



## INFLUENCE OF ATTACHMENT STYLES AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INTERACTION ON MARITAL SATISFACTION AMONG MARRIED COUPLES

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### ABSTRACT

Emotion, both positive and negative, is one of the markers of intimate relationships. Attachment theory is one of the primary conceptual frameworks for understanding emotion regulation. There is a well-established link in the literature between secure romantic attachment style and emotional intelligence (EI) in scientific studies. The underlying processes of this link among couples are notably less explored in the Indian context. As an attempt to bridge the gap, the present study analyzed the influence of attachment styles and EI interplay on marital satisfaction among Indian couples. The study considered 304 respondents (152 females, 152 males, ranged from -25 to 65+ years old) with a marriage duration greater than three years. To assess participants attachment styles, EI, and marital satisfaction, Revised Adult Attachment Scale (RAAS; Collins, 1996), Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue; Petrides, 2009) and ENRICH Marital Satisfaction Scale (EMS; Fowers & Olson, 1993) were used respectively. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyse the data. The result revealed that there is a significant interaction between attachment styles and global EI on marital satisfaction. Psychotherapists and counsellors in general, and couple therapists in particular, will benefit from the current research. Considering the limitation of the study, further investigation is recommended.

**KEYWORDS :** Emotional Intelligence; Attachment Style; Marital Satisfaction; Intimate Relationship; Emotion Regulation, Indian Couples.

### Attachment Styles

Between 1940 and 1990, John Bowlby, a British psychoanalyst, significantly altered and updated psychoanalytic theory by integrating insights from then-current object relations psychoanalytic theories, post-Darwinian ethology, modern cognitive-developmental psychology, cybernetics (control systems theories), and community psychiatry to develop attachment theory. His attempt explained why early childhood interactions with significant ones have such a prevalent and enduring impact on personality development. Bowlby, with the assistance of his American colleague Mary Ainsworth, established the groundwork for what has become one of the most intensively investigated conceptual frameworks in modern psychology (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007a). According to a previous study, adult attachment styles have an immense impact on the formation of intimate relationships. Clinical psychologists are beginning to apply attachment theory to the topic of adult psychotherapy, which has lately piqued their interest (see Heidari & Venkatesh Kumar, 2021a).

### The Uniqueness of Attachment Figures

In attachment theory, the term "attachment figure" has a special meaning. Attachment figures aren't only close friends or significant partners in a relationship. They are unique individuals that a person may turn to for safety and support when they are in need. An attachment figure, according to the theory (e.g., Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Hazan & Zeifman, 1994), fulfils four distinct characteristics or purposes. First and foremost, he or she is a goal for proximity seeking. Second, an attachment figure serves as a "safe haven" in times of need. Third, an attachment figure serves as a "secure base," allowing a child or an adult relationship partner to pursue non-attachment goals (i.e., activate other behavioural systems) in a safe environment. A fourth definitional characteristic of an attachment figure is that his or her real or expected disappearance evokes "separation distress." Burlingham and Freud (1944), as well as Robertson and Bowlby (1952), observed that infants and young children who are separated from primary caregivers for an extended time go through a predictable series of stages, viz., protest, despair, and detachment, which inspired Bowlby's (1969/1982) notions about separation distress as a defining feature of an attachment figure (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007b).

### Internal Working Models (IWMs)

The goal-corrected character of attachment behaviour,

according to Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973), necessitates the storing of pertinent data in the form of mental representations of person-environment transactions. Bowlby's (1969/1982) concept of representation as mental model construction was influenced by the works of a prominent scientist (Young, 1964), who had adopted the idea from Kenneth Craik's small volume on *The Nature of Understanding* (1943). As a result, based on the theoretical literature of Craik (1943) and Young (1964), he dubbed these representations Internal Working Models. Bowlby proposed that the brain creates working models of self, attachment figures, and the environment (Bretherton & Munholland, 2008). Bowlby (1969/1982) differentiated two types of working models: "If an individual is to draw up a plan to achieve a set-goal not only does he have some sort of working model of his environment, but he must have also some working knowledge of his behavioural skills and potentialities" (p. 112). That is, once it has been employed repeatedly in relational settings, the attachment system comprises representations of attachment figures' behaviour (*working models of others*) as well as representations of one's efficacy and worth, or lack thereof (*working models of self*). During attempts to obtain protection in times of need, these working models arrange a person's memory about an attachment figure and the person himself or herself (Main et al., 1985 in Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007b).

### The Concept of Attachment Style

Although not given the name, Ainsworth (1967) first proposed the concept of attachment style to describe infants' patterns of responses to separations from and reunions with their mothers in the laboratory Strange Situation assessment procedure, in which infants were initially classified into one of three categories, secure, avoidant, or anxious (for short). Later, Main and Solomon (1990) added a fourth term, "disorganized/disoriented," which is marked by strange, uncomfortable behaviour and atypical anxiety-avoidance swings (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007b).

### Adult Attachment Styles

Bartholomew has systematized Bowlby's (1973) concept of IWMs into a four-category (Figure 1) classification approach (Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). He defined four archetypal attachment styles in terms of two dimensions: positivity of a person's model of self and positivity of a person's model of others. The positivity of the self-model determines the degree to which a person has internalized a

sense of self-worth (as opposed to feeling anxious and suspicious about the self's lovability). As a result, the self-model is connected to anxiety and dependency on others' acceptance in intimate relationships. The other model's positivity indicates the degree to which individuals are anticipated to be available and supportive. As a result, the other model is associated with the desire for or avoidance of intimacy in relationships. Secure adult attachment is characterized by a positive self-model and a positive model of others. Secure individuals have a strong sense of self-worth and are comfortable with intimacy in close relationships. Preoccupied attachment is described by a negative self-model and a positive model of others. Preoccupied people want approval and validation from others, as though they believe that if they can simply get others to respond adequately to them, they would be protected and secure. The fearful attachment is described by the negative self and other models. Fearful individuals, like the obsessive, are very dependant on the admiration and validation of others; but, due to their negative expectations, they fear proximity in the way to relieve the pain of loss or rejection. Dismissing attachment is defined as having a positive self-model and a negative model of others. Dismissive people avoid proximity because of defeatist attitudes, but they defend their self-worth by rejecting the importance of intimate relationships (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998).

		MODEL OF SELF (Dependence)	
		Positive (Low)	Negative (High)
MODEL OF OTHER (Avoidance)	Positive (Low)	<b>CELL I</b> <b>SECURE</b> Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	<b>CELL II</b> <b>PREOCCUPIED</b> Preoccupied with relationships
	Negative (High)	<b>CELL IV</b> <b>DISMISSING</b> Dismissing of intimacy Counter-dependent	<b>CELL III</b> <b>FEARFUL</b> Fearful of intimacy Socially avoidant

Figure 1. Model of adult attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

**Emotional Intelligence (EI)**

*Anyone can become angry-that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way-this is not easy.*

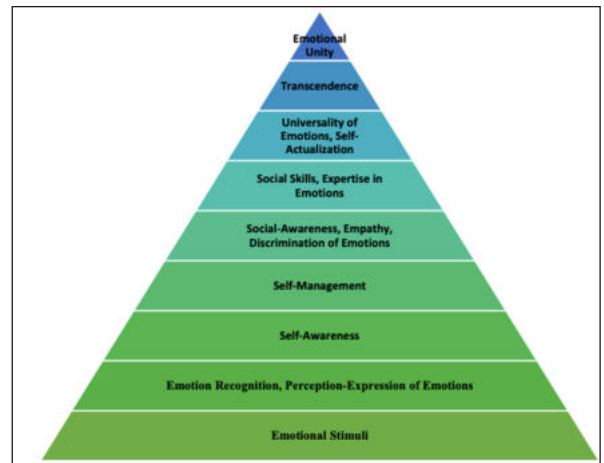
—Aristotle, *The Nicomachean Ethics*

EI is a concept that psychologists may use to guide therapeutic and educational interventions by providing a framework for emotional functioning (Heidari & Venkatesh Kumar, 2021b). EI is a wide construct that has been defined by different researchers. In their study "Emotional Intelligence," Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the first to define the concept. They defined EI as a type of social intelligence that includes the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions and feelings, to discriminate between them, and to act and think in response to this knowledge. According to Daniel Goleman (1998), EI/EQ (Emotional Quotient) is the ability to detect one's own and others' feelings, to motivate oneself, and to manage one's own and others' emotions successfully. Motivation, self-regulation, self-awareness, social skills, and empathy are among the five factors he identified as being linked to EI. Emotional-social intelligence, according to Bar-On (2006), is made up of emotional and social talents, skills, and facilitators. All of these components are connected and function together. They are important in how well we comprehend ourselves and others, as well as how well we express ourselves and deal with daily responsibilities. The Trait EI model was formulated by Petrides and Furnham (2001). They defined it as a collection of emotionally-related self-perceived abilities and moods found at the lowest levels

of the **personality hierarchy** (Petrides et al., 2007) that are assessed using questionnaires and rating scales. They also considered it as a personality attribute that focuses on how we perceive our inner emotional world. Trait Emotional Self-efficacy is another name for the same construct.

In terms of understanding emotional skills and measuring them, research on EI has been categorized into two main areas of perspectives. There is the Ability EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1995) and the Trait EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). This differentiation by the Ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1995) and the Trait EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) has been consistently confirmed by research, low correlations between the two have constantly maintained this difference (Brackett et al., 2011; Mikolajczak et al., 2006; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004).

Figure 2. The EI pyramid (9-layer model) (Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018).



The Pyramid of EI: The Nine-Layer Model

Taking into account all previous theories about pyramids and layer models dealing with EI, Drigas and Papoutsis (2018), examined the levels of their pyramid step by step (Figure 2). Their model, which has a hierarchical structure, contains characteristics from both constructs underlying issues (the Ability EI and Trait EI models). The ability level relates to self-awareness, social awareness, and management. The trait level refers to the mood connected with emotions as well as the inclination to behave a specific way in emotional states when taking into account the key aspects that these constructs comprise. Gardner's notions of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Gardner, 2000 & 2011) are also incorporated into the EI pyramid. Gardner claimed that there is more than one type of general intelligence and that each intelligence is part of an independent system in the brain. Linguistic intelligence ("word smart"), Logical-mathematical intelligence ("number/reasoning smart"), Spatial intelligence ("picture smart"), Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence ("body smart"), Musical intelligence ("music smart"), Interpersonal intelligence ("people smart"), Intrapersonal intelligence ("self smart"), and Naturalist intelligence ("nature smart") are the eight types of "smart" identified by the theory (Gardner & Hatch, 1989; Morgan, 1996 cited in Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018).

**Cognitive and Metacognitive Processes in the EI Pyramid**

Attention, memory, evaluation, problem-solving, language, and perception are all examples of cognitive processes (Best, 1999; Coren, 2003). Cognitive processes make use of previous knowledge while also generating new information. The ability to monitor and reflect on one's own performance and capabilities is known as metacognition (Dunlosky & Metcalfe, 2008; Flavell, 1979; Schwarz, 2015). It is the individuals' ability to understand their own cognitive functioning to monitor and control their learning process (Pineres & Builes, 2013; Cox,

2005). The concept of metacognition is based on the discrimination between primary and secondary cognitions (McGuire & McGuire, 2014). Metamemory, Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation and Self-Monitoring are some of the aspects and skills that make up metacognition (Pineres & Builes, 2013; Vockell, 2009).

In EI, metacognition refers to how an individual perceives his or her emotional abilities (Briol et al., 2006; Elipe et al., 2015). Its mechanisms include emotional-cognitive techniques including awareness, monitoring, and self-regulation (Wheaton, 2012). In addition to the primary emotion, a person can have direct thoughts that accompany the primary emotion, as individuals may have other cognitive functions that monitor a particular emotional state (Scheier & Carver, 1982). They may also assess the link between emotion and judgment (Mayer & Volanth, 1985), and they may attempt to manage their emotional reactions (Isen, 1984) in order to enhance their own personality, which will inspire them to assist others to improve interpersonal relationships. Applying meta-knowledge to socio-emotional settings should allow the individual to learn to rectify his/her emotional errors and enhance the future potential of a proper response to the circumstance while preserving and developing the relationship (Kelly & Metcalfe, 2011). Cognitive and metacognitive processes are involved in moving from one layer to the next in the EI pyramid (Figure 3) (see Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018).



**Figure 3.** The cognitive and metacognitive processes to move from a layer to another (Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018).

**Trait EI**

Trait EI (Trait Emotional Self-efficacy) is a concept that describes a set of emotional self-perceptions found at the bottom of personality hierarchies (Petrides et al., 2007). The classification of EI as a personality trait is consistent with the subjective nature of emotional experience (Watson, 2000), resulting in a construct that is completely outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability (Carroll, 1993). Petrides and his colleagues (2007) used two combined factor analyses to identify the placement of Trait EI in Eysenckian and Big Five factor space. The findings revealed that trait EI is a composite personality construct found at the bottom of both taxonomies. Table 1 shows the basic parts of the Trait EI sample domain, which were determined by a content analysis of key EI models and cognate constructs (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Trait EI does seem to have notable explanatory and predictive functionality in a variety of contexts, including work performance prediction (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004), mental health prediction (Schutte et al., 2007), and relationship quality prediction (Mikolajczak et al., 2007a), to

name a few. Many independent studies have established the validity of Trait EI concerning the Giant Three, the Big Five, and other personality traits (e.g. Mikolajczak et al., 2007b; Mikolajczak et al., 2006; Mikolajczak et al., 2007c; Petrides et al., 2004; Saklofske et al., 2003; Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004).

**Sampling Domain**

The sampling domain of Trait EI (Table 1) was derived through a content analysis of early EI models and cognate constructs, including alexithymia, affective communication, emotional expression, and empathy (Petrides, 2009).

**Table 1.** The Sampling Domain of Trait EI in Adults (Petrides, 2009)

Facets	High scorers perceive themselves as:
Adaptability	flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions
Assertiveness	forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion expression	capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management (others)	capable of influencing other people's feelings
Emotion perception (self and others)	clear about their own and other people's feelings
Emotion regulation	capable of controlling their emotions
Impulsiveness (low)	reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships
Self-esteem	successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	accomplished networkers with superior social skills
Stress management	capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	cheerful and satisfied with their lives
Trait optimism	confident and likely to look on the bright side of life

**Marital Satisfaction**

Marital satisfaction, according to Durodoye (1997), is described as an individual's assessment of major events and experiences within the marital partnership. A satisfying marriage protects couples from mental pressures and unpleasant life events, while unstable and stressful marriages are harmful to their physical and mental health (Bloom et al., 1987). Research revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals have higher levels of marital satisfaction as well (Hajjhasani & Sim, 2018; Lavalekar et al., 2010). Emotions contribute to people's marriage effectiveness in two ways. First, to start knowing what matters to their spouse (what they enjoy, fear, and hope for) will help to account for their actions and intentions. Anyone can do this by utilizing his own ability to share and empathize with the sentiments of others. This type of empathy might be useful in making sense of a partner's behavioral shift. Second, in order to get personal insights, it is critical to recognize and analyze the own feelings. It's critical to understand that every person's emotional strength comes from within, and that happens by placing himself/herself in the correct frame of mind, it can also bring out the best in the partner (Burnett, 1990). This suggests that emotional awareness affects marital satisfaction (Croyle & Waltz, 2002). Apart from that, the presence and absence of certain specific emotions are linked to marital distress, such as the husband's rejection of the wife, the wife's positive move, the husband's physiological comforting, and de-escalation of the wife's low intensity of negative emotions, all of which anticipate divorce. Emotional positive impact, on the other hand, appears to be

the most significant antecedent of marital satisfaction and security (Gottman et al., 1998).

**Rationale Of The Study**

The rationale for investigating marital satisfaction is that it contributes to the preservation of healthy, stable family life (Stack & Eshleman, 1998), as well as the societal advantages that result from such partnerships. Different attachment styles, according to Feeney (1995), reflect variations in affect regulation- that is, how people deal with unpleasant emotions. Furthermore, attachment theory has been used as an emotional-regulation model in many studies (e.g. Feeney, 1995; Kobak, & Sceery, 1988). It also formulates that children build affect-specific emotional organizations that influence how they interact with the environment later in their life (Malatesta & Wilson, 1988). In light of the previous research, the purpose of this study is to examine whether the interaction of attachment styles and EI has any influence on marital satisfaction among married couples in the Indian setting.

**Review Of Literature**

Individuals with a secure attachment style have higher levels of marital satisfaction than those who are insecure (Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990). Recently, anxiety (fear of separation) and avoidance (discomfort with intimacy and reliance) have been used to assess attachment (Brennan et al., 1998, Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The study showed that those who are avoidantly attached seek to cope with their insecure attachment by emotionally and cognitively separating themselves from the attachment figures (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Anxiously attached individuals, on the other hand, tend to address the lack of an internalized safe basis by constantly seeking stability in their interactions with close ones. According to the different studies, the secure attachment style has a strong positive association with all subscales of EI, and preoccupied, dismissing, and fearful attachment styles were negatively associated with EI (Hamarta et al, 2009; Anwer et al., 2017; Kim, 2005). An analysis of the numerous emotional reactions to relationship events indicates that securely attached individuals exhibit the most distinct pattern of feelings, ranging from happiness, admiration, appreciation, and pride to compassion, remorse, and wrath (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Kobak and Sceery (1988) mentioned that internal working models are entire character methods for regulating emotions and directing behavior. Research has shown that secure people are better at coping with unpleasant emotions in social relationships than insecure ones (cited in Hamarta et al., 2009). Simpson and his colleagues discovered that attachment styles such as secure, anxious, and avoidant have an impact on how positive and negative emotions are experienced in interactions (Simpson, 1990; Simpson & Steven, 2017).

Furthermore, secure attachment style is associated with perception, facilitation, understanding, and management of emotions in studies examining the relationships between attachment styles and EI (Kafetsios, 2004; Kim, 2005; Peck, 2003; Zimmerman, 1999 cited in Hamarta et al., 2009). Despite the adaptive importance of emotion, many people see their unpleasant emotional experiences as unimportant, painful, and/or intolerable. Two investigations were carried out to see whether such discounting "meta-emotional" beliefs are related to attachment insecurity, especially anxious and avoidant attachment, in adults. In both trials, affect intolerance was correlated to insecure attachment. In the second research, self-esteem was found to entirely moderate the avoidant attachment and partially mediate the anxious attachment (Kisley et al., 2019). Equally important, EI has been demonstrated to impact marital satisfaction and mental health by several studies (Hen & Goroshit, 2012; Yazici et al., 2011; Parker et al., 2004; Barchard, 2003; Bracket & Mayer, 2003; Lam & Kirby, 2002).

**METHODS**

**H: The interaction between Attachment Styles and Emotional Intelligence has no significant influence on Marital Satisfaction.**

**Measuring Tools**

- **Trait EI Questionnaire (TEIQue, V.1.50;** Petrides, 2009; Cooper & Petrides, 2010) is a 30-item questionnaire that assesses global Trait EI. It is taken from TEIQue's complete version (Petrides & Furnham, 2003), which includes 15 different aspects. Two items from each of the 15 facets were chosen for inclusion in the short form, which employs a Likert-style answer choice format ranging from 1 (Completely Disagree) to 7 (Completely Agree).
- **The Revised Adult Attachment Scale (RAAS;** Collins, 1996) is a modified version of Collins and Read's Adult Attachment Scale (1990). It's a self-report questionnaire with 18 items and a 5-point Likert scale (1- Not at all characteristic of me, 5- Very characteristic of me).
- **ENRICH Marital Satisfaction Scale (EMS)** is developed by Fowers and Olson (1993). It is a 15-item questionnaire which is an abbreviated version of the 125-item ENRICH Inventory using a five-point Likert scale (1- Strongly agree, 5- Strongly disagree) designed to assess participants marital satisfaction.

**Sample Size And Sampling**

The study considered 304 respondents (152 females, 152 males, ranged from -25 to 65+ years old) with a marriage duration greater than three years. The data was obtained employing survey design via simple random sampling technique. The questionnaires were only available in English.

**Procedures**

Participants could access questionnaires both online (through the link to the Google Form) and in-person (via paper and pencil method). The booklet contained a consent letter, basic socio-demographic questions, and three surveys, including (the Trait EI Questionnaire-Short Form) (TEIQue-SF) - 30 items, Revised Adult Attachment Scale (RAAS)- 18-item and ENRICH Marital Satisfaction Scale (EMS)- 15 times self-report questionnaires. The contact number of the corresponding researcher was included in the forms in case of any questions. Online forms were submitted via the specified URL, and paper forms were delivered to the researchers in person. The data was scored and then analyzed in SPSS using descriptive and inferential statistics.

**RESULTS**

**Table 1. Mean Marital Satisfaction Scores Of Respondents With Varied Wellbeing Level Having Different Attachment Styles.** Results Of Two-way Anova Revealed A Non-significant F Value (f= 1.576; P= .195).

Attachment style	Wellbeing level	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
SECURE	Medium	51.02	9.99	12
	High	55.91	7.24	141
	Total	55.53	7.56	153
PREOCCUPIED / ANXIOUS	Medium	31.31	10.45	20
	High	44.59	13.79	7
	Total	34.75	12.60	27
DISMISSIVE / AVOIDANT	Medium	49.32	11.18	12
	High	53.97	8.95	84
	Total	53.39	9.32	96
FEARFUL / AVOIDANT	Medium	27.64	8.43	22
	High	37.33	9.23	6
	Total	29.71	9.35	28
Total	Medium	36.95	14.03	66
	High	54.42	8.79	238
	Total	50.63	12.44	304

Test Statistics	F(attachment style)	F= 38.444; p= .001		
	F(wellbeing level)	F= 24.490; p= .001		
	F(Interaction)	F= 1.576; p= .195		

**Table 2. Mean marital satisfaction scores of respondents with varied wellbeing level having different attachment styles.** Results of two-way ANOVA revealed a non-significant F value (F= 2.281; p= .061).

Attachment style	Self-control level	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
SECURE	Low	-	-	-
	Medium	54.33	8.17	41
	High	55.97	7.32	112
	Total	55.53	7.56	153
PREOCCUPIED / ANXIOUS	Low	-	-	-
	Medium	31.85	9.74	20
	High	43.04	16.73	7
	Total	34.75	12.60	27
DISMISSIVE / AVOIDANT	Low	34.98	.	1
	Medium	52.43	8.74	53
	High	55.03	9.61	42
	Total	53.39	9.32	96
FEARFUL / AVOIDANT	Low	28.34	.	1
	Medium	28.34	9.60	23
	High	37.95	2.37	4
	Total	29.71	9.35	28
Total	Low	31.66	4.69	2
	Medium	45.95	14.01	137
	High	54.74	9.13	165
	Total	50.635	12.44	304
Test Statistics	F(attachment style)	F= 39.484; p= .001		
	F(self-control level)	F= 8.624; p= .001		
	F(Interaction)	F= 2.281; p= .061		

**Table 3. Mean marital satisfaction scores of respondents with varied levels of emotionality having different attachment styles.** Results of two-way ANOVA revealed a non-significant F value (F= 2.027; p= .075).

Attachment style	Emotionality levels	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
SECURE	Low	-	-	-
	Medium	52.62	8.39	33
	High	56.33	7.15	120
	Total	55.53	7.56	153
PREOCCUPIED / ANXIOUS	Low	24.49	.	1
	Medium	30.52	8.10	12
	High	39.11	14.73	14
	Total	34.75	12.60	27
DISMISSIVE / AVOIDANT	Low	57.38	.	1
	Medium	53.26	8.98	31
	High	53.38	9.61	64
	Total	53.39	9.32	96
FEARFUL / AVOIDANT	Low	28.34	.	1
	Medium	27.09	8.59	20
	High	37.40	8.22	7
	Total	29.71	9.35	28
Total	Low	36.73	17.98	3
	Medium	44.75	14.42	96
	High	53.59	10.10	205
	Total	50.63	12.44	304

Test Statistics	F(attachment style)	F= 52.981; p= .001		
	F(emotional level)	F= 8.095; p= .001		
	F(Interaction)	F= 2.027; p= .075		

**Table 4. Mean marital satisfaction scores of respondents with varied sociability levels having different attachment styles.** Results of two-way ANOVA revealed a non-significant F value. (F= .269; p= .847).

Attachment style	Sociability Levels	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
SECURE	Medium	52.75	8.70	59
	High	57.28	6.19	94
	Total	55.53	7.56	153
PREOCCUPIED / ANXIOUS	Medium	34.02	13.74	19
	High	36.49	9.98	8
	Total	34.75	12.60	27
DISMISSIVE / AVOIDANT	Medium	51.84	10.40	43
	High	54.64	8.24	53
	Total	53.39	9.32	96
FEARFUL / AVOIDANT	Medium	28.29	9.18	20
	High	33.27	9.39	8
	Total	29.71	9.35	28
Total	Medium	46.48	13.90	141
	High	54.22	9.72	163
	Total	50.63	12.44	304
Test Statistics	F(attachment style)	F=78.227;p=.001		
	F(social level)	F=6.841;p=.009		
	F(Interaction)	F= .269; p= .847		

**Table 5. Mean marital satisfaction scores of respondents with varied GLOBAL EI levels, having different attachment styles.** Results of two-way ANOVA showed a significant F value (F=3.130; p= .026) which indicates that the difference of marital satisfaction between secure attachment style and global EI levels were low whereas the difference between the medium level of Global EI and high level of Global EI among fearful/avoidant was huge.

Attachment style	Global EI levels	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
SECURE	Medium	54.29	9.06	27
	High	55.79	7.22	126
	Total	55.53	7.56	153
PREOCCUPIED / ANXIOUS	Medium	31.75	11.05	18
	High	40.76	13.99	9
	Total	34.75	12.60	27
DISMISSIVE / AVOIDANT	Medium	50.54	9.84	35
	High	55.02	8.68	61
	Total	53.39	9.32	96
FEARFUL / AVOIDANT	Medium	27.59	8.11	24
	High	42.45	5.55	4
	Total	29.71	9.35	28
Total	Medium	42.96	14.75	104
	High	54.62	8.74	200
	Total	50.63	12.44	304
Test Statistics	F(attachment style)	F= 47.403; p= .001		
	F(Global EI level)	F= 22.160; p= .001		
	F(Interaction)	F= 3.130; p= .026		

**DISCUSSION**

According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2005), emotion, both positive and negative, is one of the markers of intimate relationships. Acceptance, security, love, joy, appreciation, and pride- on the positive side- and frustration, anger, hatred,

fear of rejection, humiliation, grinding disappointment, envy, sadness, and despair- on the negative side- can be found nowhere else more than in intimate relationships. Close relationships not only elicit emotions, but are also influenced by the emotional reactions of partners to positive and negative interpersonal interactions. Theory and research have clearly documented the motivational consequences of emotions (e.g., Lazarus, 1991; Shaver et al., 1987). Within relational contexts, a person's emotions can affect not only his or her own action tendencies, but also the partner's responses and the resulting quality of the dyadic interaction. In fact, basic emotions, such as anger, fear, and joy can motivate particular kinds of behaviour toward a relationship partner (e.g., attacking, distancing, approaching), which in turn can elicit various kinds of relational responses from the partner. Affect regulation is a process that is increasingly being recognized as a fundamental issue in developmental, social, and clinical psychology. Close relationships provide some of the most essential supports for and disruptors of affect regulation (Schore, 2003).

A satisfactory relationship, according to attachment theory, is one in which all fundamental needs are addressed (Bowlby, 1969/1982). Unmet or ignored needs might be the source of hidden agendas that prevent people from resolving conflicts in a healthy manner (Gottman et al., 1976). The attachment theory explains what those needs are likely to be and underlines how important it is to meet them. Bowlby's (1969/1982, 1973) attachment theory is one of the primary conceptual frameworks for understanding affect regulation in all above mentioned three disciplines- developmental, social, and clinical psychology. Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973) emphasized the anxiety-soothing and physical-protective functions of close relationships, conceptualized proximity seeking as a fundamental means of regulating distress, and highlighted the importance of attachment history in perceiving variation in affect-regulation strategies across the lifespan (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2005). Attachment theory provides a valuable and consistent paradigm for studying marriage function and relationship (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Equally important, EI has received a great deal of attention in the psychological literature and beyond, and there's considerable interest in using it in educational, organizational, and therapeutic contexts (Petrides et al., 2007). Research on Individual differences shows that people differ in systematic ways in how they feel emotions, how effectively they discriminate between them, and how much emotional information they can process (Winter & Kuiper, 1997). E.L. Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence and Gardner's (1983) intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence are the foundations of EI. Prior to 1990, when Salovey and Mayer published the first formal explanation and model of EI, the word had been explored several times in the literature. This early approach was quickly followed by a number of different ideas (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman was the most influential and was largely responsible for the field's development (1995). The distinction between Trait EI (or Trait Emotional Self-efficacy) and Ability EI (or Cognitive-Emotional Ability) considers the psychometric difference between measures of typical and maximal performance (e.g., Ackerman & Heggstad, 1997; Cronbach, 1949), with special emphasis on the impacts for the conception of emotion-related personality traits (Petrides & Furnham, 2000/2001). Our emotional dispositions and how good we feel we are at perceiving, interpreting, regulating, and using our own and other people's emotions are described by Trait EI. Trait EI has its origins in personality psychology's long-standing study of emotions (e.g., Revelle & Scherer, 2009). Factor-analysis studies of trait EI and its relationship to the Big Five and Giant Three personality taxonomies have shown that trait EI can be isolated as a coherent factor that is distinct from but related to basic personality dimensions, particularly neuroticism (negatively) and extraversion (positively) (Pérez-

González & Sanchez-Ruiz, 2014; Petrides et al., 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Previous research indicates a substantial relationship between attachment styles and EI and their importance in an intimate relationship (eg. Shaver & Hazan, 1993; Hamarta et al, 2009; Anwer et al., 2017; Kim 2005; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Kisley et al., 2019). According to Timm and Keiley (2011), secure attachment style has a significant positive association with marital satisfaction, while avoidant and ambivalent attachment styles have a significant negative relationship with marital satisfaction. Similarly, in the current study, although examining the interaction effect of attachment styles and EI factors on marital satisfaction revealed a non-significant F-value, when it was tested against the global EI, the interaction effect showed a significant effect. Which was in line with the previous studies.

Equally important, Brando and colleagues (2020) investigated intrapersonal and interpersonal associations between attachment orientation (anxiety, avoidant) and psychological wellbeing, and whether these associations were mediated by couples' emotion regulation techniques. Their findings highlighted the complex associations among attachment, emotion regulation, and well-being. They also pointed to emotion regulation as a possible underlying route to understanding these relationships. The findings imply that the relational dimension of emotional and attachment dynamics in couples should be taken into account.

Considering the above discussion and result as well as an assumption that Indians do like to keep their private lives close (see also Shah et al. 2018), even though the survey was kept anonymous, it was potential that participants did not complete the questionnaires honestly, which might have impacted the research outcome. Moreover, given the disparity between Indian life as a collectivist culture and western life as an individualist culture and taking into account the importance of attachment styles and EI in couple's wellbeing (Brando et al., 2020; Kafetsios & Sideridis, 2006), as well as the association between attachment styles and EI (Hamarta et al., 2009; Anwer et al., 2017, Kim 2005; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005; Kisley et al., 2019), additional research is needed to better understand the link between the two in order to better assist couples' well-being.

## CONCLUSION

The study considered 304 respondents (152 females, 152 males, ranged from -25 to 65+ years old) with a marriage duration greater than three years. Although the interaction of attachment styles and EI was not having a significant influence on marital satisfaction when EI levels were examined separately, the results indicated a significant influence of interaction between Attachment Styles and Global EI on marital satisfaction. Which in turn indicates that the study hypothesis is partially rejected. Considering the limitation of the study, further investigation is recommended.

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