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Emotional Intelligence, Hope and Gratitude among Adolescents of Kashmir Valley: A Comparative Study

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Abstract: The present study examines the relationship between Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude. The paper also tries to explore the significance of difference between adolescent boys and girls on Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude. The sample consist of 100 (n=100) adolescents, fifty (50) boys and fifty (50) girls taken from two (2) different schools from Kashmir valley. Three questionnaires including Trait Meta-Mood Scale: - (TMMS; Salovey et al., 1995) measuring three aspects of Emotional intelligence i.e. Emotional Attention, Emotional Clarity and Emotional repair. The Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ-6; McCullough 2013) was used for measuring Gratitude and Hope scale by Snyder et al, (1991) for measuring the hope. The results showed significant correlation between two dimensions of emotional intelligence i.e. Emotional clarity with hope ($r = .523, p < 0.01$), Emotional clarity ($r = .346, p < 0.01$) and Emotional repair shows significant correlation with hope ($r = .317, p < 0.01$), Emotional repair shows significant correlation with gratitude ($r = .496, p < 0.01$). The study also revealed significant difference between boys and girls on Emotional clarity ($t = 3.519, p < 0.01$), Emotional repair ($t = 2.104, p < 0.05$), and it also revealed significance of difference between adolescent boys and girls on Gratitude ($t = 2.251, p < 0.05$). Adolescent boys differ significantly with adolescent girls on Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude. Overall showed that significant correlation between the three variables and adolescent boys and girls do differ significantly on Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude.

Keywords: Adolescents, Emotional Intelligence, Clarity, Repair, Happy

1. Introduction

Adolescence is an important developmental period marked by considering and planning for the future Nurmi(1991). The way in which adolescents conceive their future can have profound and long-reaching effects on health and well-being. The adolescent years are a critical developmental period characterized by rapid biological and social changes and challenges. Contrary to prior accounts of inevitable ‘storm and stress’, teenagers exhibit substantial variability in their levels of emotional distress across time (Arnett, 1999). For this reason, it is crucial for researchers and practitioners to understand the factors that are most useful in predicting healthy psychological development (Lerner & Galambos, 1998; Steinberg & Morris, 2001; Trzesniewski et al., 2006). Theory and research suggests that positive future expectations can facilitate optimal development and a successful transition into adulthood (Arnett, 2000; Aronowitz, 2000; McDade et al., 2011; Nurmi, 1991; Schmid & Lopez, 2011). On the other hand, adolescents who anticipate a negative future are more likely to exhibit problem behavior (Dubow, Arnett, Smith, & Ippolito, 2001; Sipsma, Ickovics, Lin, & Kershaw, 2012). Given the important correlates and effects of future expectations among youth, it is important to understand what promotes positive future expectations. The adolescent years are characterized by mean level changes in the major personality dimensions (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000), as well as lower-order dimensions such as emotional intelligence, hope & gratitude.

1.1. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence has been defined as “the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10). Emotional Intelligence has been conceptualized primarily from two theoretical approaches: as a trait or as a mental ability. Emotional intelligence as a trait is considered as personality trait refers to the tendency or inclination of a person to manage his or her emotions accurately. Trait Emotional intelligence is usually measured using self-report instruments, such as the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue; Petrides, 2009), which asks the subjects to estimate the degree to which he or she possesses certain emotional abilities (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). In the second theoretical approach, Emotional Intelligence is defined as a set of abilities that support the adaptive use of emotions as part of our cognitive processes. In other words, Emotional Intelligence is genuinely considered a form of intelligence. Ability Emotional Intelligence is usually assessed using performance test, such as the Mayer– Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). This instrument is a performance test because it requires individuals to solve tasks, and it is an objective test because there are better and worse answers on it, as

determined by consensus or expert scoring (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). The Emotional Intelligence theory predicts that people who are better at perceiving, understanding, using, and managing their own emotions and others' emotions are more likely to be psychosocially adjusted (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). This prediction is well supported by empirical studies that demonstrate a positive relationship of Emotional Intelligence with social function and quality of social relationships, and a negative relationship of Emotional Intelligence with a number of negative interactions and conflicts in social relationships (Brackett et al., 2011).

Researchers have proved that emotional intelligence and social intelligence are more effective predictors of a person's success in life. Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic (Oliver S, 2009). Ciarrochi et al (2000) carried out a study on emotional intelligence in adolescents aged 13-15 years and found that emotional intelligence was reliably measured. It was higher for females than males and was positively associated with skill at identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, extent of satisfaction with social support and mood management behaviour. Petrides and Furnham (2000) carried out a study on the relationship between gender and emotional intelligence on the sample of 260 subjects in the age group of 10-25 years and the findings indicated that females scored higher than males on the social skill factor of measured traits of emotional intelligence. Katyal and Awasthi (2005) studied gender differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents of Chandigarh on a randomly selected sample of 150 students of 10th class from different Government schools. The data was collected through Standardized Emotional Intelligence test. The findings revealed that girls were having higher emotional intelligence than that of boys. Uma and Uma (2005) examined the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and selected personal social variables. The sample comprised of 120 parents and their children between the age range of 15-17 years from the city of Vishakhapatnam. The results revealed that among the personal variables age was not significantly correlated with EI of the adolescents. But gender, education and occupation of parents were significantly and positively related with EI. Adolescents of joint families were more flexible and adaptable than adolescents of small families.

1.2. Hope

Hope is a positive approach of mind based on the probability of positive outcomes. Perhaps hope is best described by Snyder (2000) as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)". Hopeful individuals are positive and have realistic sense of optimism and have the trust that

they can construct ways to a preferred goal/target. Such optimistic individuals see hurdles as challenge and they are able to make use of their optimistic behaviour to arrange alternately to achieve the target. Different studies have been carried out that probed that hope is positively associated with life orientation/satisfaction and plays a buffer role against stressful and negative life events. People show better performance in academics, athletics, occupation and health that are high on hope than those who are not. It leads to better outcome even in context of life threatening health problems. According to Seginer (2008), when individuals can appraise difficulties as a challenge (as opposed to a threat), hope is fostered; hope, in turn, promotes the setting and pursuit of goals and sustains individuals' confidence in their ability to achieve those goals (Seginer, 2008). Hope may also positively affect cognitions and emotions related to future expectations (Schmid & Lopez, 2011). Indeed, researchers have found that hope is associated with higher self-worth, perceived competence in various domains, life satisfaction, psychological well-being and academic achievement and lower internalizing disorders (Adelabu, 2008; Snyder et al., 1997; Valle, Huebner, & Suldo, (2006). According to Seginer (2008), "hope is aroused and maintained when individuals consider they have enough resources to meet situational demands" (pp. 278). However, Snyder (2002) suggests that, although hope is particularly relevant when challenges arise, "agency thinking is important in all goal-directed thought" (pp. 251). Thus, hope may be a dispositional construct that is relatively stable across situations (Synder, 1995). A generalized sense of agency may provide motivation by internalizing the idea that one's resources are typically enough to meet challenges. As such, individuals may consider their future optimistically and see themselves as capable of overcoming any difficulties that may arise.

Hope for a positive future may be learned through one's social relationships and physical environment (Lynch, 1965; Stotland, 1969). Negative environmental factors (e.g., exposure to community violence) are thought to inhibit the development of hope (Lorion & Saltzman, 1993). More recently, Sun and Shek (2012) suggested that hope results from past experiences, such that individuals who experience success and attribute it to controllable factors (e.g., effort) will be more likely to feel efficacious in achieving goals. As such, providing experiences for success is important in the development of hope. Furthermore, in a review of the literature on hope, Esteves et al, (2013) found that hope was significantly associated with social support, such that adolescents who experienced a strong social network reported higher hopes for the future. This suggests that adolescents who are embedded in a strong community may consequently feel greater control over attaining a positive future. There are a number of reasons why hope is likely to underpin psychological well-being. First, research suggests that people with higher hope cope better with stressful life events (Chang, 1998; Valle et al., 2006). Second, hope has been found to predict successful outcomes across a range of domains. For instance, hope predicts better athletic performance in college athletes beyond training and coach ratings of natural

ability (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, & Rehm, 1997), greater academic success (Ciarrochi et al., 2007), better understanding and use of prevention strategies when at high risk for cancer (Irving, Snyder, & Crowson, 1998), and greater engagement and gains in therapy (Snyder et al., 2000). In a study of pediatric transplant patients, higher hope was negatively related to emotional distress and in turn, greater adherence to an appropriate medication regime (Maikranz, Steele, Dreyer, Stratman, & Bovaird, 2007). There are multiple, competing life goals aligned with the developmental milestones of adolescence. Adolescents are balancing the need for autonomy with their dependency on caregivers and teachers, the need for belonging with the challenge of navigating the social rules and hierarchy of high school, and the need for competence with the challenges of a daily regimen of academics, athletics, and novel social situations. A central tenet of hope is that this attribute, psychological strength, or motivational factor increases the likelihood of the successful pursuit of goals (Snyder, 2000, 2002). Within this context, there is evidence that the association between measures of hope and meaning in life is large in magnitude, ranging from 0.52 to 0.77 (Feldman & Snyder, 2005; Mascaro & Rosen, 2005). Furthermore, research suggests that in adolescents and adults, the positive associations between measures of happiness and purpose in life is fully mediated by hope (Bronk, Hill, Lapsley, Talib, & Finch, 2009). In attempts to distinguish who ends up on a trajectory of positive youth development – operationalized as children with a high sense of competence, confidence, character, connections to other people, and caring – researchers found that hope scores were the best predictor, outperforming other candidates such as self-regulatory skill (Schmid et al., 2011). Additional longitudinal research revealed that baseline levels of adolescent hope were positively related to life satisfaction and negatively related to stressful life events and other indices of maladjustment one year later (Valle et al., 2006). Taken together, theory and research suggests that the goal-directed nature of hope seems particularly suited to the development and maintenance of well-being in youth

1.3. Gratitude

Gratitude appears to have a number of different meanings, depending on the context. For example, gratitude has been conceptualized as a moral virtue, an attitude, an emotion, a habit, a personality trait, and a coping response Lambert NM, Graham SM, Fincham FD(2009). A number of researchers have defined *gratitude* as a positive emotional reaction in response to the receipt of a gift or benefit from someone Roberts RC (2004). Gratitude has also been conceptualized both as a state phenomenon (i.e., an emotional reaction to a present event or experience) as well as a dispositional characteristic or trait phenomenon Roberts RC (2004). *Gratitude* is the appreciation of what is valuable and meaningful to oneself and represents a general state of thankfulness and/or appreciation. This proposed definition transcends the interpersonal overtones attributed to the term (i.e., the construct of receiving something from someone) and allows for a more inclusive meaning (e.g., being thankful for

experiences, such as being alive and coming into contact with nature). Gratitude is experienced when people receive something beneficial; it is the appreciation they feel when somebody does something kind or helpful for them. It has been defined as “a sense of thankfulness and joy in response to receiving a gift, whether the gift be a tangible benefit from a specific other or a moment of peaceful bliss evoked by natural beauty” (Emmons, 2004, p. 554). The first published study on gratitude in adolescence investigated its development (Baumgarten-Tramer, 1938). Students ($N = 1,059$, ages 7-15) from the city of Berne, Switzerland were asked two questions: (Q1) what is your greatest wish? (Q2) What would you do for the person who granted you this wish? After coding the responses, four types of gratitude emerged.

- **Verbal gratefulness** (e.g., “I should thank him”) occurred in 30%-48% of the total replies. It was mainly expressed in 15-year-olds (72%).
- **Concrete gratefulness** occurs when the child wants to give the benefactor something in return for the gift (e.g., “I should give him a book, a bow, a pocket knife”). There are two kinds of concrete gratefulness: **exchange and material**. Exchange gratitude occurs when the beneficiary gives the benefactor an object in return for an object (e.g., a hat in return for a DVD). (Data were not provided on the percentage of youth demonstrating exchange gratitude.) Material gratitude occurs when the beneficiary shares with the benefactor some benefits of the gift (e.g., giving the benefactor a ride to a party in a car). This type of gratitude was most frequent with 8-year-olds (51%) and least frequent with children between 12 and 15 years of age (6%).
- **Connective gratitude** is an attempt by the beneficiary to create a spiritual relationship with the benefactor. “I would help him in case of need” characterizes this type of gratitude. Connective gratitude was reported by children as young as 7 years of age but became more frequent at the age of 11 and occurred in 60% of 12 year olds (Baumgarten-Tramer, 1938).
- **Finalistic gratefulness** is exemplified by the adolescent who, for example, wishes to make the soccer team and expresses gratitude by always being punctual to practice and obeying the coach’s instructions.

Froh et al, (2008) conducted a study in which 221 adolescents were assigned to either a gratitude exercise (i.e., counting one's blessings), a hassles condition, or a control condition. As predicted, the gratitude condition was associated with greater life satisfaction. The authors concluded from their experience that counting blessings seems to be an effective intervention for enhancing wellbeing in adolescents. Dickerhoof, (2007) designed an experiment in which students could participate in one of two exercises—one that purportedly would boost happiness or another that consisted of “cognitive exercises.” To equalize the expectations of participants, the students were informed that participation in either group was likely to increase their overall sense of wellbeing. The “happiness” paradigm required

participants to either write about their best possible future selves (optimism exercise) or write letters of gratitude (gratitude exercise). In contrast, in the control paradigm, participants were required to write about the events of the past week. As predicted, compared with the control group, the happiness-paradigm group demonstrated increases in wellbeing. Like the preceding authors, other studies have found similar findings. For example, among Taiwanese high school athletes, Chen and Kee (2008) found that gratitude positively predicted life satisfaction. Tseng(2008) found an association between gratitude and wellbeing among 270 Taiwanese college students. Finally, Froh JJ, Yurkewicz C, Kashdan TB (2009) examined 154 adolescents and confirmed associations between gratitude and life satisfaction.

Whereas gratitude involves the appreciation of benefits that have already been received, hope involves the positive anticipation of receiving a future desired outcome (Scioli, Ricci, Nyugen, & Scioli, 2011; Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). That desired future may involve the acquisition of a positive outcome or deliverance from a present circumstance. The realization of a hope may require action, as emphasized by Snyder et al. (1991, 1996), or may necessitate waiting for the actions of others (Worthington, 2005). Hope has been conceptualized in three ways. First, hope is generative and goal-directed, emphasizing one's own agency (motivation) and pathways (finding ways) to meet goals (Snyder et al., 1991, 1996, 2002). Second, Bruininks and Malle (2005) characterize hope as a positive and anticipatory emotion that emphasizes important outcomes that are not entirely within one's own control. Third, hope can also be understood as multidimensional, integrating cognition, emotion, motivation, relationships, and spirituality (Scioli et al., 2011). Like gratitude, hope has been examined in relationship to desirable and undesirable states. Hope is inversely related to depressive symptoms (Chang, Yu, & Hirsch, 2013) and anxiety (Arnau, Rosen, Finch, Rhudy, & Fortunato, 2007). In addition, hope is related to better psychological adjustment (Snyder et al., 2002), life satisfaction, and well-being (O'Sullivan, 2011). McCullough (2002) theorized that mindful attentiveness connects hope and gratitude; hopeful and grateful people savor their lives, whether through appreciating the positive past or pursuing meaningful future goals

2. The Present Study

The present study was conducted on adolescent of Kashmir valley. The state of Jammu and Kashmir has been witnessing armed conflict since last two decades. Armed conflict is mostly centered in Kashmir valley, while Jammu is relatively less affected. The author has personally experienced and observed the impact of conflict and this observation itself has been the driving force for this study. Armed conflict has negative impact on psychological wellbeing and behaviour outcomes of children and adolescents. Exposure to such armed conflict has led to increase in defiance, hostility and violent behavior, risk taking behaviour and other externalizing behaviour problems. There has been lot of

research studies on negative variables. This research study is different in its own as it measures the three positive variables in the region which is ridden by armed conflict. The conflict has impacted both male and female population. The expression of frustration and aggression in violent ways has become the part of life, but mostly adolescents are usually the main population involved in violence. Different research studies have been conducted on measuring different variables. This study is unique as this focuses on positive aspect of adolescent population.

3. Methods

3.1. Participants

A sample of 100 ($n = 100$) adolescents boys and girls were taken from two (2) different private schools of Kashmir valley. Using incidental sampling technique, the students were taken from grades 8th, 9th & 10th grades.

3.2. Emotional Intelligence Scale

“Trait Meta-Mood Scale: - The Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey et al., 1995) was designed to measure three cognitive components of the emotional intelligence construct: emotional attention (i.e., how much attention individuals pay to their inner feelings and emotional states); emotional clarity (i.e., the ability to understand and discriminate among feelings); and emotional repair (i.e., the ability to regulate moods and repair negative emotional experiences). It is answered using a 5-point Likert scale, with options ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Salovey et al. (1995) reported adequate internal consistency, as well as convergent and discriminant validity for this scale. In this study the author used the well-validated Spanish shorter version of the TMMS (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2004). The original 48 items were subjected to a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Items with loadings $\leq .40$ were removed. The shortened Spanish version includes 24 items from the original version (eight for each subscale), and shows high internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha for Attention = .90, Clarity = .90, Repair = .86) and satisfactory test-retest reliability (r values from .60 to .83”).

3.3. The Gratitude Questionnaire

The Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ-6; McCullough 2013) is a dispositional measure consisting of 6 items. Respondents endorsed each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (where 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree), with higher scores reflecting higher levels of gratitude. This scale showed good psychometric properties, including a robust one-factor structure and high internal consistency (McCullough 2013). Cronbach’s alpha estimates for the six-item totals have ranged from .76 to

.84. Using structural equation modeling to control measurement error, the correlation increased to $r(N = 1182) = .75, p < .001$. Scores on the GQ-6 also correlated with peers' ratings of targets' amounts of dispositional gratitude at $r = .33, p < .01$.

3.4. Hope Scale

Hope scale is a 12-item measure of a respondent's level of hope. In particular the scale is divided into two subscales that comprise Snyder's cognitive model of hope: (1) Agency (i.e., goal-directed energy) and (2) Pathways (i.e., planning to accomplish goals). Of the 12 items, 4 make up the Agency subscale and 4 make up the Pathways subscale. The remaining 4 items are fillers. Each item is answered using an 8-point Likert-type scale ranging from Definitely False to Definitely True. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed to test several psychometric hypotheses regarding the Hope Scale. The scale has demonstrated extremely good levels of reliability with Snyder et al, (1991) reporting Cronbach alphas of .74 to .84 for overall hope, .71 to .76 for agency thoughts and .63 to .80 for pathway thoughts when sampling student and clinical populations.

3.5. Procedure

Students were informed that participation was voluntary, that they were free to pull out at any time, and that their responses were confidential. There are set of statements given below which are related to our day to day thinking and feeling. Your experiences, thoughts and feelings are important for this research. Your honest responses will be highly appreciated and this will be your contribution for the cause of research in Kashmir. The questionnaires were administered in groups ranging in size from 20 to 30 participants. The normal length of time required to complete the study was approximately 30 to 35min, and after completing the questionnaires, participants were debriefed. The participation response rate was 100%.

3.6. Statistical Analysis

The data was analyzed by using statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 16.0. Pearson's correlation was used to know the relationship between variables i.e. Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude and T- test was used to know the significance of difference among adolescent on Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Results

Table 1 shows the mean value and standard deviation of all the variables under study.

Table 1: The basic statistics including N, Mean and Standard Deviation of Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Hope and Gratitude

| Variables | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---------------------|---------|----------------|-----|
| Emotional Attention | 27.2900 | 5.26528 | 100 |
| Emotional Clarity | 27.7100 | 5.43147 | 100 |
| Emotional Repair | 27.0100 | 4.88348 | 100 |
| Gratitude | 31.8800 | 5.63051 | 100 |
| Hope | 68.3300 | 8.47582 | 100 |

The table 2 clearly shows the correlation between the dimensions of Emotional intelligence and Hope and Gratitude. Emotional Attention was not found significantly correlated to Hope and Gratitude, while emotional clarity was found to be significantly positively correlated with hope ($r = .523, p < 0.01$), while Emotional clarity was also found significantly positively correlated with Gratitude ($r = .346, p < 0.01$). Emotional Repair was found to be significantly positively correlated with Hope ($r = .317, p < 0.01$), and it was found to be significantly positively correlated with gratitude as well ($r = .496, p < 0.01$). Hope and gratitude was also found to be significantly positively correlated ($r = .459, p < 0.01$).

Table 2.Correlations between Emotional Intelligence, Hope and Gratitude among Adolescents of Kashmir Valley

| | N | Emotional Attention | Emotional Clarity | Emotional Repair | Hope | Gratitude |
|----------------------------|-----|---------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------|-----------|
| Emotional Attention | 100 | 1 | .080 | -.012 | .065 | .092 |
| Emotional Clarity | 100 | .080 | 1 | .255* | .532** | .346** |
| Emotional Repair | 100 | -.012 | .255* | 1 | .317** | .496** |
| Hope | 100 | .065 | .532** | .317** | 1 | .459** |
| Gratitude | 100 | .092 | .346** | .496** | .459** | 1 |

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

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

Table 3 shows the significance of difference between adolescent boys and girls on Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence, Hope and Gratitude. The t value of emotional clarity (dimension of emotional

intelligence) between adolescent boys and girls shows significant difference at 0.01 level of significance ($t = 3.519, p < 0.01$). Adolescent boys and girls on emotional repair (dimension of emotional intelligence) also shows significant difference at 0.01 level of significance ($t = 2.104, p < 0.05$). The t value of other dimension of emotional intelligence i.e. emotional attention shows no significant difference between adolescent boys and girls.

The table data shows no significant difference between adolescent boys and girls on Gratitude. The adolescent boys and girls shows significant difference on Hope at 0.05 level of significance ($t = 2.251, p < 0.05$).

The above results clearly show that there is a significant difference between adolescent boys and girls on the variables except gratitude. Adolescent boys are more emotionally intelligent and are more hope than adolescent girls.

Table 3. Significance of difference between Emotional Intelligence, Hope and Gratitude among Adolescent boys and girls of Kashmir valley

| Variables | Gender | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | T- Value | P- Value |
|----------------------------|--------|----|---------|----------------|----------|---------------|
| Emotional Attention | Boys | 50 | 26.4000 | 5.49582 | -1.707 | Insignificant |
| | Girls | 50 | 28.1800 | 4.91848 | | |
| Emotional Clarity | Boys | 50 | 29.5200 | 5.15966 | 3.519** | Significant |
| | Girls | 50 | 25.9000 | 5.12795 | | |
| Emotional Repair | Boys | 50 | 28.0200 | 5.69457 | 2.104* | Significant |
| | Girls | 50 | 26.0000 | 3.69777 | | |
| Gratitude | Boys | 50 | 32.6200 | 6.65748 | 1.319 | Insignificant |
| | Girls | 50 | 31.1400 | 4.31424 | | |
| Hope | Boys | 50 | 70.2000 | 9.90568 | 2.251* | Significant |
| | Girls | 50 | 66.4600 | 6.31555 | | |

** Significant at $p < 0.01$

* Significant at $p < 0.05$

4.2. Discussion

The present research tries to explore the correlation among the dimensions of emotional intelligence, hope and gratitude and at the same time the research study also tries to explore the difference between adolescents population on all three variables i.e. emotional intelligence, hope and gratitude. The

study showed that emotional attention (one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence) does not have any significant correlation between hope and gratitude. The other two dimensions of emotional intelligence i.e. emotional clarity and emotional repair shows significant correlation between hope and gratitude. It also means that those adolescents who are high on emotional intelligence can be hopeful and often acknowledges whatever they have in their life. Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic (Oliver S, 2009). Goleman and Sutherland (1996) define Emotional Intelligence as the ability to motivate and endure oneself despite frustration; to control impulses and postpone satisfaction; to manage feelings and keep trouble from overwhelming the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope.

The present study also shows that there is a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and gratitude. *Gratitude* is the appreciation of what is valuable and meaningful to oneself and represents a general state of thankfulness and/or appreciation. People who express gratitude lives happily. Gratitude brings happiness not only to the other person but to the oneself as well. When a person who is emotionally intelligent has an awareness regarding about the happiness of oneself and others as well and gratitude is one of the ways to feel happy and to make others happy. The practice of gratitude by the age of adolescent not only helps to live them satisfactorily but also help them to learn how to have a better future by learning to express thankfulness. Appreciating the people and world around oneself can have a better outcome as a whole. The study conducted by Yuan Geng (2016), shows that emotional intelligence and gratitude has a positive correlation. The study concluded that emotional intelligence has significant effect on subjective wellbeing through the expression of gratitude. The study conducted by Rey and Extremera (2014) found a positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and gratitude. Regression analysis indicated that Emotional Intelligence can significantly predict gratitude. Emotional Intelligence is the ability to manage emotional and feeling information. Gratitude is an important life variable; it is a feeling and an emotion that encompasses state gratitude and trait gratitude, as well as the attitudes toward life. As an emotion or feeling, gratitude may become the object of Emotional Intelligence regulation and management. Gratitude is influenced by Emotional Intelligence or personality trait and predicts the category of Emotional Intelligence. The results of this study are consistent with (Rey and Extremera, 2014). Gratitude is an "empathic emotion" rooted in the ability for transference (Emmons and McCullough, 2003), which is the basic component of Emotional Intelligence (Schutte et al., 2001). McCullough et al. (2008), gratitude is an emotion or feeling. Therefore, the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and gratitude can be understood easily. Petrides and Furnham (2000) asserted that Emotional Intelligence can significantly predict emotion-related

indicators. Goleman (1996) reported that Emotional Intelligence can predict more than 80 percent of the variations in life related variables. As a virtue of human nature, gratitude is an emotion or feeling and an important life variable. Theoretically, gratitude is influenced by Emotional Intelligence, which also affects the former.

The study also shows that there is a significant positive correlation between hope and gratitude. The study conducted by McCullough (2002) theorized that mindful attentiveness connects hope and gratitude; hopeful and grateful people savor their lives, whether through appreciating the positive past or pursuing meaningful future goals. Whereas gratitude involves the appreciation of benefits that have already been received, hope involves the positive anticipation of receiving a future desired outcome (Scioli, Ricci, Nyugen, & Scioli, 2011; Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). That desired future may involve the acquisition of a positive outcome or deliverance from a present circumstance. The realization of a hope may require action, as emphasized by Snyder et al. (1991, 1996), or may necessitate waiting for the actions of others (Worthington, 2005). Hope has been conceptualized in three ways. First, hope is generative and goal-directed, emphasizing one's own agency (motivation) and pathways (finding ways) to meet goals (Snyder et al., 1991, 1996, 2002). Second, Bruininks and Malle (2005) characterize hope as a positive and anticipatory emotion that emphasizes important outcomes that are not entirely within one's own control. Third, hope can also be understood as multidimensional, integrating cognition, emotion, motivation, relationships, and spirituality (Scioli et al., 2011). Like gratitude, hope has been examined in relationship to desirable and undesirable states. Hope is inversely related to depressive symptoms (Chang, Yu, & Hirsch, 2013) and anxiety (Arnau, Rosen, Finch, Rhudy, & Fortunato, 2007). In addition, hope is related to better psychological adjustment (Snyder et al., 2002), life satisfaction, and well-being (O'Sullivan, 2011). McCullough (2002) theorized that mindful attentiveness connects hope and gratitude; hopeful and grateful people savor their lives, whether through appreciating the positive past or pursuing meaningful future goals. Furthermore, reflection on the generosity of others – the inherently social orientation of gratitude – may further facilitate hope (see McCullough, 2002), consistent with Scioli et al.'s (2011) view of hope.

The study also shown that adolescent boys and girls differ significantly on emotional intelligence. The boys are more emotionally intelligent than girls. The study was supported by the study of Study by Chu (2002) revealed that males have high level of emotional intelligence than that of females. The probable reason for the present finding might be due to the fact that emotional intelligence primarily deals with managing and expressing once emotions as well as social skills. A study about the gender differences on emotional intelligence showed that there is a significant difference between men and women on some subscales of emotional intelligence i.e. Assertiveness, Independence, Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control (Kaneez, 2006). The findings revealed that there is a significant difference between

the mean scores of the men and women. It means that men show more assertiveness, self recognition about himself show more independence and management according to the situations than the women. Independence impulsive assertiveness is usually observed in men. One of the reasons for this is that men are a powerful member in our society. The study conduct by Ahmad, S (2009) revealed that men are more emotionally intelligent than women. The results were contradiction to a research conducted by Katyal and Awasthi (2005) who studied gender differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents of Chandigarh, found that girls were having higher emotional intelligence than that of boys.

The present research also revealed that no significant difference between adolescent boys and girls on gratitude. Both adolescent boys and girls are expressing gratitude. But the study also revealed that there is a significant difference between adolescent boys and girls on hope. Adolescent boys are more hopeful than adolescent girls. The results was supported by the study of Gull and Nizami (2015) who studied the gender differences among 200 parents of differently abled children's on hope and psychological well-being. Statistically significant differences were found between fathers and mothers of differently abled children and fathers were more hopeful and better on psychological well-being as compare to mothers. The results were contradicting by the study conducted by Ciarrochi et al., (2015) who found that girls are more hopeful than boys.

The overall study showed that emotional intelligence, hope and gratitude are positively correlated and there is a significant difference between adolescent boys and girls on all the variables under study. Parents and school institutions should focus on inculcating the concepts of emotional intelligence, gratitude and hope, while the same institutions should organize programmes that will help them to understand this concept for the psychological wellbeing and to live happily and satisfactorily. Emotional intelligence, hope and gratitude predict the future success of an individual as well, thus the schools and family should focus on helping their adolescent boys and girls to learn and practice Emotional intelligence, Hope and Gratitude.

5. Conclusion

Overall the result showed positive correlation between emotional intelligence, hope and gratitude among adolescents. Adolescent boys are more emotionally intelligent and are more hopeful than adolescent girls. Parents and school institutions should focus on inculcating the concepts of emotional intelligence, gratitude and hope, and making them practice it. Such concepts will help them in developing psychological wellbeing and to live satisfactorily life. Developing emotional intelligence and practicing gratitude should be the part of school curriculum, and activities should be conducted to inculcate these concepts.

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