ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study, “Understanding Cultural Differences in Emotional Intelligence and Attachment Style among Young Adults” is to find out whether there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment; whether there is a significant cultural and gender differences in emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults and whether there is a significant difference between the two variables based on culture. The sample for the study consisted of 120 young adults within the age group of 18-25 years. The samples were collected from different states of India through random sampling method. The tools used for the study are The Assessing Emotions Scale, developed by Nicola S. Schutte, John M. Malouff and Navjot Bhullar in 2008 and Attachment Style Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Feeney, Noller, & Hanrahan in 1994. Karl Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient, Student’s t-test and Descriptive Statistics were used to analyse the collected data. The results indicate that there exists a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and
attachment among young adults; there is no significant gender difference between emotional intelligence and attachment; there is no significant cultural difference between emotional intelligence and attachment and there is no significant difference between emotional intelligence and attachment based on the locality.

**INTRODUCTION**

The term adult comes from the same Latin verb as the term adolescence - adolescere which means ‘to grow to maturity’. The word adult means ‘grown to full size and strength or matured’. Adult are individuals, who have completed their growth and are ready to assume their status in society along with other adults (Hurlock, 1981). Jeffrey Jensen Arnett referred the transition from adolescence to adulthood as emerging adulthood, which occurs from approximately 18 to 25 years of age (Arnett, 2006, 2007). At this point in their development, many individuals are still exploring which career path they want to follow, what they want their identity to be, and which lifestyle they want to adopt.

During the long period of adulthood, certain physical and psychological changes occur at predictable time, adulthood is customarily subdivided on the basis of the times at which these changes take place together with adjustment problems and cultural pressures and expectancies stemming from them. Early adulthood extends from age eighteen to approximately age forty. When the physical and psychological changes which accompany the beginning of the less of reproductive capacity appears. Young adults find early years of adulthood so difficult that try to prolong their dependency by retaining the roles of student long after their age-mates have tried to end their dependency on parents and are striving to become independent of help from others (Hurlock, 1981).

Early adulthood is the age of settling down. It is the time when individuals face significant challenges and are expected to assume new responsibilities and obligations. It is a period of social isolation. With the end of formal education and the entrance in to the adult life pattern of work and marriage associations with the peer groups of adolescence wane and with them, opportunities of social contacts outside the home. As a result for the first time, since babyhood even the most popular individual is also likely to experience social isolation or isolation crisis (Erikson).

Many young adults have become accustomed throughout childhood and adolescence to depend up on peers for companionship, experience loneliness when responsibilities at home or at work isolate them from groups of their peers. Those who were most active during their school and college days and who devoted much of their time to peer activities, find adjustment towards social isolation in adulthood (Hurlock, 1981). Some factors that influence the social participation in early adulthood are:

**Social Mobility**

The more anxious adults are to improve their social status, the more they try to become affiliated with the community organizations that will help them to rise on the social ladder.
Socioeconomic Status

Young adults whose socioeconomic status is favorable are able to participate in more social activities, especially outside the home, than are those whose socioeconomic status is strained.

Gender

Men are free to engage in social activities outside the home than women, who often must limit their social participation.

Birth Order

First born, suffer from feelings of insecurity, tend to be joiners and are more active in community affairs than those who were born late.

Family Structure

Nuclear Family: It consists of parents and one or two children. Adults in this family show very less interest to social activities.

Joint Family: This is mostly seen in rural areas. It consists of more than five members, adults in this pattern shows more interest to social activities (Hurlock, 1981).

Attachment

The other factor that influences the adult’s life is attachment. Attachment is a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another across the time and space (Ainsworth, 1973; Bowlby, 1969). Attachment is characterized by specific behaviour in children, such as seeking proximity to the attachment figure when upset or threatened (Bowlby, 1969). Soon after the birth we exhibit various social responses—love, fear and anger. The first and greatest of these is love. By keeping infants close to their caregivers, social attachment serves as a powerful survival impulse under the conditions of extreme neglect then the children may become withdrawn, frightened and silent. John Bowlby (1980) reflected that intimate attachments to other human beings are the hub around which a person’s life revolves. Attachment does not have to be reciprocal. Attachment behaviour in adults towards the child includes responding sensitivity and appropriately to the child’s need. Such behaviour appears across cultures (Myers, 2006). Bowlby (1969) had been credited as the father of the notion of attachment, who described it as a “lasting psychological connectedness between human beings.”

Bowlby further identified that development and behaviour in later life are being significantly influenced by the nature of attachment developed in early life between infant/child and caregiver. According to Bowlby (1969) there are four distinguishing characteristics of attachment:
1. Proximity Maintenance – It represents the desire of the two individuals with attachment bonds to remain close.
2. Safe Haven – It includes the wish to return “to the attachment figure for comfort and safety in the face of a fear or threat.”

3. Secure Base – It focuses on the perception of the attachment figure “as a base of security from which the child can explore the surrounding environment.”

4. Separation Distress – It highlights the feeling of “anxiety that occurs in the absence of the attachment figure.” (Bowlby, 1969)

**Attachment Styles**

About 7 in 10 infants, and nearly that many adults, exhibit secure attachment (Baldwin & others, 1996; Jones & Cunningham, 1996; Mickelson & others, 1997). It is attachment rooted in trust and marked by intimacy. When placed as infants in a strange situation, they play comfortably in their mother’s presence, happily exploring this strange environment. If she leaves, they get distressed; when she returns, they run to her old her, then relax and return to exploring and playing (Ainsworth, 1973, 1979). This trusting attachment style, many researchers believe, forms a working model of intimacy—a blueprint for one’s adult intimate relationships. Secure adults find it easy to get close to others and don’t fret about getting too dependent or being abandoned. As lovers, they enjoy sexuality within the context of a secure, committed relationship. And their relationships tend to be satisfying and enduring (Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Simpson & others, 1992).

About 2 in 10 infants and adults exhibit avoidant attachment. It is a relationship style marked by dismissive detachment. Internally aroused, avoidant infants reveals little distress during separation or clinging up on reunion. Avoiding closeness, these adults tends to be less invested in relationships and more likely to leave them. Kim Bartholomew and Leonard Horowitz (1991) noted that the avoidance individuals may be either fearful or dismissing.

About 1 in 10 infant and adults exhibit the anxiousness and ambivalence that mark insecure attachment. It is attachment marked by anxiety ambivalence and possessiveness. In the strange situation, they are more likely to cling anxiously to their mother. If she leaves, they cry and when she returns they may be indifferent and hostile. As adults anxious-ambivalent individuals are less trusting and therefore more possessive and jealous. They may break up repeatedly with the same person. When discussing conflicts, they get emotional and often angry (Cassidy, 2000; Simpson & others, 1996).

Researchers have attributed these varying attachment styles to parental responsiveness. Cindy Hazan (2004) sums up the idea of early attachment experiences form the basis of internal working models or characteristics ways of thinking about relationships. Sensitive, responsive mothers who engender a sense of basic trust in the world’s reliability typically have securely attached infants (Ainsworth, 1979; Erikson, 1963). Youth who have experienced nurturing and involved parenting tend later to have warm and supportive relationships with their romantic partners (Conger & others, 2000). Some researchers believed attachment styles may reflect
inherited temperament and early attachment styles do seem to lay a foundation for future relationships (Harris, 1998).

Attachment is a significant personality aspect that determines the quality of life on an individual on personal as well as on professional fronts. It is because attachment under lies a special emotional bond between two individuals and it is the capacity for recognizing our own feeling and those of others for motivating ourselves and in other relationships. This is referred as emotional intelligence by Goleman (1998).

From Plato to Goleman and Boyatzis several biologists, psychologist and neuroscientists have worked and are still working to study the concept of emotional intelligence and its relationship with success. In the 20th century the momentum for research on emotional intelligence got accelerated. In 1990 Salovery and Mayer coined the term emotional intelligence. They described that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action (Malekar, 2011).

**Emotional Intelligence**

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one’s own feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions. They developed Ability -based EI model. Salovey and Myer’s conception of EI describes EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Based on further research, their initial definition of EI was revised to: ‘The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth’. The ability based model views emotions a useful source of information that helps one to make sense of and negative situation. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours (Malekar, 2011). The model proposes that EI includes 4 types of abilities:

**Perceiving emotions**

The ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts-including the ability to identify one’s own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

**Using emotions**

The ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully up on his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

**Understanding emotions**

The ability to comprehend emotional language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.
Managing emotions

The ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones and manage these to achieve intended goals (Malekar, 2011).

Goleman (1998) defines emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and in our relationships. Emotional intelligence describes abilities distinct from, but complementary to academic intelligence or the purely cognitive capacities measures by IQ. Goleman has also identified a set of emotional competencies that differentiate individuals from each other (Singh, 2004). The competencies fall into four clusters:

Self awareness: capacity for understanding one’s emotions, one’s strengths and one’s weakness.
Self management: capacity for effectively managing one’s motives and regulating one’s behaviour.
Social awareness: capacity for understanding what others are saying and feeling and why they feel and act as they do others and reach personal goals (Singh, 2004).

Goleman included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are no innate talents, but learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman opined that individuals are born with general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies (Malekar, 2011).

Reuven Bar-On (2006) developed one of the first measures of EI that used the term of Emotion Quotient. He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands (Malekar, 2011). In his model, Bar-On outlines five major components of emotional intelligence which are further divided into their sub components: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood.

Intrapersonal (self-awareness and self-expression)
• Self-Regard - It means being aware of, understanding and accepting ourselves
• Emotional Self-Awareness - It implies being aware of and understanding our emotions
• Assertiveness - It is the act of expressing our feelings and ourselves non-destructively
• Independence – It means being self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
• Self-Actualization- It is the process of setting and achieving goals to actualize our potential

Interpersonal (social awareness and interaction)
• Empathy - It means being aware of and understanding how others feel
• Social Responsibility - It means identifying with and feeling part of our social groups
• Interpersonal Relationship - It means establishing mutually satisfying relationships
Stress management (emotional management and control)

- Stress Tolerance - It means effectively and constructively managing our emotions
- Impulse Control - It means effectively and constructively controlling our emotions

Adaptability (change management)

- Reality Testing - This means validating our feelings and thinking with external reality
- Flexibility - It means coping with and adapting to change in our daily life
- Problem solving - This means generating effective solutions to problems of an intrapersonal and interpersonal nature

General mood (self-motivation)

- Optimism - It means having a positive outlook and looking at the brighter side of life
- Happiness - It means feeling content with ourselves, others and life in general

This model relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance and success itself, and is considered process oriented rather than outcome oriented (Bar-On, 2002). Consistent with this model, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself to understand and relate well with others and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2006).

Petrides et al. (2000, 2004, 2007) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI. Trait EI is “a constellation of emotional self perceptions located at the lower levels of personality”. In simple terms trait EI refers to an individual’s self perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioural dispositions and self perceived abilities. The trait EI model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models. Research suggests that people with high levels of EI are likely to be habitually assertive, confident, controlled, disciplined, driven to achieve, emphatic, energetic, organized, optimistic and sociable (Petrides and Furnham, 2001). Trait models use aspects of our personality to predict how likely it is that we will be able to skilfully apply emotional abilities. Trait model of EI attempts to isolate personality, attribute or personal tendencies that are associated with higher levels of EI. Therefore, they are not technically models of emotional intelligence. (Mayer, Robert and Barsade, 2008).

Human beings are like a tabula rasa on which society writes its scripts. Culture and traditions, normative patterns and value orientations are responsible not only for our personality development but also appropriate social and emotional development. This makes us functional entities in society. Emotional intelligence involves effective manifestation of emotion in a specific cultural context. Ekman (1972) viewed emotions were expressed
in a universally similar manner, a large number of studies proved the influence of culture on perception, recognition, appraisal and experience of emotions (Matsumoto, 1993; Mandal, Bulman-Fleming, 1996). In a high collectivist culture, negative emotions such as fear and anger are more often suppressed than are, in an individualistic culture (Mandal et.al., 1996).

During the time of education, an individual learner is expected to form his or her opinion about life, attitude to cope with stress in the process of learning and knowledge dissemination. Self motivation and self efficacy through enhanced self awareness and the self in the context of class or group or team become very important. Adult learners prefer to feel the significance of their roles want recognition and appreciate interdependence. Therefore only cognitive components of the learning behaviour are not enough. The feeling factor also plays major role in this process. This act of balancing between feeling and cognition helps to develop emotional intelligence.

Culture plays an important role in shaping our emotional intelligence as had been depicted in many researches. According to Taylor (1871) culture is that complex whole which included knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom and any other abilities and habits acquired by man as a member of a society. Geertz (1973) defined culture as a historically transmitted pattern of meaning embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms, by means of which men communicated, perpetuated and developed their knowledge about and attitudes towards life. Culture was also defined as the collective programming of the mind with which distinguished the members of one human group from another (Hofstede, 1980). Culture is the manifestation of behaviour of a group of people who share common values, beliefs and ideas. It is learnt through the process of socialization; it develops over time and it is manifested through different layers ranging from superficial to deeper and less tangible layers (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 1995). Culture determines the socially learned display rules of emotional behaviours (Ekman & Oster, 1979). The impact of cultural context in which the emotional intelligence is manifested cannot be ignored in the construction of emotional intelligence.

Indian culture is collectivist in its orientation (Bond, 1985; Hofstede, 1980; Shina & Tripathi, 1994). Indians are located either towards the higher side of collectivism end of the individualism – collectivism scale or close to its midpoint (Verma, 1999). Indian culture is also categorized as ‘family’ culture (Hofstede, 1980), the consequence of Indian tradition of joint families and cast systems, that encourages strong personal authority with few formal rules (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 1995). Culture is the enduring behaviours, ideas, attitudes and traditions shared by a large group of people and transmitted from one generation to the next (Myers, 2006).

**Need and Significance**

In the present era, there are drastic changes taking place in the Indian culture. Here understanding the cultural differences in emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults are studied. It examines the relationship between the attachment styles and emotional intelligence and it also measures the significant
differences in the variables on the basis of gender, locality and culture. The study focuses on emotional abilities and tries to understand cultural differences. It further identifies the reasons for individual’s pattern of responses. In the present scenario, recruiters are mostly looking forward on both emotional and social aspects of an individual rather than the intellectual aspects alone. The emotional aspects include the emotional intelligence while the social aspects include the attachment styles and interpersonal relationships. As greater emphasis is given to the emotional and social aspects there is a growing need to find the importance of both these aspects among young adults, which serves as a base for this study. Young adults of present generation must gain awareness and be more equipped with enhanced emotional and social aspects. A study conducted by Mohanty and Uma Devi in 2010 gives a strong evidence that individuals who are securely attached had better interpersonal relation, good problem solving skills and were found to be more happier.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

**CHAPTER-II**

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Ainsworth & Bell (1970) conducted a study on Cultural Differences in Attachment among 1250 adolescents from 8 countries across the world. The result shows that there is a cultural difference among the adolescents across the countries. This study provides evidence for significant cultural difference in attachment style among adolescents. In this study we intend to understand cultural difference in emotional intelligence in addition to attachment styles among young adults.

Boncher (2003) conducted a study on the relationship between attachment styles and emotional intelligence among 271 college students. The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between attachment style and emotional intelligence. This study serves as an evidence to understand the relationship among the chosen variables in the similar subset of population.

Kafetsios (2004) studied the relationship between attachment orientation and emotional intelligence among 239 adults, aged 19-66 years. Results revealed that secure attachment was positively related to all sub-scales and total emotional intelligence scores. Attachment was positively associated with the ability to understand emotions. This study provides an evidence for the relation among the variables emotional intelligence and attachment orientation in adults. In this study we are trying to plot out the cultural differences in addition to identifying levels of emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.

Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) conducted a study among the sample of 291 Indian army officers regarding the relationship between emotional intelligence and their age. The result indicates that emotional intelligence had increased with age. Therefore there is a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and age. This study reveals the relationship between emotional intelligence and the age of army officers who were the samples. In the current study we have given a greater emphasis on cultural differences in emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.
Sibia, Misra and Srivastava (2004) conducted a study on the notion of emotional intelligence in the Indian social-cultural context, among the adolescents (N=1047). Results indicate that the Indian view of emotional intelligence is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one’s emotions. This study provides a proof in socio-cultural differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents. In the present study we are focusing on the attachment styles in addition to emotional intelligence among young adults.

Mathur, Malhotra and Dube (2005) conducted a study on gender differences in the selection variables of emotional intelligence, which were attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievement in high school students (N= 83, M=36, F=47) with an age group of 13 to 15 years. The study does not reveal any significant gender-differences on the dimensions of emotional intelligence. The results indicate that there is no significant difference among boys and girls on the selected components of emotional intelligence. This study serves as a proof as there is no gender difference in emotional intelligence.

Zaynab and Baghmalek (2006) conducted a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence, attachment style and optimism with marital satisfaction among 150 volunteer couples. The results indicate that there was a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and marital satisfaction. This study provides an evidence of the relationship among the variables emotional intelligence, optimism and attachment style. The current study has focused only in the cultural, gender and locality differences among the sample in the levels of emotional intelligence and attachment styles.

Austin, Evans, Goldwater and Potter (2006) conducted a study among a group of 156 first year medical students who have been assessed of emotional intelligence and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communications skills course component. Results showed that females scored significantly higher than males on emotional intelligence. This study has studied the levels of emotional intelligence in the medical students whereas the current study does not include specificity of course of study as an inclusion criteria.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al. (2006) conducted a study on the gender as the predictor of emotional intelligence, in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants (42 male, 84 female). The result indicates that gender was not a significant predictor of emotional intelligence. This study provides a viewpoint that gender is not an important predictor of emotional intelligence among young adults.

Singh Chaudhary and Asthana (2008) conducted a study on impact of gender on emotional intelligence of adolescents, among a sample of 400 adolescents (200 male and 200 female) from various schools and colleges. The results revealed that male and female adolescents exhibit moderate levels of emotional intelligence, concluding that both male and female adolescents are caring, giving, and supportive and enriching. The current study pertains to include cultural aspects in addition to gender differences.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) conducted a study to the locate effect (mentioned as community) on the emotional intelligence of 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees and inconsistently found that there is no significant
effect of community on the emotional intelligence. This study was focused only among the profession of teaching. Although occupation is not a criterion under the current study, it still explores the locality differences among the sample, which is the identified similarity.

Selçuk (2009) conducted a study on attachment style and emotional intelligence among 463 undergraduate students. The results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between the secure attachment styles and all subscales of emotional intelligence. This study provokes the possibilities of correlating the subscales of attachment styles and emotional intelligence.

Mohanty and Uma Devi (2010) have studied the relationship between the emotional intelligence of adolescents with secure attachment style and selected socio personal variables among 60 students. Results revealed that those adolescents, who were securely attached with their parents, had better interpersonal relation, good problem solving skills and were happier. It was further concluded that the conducive home environment with secure feeling, give raise to emotionally intelligent individuals in future. Thus the study states the clear need for conducting the current comparative study among young adults.

Bonab and Koohsar (2011) conducted a study on relation between emotional intelligence and attachment styles in delinquent adolescents. 75 delinquent adolescents were taken as the sample. The result reveals that delinquent adolescents with anxious attachment were lower in emotional intelligence than individuals with a secure attachment style. This study can be quoted as a reference for the significance of a positive attachment style.

Hemmati et al. (2013) conducted a study on relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment among 116 employee’s. The result shows that the secure attachment styles are positively related to the intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, adaptability, stress management and general emotional intelligence. The study infers attachment styles have a significant effect on emotional intelligence.

Doinita (2015) conducted a study on adult attachment, self–esteem and emotional intelligence among 65 adults. The result shows the fact that the type of adult attachment influenced self-esteem level and emotional intelligence development. Hence, it is seen that components of self can be positively related to attachment styles and emotional intelligence.

Abbasi and Mahmoud (2015) conducted a study on relationship of attachment style and emotional intelligence with marital satisfaction among 450 married couples. The result shows that attachment style has positively significant relationship with marital satisfaction and emotional intelligence has positive significant relationship with marital satisfaction and attachment styles. This study provides an evidence of the relation among the variables emotional intelligence, attachment style with marital satisfaction in married couples. Thus, the study relates the chosen variables of current research with enhanced interpersonal relationship.

Critical Analysis of the Review
The studies that have been reviewed gives a clear picture about the relationship between attachment styles and emotional intelligence among different age groups. The cultural aspects were taken as a part of few studies. The studies also portray the inclusion of various other variables such as self-esteem, empathy, marital satisfaction and psychological well-being which shows the scope of further researches. Thus, the collected and reviewed literatures endow wholesome knowledge about the variables, sample and designs of research to enable the researchers to formulate, analyze and state the scientific evidences for understanding cultural differences in attachment styles and emotional intelligence among young adults.

**METHODOLOGY**

**CHAPTER-III**

**METHODOLOGY**

Crotty (1998) defined research method as the techniques or procedures used to collect, gather and analyze data related to a research question or hypothesis. In common it refers to a search for knowledge. It is a systematic method consisting of enunciating the problem, formulating a hypothesis, collecting the facts and researching certain conclusion either in the form of solutions towards the concerned problem or in certain generalizations for some theoretical formulation (Dr. Asir John Samuel Lecturer, ACP). The research methodology indicates the general pattern of organizing the procedures for gathering valid and reliable data for the purpose of investigation (Polit & Hungler, 1991).

This chapter describes the research design, sample and sampling techniques, tools used procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques used for analysis of data.

**Research Problem**

The study is entitled as “Understanding Cultural Differences in Emotional Intelligence and Attachment Style among Young Adults”

**Objectives**

1. To examine gender wise difference between emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.
2. To examine culture wise difference between emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.
3. To examine locality wise difference between emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.
4. To examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults.
Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1
There will be a significant gender difference in emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults

Hypothesis 2
There will be a significant culture difference in emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults

Hypothesis 3
There will be a significant difference in emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults based on locality

Hypothesis 4
There will be a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults

Research Design

The research design is the overall plan for collecting and analyzing data (Polit & Hungler 1997). Research design refers to the researcher’s overall plan for obtaining answers to the research problem. It is associated with the structural framework of the study and concerns the planning of the implementation of the study in order to reach the goals set out (Butns & Grove 2001). The research instructions are to be followed when addressing the research problem (Mouton 1996).

There are many ways to classify research designs, but sometimes the distinction is artificial and sometimes different designs are combined. A research design is an arrangement of conditions or collections. The types of research designs are: descriptive, exploratory, correlational, semi-experimental, experimental, review and meta-analytic.

Sometimes a distinction is made between fixed and flexible designs. In some cases, these types coincide with qualitative and quantitative research designs respectively, though this need not be the case. In fixed designs, the designs of the study are fixed before the main stage of data collection takes place. Fixed designs are normally theory-driven otherwise it is impossible to know in advance which variables need to be controlled and measured. Often, these variables are measured quantitatively. Flexible designs allow for more freedom during data collection process. One reason for using a flexible research design can be that the
variable of interest is not quantitatively measurable, such as culture. In other cases, theory might not
be available before one starts the research.

In this study explanatory design is followed since the aim of the study is to find the role of
culture in emotional intelligence and attachment styles among young adults. The method of survey was
adopted for the study, which is the most popular and widely used research method in psychological
research. It is the only method through which opinion and attitude can be obtained.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Sample is the subset of population selected to participate in the research study. Sampling is a
process or technique of choosing a sub-group from a population to participate in a study, such a way
that the individuals selected represent the large group from which they were selected.

In this study a total sample size of 120 young adults of age 18 to 25 are taken. This includes 57 (27 boys
& 31 girls) from North India and 63 (28 boys & 34 girls) from South India.

For the study, probability sampling is used. In probability sampling it is possible to determine which
sampling unit belong to which sample and each sample have a probability to be selected. The advantage of
this method is that only when the items are selected with known probabilities, one is able to evaluate
the precision of the sampling result.

In probability sampling the method of simple random sampling is used. In simple random
sampling, every members of the population has equal chance of being selected for the study. This type of
sampling technique is used when the population has similar characteristics, the sampling frame is
available and the population size is determinate or finite.

Operational Definition

Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one’s own feelings and
emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions.

Goleman (1998) defines emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of
others, for motivating ourselves and in our relationships.

Reuven Bar-On (2006) defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself
and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more
successful in dealing with environmental demands.

The operational definition for emotional intelligence in this study is the capacity of an individual to understand
feelings and emotions of oneself and of others to deal effectively and cope actively with his or her environment.
Attachment Style

Ainsworth (1963) define attachment as an affectional tie that one person or animal forms between himself and another specific one- a tie that binds them together in space and endures over time.

Ainsworth (1973) and Bowlby (1969) define attachment as a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another across the time and space.

Bowlby (1969) defines attachment as a lasting psychological connectedness between human beings.

The operational definition for attachment style in this study is an emotional bond in which we relate to people for intimacy and support overtime.

Tools

The measures used in the study are as follows:

1. Personal Data Schedule
3. Attachment Style Questionnaire(1994)

Personal Data Schedule

The personal data schedule was prepared by the investigator in order to elicit certain information regarding the subject such as initials, age, gender, education, state, locality, order of birth and family structure.

The Assessing Emotions Scale (2008)

The Assessing Emotions Scale, developed by Nicola S. Schutte, John M. Malouff and Navjot Bhullar in 2008. The Assessing Emotions Scale is a 33-item self-report inventory focusing on typical emotional intelligence. Respondents rate themselves on the items using a five-point scale. Respondents require an average of five minutes to complete the scale. The most widely used subscales derived from the 33-item Assessing Emotions Scale are those based on factors identified by Petrides and Furnham (2000), Ciarrochi et al. (2001), and Saklofske et al. (2003). These factor analytic studies suggested a four-factor solution for the 33 items. The four factors were described as follows: perception of emotions, managing emotions in the self, social skills or managing others’ emotions, and utilizing emotions. The items comprising the subscales based on these factors (Ciarrochi et al., 2001) are as follows: Perception of Emotion (items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), Managing Own Emotions (items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), Managing Others’ Emotions (items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30), and Utilization of Emotion (items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27). All 33 items are included in one of these four subscales. It helps in assessing appropriate emotional intelligence.

Test-retest reliability

Schutte et al. (1998) reported a two-week test-retest reliability of .78 for total scale scores.
Convergent Validity

The relationship between Assessing Emotions Scale scores and the EQ-i was substantial, at $r = .43$

Scoring

Total scale scores are calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28 and 33, and then summing all items. Scores can range from 33 to 165, with higher scores indicating more characteristic emotional intelligence.

Attachment Style Questionnaire (ASQ) (1994)

Attachment Style Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Feeney, Noller, & Hanrahan in 1994. The ASQ is a 40-item self-report questionnaire designed to measure adult attachment, specifically five dimensions of adult attachment: Confidence (8 items), Discomfort with Closeness (10 items), Need for Approval (7 items), Preoccupation with Relationships (8 items) and Relationships as Secondary (7 items). Each item is rated on a six-point scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree). The questionnaire was designed to determine whether a person falls on two dimensions: view of self and view of others. The factors labeled Preoccupation with Relationships (Preoccupation) and Need for Approval (N for A) pertain primarily to attitudes of self. The scales labeled Discomfort with Closeness (Discomfort) and Relationships as Secondary (R as S) primarily assess attitudes of others. Another scale, Confidence, relates to both view of others and view of self. These three sub-scales are used to determine view of others as they are assessed by attachment styles.

Reliability

Internal Consistency

In the initial study by Feeney et al. (1994), Cronbach alpha coefficients for the five subscales (in the order described above), were .80, .84, .79, .76, and .76, respectively.

Test-Retest

Stability coefficients based on a 10-week test-retest interval were found to be .74, .74, .78, .72, and .67, respectively (for subscales: Confidence, Discomfort with Closeness, and Need for Approval, Preoccupation with Relationships, and Relationships as Secondary, respectively).
Ratings of Hazan and Shaver’s secure category description correlated positively with confidence (.34). Ratings of their avoidant category correlated positively with discomfort (.46), need for approval (.13), and relationships as secondary (.27). Ratings of Hazan and Shaver’s anxious category correlated positively with discomfort with closeness (.18), need for approval (.40), preoccupation with relationships (.60), and relationships as secondary (.06).

Scoring

Items are rated on a 6-point scale ranging from: 1 = totally disagree to 6 = totally agree. Prior to computing the five subscale scores, items 20, 21, and 33 are reverse-keyed. The subscales are Confidence (in self and others) (items 1-3, 19, 31, 33, 37, and 38), Discomfort with Closeness (4, 5, 16, 17, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26, and 34), Need for Approval (11-13, 15, 24, 27, and 35), Preoccupation with Relationships (18, 22, 28-30, 32, 39, and 40), and Relationships as Secondary (6-10, 14, and 36).

Procedure of Data Collection

The quantitative method of collecting data is used for the study. Google forms were created for the data collection. Google forms were forwarded through social media’s such as WhatsApp, Facebook, and Google Plus and also through e-mails to young adults of age 18 to 25 in different states of India. It was done for the easy availability of data’s mainly from the North India. The two questionnaires used were the Assessing Emotions Scale and Attachment Style Questionnaire. The data collection took nearly two months.

Statistical Analysis

The data was statistically analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science). The collected data is tabulated and strictly checked. Each item was appropriately coded and entered in the data sheet according to the identification code. The statistical tests used for the purpose of the analysis of the data are:

1. Descriptive statistics like mean and standard deviation
2. Correlation

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics have been used to describe the psychological variables like mean and standard deviation.

Mean (Arithmetic Average)
The mean or arithmetic average is one of the measures of central tendency. Mean is computed by adding all the scores up and dividing by N, the number of scores. The mean reflects the actual value of all the scores.

The formula for the calculation of arithmetic average from a grouped data is as follows

\[ a = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \ldots + X_n}{N} \]

\[ \sum \text{ or } a = \frac{m}{n} \] here, \( a \) is arithmetic average, \( X_1, X_2, X_3 \) = size of various items, \( \sum m \) = Total of measurements, the Greek letter sigma \( \sum \) is generally used to indicate summations, \( N \) = Total number of items.

Standard deviation (SD)

Standard deviation is the measures of variability or index of dispersion. Standard deviation reflects the degree of dispersion in a group of scores. If scores are tightly packed around the central value, the standard deviation is small. Standard deviation is simply the square root of the variance.

\[ \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{n}} \]

\( \sigma \) is the standard deviation of the sample, \( \Sigma \) is the sum of the samples, \( X \) is the each value in the data set, \( \bar{X} \) is the mean of all values in the data set and \( n \) is the total number of samples.

2. Correlation

Coefficient of correlation is a statistical technique that is used to measure and describe relationships between variables. A correlation requires two scores for each individual (one score from each of the two variables). They are normally identified as \( X \) and \( Y \). These pairs can be listed in a table or graphically represented in a scatter plot. A correlation measures three characteristics of the relation between \( X \) and \( Y \), namely, the direction of the relationship, forms of the relationship, and the degree of relationship.

Correlations can be computed in different ways depending on the nature of the data. The standard kind of co-efficient of correlation and the most commonly computed is the Pearson’s product moment correlation coefficient. Pearson’s ‘r’ was employed in the present study to estimate the interrelationship among the different variables. The product moment correlation between any two variables can be described in a general way as high, marked or substantial, and low or negligible. Garret (12969) has given the following classification for interpreting the various values of \( r \):

- \( r \)’s from .000 to +/ - 0.20 denotes negligible relationship
- \( r \)’s from +/ - 0.20 to +/ - 0.40 denotes moderate correlation present
- \( r \)’s from +/ - 0.40 to +/ - 0.70 denotes substantial relationship
- \( r \)’s from +/ - 0.70 to +/ - 1.00 denotes high or very high relationship.
3. Student t-test

The concept of student t-test was developed by Gosset (1915) who signed the name “student” for the publication of this test. Student t-test is most frequently used in survey and experimental designs when an investigator wants to determine whether there is a significant difference between two independent means. The t-test are based on t-distributions. If the calculated value exceeds the cutoff point (depending on degree of freedom) the difference between mean is considered significant. When the t-value is below the critical value, the difference is not significant.

\[
t = \frac{(x_1 - x_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{(s_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(s_2)^2}{n_2}}}
\]

\(X_1\) is the mean of the first sample, \(X_2\) is the mean of the second sample, \(S_1\) is the standard deviation of the first sample, \(S_2\) is the standard deviation of the second sample, \(n_1\) is the sample size of the first sample and \(n_2\) is the sample size of the second sample.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER-IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter represents the socio-demographic data of the samples, the results obtained in the study and its discussions. In order to meet the objectives, four hypotheses were formulated. Parametric tests were used for the analysis of data. Student’s t-test is used for finding the significant difference and Karl Pearson’s correlation test is used for finding the significant relationship.

The socio-demographic data of the samples used in the survey are analyzed, tabulated and discussed below:
Figure 1

Gender-wise data of the samples used in the study

Figure 1 shows the pie-chart of gender-wise data of the samples used in the study. In the present study 46% of male and 54% of female were included.

Figure 2

Culture-wise data of the samples used in the study
Figure 2 shows the pie-chart of culture-wise data of the samples used in the study. In the study 47% of the samples were from North India and 53% of the samples were collected from South India.

Figure 3

Locality-wise data of the samples used in the study

Figure 3 shows the pie-chart of locality-wise data of the samples used in the study. The samples from the rural locality consisted of 52% and the samples from urban locality consisted of 48%.

The results of the survey are analyzed, tabulated and discussed below:

Hypothesis 1

There will be a significant gender difference between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults

Table I

Mean difference of attachment style and emotional intelligence of male and female
Table I shows the mean, standard deviation and the \( t \)-value of the variables attachment styles and emotional intelligence based on gender. The males in the present study are 55 and the females are 65. The confidence subscale of attachment in males and females show a mean of 25.02 and 23.48 respectively. The \( t \)-value for the confidence subscale is 1.320. The discomfort with closeness subscale of attachment styles in males and females shows a mean of 30.89 and 32.40 respectively. The \( t \)-value for the discomfort with closeness subscale is 1.145. The need for approval subscale of attachment in males and females show a mean of 24.78 and 24.91 respectively. The \( t \)-value for the need for approval subscale is 0.107. The subscale preoccupation with relationships shows a mean of 25.65 and 25.95 for males and females respectively. The \( t \)-value for the subscale preoccupation with relationships is 0.222. The subscale relationships as secondary shows a mean of 26.47 and 26.46 for males and females respectively. The \( t \)-value for the subscale preoccupation with relationships is 0.009. The variable emotional intelligence has a mean of 107.80 and 109.72 for males and females respectively. The \( t \)-value for emotional intelligence is 0.507. This shows that there is no significant difference. Therefore, the hypothesis “there will be a significant gender difference between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults” is not accepted. In the 21st century, the males and females are reared in the same environment without major differences between them. So, there appears a similarity between their emotional intelligence and attachment. Thus, a significant difference is not found in both the gender.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al. (2006) conducted a study on the gender as the predictor of emotional intelligence, in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants (42 male, 84 female). The result indicates that gender was not a significant predictor of emotional intelligence. This study provides a viewpoint that gender is not an important predictor of emotional intelligence among young adults.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>( t )-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>25.02</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>1.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>23.48</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort with Closeness</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30.89</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>1.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>32.40</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Approval</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>24.78</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>0.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24.91</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoccupation with Relationships</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>25.65</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>25.95</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships as Secondary</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>26.47</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>26.46</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>107.80</td>
<td>21.56</td>
<td>0.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>109.72</td>
<td>19.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis 2

There will be a significant culture difference between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults.

Table II

Mean differences of attachment styles and emotional intelligence among North Indians and South Indians

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>North India</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24.47</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>0.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South India</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>23.92</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort with Closeness</td>
<td>North India</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>1.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South India</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>32.35</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Approval</td>
<td>North India</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24.75</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South India</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>24.94</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoccupation with Relationships</td>
<td>North India</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24.98</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>1.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South India</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>26.57</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships as Secondary</td>
<td>North India</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27.30</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>1.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South India</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25.71</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table II shows the mean, standard deviation and $t$-value of the samples from north India and south India. The samples from north India and south India have a sample size of 57 and 63 respectively. The confidence subscale of attachment has a mean of 24.47 and 23.92 for north India and south India respectively. The $t$-value for the confidence subscale is 0.472. The subscale discomfort with closeness has a mean of 31.00 and 32.35 for north India and south India respectively with a $t$-value of 1.025. The attachment subscale, need for approval for the samples from north India and south India has a mean of 24.75 and 24.94 respectively. Need for approval has a $t$-value of 0.155. The subscale preoccupation with relationships has a mean of 24.98 and 26.57 for north India and south India respectively with a $t$-value of 1.186. The relationships as secondary subscale have a mean of 27.30 and 25.71 and a $t$-value of 1.306. The variable emotional intelligence has a mean of 108.04 and 109.57 and a $t$-value of 0.406. This shows that there is no significant difference between north India and south India. Therefore, the hypothesis ‘there will be a significant culture difference between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults’ is not accepted.

Hypothesis 3

There will be a significant difference between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adult based on locality.

Table III

Mean differences in attachment styles and emotional intelligence among rural and urban

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Locality</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>$t$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24.32</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>0.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.03</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort with Closeness</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.40</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>32.03</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Approval</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24.97</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.72</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoccupation with Relationships</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24.94</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>1.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26.76</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table III shows the mean, standard deviation and \( t \)-value of the variables attachment and emotional intelligence based on the locality rural and urban. By simple random sampling, 62 samples from the rural locality and 58 samples from urban locality were selected. The confidence subscale of attachment has a mean of 24.32 and 24.03 for rural and urban respectively. The \( t \)-value for the confidence subscale is 0.246. The subscale discomfort with closeness has a mean of 31.40 and 32.03 for rural and urban respectively with a \( t \)-value of 0.478. Need for approval has a mean of 24.97 and 24.72 for the localities rural and urban respectively and have \( t \)-value of 0.208. The attachment subscale preoccupation with relationships has a mean of 24.94 and 26.76 for rural and urban localities respectively. The \( t \)-value for the subscale is preoccupation with relationship is 1.364. The subscale, relationships as secondary has a mean of 25.52 and 27.48 for rural and urban respectively and a \( t \)-value of 1.630. The variable emotional intelligence has a mean of 106.82 and 111.00 for rural and urban respectively with a \( t \)-value of 1.110. This shows that there is no significant difference between rural and urban place of living. Therefore, the hypothesis ‘there will be a significant difference in emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults based on locality’ is not accepted. The rural and urban life style though different, it need not be an important predictor or influencing factor of emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults because, the social interaction is not confined to any boundaries either in rural or in urban living.

Hypothesis 4

There will be a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment among young adults

Table IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort with Closeness</td>
<td>0.716**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Approval</td>
<td>0.821**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoccupation with Relationships</td>
<td>0.801**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships as Secondary</td>
<td>0.654**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table IV shows the relationship between attachment styles and emotional intelligence among young adults. The results show that there is a positive correlation of 0.716 between discomfort with closeness and emotional intelligence significant at the 0.01 level. There also exists a positive correlation of 0.821 between need for approval and emotional intelligence significant at 0.05 level. A positive correlation of 0.801 exists between preoccupation with relationships and emotional intelligence significant at the 0.05 level. The results also reveal a positive correlation of 0.654 between relationships as secondary and emotional intelligence significant at 0.05 level. Thus the dimensions of attachment such as discomfort with closeness, need for approval, preoccupation with relationships and relationships as secondary are positively correlated with emotional intelligence in young adults. As it is a well known fact that emotionally intelligent individuals set very clear and rigid boundaries with their interpersonal relationships and the same is inferred from the results. Hence the hypothesis 4 stating there will be a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and sub-scales of attachment is accepted.

Abbasi and Mahmoud (2015) conducted a study on relationship of attachment style and emotional intelligence with marital satisfaction among 450 married couples. The result shows that attachment style has positively significant relationship with marital satisfaction and emotional intelligence has positive significant relationship with marital satisfaction and attachment styles. This study provides an evidence of the relation among the variables emotional intelligence, attachment style with marital satisfaction in married couples. Thus, the study relates the chosen variables of current research with enhanced interpersonal relationship.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

**CHAPTER-V**

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

The current study on “Understanding Cultural Differences in Emotional Intelligence and Attachment Style among Young Adults” also finds the gender difference as well as the difference based on locality and also relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment style. The researchers reviewed various related literatures and understood the concepts related to two variables and considered gender and locality preferences to be grouping variables, emotional intelligence is the dependent variable and sub-scales of attachment are the independent variables. This exploratory study was carried out in many states of North India and South India. The data was collected from 120 (female and male) young adults. The data collection was done with the use of standardized tools along with demographic profile sheet after obtaining consent from the respondents. The Assessing Emotions Scale, developed by Nicola S. Schutte, John M. Malouff and Navjot Bhullar in 2008, a 33-item self-report inventory focusing on typical emotional intelligence and Attachment Style Questionnaire (ASQ)
developed by Feeney, Noller, & Hanrahan in 1994, a 40-item self-report questionnaire designed to measure adult attachment. Thus, the data collected from the samples were subjected to statistical analysis. The researchers used Statistical Package for Social Sciences to evaluate the data, statistical methods such as correlation, t-test and descriptive statistics were used to find the results of the study.

The findings of the current study put forth that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and domains of attachment. Gender differences were not seen in emotional intelligence and attachment style among the young adults. There were no cultural differences in emotional intelligence and attachment style among young adults. It was also identified that there were no differences between emotional intelligence and attachment style based on the locality.

**Suggestions for further research**

- The study may be done with larger sample size by including more states.
- The study can include additional variables like psychological well being, pro-social behaviours, general adjustment etc.
- The study can be done with more appropriate construction of the tool that is oriented with the culture of society.

**Limitations**

- Limited sample size from different states.
- In the present study only two variables (emotional intelligence and attachment) was explored.
- The data have been obtained from self-report measures. The inherent drawbacks and limitations of survey research might have affected the study results.

**Conclusions**

- There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and attachment style among the young adults.
- There is no significant gender difference in emotional intelligence and attachment style among the young adults.
- There is no culture difference in the emotional intelligence and attachment style among the young adults.
- There is no significant difference in the emotional intelligence and attachment style among the young adults based on locality.
REFERENCES


ANNEXURE

PERSONAL DATA SCHEDULE

Name:

Age:

Gender: Male ○ Female ○ Others ○

State:

Birth Order: 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○

Locality: Rural ○ Urban ○

Family Structure: Nuclear ○ Joint ○

Education:

The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Instructions: Indicate the extent to which each item applies to you using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither disagree nor agree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.

2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.

4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.

5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.*

6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.

7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.

8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.

9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.

10. I expect good things to happen.

11. I like to share my emotions with others.

12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.

13. I arrange events others enjoy.

14. I seek out activities that make me happy.

15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.

16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.

17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.

18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.

19. I know why my emotions change.
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.

21. I have control over my emotions.

22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.

23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.

24. I compliment others when they have done something well.

25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.

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.

27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.

28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.*

29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.

30. I help other people feel better when they are down.

31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.

33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.*

Attachment Style Questionnaire
Show how much you agree with each of the following items by rating them on this scale:

1=agree very strongly
2=agree strongly
3=agree
4=disagree
5=disagree strongly
6=disagree very strongly

1. Overall, I am a worthwhile person.  
2. I am easier to get to know than most people.  
3. I feel confident that other people will be there or me when I need them.  
4. I prefer to depend on myself rather than other people.  
5. I prefer to keep to myself.  
6. To ask for help is to admit that you’re a failure.  
7. People’s worth should be judged by what they achieve.  
8. Achieving things is more important than building relationships.  
9. Doing your best is more important that getting on with others.  
10. If you’ve got a job to do, you should do it no matter who gets hurt.  
11. It’s important to me that others like me.  
12. It’s important to me to avoid doing things that others won’t like.  
13. I find it hard to make a decision unless I know what other people think.  
14. My relationships with others are generally superficial.  
15. Sometimes I think I am no good at all.  
16. I find it hard to trust other people.  
17. I find it difficult to depend on others.  
18. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.  
19. I find it relatively easy to get close to other people.  
20. I find easy to trust others.  
21. I feel comfortable depending on other people.
22. I worry that others won’t care about me as much as I care about them. ___

23. I worry about people getting too close. ___

24. I worry that I won’t measure up to other people. ___

25. I have mixed feelings about being close to others. ___

26. While I want to get close to others, I feel uneasy about it. ___

27. I wonder why people would want to be involved with me. ___

28. It’s very important to me to have a close relationship. ___

29. I worry a lot about my relationships. ___

30. I wonder how I would cope without someone to love me. ___

31. I feel confident about relating to others. ___

32. I often feel left out or alone. ___

33. I often worry that I do not really fit with other people. ___

34. Other people have their own problems, so I don’t bother them with mine. ___

35. When I talk over my problems with others, I generally feel ashamed or foolish. ___

36. I am too busy with other activities to put much time into relationships. ___

37. If something is bothering me, others are generally aware and concerned. ___

38. I am confident that other people will like and respect me. ___

39. I get frustrated when others are not available when I need them. ___

40. Other people often disappoint me. ___