills—communication, conflict resolution, perspective taking, and cooperation—help people be happy in relationships (Ulloa et al., 2017).

The idea that emotional intelligence (EI) might be significant in romantic relationships is actually supported by a number of recent studies. Couples having high EI scores reported higher levels of relationship satisfaction than couples with low EI scores, according to a study by Brackett, Warner, and Bosco (2005). Nevertheless, there are two significant methodological problems with this study: (a) it did not account for personality or IQ characteristics, and (b) the design did not account for the non-independence of dyadic partners in marital pleasure.

Bonab and Koohsar (2011) found that people with a stable attachment were more emotionally competent than people who were apprehensive and avoidant. Furthermore, they found that all aspects of emotional intelligence may be accurately predicted by a secure relationship (Hamarta et al., 2009). Noller and Feeney (1994) demonstrated a relationship between emotional perception and attachment quality. Using a realistic test of nonverbal accuracy, these researchers discovered that correctness in interpreting partners' positive nonverbal behaviours was negatively correlated with nervous attachment. To accurately decode a partner's facial expressions for emotions, Kafetsios (2003) used both laboratory and naturalistic challenges. He discovered a favourable correlation between accurate facial expressions of emotion and stable bonding.

Emotional Intelligence and Romantic Beliefs

Sprecher and Metts (1989a) examined how a person's romantic beliefs affected how happy they were in a relationship. According to their definition, romantic beliefs are those that support "an ideology of romanticism," or the conviction that "love is the primary factor in mate selection" (Sprecher & Metts, 1989, p. 387b). Sprecher and Metts reframed the examination of romantic relationship cognitions to a particular ideology, although their findings are more reproducible and psychometrically robust than those of Eidelson and Epstein (1982), who took a more general approach.

Pinsky, John D. (2025a) conducted a seminal study on the relationship between romantic beliefs, romantic expectations, and relationship satisfaction with young adults (ages 18 to 28) who were in romantic relationships at the time. They discovered that participants were less satisfied with their current relationship when they stated that it did not meet their ideal expectations. Relationship commitment was lower among those who stated that their current partnership did not meet their expectations for potential substitute partnerships. The findings of this study were unaffected by age, gender, or previous relationship experience.

Other studies that have used the ROMBEL have also produced intriguing findings. According to the findings of one study on Australian couples, romantic beliefs between partners were not only significantly

correlated (r = 0.31) but also significantly predicted the degree of relationship satisfaction that each partner felt (r = 0.44 and 0.36, respectively; Pinsky, John D. (2025b). Even after adjusting gender role orientation and romantic views, these researchers discovered that attachment type still predicted relationship happiness.

Parenting and Romantic Relationships

The attachment style developed in childhood also strongly influences how young adults perceive and engage in romantic relationships. Research by Fraley and Shaver (2000) indicates that secure attachment with parents leads to healthier expectations in adult romantic relationships, characterized by trust and open communication. On the other hand, children with anxious or avoidant attachments to their parents tend to struggle with intimacy in their relationships, often exhibiting fears of abandonment or a reluctance to commit (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

The mother-father relationship often sets the foundational model for romantic relationships, with young adults often internalizing what they observe. Children who witnessed high levels of parental conflict are more likely to have negative views on relationships, often fearing instability (Amato and Booth, 2001). These findings are echoed in Cui and Fincham's (2010) work, which suggests that parental marital quality significantly impacts young adults' beliefs about the durability and happiness of romantic relationships.

Dinero (2008b) also examined the impact of family relationships during adolescence on later romantic attachment styles and relationship quality in adulthood. The study found a correlation between attachment to parents and romantic partners, extending beyond young adulthood. Additionally, marital satisfaction was linked to the nature of an individual’s relationship with their parents, suggesting that early familial bonds continue to influence romantic relationships well into adulthood.

In contrast, research by Kerns et al. (1996a) examined how attachment and friendship quality at age 10 influenced romantic relationship engagement and quality at ages 12 and 15. Unlike Del Toro’s study, this research incorporated friendship quality as an additional factor influencing romantic relationships. Using a longitudinal design, the findings revealed that mother-child security attachment predicted romantic relationship involvement, while friendship quality influenced both relationship engagement and quality. Interestingly, while mother-child attachment played a role in initiating romantic relationships, it did not predict the quality of these relationships at ages 12 or 15. The researchers suggested that attachment may only become a significant factor in romantic relationship quality later in adolescence when relationships grow more intimate.

The formation of healthy and favourable views about interpersonal relationships, particularly romantic ones, has been linked to having an authoritative parental figure, according to prior research (Bhalla & Cherian 2024). According to Dalton et al. (2006), young adults' favourable parenting judgments are positively correlated with the quality of romantic relationships and their confidence in their capacity to form safe and intimate connections with others. According to Yahya et al. (2019), Kim et al. (2021), and Di Pentima et al. (2023), secure attachment patterns, including low attachment anxiety and avoidance of their partners, are also linked to the perception of a parental figure as possessing attributes of an authoritative parent.

Positive parent-child relationships have been linked to healthy romantic relationships in adulthood, according to empirical evidence (Conger et al., 2000a). On the other hand, conflict, hostility, and emotional dysregulation in parent-child relationships have been linked to poorer romantic relationship quality (Darling et al., 2008).

The Development of Early Adult Romantic Relationships (DEARR) model is the most well-known hypothesis that explains the relationship between romantic relationships and parenting (Conger et al., 2000b). Two primary pathways linking romantic relationships and parenting are proposed by this concept. Styles of communication are connected to the first mechanism. Teenagers and young adults who grow up with loving and consistent parents adopt a healthy communication style that includes open, trustworthy, and compassionate interactions with their romantic relationships. Teenagers and young adults who have had severe and inconsistent parenting, on the other hand, tend to communicate aggressively and have ambivalent or unfavourable attitudes for their relationships. The second mechanism linking romantic relationships and parenting in adolescents and emerging adults has to do with the formation of a certain attachment style. A secure attachment style is linked to a favourable experience in romantic relationships, according to research, and it is developed through kind and supporting parenting. Relationship emotional and behavioural challenges were linked to insecure attachment styles (Shadach et al., 2017)

The quality of the child-parent relationship, especially the level of emotional support and guidance provided, shapes young adults' attitudes toward romance. Studies by Collins and Read (1990a) show that warm and supportive parenting fosters self-esteem and trust, which positively impacts young adults' romantic relationships by enhancing their ability to form stable bonds. In contrast, children who experienced emotional neglect or inconsistency from parents often exhibit lower self-worth, leading to dependency or avoidance in their romantic relationships (Kerns et al., 1996b).

Secure attachment is positively correlated with the quality of romantic relationships, whereas insecure attachment is negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction, according to research on the impact of adult attachment on relationship satisfaction by Hazan and Shaver. Prior research has shown that commitment, high levels of trust, interdependence, and satisfaction are characteristics of secure partnerships. Specifically, avoidant participants were more likely than secure participants to claim never having experienced love, according to Feeney and Noller. Furthermore, secure participants were less likely to divorce and had longer relationships than anxious and preoccupied participants. The association between secure working models of attachment and the probability of having more good relationships is also empirically supported by more recent studies employing various metrics. (Gleeson, G., & Fitzgerald, A., 2014)

Research on the impact of parents on the romantic relationships of adolescents and emerging adults has been ongoing for a long time. Adolescents who had positive parenting experiences (care and autonomy) reported more dating, higher dating satisfaction, more positive and fulfilling relationships with their romantic partner, and higher marital satisfaction, according to numerous studies (Collins et al., 1990b). The psychological processes that underlie the association between romantic relationships and parenting among adolescents and emerging adults are continuously being studied by researchers.

A study conducted by Del Toro (2012) explored the relationship between parenting styles, parent-child attachment, and the presence of anxiety in romantic relationships. Using multiple regression analysis, the findings indicated that authoritative parenting and secure parent-child attachment were associated with lower levels of attachment anxiety. Participants who reported secure romantic relationships were more likely to have been raised by authoritative parents and to have experienced secure attachments in childhood. Furthermore, the study suggested that individuals who had healthy relationships with their parents were more likely to develop positive patterns in their future romantic relationships.

Prior studies have demonstrated that the development of healthy romantic relationships in adolescence and emerging adulthood is influenced by young people's views of positive familial support. Additionally, healthy romantic relationships during adolescence and the transition to adulthood are linked to parental warmth. However, findings on the function of family control are less clear. Therefore, a study conducted with adolescents between the ages of 14 and 21 by Auslander et al., 2009 found a positive correlation between parental control and romantic relationship satisfaction, while another study conducted with adolescents between the ages of 19 and 26 by Choe et al, 2021 found a correlation between parental control and increased anxiety in romantic relationships. The distinction between behavioural and psychological control may be somewhat to blame for this discrepancy. Parental psychological control, or more invasive control that aims to manipulate young people's thoughts and feelings, appears to have a detrimental effect on love relationships during adolescence and continues into emerging adulthood.

Moreover, parental modeling of relationship behaviors, including conflict resolution and emotional expression, influences young adults' expectations in romance. Findings by Conger et al. (2000c) highlight that parents who model healthy conflict resolution strategies provide their children with effective tools for managing disagreements in their own relationships. Conversely, children who witness frequent hostility or poor communication between parents are more likely to adopt similar negative behaviours in their romantic relationships (Rhoades et al., 2012). These studies underscore the role of parental modelling in shaping relationship skills that young adults bring into their own romantic lives.

3. METHODOLOGY

Objectives:

The purpose of this study is to examine the correlation between relationships with parents and the development of emotional intelligence and how these characteristics influence how people perceive romantic relationships.

Hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H01): There will be a correlation between parental relations and their influence on emotional intelligence

Hypothesis 2 (H02): There will be a correlation between parental relations and their influence on the perception of romantic relationships.

Hypothesis 3 (H03): There will be a correlation between emotional intelligence and perception of romantic relationships.

Research question:

To what extent does parental bonding impact emotional intelligence and shape an individual's perception of romantic relationships in adulthood?

Method:

To gather the information, the Investigator used a quantitative survey method. The researcher used the method to get information from provisional adults in India about their Parenting styles, Emotional intelligence, and Perceptions of romantic relationships. The Survey contained 99 questions.

Sample:

The study's population included all young adults in India. The sample was drawn using a Probability sampling method known as Random sampling. 203 adults were selected as the sample.

Inclusion Criteria:

- Age Range: Participants must be between 18 and 26 years of age at the time of the study.
- Informed Consent: Participants must be willing and able to provide informed consent before participating, indicating their voluntary participation, and understanding of the study's purpose, procedures, and potential risks.
- Nationality: Participants must be Indian nationals residing in India during the data collection period.

Exclusion Criteria:

- Participants who do not agree to participate or provide consent.
- People from outside India are not considered.

Tools:

- Demographic details: Questions on age, gender, educational qualification, and socio-economic status have been included in the demographic details.
- Parent- Adult Child Relationship Questionnaire: The Parent Adult-Child Relationship Questionnaire (PACQ) is a self-report questionnaire for assessing the quality of parent-adult child relationships across multiple areas. The questionnaire evaluates both the positive and negative aspects of these relationships, providing insight into the nature of attachment, emotional intimacy, and conflict between parents and their adult offspring. Peisah, Brodaty, Luscombe, and Anstey created the PACQ in 1999. The PACQ has a high internal consistency score, with Cronbach's alpha values for its subscales exceeding 0.80. The instrument has high construct validity since it correlates strongly with other measures of familial connection and psychological well-being.
- Relationship beliefs inventory: The 40-item Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI; Eidelson & Epstein, 1982) measures 5 dysfunctional relationship beliefs. The authors

found that the coefficient alphas for the subscales ranged from .72 to .81, with intercorrelations among the scales ranging from .17 to .44. An analysis of reliability using Cronbach's alpha analyses revealed that there was substantial variability in the internal consistency of the subscales (ranging from .58 to .83).

- Schutte self-report emotional intelligence test: The Schutte self-report emotional intelligence test is a method of measuring general emotional intelligence. It was created in 1998 by Dr Nicola Schutte and her colleagues and is widely used. This instrument is also known as Assessing emotional scale. This test includes 33 items self-report using a 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) scale for responses. The reliability of the scale is 0.90.

Procedure:

A quantitative survey was conducted to explore the relationship between parental bonding, emotional intelligence and romantic relationship. The participants were briefed about the objective of the research and then were asked to fill out a consent form to permit the researcher to use the results for research purposes. Participants were informed that the test results would be kept confidential and anonymous. Clear instructions for completing the questionnaire were provided.

The survey consisted of 99 questions, including Likert-scale items, and took approximately 20-25 minutes to complete. The survey link was distributed through convenience sampling to individuals within the researchers' immediate social network, including friends, and college groups. These individuals were identified as young adults, residing in various parts of India. Participants were asked to voluntarily complete the survey and share the survey link with others. Data collection was conducted, during which responses were collected anonymously.

After the data collection, the questionnaire scoring was done according to the scoring norms provided by the scale authors. The data was stored in an Excel sheet and statistically analyzed for correlations using SPSS software. Appropriate statistical techniques were applied to examine the hypotheses among the variables.

Rationale of the Study

The nature of human connections is changing dramatically in a time when digital connections are progressively taking the place of face-to-face interactions. Despite these shifts, early experiences, particularly the relationship with one's parents, continue to form the cornerstone of emotional and social development. People's emotional intelligence (EI) and perspective on romantic relationships are significantly shaped by how they interpret and take in these ties.

A crucial foundation for emotional development is parental connection, which is defined by warmth, care, and even overprotection. The attachment and relationship patterns established throughout childhood frequently contribute to the capacity to identify, control, and communicate emotions, essential elements of emotional intelligence. This is corroborated by research by Sultan, Rafiq, and Kanwal (2019), which shows that greater parental care develops emotional intelligence and gives people the tools they need to deal with difficult emotions. On the other hand, Rebalde (2022) points out that overprotection has been connected to a decrease in emotional flexibility and self-awareness. These results support the complex and enduring impact that parental activities have on a person's emotional and interpersonal wellbeing.

There is still a lack of knowledge on how parental bonding and emotional intelligence interact with gender dynamics, socioeconomic origins, and cultural expectations in the household, despite a wealth of study on the subject. Furthermore, rather than identifying the distinct roles that mother and father connections play in influencing emotional intelligence and romantic impressions, most of the research has looked at parental impact as a whole. This study intends to offer a more thorough understanding of how parental connection affects young people' emotional intelligence and romantic relationship attitudes by addressing these subtleties.

Fundamentally, the goal of this research is to add to important discussions on emotional development rather than merely spot trends. We can better guide therapies, support networks, and psychological frameworks that promote healthy relational outcomes by expanding our knowledge of how parental attachments influence how people manage their emotions and relationships. Additionally, by recognizing the importance of family dynamics in forming an individual's emotional and social environment, this study bridges the gap between early attachments and successful adult relationships, contributing significant knowledge to the area of psychology.

4. RESULTS

Data collection was stopped after collecting data from 203 participants. The data was then analyzed to assess the characteristics of the data like normality and missing variables. (See table 1)

Table 1: Shows the descriptive statistics of the variables (N=203)

Descriptive Statistics

	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
TPAC	63	15	78	42.77	11.013	121.285
TSSE	87	73	160	123.69	16.099	259.174
TDD1	3.88	1.00	4.88	2.5012	.58854	.346
TME1	3.50	1.25	4.75	2.8818	.64608	.417
TPCC1	2.75	1.25	4.00	2.4360	.49882	.249
TSP1	3.38	1.38	4.75	2.7149	.56033	.314
TSD1	3.25	1.63	4.88	2.9366	.55420	.307
TRBI	11.00	8.13	19.13	13.4704	1.84113	3.390

Table 1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the variables related to parental relationship, emotional intelligence and romantic beliefs.

With a mean of 42.77 and a standard deviation of 11.01, the TPAC scores varied from 15 to 78. This indicates different trends in this measure and shows a considerable dispersion of TPAC values across subjects. This indicates a moderate spread in how participants perceive their relationships with parental figures in terms of control, autonomy, and emotional interactions. The variation suggests differing experiences with parental roles and their influence on adult-child relationships.

With a mean score of 123.69 and a standard deviation of 16.10, the TSSE indicates a substantial variation in individual scores. This reflects a broad range of emotional intelligence levels among participants, with some demonstrating a strong ability to perceive, understand, and manage emotions, while others scored lower, indicating potential challenges in emotional awareness and regulation.

The Relationship Beliefs Inventory (TRBI), which assesses dysfunctional beliefs about romantic relationships, had scores ranging from 8.13 to 19.13, with a mean of 13.47 and a standard deviation of 1.84. The relatively small spread suggests that while there is some variation, many participants hold moderate beliefs regarding relationship expectations, conflict resolution, and partner behavior.

The Mindreading is Expected subscale (TME1), measuring the belief that partners should intuitively understand each other's thoughts and feelings, had scores ranging from 1.25 to 4.75, with a mean of 2.88 and a standard deviation of 0.65. The moderate spread indicates that while some individuals expect their partners to read their emotions without explicit communication, others do not hold such expectations.

The Partners Cannot Change subscale (TPCC1) had scores ranging from 1.25 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.44 and a standard deviation of 0.50. This reflects variations in beliefs about whether partners are capable of personal growth and behavioral change within a relationship, with some individuals expressing a rigid view while others believe in adaptability and development.

The Sexual Perfectionism subscale (TSP1), assessing rigid expectations about sexual performance, had a score range of 1.38 to 4.75, with a mean of 2.71 and a standard deviation of 0.56. The results suggest that participants' expectations about sexual performance vary, with some holding perfectionistic views that could contribute to relational anxiety, while others adopt a more flexible perspective.

The Sexes Are Different subscale (TSD1), measuring beliefs about fundamental differences between men and women in relationships, had scores between 1.63 and 4.88, with a mean of 2.94 and a standard deviation of 0.55. This indicates a range of views, with some individuals endorsing strong gender-based differences in relationships while others perceive more similarities between sexes.

The data highlights considerable variability in participants' beliefs about relationships, emotional intelligence, and perceptions of parental roles. Some measures, such as TPCC1 and TRBI, exhibit relatively low variance, indicating consistency in responses, while others, such as TSSE and TSD1, show greater dispersion, reflecting differing perspectives. The findings suggest that individual differences play a crucial role in shaping beliefs about emotional intelligence, conflict resolution, and relationship expectations.

Table 2: Descriptive characteristics of demographic details (N=203)

Descriptive Statistics

	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Age (in years)	8	18	26	21.49	1.494	2.231
Sex	2	1	3	1.25	.454	.206
Educational Qualifications	2	1	3	2.40	.671	.450
Socio-economic status	3	1	4	2.95	1.405	1.091

Table 2 demonstrates the demographic characteristics of the sample population. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 26 years, with a mean of 21.49 years, indicating that most participants were in their early twenties. The standard deviation of 1.494 suggests a relatively low dispersion in age distribution within the sample. Sex was categorized into three groups: 1 = Female, 2 = Male, and 3 = Others, with a mean of 1.25. This indicates that most participants were associated with the first category, likely female. The standard deviation of 0.454 suggests minimal variation in gender representation.

Educational qualifications were recorded on a scale of 1 to 3, where 1 = Higher Secondary, 2 = Postgraduate, and 3 = Undergraduate. The mean score of 2.40 suggests that most participants were at the undergraduate level, with a standard deviation of 0.671, indicating moderate variation in educational backgrounds.

Socio-economic status was measured on a scale from 1 to 4, with 1 representing the lower class and 4 representing the upper class. The mean score of 2.95 indicates that most participants belonged to the middle-class or lower upper-class categories. The standard deviation of 1.045 suggests a relatively broad distribution in socio-economic backgrounds among participants.

Correlational Analysis

The relation between parental relationship, emotional intelligence and romantic beliefs is analysed with the help of the Pearson correlation method. To judge the significance of the relationship, the significant value of the relationship was referred. The result for the Pearson Correlation for all the variables is given below.

Table 3: Correlational analysis (N=203)

Correlation

	TPAC	TSSE	TRBI	TDD1	TME1	TPCC1	TSP1	TSD1
TPAC								
TSSE	.143*							
TRBI	.198**	.318**						
TDD1	.195**	.269**	.784**					
TME1	.213**	.011**	660**	457**				
TPCC1	.113	.420**	631**	503**	176*			
TSP1	.056	.229**	589**	309**	223**	205**		
TSD1	.044	.148*	556**	246**	157*	251**	174*	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed)

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2- tailed)

Table 3 shows the correlation matrix for the variables listed below: Parent Adult Child Relationship Questionnaire = TPAC, Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test = TSSE, Disagreement is destructive = TDD1, Misreading is Expected = TME1, Partners Cannot Change = TPCC1, Sexual Perfectionism = TSP1, Sexes Are Different = TSD1, Relationship Belief Inventory = TRBI

To prove the first hypothesis (H01), the Pearson Correlation technique was used. The statistical analysis revealed a significant association between parental relations and emotional intelligence, including measures of parental attachment, bonding, and conflict, as well as emotional intelligence dimensions like self-awareness, emotional regulation, and social competence. The correlation coefficients varied from 0.176 to 0.660 ($p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.01$). The findings show a moderate to substantial positive link between

parental relationships and emotional intelligence, implying that parental interactions play an important role in shaping emotional intelligence.

Using the Pearson Correlation technique, the second hypothesis (H02) was demonstrated. The statistical analysis revealed a significant relationship between parental relations and romantic relationship perceptions, including factors such as parental bonding, discipline, and conflict, as well as perceptions of trust, intimacy, and attachment security. The correlation coefficients varied from 0.205 to 0.589 ($p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.01$). The results show a strong positive association between parental relations and romantic relationship perceptions, implying that early parental interactions have a considerable impact on how people perceive and engage in romantic relationships.

To prove the third hypothesis (H03), there will be a correlation between emotional intelligence and the perception of romantic relationships. The correlation between emotional intelligence (TME1) and romantic relationship perception variables (TSP1, TSD1) showed a slight to moderate positive relationship, with coefficients ranging from $r = 0.157$ to $r = 0.223$ ($p < 0.05$ to $p < 0.01$). This suggests that emotional intelligence is related to how individuals perceive romantic relationships, particularly in areas such as emotional connection, relationship satisfaction, and communication. However, the strength of these associations is relatively weak. While emotional intelligence contributes to romantic relationship perception, its direct impact is minor compared to other influencing factors. Given the weak to moderate correlations, this hypothesis is partially supported, indicating that emotional intelligence plays a role but is not the sole determinant of romantic relationship perceptions.

The correlation matrix identifies multiple significant correlations between parental relations, emotional intelligence, and the perception of romantic relationships. The strongest correlations were found between different aspects of parental relations and emotional intelligence, particularly between TRBI and TME1 ($r = 0.660$, $p < 0.01$) and TRBI and TDD1 ($r = 0.784$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that stronger parental bonding is associated with higher emotional intelligence and better emotional development.

Parental relations also demonstrated moderate relationships with the perception of romantic relationships, as seen in the correlations between TRBI and TSP1 ($r = 0.589$, $p < 0.01$) and TDD1 and TSP1 ($r = 0.309$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that individuals with stronger parental relationships tend to have more positive perceptions of romantic relationships.

Emotional intelligence showed a slight to moderate positive correlation with the perception of romantic relationships, particularly between TME1 and TSP1 ($r = 0.223$, $p < 0.01$) and TME1 and TSD1 ($r = 0.157$, $p < 0.05$), implying that individuals with higher emotional intelligence may have more positive perceptions of romantic relationships. However, the overall influence of emotional intelligence on romantic relationship perception appears to be weaker compared to parental influences.

Overall, the findings support moderate to strong correlations between parental relations and emotional intelligence, as well as between parental relations and the perception of romantic relationships. Emotional intelligence also shows some association with romantic relationship perception, though the effect is comparatively weaker. These results suggest that while emotional intelligence plays a role in shaping romantic relationship perceptions, parental relationships may have a more substantial impact on both emotional intelligence and romantic relationship perceptions.

5. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between parental bond and emotional intelligence in shaping adults' perceptions of romantic relationships. The study involved 205 participants across India ranging from 18-26 years. After excluding criteria, the final analysis focused on data from 203 young adults.

The result of parental relationships and emotional intelligence indicates that the first hypothesis, H1, is accepted, which implies that there is a positive correlation between parental relationships and emotional intelligence.

A secure parental bond, characterized by warmth, consistency, emotional availability, and open communication, serves as a foundational model for emotional intelligence. These environments facilitate the internalization of social problem-solving skills and emotion management techniques, and good coping mechanisms by individuals. People who grow up in loving parental relationships are more likely to have higher levels of emotional intelligence, which is defined as the ability to recognise, comprehend, control, and effectively use emotions in themselves and others. This is consistent with other studies where the findings demonstrated that the way parents communicate with their teenagers has an impact on both their interpersonal behavior and emotional intelligence development. The teens' capacity to control their own moods and impulses, be more adaptable, disengaged from issues, and assertively communicate their feelings is largely influenced by the parenting bond and the dynamics within the family (Nastas and Sala, 2012b).

The second hypothesis H2, which proposed a positive correlation between parental relationships and perceptions of romantic relationships, was accepted. This implies that the quality of parental relationships influences not just behavior within relationships but also the beliefs and expectations adolescents hold about romantic involvement.

Individuals who receive the right amount of autonomy within a nurturing environment are more likely to internalize good dating limits and have a better understanding of parental expectations (Masarik et al., 2014). A balanced perspective on romantic relationships—one that values communication and understanding between partners while still respecting individual autonomy—is fostered by such a dynamic.

Teenage girls who have parents who are welcoming and emotionally supportive are more likely to grow up to be good people with qualities like empathy and sincerity. These characteristics influence how these people view what a romantic relationship should entail in addition to being necessary for relationship success (Auslander, Short, Succop, & Rosenthal, 2009). The internalization of these qualities' aids in the development of romantic ideals that are both utopian and realistic, such as the significance of genuineness, emotional sharing, and respect for one another.

Additionally, the results are consistent with attachment theory's internal working model, which postulates that early interactions with caregivers create the framework for expectancies in close relationships later (Chen et al., 2020). Secure attachment styles are more likely to be adopted by adolescents whose parents are emotionally responsive and attentive. Beliefs on the longevity of romantic bonds, the potential for emotional safety in intimacy, and the dependability of romantic partners are all strongly associated with these patterns.

Perceptions of romance are also significantly shaped by family structure. Young people's perceptions of romantic connection are influenced by their family of origin, one of the most important and private social settings. Research identifies two ways that family dynamics influence romantic beliefs: congruence and compensation. While compensation demonstrates efforts to generate healthier romantic experiences than those mirrored at home, congruence implies that people absorb patterns seen in their parents' relationships (Kretschmer et al., 2015). Teenagers from loving homes are more likely to have solid and hopeful views about relationships and love, and they anticipate that commitment, deference, and emotional intimacy will be the standard.

The results of emotional intelligence and perception of romantic relationships indicates that H3 which looked for positive correlation between emotional intelligence and perception of romantic relationships is rejected, because the results reveal a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and perception of romantic relationships, particularly irrational beliefs.

People's experiences, navigation, and maintenance of romantic connections are significantly influenced by their emotional intelligence (EI). It affects how people resolve disputes, express their desires, and overcome obstacles in romantic contexts.

According to our findings, those with lower emotional intelligence are more prone to maintain dysfunctional or illogical views about relationships, such as the notion that love alone can fix everything, that arguments indicate a failing relationship, or the expectation of perpetual harmony. These ideas create irrational expectations and make it more difficult to handle typical relationship problems in a constructive manner.

According to one study on Turkish people, those who had more irrational views about relationships were less satisfied with their romantic relationships. According to a different Turkish study, those who resorted to destructive coping mechanisms during disputes also exhibited more irrational ideas. The idea that "disagreements are harmful" had a significant detrimental impact on relationship satisfaction in both Britain and Hungary, according to studies involving participants from both nations. According to a different study, those who have more dysfunctional beliefs frequently employ poor problem-solving techniques, which exacerbates relationship problems and reduces satisfaction (Pinsky, 2025c).

People with low emotional intelligence may not be self-aware enough to identify these damaging beliefs or have the emotional control necessary to react appropriately in difficult circumstances. They might respond rashly, misunderstand what their partner is trying to say, or completely avoid settling disputes.

On the other hand, those with higher emotional intelligence are more inclined to question irrational beliefs, control their emotions in conflict, and speak clearly and empathetically. They are more capable of sustaining emotional balance and fostering comprehension, both of which support deeper, more fulfilling love partnerships.

Therefore, the negative correlation between EI and perception of romantic relationships may be explained by the fact that those with lower emotional intelligence are more vulnerable to the negative effects of irrational beliefs, leading to unhealthy relationship dynamics and reduced satisfaction.

6. CONCLUSION

The purpose explains that emotional intelligence primarily refers to interpersonal skills and the ability to manage and express one's emotions. Emotional intelligence is being explored for the first time with this study. The results of this investigation are conceivable given that love is the foundation of emotional intelligence and overall wellbeing, and that children and adolescents who experience limited affection are taught to exhibit authoritarianism, exertion, and judgmental emotions. Adolescents who experience good parenting and a strong family environment are more likely to have healthy romantic relationships than young adults. Adolescents who act well with their families and are more assertive also contribute to a pleasant family environment.

Finally, the study shows that teenagers with poorer emotional intelligence may find it difficult to control other people's feelings. They might, therefore, see romantic relationships as a way to get out of emotional problems or to feel validated and valuable. These teenagers could have irrational expectations because they romanticize romantic relationships, thinking they would resolve personal issues or offer constant emotional support.

It is feasible to conclude that parent-child interactions, emotional intelligence, and romantic relationship perceptions are mildly to moderately positively correlated based on the research and within the parameters of the current study.

As well as a somewhat inverse association between the impression of romantic relationships and emotional intelligence.

All things considered, these results emphasize how crucial it is to develop good views of romantic relationships by boosting emotional intelligence and promoting healthy parental dynamics. To help people create more fulfilling love relationships and enhance their overall psychological well-being, future interventions may focus on cultivating consistent interpersonal behaviors and enhancing emotional intelligence.

Limitations of the study

Among the study's drawbacks is its tiny sample size. First of all, the comparatively small sample size is a serious worry since it may jeopardise the accuracy of the findings. A small sample size may result in statistical problems. The robustness of the results would be improved and more confident generalisations may be made with a bigger sample size, especially one that includes a variety of demographics. Furthermore, there was a noticeable gender imbalance among the participants, which could introduce bias into the study. Additionally, the results may be impacted by the unequal representation of male and female participants, as different genders may exhibit different levels of emotional intelligence, romantic relationship perception, and relationship with parents. It was unable to establish causation since the data were correlational.

Moreover, the study focuses exclusively on participants from India, which raises concerns about cultural inclusiveness. Cultural context plays a crucial role in shaping an individual’s perceptions of parental relationships, emotional intelligence, and romantic relationships.

Future implications

This study paves the way for several important directions for future research, particularly by highlighting a topic that has received little attention in the literature to date: the relationship between emotional

intelligence and irrational romantic perceptions. While previous research has extensively focused on emotional intelligence in relation to relationship satisfaction, communication, and emotional regulation (Jardine et al., 2022c), few studies have investigated how emotional intelligence interacts with dysfunctional romantic beliefs, such as the belief in soulmates, mind-reading expectations, or partner perfectionism. These are frequently formed early on and can last into adulthood, which may cause dissatisfaction and conflict in relationships (Eidelson & Epstein, 1982; Sprecher & Metts, 1999c).

The Relationship Belief Inventory (RBI), which assesses maladaptive and illogical expectations for romantic relationships, is used in this study in an effort to close that gap. The idea that emotional intelligence might operate as a protective factor against these problematic beliefs is supported by the findings of this study. For instance, people with greater EI may be better able to identify and control unreasonable expectations and change their perspective from destiny-oriented (i.e., "we're either meant to be or not") to growth-oriented (Knee, 1998d) according to the substantial correlations found between several RBI subscales and emotional intelligence characteristics. Nonetheless, there is still a shortage of literature in this field, particularly in non-Western cultures. Few studies have explicitly examined EI's link to belief systems about love and relationships, but the majority of present research highlights how it improves emotional well-being and relationship satisfaction (Bhalla et al., 2019).

Furthermore, research on the relationship between romantic perceptions and emotional intelligence is still in its early stages. The majority of the work currently in publication views emotional intelligence as a predictor of relationship satisfaction or a protective factor against relationship problems (Bhalla et al., 2019). However, it hardly ever looks at how emotionally intelligent people absorb or cognitively understand romantic beliefs. Future studies could possibly investigate the long-term interactions between emotional intelligence and these perceptions as well as the potential for focused therapies to successfully modify illogical relationship schemas. Emotionally intelligent people, for example, could be more inclined to reject romanticized ideas of love and adopt ideas that prioritize discussion, adaptability, and mutual development (Montgomery, 2005)

The results also demonstrate how early family experiences—in particular parental bonding—have an impact on the development of romantic perceptions and emotional intelligence. Research has indicated that the development of children's emotional competences is greatly aided by parental affection, openness, and emotional modeling (Walter et al., 2024). On the other hand, emotional instability or overprotection may lead to maladaptive emotion regulation and unreasonable expectations in romantic relationships later in life (Tartakovsky, 2024). Future studies might examine the ways in which certain parenting approaches or parental modeling strategies influence the emergence or reduction of irrational romantic beliefs, using emotional intelligence as a potential key factor.

These insights have real-world applications in interpersonal education initiatives and therapeutic practice. For instance, incorporating programs that concentrate on dismantling inaccurate romantic beliefs in addition to emotional literacy and communication skills might be beneficial for college-based therapies. Long-term relationship outcomes might be improved by psychoeducational initiatives that assist developing adults in critically assessing their relationship expectations and using more healthy emotional coping mechanisms.

Finally, as the sample for this study consisted of young adults in India, cross-cultural replication is necessary to comprehend how cultural values affect the link between romantic beliefs and emotional intelligence. According to research, the formation and management of romantic expectations vary greatly across individualistic and collectivistic cultures (Bejanyan et al., 2014). Longitudinal studies could also

help determine the directionality of effects: whether emotionally intelligent people are less likely to adopt irrational romantic beliefs over time, or if these beliefs shape their emotional abilities through repeated relationship-based experiences.

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APPENDIX I

Appendix 1
The Parent Adult–Child Relationship Questionnaire

This form contains a number of statements about relationships between adults and their parents. Please read each statement carefully, and decide how well it describes your relationship with your mother and your father as it has been over the *last* year. Please circle the most appropriate response of the four possible responses.

Very true
Tick if you feel that the statement describes your relationship with your parent accurately.

Moderately true
Tick if you feel that the statement describes your relationship with your parent for the most part.

Somewhat true
Tick if you feel that the statement describes your relationship with your parent to a small extent.

Not true at all
Tick if you feel that the statement does not describe your relationship with your parent at all.

Relationship with Mother (PACQM)	Very true	Moderately true	Somewhat true	Not true at all
1. I look forward to seeing my mother	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
2. I feel responsible for my mother's happiness.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
3. I feel that I should take care of my mother because she has suffered so much in her life.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
4. My mother is my best friend.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
5. My mother's difficulty in making decisions has been a burden on me.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
6. My mother shows her appreciation of me.	(3)	(2)	(I)	(0)

7. I am the only one my mother can rely on.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
8. My mother thinks I am good in a crisis so she calls on me all the time.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
9. I respect my mother's opinion.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
10. I feel that I have to protect my mother.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
11. My mother relies on me too much.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
12. I am glad to be able to repay my mother for all the love and care she gave me as a child.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
13. I feel like I parent my mother.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)

Scoring: *Regard Scale* Arabic numerals
Responsibility Scale Roman numerals

Relationship with Father (PACQF)	Very true	Moderately true	Somewhat true	Not true at all
1. If I don't do things my father's way he will nag me.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
2. I respect my father's opinion.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
3. Something will happen to my father if I don't take care of him.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
4. I feel that my father tries to manipulate me.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
5. I look forward to seeing my father.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
6. I feel responsible for my father's happiness.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
7. My father tries to dominate me.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
8. I feel that my father makes too many demands on me.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
9. I know I can rely on my father to help me if I need him.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
10. If I don't see my father for a week I feel guilty.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)
11. I don't discuss much with my father because I'm afraid of being criticized.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
12. I don't mind putting myself out for my father.	(3)	(2)	(1)	(0)
13. My father thinks I'm good in a crisis so he calls on me all the time.	(III)	(II)	(I)	(0)

Scoring: *Regard Scale* Arabic numerals
Responsibility Scale Roman numerals
Control scale Italic Arabic numerals

APPENDIX II

Unit 2

RELATIONSHIP BELIEFS INVENTORY

The statements below describe ways in which a person might feel about a relationship with another person. Please mark the space next to each statement according to how strongly
you believe that it is true or false for you. ***Please mark every one.*** Write in 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1, to stand for the following answers:

5: I strongly believe that the statement is *true*.
4: I believe that the statement is *true*.
3: I believe that the statement is *probably true*, or more true than false.
2: I believe that the statement is *false*.
1: I strongly believe that the statement is *false*.

_____ 1. If your partner expresses disagreement with your ideas, s/he probably does not think highly of you.

_____ 2. I do not expect my partner to sense all my moods.

_____ 3. Damages done early in a relationship probably cannot be reversed.

_____ 4. I get upset if I think I have not completely satisfied my partner sexually.

_____ 5. Men and women have the same basic emotional needs.

_____ 6. I cannot accept it when my partner disagrees with me.

_____ 7. If I have to tell my partner that something is important to me, it does not mean s/he is insensitive to me.

_____ 8. My partner does not seem capable of behaving other than s/he does now.

_____ 9. If I'm not in the mood for sex when my partner is, I don't get upset about it.

_____ 10. Misunderstandings between partners generally are due to inborn differences in psychological makeups of men and women.

_____ 11. I take it as a personal insult when my partner disagrees with an important idea of mine.

_____ 12. I get very upset if my partner does not recognize how I am feeling and I have to tell him/her.

_____ 13. A partner can learn to become more responsive to his/her partner's needs.

Unit 2

_____ 14. A good sexual partner can get himself/herself aroused for sex whenever necessary.

_____ 15. Men and women probably will never understand the opposite sex very well.

_____ 16. I like it when my partner presents views different from mine.

_____ 17. People who have a close relationship can sense each other's needs as if they could read each other's minds.

_____ 18. Just because my partners has acted in ways that upset me does not mean that s/he will do so in the future.

_____ 19. If I cannot perform well sexually every time my partner is in the mood, I would consider that I have a problem.

_____ 20. Men and women need the same basic things out of a relationship.

_____ 21. I get very upset when my partner and I cannot see things the same way.

_____ 22. It is important to me for my partner to anticipate my needs by sensing changes in my moods.

_____ 23. A partner who hurts you badly once probably will hurt you again.

_____ 24. I can feel OK about my lovemaking even if my partner does not achieve orgasm.

_____ 25. Biological differences between men and women are not major causes of couples problems.

_____ 26. I cannot tolerate it when my partner argues with me.

_____ 27. A partner should know what you are thinking or feeling without you having to tell.

_____ 28. If my partner wants to change, I believe that s/he can do it.

_____ 29. If my sexual partner does not get satisfied completely, it does not mean that I have failed.

_____ 30. One of the major causes of marital problems is that men and women have different emotional needs.

_____ 31. When my partner and I disagree, I feel like our relationship is falling apart.

APPENDIX III

Unit 2

_____ 32. People who love each other know exactly what each other's thoughts are without a word ever being said.

_____ 33. If you do not like the way a relationship is going, you can make it better.

_____ 34. Some difficulties in my sexual performance do not mean personal failure to me.

_____ 35. You can't really understand someone of the opposite sex.

_____ 36. I do not doubt my partner's feelings for me when we argue.

_____ 37. If you have to ask your partner for something, it shows that s/he was not "tuned into" your needs.

_____ 38. I do not expect my partner to be able to change.

_____ 39. When I do not seem to be performing well sexually, I get upset.

_____ 40. Men and women will always be mysteries to each other.

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Educational Resources

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the scale in the five columns to the right of each item.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	1	2	3	4	5
2.	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I expect that I will do well on most things I try	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Other people find it easy to confide in me	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important	1	2	3	4	5
7.	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I expect good things to happen	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I like to share my emotions with others	1	2	3	4	5
12.	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I arrange events others enjoy	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I seek out activities that make me happy	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others	1	2	3	4	5
17.	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me	1	2	3	4	5
18.	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I know why my emotions change	1	2	3	4	5
20.	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I have control over my emotions	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I compliment others when they have done something well	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send	1	2	3	4	5
26.	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself	1	2	3	4	5
	Subtotal p. 2					

2 | 3

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Educational Resources

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

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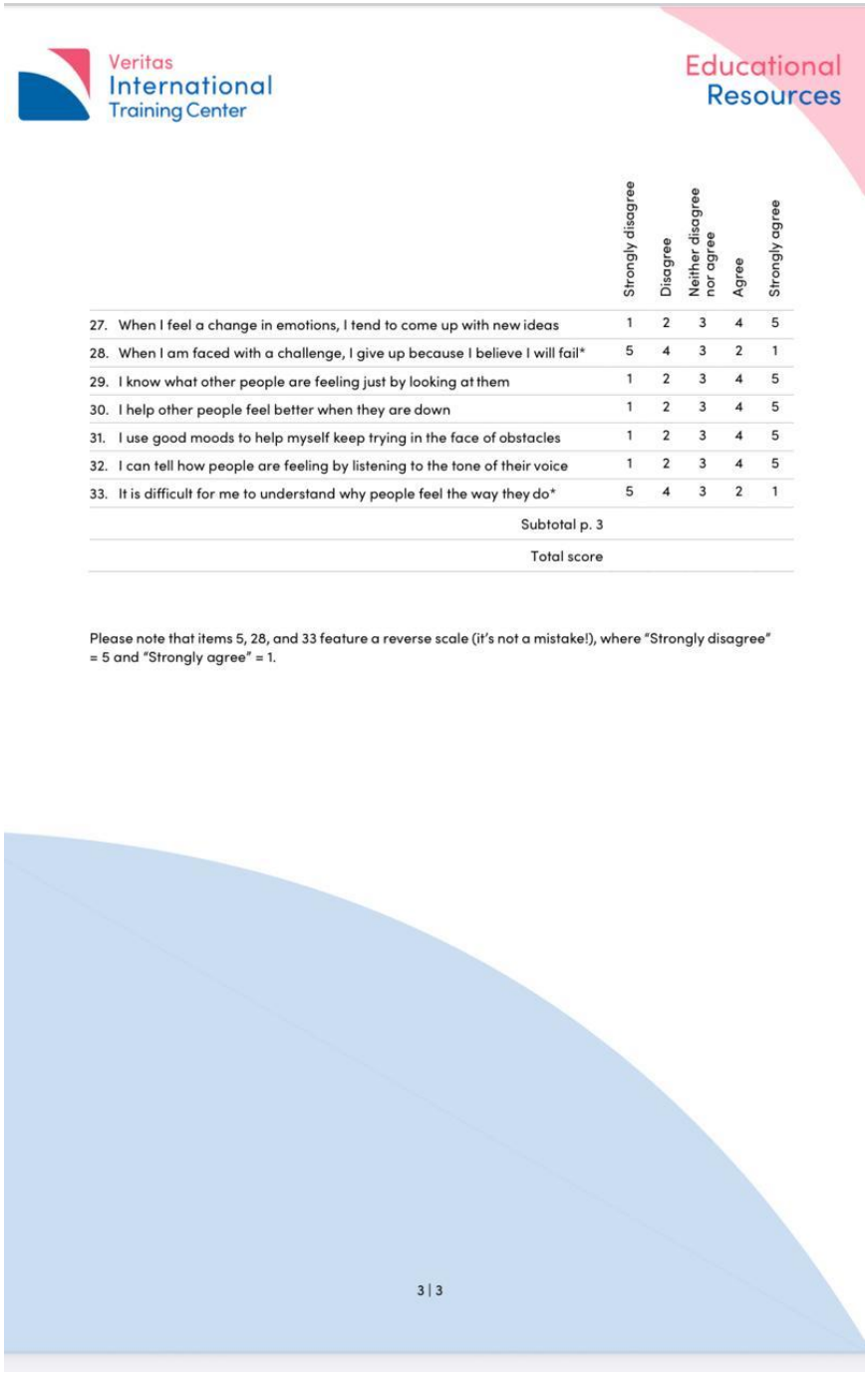
22.	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I compliment others when they have done something well	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send	1	2	3	4	5
26.	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself	1	2	3	4	5
	Subtotal p. 2					

2 | 3



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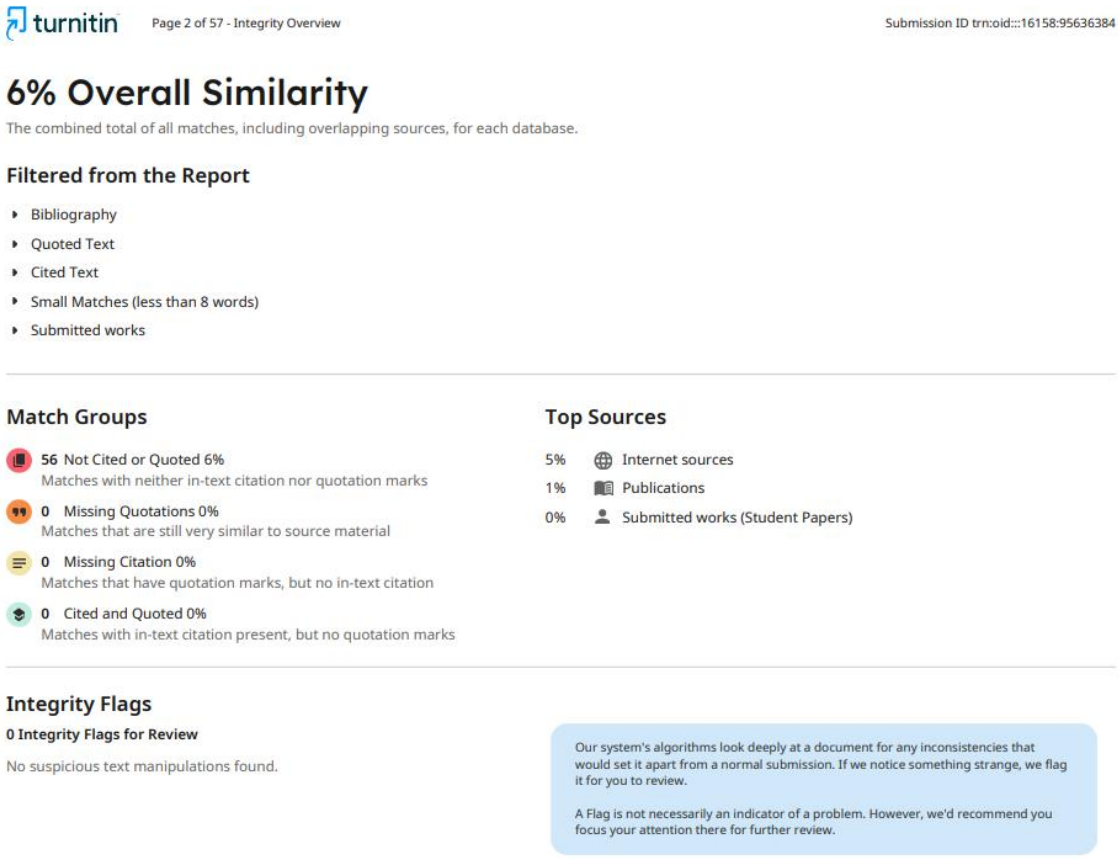
Educational Resources

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*	5	4	3	2	1
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them	1	2	3	4	5
30. I help other people feel better when they are down	1	2	3	4	5
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	1	2	3	4	5
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	1	2	3	4	5
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*	5	4	3	2	1
Subtotal p. 3					
Total score					

Please note that items 5, 28, and 33 feature a reverse scale (it's not a mistake!), where "Strongly disagree" = 5 and "Strongly agree" = 1.

3 | 3



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