

**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF HIGHER SECONDARY
STUDENTS IN RELATION TO INTERPERSONAL
INTELLIGENCE AND CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS**

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis entitled “**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF HIGHER SECONDARY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE AND CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS**” submitted by me for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) is the record of original work carried out by me during the period from 2021 to 2024 under the guidance and supervision of **Dr. S. Sreelatha**, Principal, N.V.K.S.D College of Education, Attoor and has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship, Titles in this University or any other University or other similar institution of Higher Learning.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Conceptual Frame Work of the Study

Need and Significance of the Study

Statement of the Problem

Operational Definition of Key Terms

Objectives of the Study

Hypotheses Formulated

Methodology in Brief

Scope of the Study

Delimitations of the Study

Organization of the Report

In the 21st century, education systems worldwide are undergoing significant transformations to meet the demands of an increasingly complex and interconnected world. The focus has shifted from rote learning to developing critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving abilities among students (OECD, 2018). Education is no longer just about acquiring knowledge or collecting information; it is about fostering holistic development, which includes social, emotional, and cognitive skills. The National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 emphasizes the development of ethical and moral reasoning, social capacities, and effective leadership within educational institutions, which collectively foster Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness, and Leadership Behaviour among students. These are essential for students to become effective leaders and responsible citizens, capable of empathizing with others and addressing social challenges, including natural calamities.

Leadership Behaviour in students involves guiding peers, taking responsibility, and influencing others positively. It encompasses traits such as self-confidence, decision-making, and the ability to inspire and motivate others (Kouzes & Posner,

2002). Developing leadership skills in higher secondary students is crucial as it prepares them for future roles in various spheres of life, including professional, personal, and civic areas (Northouse, 2019). Effective leadership in the 21st century also includes the ability to adapt to change, communicate effectively, and foster collaboration among diverse groups (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Interpersonal Intelligence, according to Gardner (1983), pertains to the ability to comprehend and engage effectively with others. It encompasses key skills such as empathy, communication, and resolving conflicts. This intelligence plays a crucial role in leadership by enabling individuals to build and sustain relationships and manage the complexities of social interactions (Gardner, 1983; Goleman, 1995). Enhancing interpersonal intelligence in students fosters the development of strong social networks, promotes collaborative work, and deepens their understanding of social dynamics (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Civic Consciousness refers to the awareness and understanding of civic duties and responsibilities. It involves active participation in community affairs and a commitment to the well-being of society (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Developing Civic Consciousness among students fosters a sense of responsibility and encourages active citizenship, which is essential for a functioning democracy (Putnam, 2000). Students with high Civic Consciousness are more likely to engage in community service, participate in democratic processes, and advocate for social justice and environmental sustainability (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

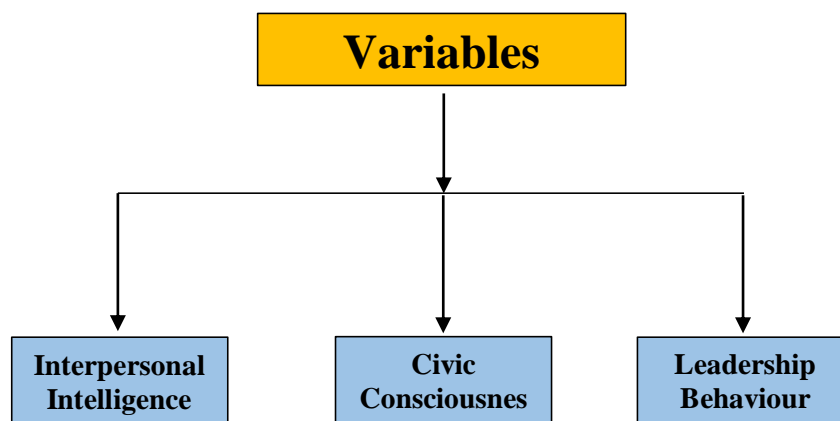
Higher secondary students aged between 16 and 18 years are at a crucial stage of development. This period is marked by significant cognitive, emotional, and social growth. These students are preparing to enter adulthood and take on greater responsibilities in society (Erikson, 1968). At this stage, they gain the right to vote,

underscoring their emerging roles as active citizens in democratic processes. Their role in the educational system is pivotal as they are on the brink of higher education or entering the workforce. Developing Civic Consciousness among students is essential for empowering them to contribute positively to their communities and the nation (Vygotsky, 1978). Educational institutions play a crucial role in nurturing these qualities by creating opportunities for leadership, fostering civic engagement, and supporting social and emotional development (Bandura, 1986). Additionally, cultivating critical and creative thinking skills, along with problem-solving abilities during this formative stage, is vital for personal growth and preparing students to face future challenges.

Students who demonstrate high levels of Interpersonal Intelligence are better equipped to understand and address the needs of others in their community, enabling them to become more effective leaders (Goleman, 1995), Civic Consciousness fosters a sense of responsibility and duty, motivating students to contribute meaningfully to society. Together, these attributes create a foundation for responsible leadership, allowing students to navigate both social and academic responsibilities successfully. Understanding these interconnections is vital for educators and policymakers in developing programmes that foster these qualities in students, ensuring they are well-prepared to face future challenges. This study aims to explore these relationships and provide insights into how educational practices can be enhanced to develop these critical competencies.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The major variables under the study are Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour. The theoretical background and frame work of these variables are detailed below.

Figure 1.1*Variables of the study***Interpersonal Intelligence**

Interpersonal Intelligence refers to the ability to understand and interact effectively with others. It involves recognizing and comprehending the emotions, motivations, desires, and intentions of other people. This form of intelligence is crucial for effective communication, teamwork, and leadership. People with high Interpersonal Intelligence are skilled at managing relationships, resolving conflicts, and working collaboratively in diverse groups. They exhibit empathy, social awareness, and the ability to influence and inspire others. The concept of Interpersonal Intelligence was introduced by Gardner as part of his theory of multiple intelligences, emphasizing that intelligence is not a single entity but a collection of distinct abilities that include interpersonal and intrapersonal skills (Gardner, 1983; Gardner, 1999).

Gardner (1983) described Interpersonal Intelligence as the skill to perceive and interpret the feelings, motivations, and desires of others, underscoring its significance in fostering social harmony and teamwork.

Goleman (1995) defined Interpersonal Intelligence as the ability to understand and interact effectively with others, emphasizing the importance of empathy, social skills, and communication in navigating social environments.

Mayer and Salovey (1990) defined Interpersonal Intelligence as the capacity to recognize and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others, highlighting its role in building healthy relationships and facilitating effective collaboration.

Sources of Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal Intelligence, a key aspect of Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, involves the capacity to understand and interact effectively with others. This form of intelligence encompasses several components, including empathy, social skills, communication, and the ability to read and respond to the emotions and motivations of others (Gardner, 1983). Theories of Gardner, provide a framework for understanding the multifaceted nature of Interpersonal Intelligence and its critical role in both personal and professional contexts. Various sources contribute to the development of this intelligence, ranging from familial and educational influences to social experiences and cultural contexts. By examining these theories, components, and sources, comprehensive understanding of how Interpersonal Intelligence is nurtured and its significant impact on interactions and relationship is obtained.

Dimensions of Interpersonal Intelligence

The dimensions of interpersonal intelligence encompass key social competencies that facilitate effective interaction and collaboration. These include empathy, which enables understanding others' emotions; communication skills for clear and respectful exchanges; social awareness to interpret social dynamics; conflict resolution to manage disagreements constructively; and teamwork to cooperate and

achieve shared goals. Together, these dimensions foster meaningful relationships and contribute to a harmonious social environment.

Goleman's framework integrates emotional intelligence into Interpersonal Intelligence. Mayer and Salovey's model provides a detailed breakdown of emotional skills contributing to Interpersonal Intelligence.

Gardner (1983) suggested the following components of interpersonal intelligence viz., empathy, social skill, communication, leadership and collaboration.

Empathy. It is the ability to understand and share the feelings of others. This involves recognizing emotions in others and responding appropriately, and understanding and being sensitive to the feelings of others. Empathy allows individuals to build strong and supportive relationships.

Social Skill. It is the proficiency in managing relationships and building networks. This includes the ability to interact effectively with others in various social contexts and handling relationships to move people in desired directions. This includes influencing, communicating, and managing conflict.

Communication. It is the ability to convey information effectively and understand others.

Leadership. It is the ability to guide, influence, and inspire others. Effective leaders can motivate their teams and foster a positive working environment.

Collaboration. It is the capability to work well with others in a team. This includes cooperation, sharing responsibilities, and valuing the contributions of team members.

Mayer and Salovey's. It is the model of Emotional intelligence (1990) also provides insights into Interpersonal Intelligence. Components of Interpersonal Intelligence include: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, managing emotions.

Perceiving Emotions. It is the ability to recognize emotions accurately in oneself and others. This foundational skill enables further emotional processing and understanding.

Using Emotions. It is the capacity to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities such as thinking and problem-solving.

Understanding Emotions. It is comprehending emotional language and the signals conveyed by emotions. This includes understanding the causes and consequences of emotions.

Managing Emotions. It is the ability to regulate emotions in oneself and in others. Effective emotion management promotes emotional and social well-being.

Goleman's (1995) model of Interpersonal Intelligence expanded on the concept of Interpersonal Intelligence by emphasizing Emotional Intelligence (EI), which includes crucial social and interpersonal skills. Goleman's components related to Interpersonal Intelligence are: conflict management, teamwork, collaboration and inspirational leadership.

Conflict Management. It is the ability to resolve disagreements and find mutually beneficial solutions. Effective conflict managers can navigate disputes without escalating tensions.

Teamwork and Collaboration. It is working cooperatively with others towards shared goals. This involves supporting team members and contributing to the group's success.

Inspirational Leadership. It is the ability to inspire and guide individuals and groups. Inspirational leaders create a vision and motivate others to achieve it.

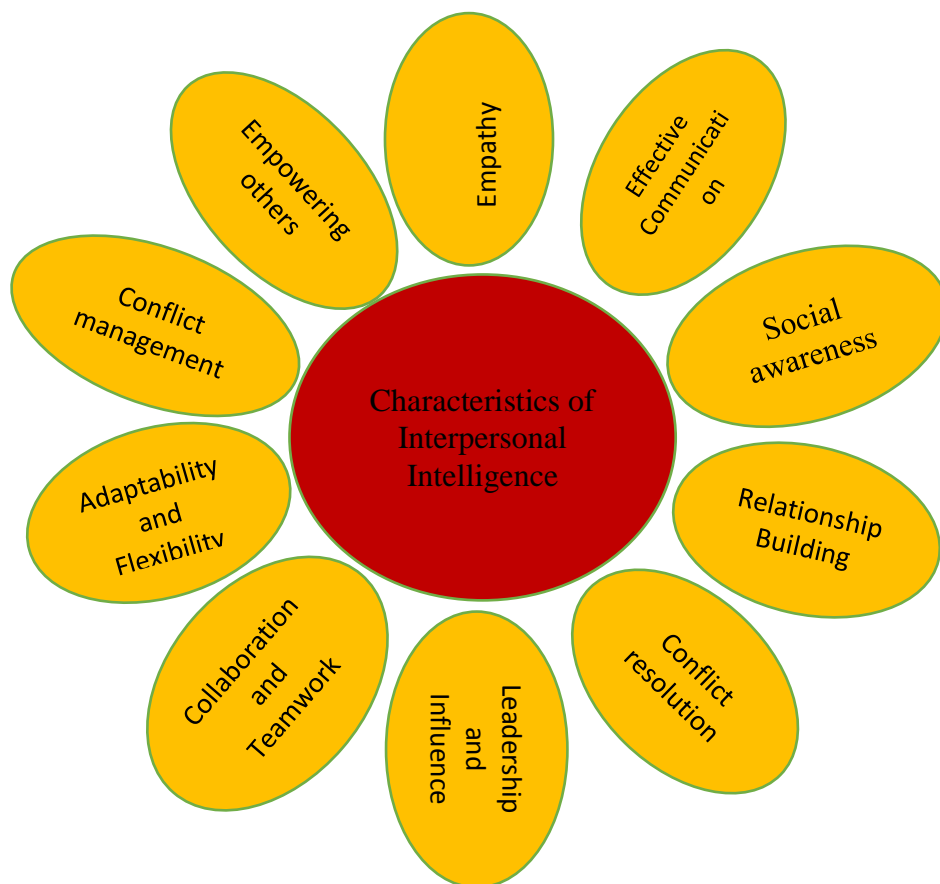
Characteristics of Interpersonal Intelligence.

Interpersonal Intelligence, as conceptualized within Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences and elaborated upon by researchers like Goleman, encompasses

a rich array of characteristics essential for effective social interaction and relationship building. A comprehensive exploration of the characteristics associated with Interpersonal Intelligence are illustrated as below:

Figure 1.2

Characteristics of Interpersonal Intelligence



Empathy. The core of Interpersonal Intelligence lies on empathy, the ability to understand and resonate with the emotions, perspectives, and experiences of others. Empathetic individuals demonstrate sensitivity to the feelings and needs of those around them, fostering deeper connections and facilitating meaningful communication.

Effective communication. Interpersonal Intelligence involves proficiency in both verbal and nonverbal communication. Skilled communicators express themselves

clearly and persuasively, actively listen to others, and adeptly interpret social cues to adjust their communication style according to the context and audience.

Social awareness. Individuals with strong Interpersonal Intelligence possess a keen awareness of social dynamics, norms, and customs. They navigate social situations with ease, recognizing subtle cues and nuances, understanding group dynamics, and demonstrating cultural sensitivity in diverse social settings.

Relationship Building. Building and maintaining positive relationships is a hallmark of Interpersonal Intelligence. Individuals adept in this domain possess the ability to establish trust, build rapport, and cultivate meaningful connections with a wide range of people. They excel at conflict resolution, negotiation, and collaboration, fostering harmonious relationships both personally and professionally.

Conflict resolution. Interpersonal Intelligence equips individuals with the skills to navigate conflicts and disagreements constructively. The person who are having Interpersonal Intelligence approach conflicts with empathy and diplomacy, seeking mutually beneficial solutions while preserving the integrity of relationships. Effective conflict resolution requires active listening, perspective-taking, and a commitment to understanding and addressing underlying concerns.

Leadership and Influence. Leaders with high Interpersonal Intelligence inspire and motivate others through their exemplary communication skills, emotional intelligence, and ability to build consensus. They demonstrate authenticity, empathy, and humility, earning the respect and trust of their team members while effectively guiding them towards shared goals.

Collaboration and Teamwork. Interpersonal Intelligence flourishes in collaborative environments where individuals work together towards common goals. Collaborators with strong interpersonal skills contribute effectively to team dynamics, fostering open

communication, cooperation, and mutual respect. They leverage their understanding of others' strengths and perspectives to achieve collective success.

Adaptability and Flexibility. Interpersonal Intelligence involves the ability to adapt and flexibly navigate diverse social situations and interpersonal dynamics. Individuals with this intelligence demonstrate resilience in the face of interpersonal challenges, readily adjusting their behaviour and communication style to meet the needs of different individuals and contexts.

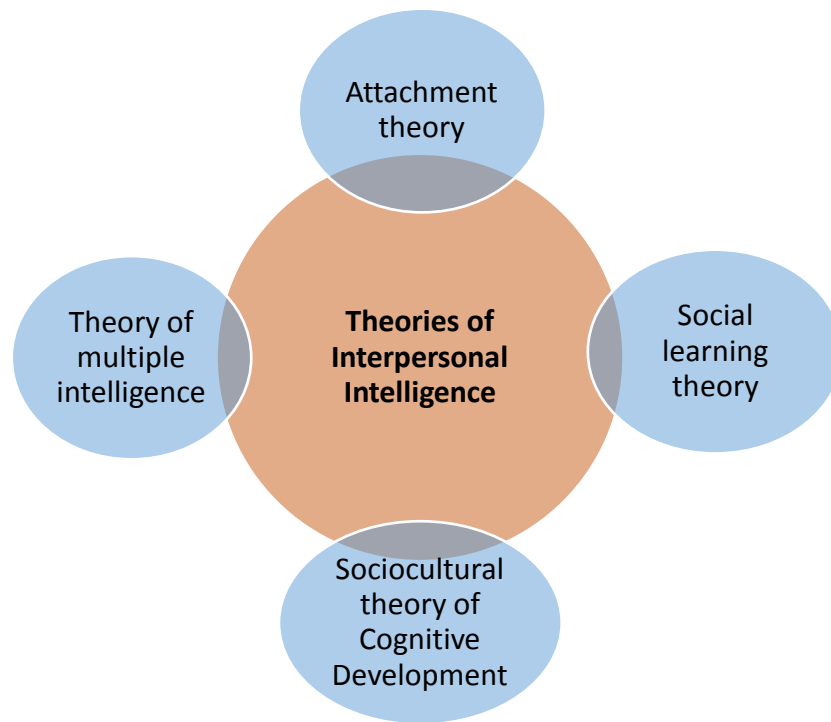
Conflict Management. Interpersonal Intelligence extends to the realm of conflict management, where individuals effectively mediate disputes, reconcile differences, and promote reconciliation. They facilitate open dialogue, encourage empathy and understanding, and strive for win-win outcomes that preserve relationships and foster mutual respect.

Empowering others. Individuals with strong Interpersonal Intelligence possess the ability to empower and uplift those around them. They nurture the growth and development of others through constructive feedback, mentorship, and support, creating environments where individuals feel valued, heard, and empowered to thrive.

Interpersonal Intelligence encompasses a multifaceted set of characteristics essential for navigating the complexities of social interaction, fostering meaningful relationships, and inspiring positive change in both personal and professional domains.

Theories of Interpersonal Intelligence

Theories of Interpersonal Intelligence provide foundational insights into how individuals understand, interact, and build relationships with others, drawing from various psychological frameworks such as attachment theory, social learning theory, and socio-cultural theory, each offering unique perspectives on the development and functioning of interpersonal skills.

Figure 1.3***Theories of Interpersonal Intelligence***

Attachment Theory. Developed by Bowlby(1969) and Ainsworth(1978), attachment theory explores the significance of early relationships, particularly those with caregivers, in shaping individuals' interpersonal capacities and emotional development. Secure attachment lays the foundation for healthy interpersonal relationships, fostering trust, empathy, and effective communication skills.

Social Learning Theory. Originating from the work of the psychologist Bandura(1977), social learning theory emphasizes the role of observation, imitation, and modelling in the acquisition of social skills and behaviours. According to this theory, individuals learn through observation and imitation of others' behaviours, attitudes, and emotional expressions, thereby acquiring social competence and interpersonal skills over time.

Sociocultural Theory of Cognitive Development. Vygotsky's socio-cognitive development theory (1978), outlined in various works including "Mind in Society" (1978), emphasizes the role of social interaction in cognitive development. According to Vygotsky, individuals learn and develop through social interaction with more knowledgeable others, such as parents, teachers, and peers. This perspective underscores the importance of interpersonal relationships and communication in shaping cognitive abilities and intellectual growth.

Theory of Multiple Intelligence. Gardner (1983) proposed that intelligence is not a single general ability but a set of distinct intelligences. Interpersonal Intelligence is one of the eight intelligences, which involves understanding and interacting with others. Gardner emphasized that traditional IQ tests do not capture the full range of human intelligences, which he introduced in his book "Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences" (1983). Gardner proposed that intelligence encompasses a range of abilities beyond traditional measures like IQ, and Interpersonal Intelligence is one of these dimensions. It entails the capacity to successfully interpret and respond to the feelings, intentions, and behaviours of those around us. Gardner suggested that individuals high in Interpersonal Intelligence excel in areas such as empathy, communication, leadership, and the ability to perceive and understand others' emotions and intentions.

Strategies to develop Interpersonal Intelligence

Developing interpersonal intelligence involves intentional strategies that strengthen social skills, enhance empathy, and improve communication. Effective approaches include collaborative learning, role-playing activities, group discussions, peer feedback, and real-life social interactions, all of which help individuals build

positive relationships, resolve conflicts, and work harmoniously with others in diverse settings.

Developing Interpersonal Intelligence greatly enhance student's social skills, leadership potential, and adaptability in various social settings. Educational institutions play a pivotal role in nurturing these competencies through a variety of curricular and extracurricular activities. By incorporating strategies that emphasize interaction, teamwork, and communication, schools can create an environment that promotes the development of Interpersonal Intelligence. Engaging students in collaborative projects, group discussions, and community service initiatives not only enhances their ability to relate to others but also prepares them for success in both personal and professional realms. The following strategies outline ways to cultivate and strengthen Interpersonal Intelligence.

Curricular activities. Curricular activities, which form an integral part of the formal academic framework, play a significant role in fostering interpersonal intelligence by providing structured opportunities for students to engage collaboratively, participate in group tasks, and develop essential social and communication skills within the learning environment.

Role-Playing and Simulations. Engaging students in role-playing and simulations is an effective approach to cultivate Interpersonal Intelligence. These activities place students in realistic scenarios, requiring them to navigate social interactions, resolve conflicts, and exhibit empathy. Students might act out various characters in a conflict, practicing negotiation and understanding different perspectives. This method enhances students' communication and problem-solving abilities (Goleman, 1995). Additionally, simulations of real-world situations, such as business meetings or community issues,

encourage students to collaborate, make joint decisions, and strategies, thereby improving their social awareness and teamwork skills (Gardner, 1983).

Cooperative-learning. Cooperative learning involves students working in small groups to achieve shared academic objectives, which not only boosts academic performance but also develops crucial interpersonal skills like communication, conflict resolution, and empathy. Through group projects and peer-teaching sessions, students learn to rely on one another, share responsibilities, and value diverse viewpoints (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). This collaborative setting fosters a sense of community and belonging among students, essential for their social development and emotional health (Slavin, 1995).

Active Listening Exercises. Active listening exercises are fundamental for developing robust Interpersonal Intelligence. These activities teach students to listen attentively, grasp the speaker's perspective, and respond thoughtfully. Techniques such as mirroring, paraphrasing, and providing feedback can be practiced in pairs or small groups, enhancing students' ability to communicate effectively and empathetically (Rogers & Farson, 1957). By regularly incorporating active listening activities into the classroom, teachers help students forge stronger connections with peers and improve their overall social interactions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990).

Conflict Resolution Workshops. Conflict resolution workshops equip students with tools and strategies for managing disagreements constructively. These workshops might include role-playing conflict scenarios, discussing different conflict resolution styles, and practicing mediation techniques. Learning to address conflicts calmly and effectively enhances students' emotional regulation and problem-solving skills (Deutsch, 1973). This not only improves their peer relationships but also prepares them

for future professional and personal interactions where conflict management is crucial (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

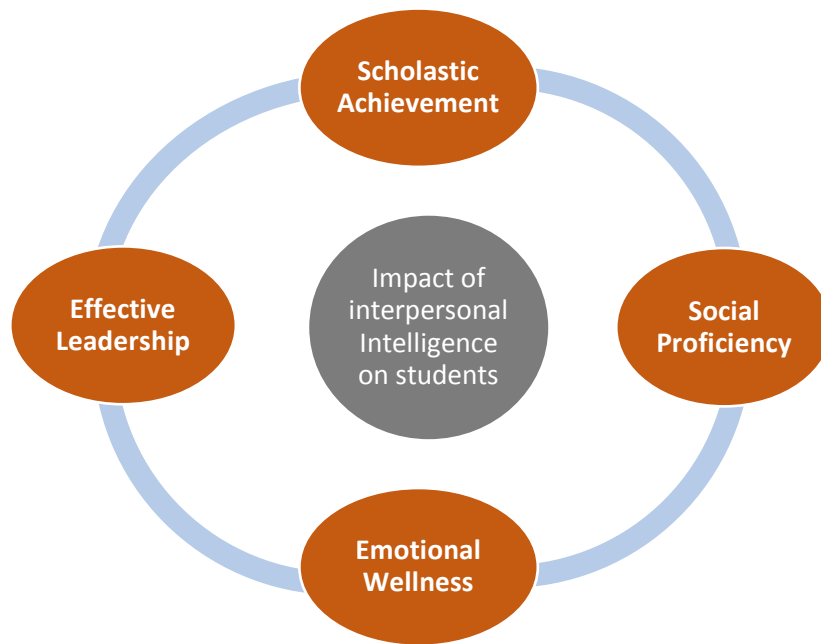
Cocurricular Activities. Participation in cocurricular activities in various club like sports, arts, music, nature, health, science clubs and community service projects offers students additional opportunities to develop Interpersonal Intelligence. Drama clubs foster empathy and understanding by having students portray different characters and emotions. Community service projects expose students to diverse populations and societal issues, promoting empathy, social responsibility, and Civic Consciousness (Eyler & Giles, 2010).

Creating a Supportive School Culture. Establishing a supportive and inclusive school culture is vital for fostering Interpersonal Intelligence. This involves promoting values like respect, empathy, and collaboration throughout the school environment. Encouraging positive interactions through school-wide initiatives such as peer mentoring programmes and inclusive events helps students feel valued and connected. Teachers and staff can model effective interpersonal behaviours, showing how to communicate respectfully, manage conflicts, and support one another (Bandura, 1977). A school culture that prioritizes these values offers a safe and nurturing space for students to develop and practice their interpersonal skills (Pianta et al., 2012).

By applying these strategies, Interpersonal Intelligence of students can be enhanced leading to better communication, stronger relationships, and greater success in various aspects of life.

Impact of Interpersonal Intelligence on Students

Interpersonal intelligence greatly enhances an individual's capacity for social connection, emotional resilience, and academic success. Here are some impacts of interpersonal intelligence.

Figure 1.4***Impact of Interpersonal Intelligence on Students***

Scholastic Achievement. High Interpersonal Intelligence correlates with success in collaborative learning environments, where effective communication, teamwork, and positive relationships with peers and educators thrive. Research indicates that constructive social bonds in educational settings enhance academic engagement, motivation, and performance (Wentzel, 2015). Moreover, Interpersonal Intelligence facilitates seeking assistance, forming study groups, and engaging in peer teaching, all of which enhance learning outcomes (Wentzel, 2009).

Social Proficiency. Interpersonal Intelligence fosters social competence by nurturing empathy, perspective-taking, and conflict resolution skills crucial for navigating social dynamics and relationships. Students with strong Interpersonal Intelligence are more likely to exhibit behaviours like helping, sharing, and cooperating (Eisenberg et al., 2006), thereby fostering a supportive school environment benefiting individuals and the broader community.

Emotional Wellness. Interpersonal Intelligence intersects with emotional intelligence, encompassing the comprehension and management of one's emotions and those of others. Students with heightened Interpersonal Intelligence demonstrate better emotional regulation and provide support and empathy to peers (Brackett & Katulak, 2006). This ability to build strong social support networks aids emotional resilience, mitigating stress and promoting positive mental health (Reinke et al., 2011).

Effective Leadership. Effective leadership is the ability to inspire, guide and empower others through interpersonal intelligence and ethical decision making. Students proficient in Interpersonal Intelligence often emerge as leaders in group projects, extracurricular activities, and community endeavors (Goleman, 1995). By nurturing leadership skills, Interpersonal Intelligence empowers students to drive collaboration, initiative, and positive change.

Civic Consciousness

Civic Consciousness encompasses individuals' awareness of their roles and responsibilities as members of a community or society. It involves understanding the importance of active participation in civic affairs, such as voting, volunteering, and advocating for social justice and equality.

Civic Consciousness reflects individuals' commitment to upholding democratic values, respecting the rights of others, and contributing to the common good. It entails recognizing the interconnectedness of individuals within society and the impact of collective actions on community well-being.

Civic Consciousness is characterized by a sense of belonging, solidarity, and civic-mindedness among individuals. It involves valuing diversity, promoting inclusivity, and actively engaging in efforts to address social issues and improve the quality of life for all members of society.

Civic Consciousness can be defined, as "the awareness, understanding, and sense of responsibility that individuals have towards their community and society, motivating them to actively participate in civic affairs and contribute to the common good" (Putnam, 2000).

Civic Consciousness plays a vital role in fostering a healthy and vibrant democracy, as informed and engaged citizens are essential for the functioning of democratic institutions and the advancement of social progress.

Dimensions of Civic Consciousness

Dimensions of civic consciousness refers to the various aspects that define an individual's awareness, understanding, and active participation in societal and national responsibilities. These dimensions encompass civic awareness, civic attitudes, civic skills, and civic participation, all of which contribute to shaping responsible citizens who are committed to the welfare of their community and the nation. By developing these dimensions, students are empowered to engage thoughtfully in democratic processes, social issues, and community development.

Putnam (2000) described several dimensions of civic consciousness, including Social Trust, Civic Engagement, Political Participation, Social Networks, and Community Cohesion. Social Trust refers to the level of confidence individuals have in others within their community and society, which helps strengthen social bonds and create a more cohesive environment. Civic Engagement involves active participation in community activities such as volunteering, attending meetings, and joining local organizations, reflecting a commitment to social responsibility. Political Participation encompasses involvement in formal political activities, such as voting, campaigning, and engaging in political discussions, highlighting the role of individuals in democratic governance. Social Networks represent the relationships and connections people

establish within their communities, facilitating the exchange of resources, support, and information. Lastly, Community Cohesion emphasizes a shared sense of belonging and collective identity, fostering solidarity and mutual responsibility among community members.

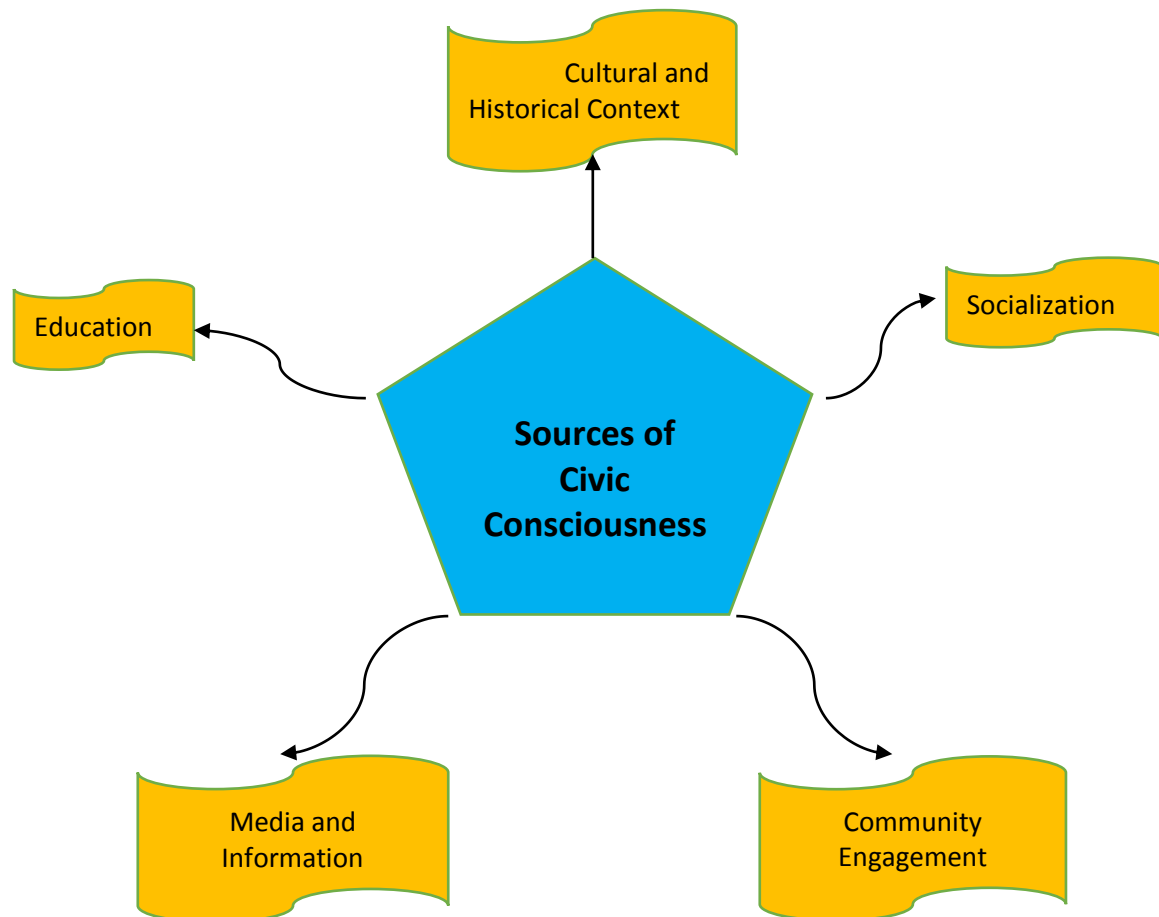
Westheimer and Kahne (2004) outlined three key dimensions of civic consciousness, the Personally Responsible Citizen, the Participatory Citizen, and the Justice-Oriented Citizen. A Personally Responsible Citizen upholds societal norms by following laws, paying taxes, and engaging in volunteer work, emphasizing moral responsibility and fulfilling civic duties. The Participatory Citizen takes an active role in community and political life by joining local organizations, voting, attending meetings, and contributing to public discussions, fostering civic engagement and collective problem-solving. In contrast, the Justice-Oriented Citizen is committed to understanding social issues and advocating for systemic change. This dimension focuses on identifying and addressing the root causes of societal problems, participating in activism, and promoting social justice and equity. By working to correct injustices and improve social structures, Justice-Oriented Citizens play a crucial role in shaping a fairer and more inclusive society.

Zaff et al. (2010) identified key dimensions of civic consciousness, including civic skills and civic empowerment. Civic skills encompass essential abilities required for active participation in society, such as critical thinking, effective communication, and problem-solving. Individuals who develop strong civic skills can analyze complex issues, engage in meaningful discussions, and collaborate with others to address community challenges. Meanwhile, civic empowerment refers to an individual's sense of agency and confidence in participating in civic life and driving positive change. Empowered citizens believe in their capacity to make a difference and possess the

necessary resources and opportunities to contribute effectively. This dimension fosters a culture of active citizenship and promotes democratic governance.

Sources of Civic Consciousness

Civic Consciousness, the awareness and commitment to contribute positively to society, is shaped by several key sources. Education serves as a primary driver, instilling civic knowledge, values, and responsibilities through structured curricula and classroom interactions. Socialization, especially through family and peer groups, moulds individuals' civic attitudes and values from an early age, reinforcing notions of community duty. Community engagement provides real-life experiences, deepening one's connection to local issues and encouraging active participation. Media informs and influences public opinion on civic matters, highlighting social issues and promoting community awareness. Cultural and historical contexts shape civic identity by embedding a sense of shared heritage and collective purpose within individuals. Each of these sources plays a critical role in cultivating a society that is both aware of and responsive to its civic duties.

Figure 1.5*Sources of Civic Consciousness*

Cultural and Historical Context. Societal values, cultural traditions, and historical events shape individuals' perceptions of civic duty, citizenship, and democracy (Verba et al., 1995). Historical occurrences, social movements, and cultural narratives contribute to the formation of collective identities and civic norms, influencing the development of Civic Consciousness within a society.

Socialization. Families, peer groups, and social networks significantly contribute to the cultivation of Civic Consciousness by instilling values, norms, and attitudes related to civic engagement and participation (Flanagan & Christens, 2011). Through social

interactions and relationships, individuals learn about the importance of community engagement, empathy, and social accountability.

Community Engagement. Active participation in community groups, volunteer endeavors, and civic initiatives provides individuals with opportunities to develop a sense of belonging, connection, and dedication to their community (Putnam, 2000). Involvement in community service projects, local associations, and grassroots movements fosters solidarity and collective action towards addressing local concerns and enhancing community welfare.

Media and Information. Mass media platforms, including news outlets and social media, influence individuals' civic consciousness by disseminating information, facilitating public discourse, and raising awareness about social and political matters (Norris, 2000). Access to diverse sources of information and viewpoints enhances individuals' comprehension of civic issues and promotes informed civic participation.

Education. Formal schooling plays a crucial role in fostering Civic Consciousness by imparting knowledge about democratic principles, civic rights and responsibilities, and the significance of active citizenship (Galston, 2001). Educational institutions serve as key platforms for teaching civic values, nurturing critical thinking abilities, and encouraging civic involvement among students.

These diverse sources interact and intersect to shape individuals' Civic Consciousness, influencing their attitudes, beliefs, and actions towards civic engagement and participation in democratic processes.

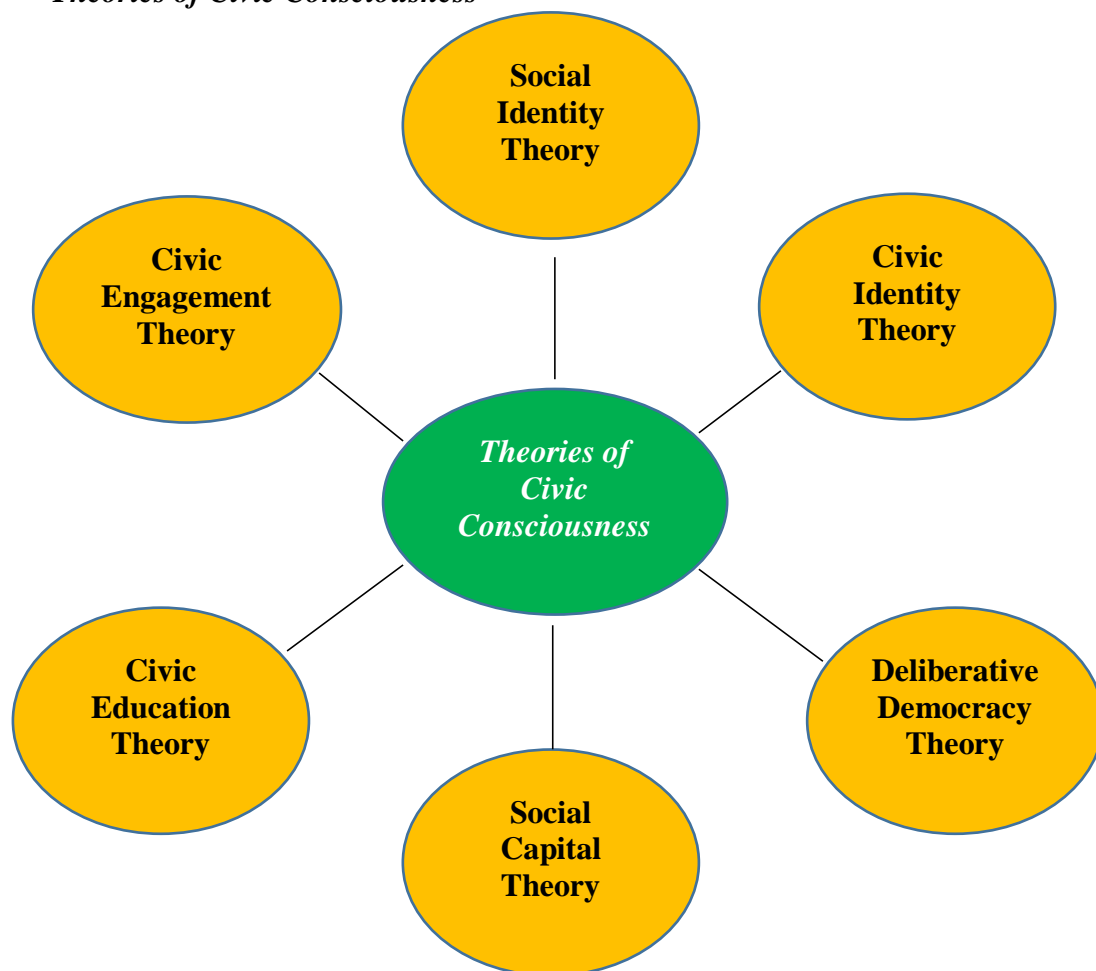
Theories of Civic Consciousness

Theories of Civic Consciousness explore the factors that shape individuals' sense of responsibility and active participation in society. By examining psychological, social, and cultural influences, these theories provide insight into how civic values,

awareness, and engagement are developed. They address how identity formation, moral reasoning, social interactions, and political awareness collectively contribute to one's commitment to the common good. Together, these theories form a foundation for understanding how individuals become responsible, informed citizens, essential to building a cohesive and socially conscious society.

Figure 1.6

Theories of Civic Consciousness



Social Identity Theory. Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) suggests that individuals derive a sense of belonging and identity from their membership in social groups, such as communities or nations. Civic Consciousness can be understood within this framework as individuals' identification with and attachment to their civic community.

Civic Identity Theory. Civic Identity Theory (Breakwell, 1986) suggests that individuals develop a sense of civic identity through their membership in social groups and their experiences within civic contexts. Civic Consciousness is a key component of civic identity, reflecting individuals' internalization of civic norms, values, and responsibilities as part of their self-concept.

Deliberative Democracy Theory. Deliberative Democracy Theory (Habermas, 1996) argues for a form of democracy characterized by rational and inclusive public deliberation. Civic Consciousness, within this framework, involves active engagement in public discourse, where individuals listen to diverse perspectives, critically evaluate arguments, and participate in decision-making processes.

Social Capital Theory. Social Capital Theory (Putnam, 2000) posits that the networks, norms, and trust within a community contribute to its effectiveness. Civic Consciousness can be viewed as a form of social capital, reflecting individuals' engagement in civic activities, participation in community organizations, and trust in public institutions.

Civic Education Theory. Civic Education Theory (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) emphasizes the role of education in fostering Civic Consciousness. It argues that schools should not only teach students about civics but also encourage critical thinking, empathy, and active participation in civic life.

Civic Engagement Theory. Civic engagement theory (Zaff et al., 2010) emphasizes the importance of individuals' active participation in democratic processes and community life. Civic Consciousness plays a critical role in motivating and sustaining civic engagement, as it encompasses individuals' awareness of their rights, responsibilities, and opportunities for participation in shaping their communities.

Strengthening Civic Consciousness among Students

Developing civic consciousness among students is essential for fostering a well-rounded, responsible, and engaged citizen. As students prepare to enter adulthood, instilling a strong sense of civic responsibility equips them with the awareness and skills needed to participate effectively in democratic processes and community life. Civic consciousness helps students understand their rights and responsibilities, encourages active participation in societal issues, and promotes social justice and equity. Civic Consciousness can be developed among students through curricular activities, extracurricular activities and community based school projects.

Curricular activities. Curricular activities play a pivotal role in strengthening civic consciousness among students by systematically embedding civic values, democratic ideals, and social responsibilities within the formal educational framework. Through well-designed academic programmes, students are encouraged to actively participate in various learning experiences that develop their understanding of societal roles and collective welfare. Key components such as Civic Education Curriculum, Service Learning Projects, Democratic Classroom Practices like roleplay, and Media Literacy are instrumental in cultivating informed, responsible, and active citizens.

Civic Education Curriculum. In curriculum, integrate lessons on democracy, citizenship, human rights, and civic duties into existing courses like social studies, history, and civics. Case studies, real-world examples, and discussions on current events can be used to illustrate the importance and impact of civic issues. Experiential learning activities such as debates, simulations, mock elections, and community service projects can be employed to engage students in practical civic participation.

Service-Learning Projects. Service-learning initiatives that address real community needs can be developed while teaching students about civic responsibility and social

justice. Partnership with local organizations, NGOs, and government entities can be organised to find relevant service opportunities. Facilitate reflective exercises and discussions after service experiences to help students connect their activities to broader civic values and responsibilities.

Democratic Classroom Practices. Create a classroom environment that values diverse opinions, encourages respectful dialogue, and promotes active citizenship can use democratic decision-making processes like consensus-building, voting, and deliberative discussions to empower student participation in classroom governance. Encourage students to express their views, ask questions, and engage in civil discourse on controversial topics, fostering critical thinking and empathy.

Civic Engagement Simulations. Design interactive simulation activities that immerse students in addressing societal challenges and participating in collective decision-making processes. These may include mock legislative debates, policy discussions, or international forums, offering practical experience in resolving diverse viewpoints and building consensus. Following these simulations, guide students through reflection sessions to help them analyze their roles, assess outcomes, and deepen their understanding of civic responsibility and democratic values.

Media Literacy and Digital Citizenship. Teach media literacy to help students critically evaluate information sources, recognize bias, and responsibly navigate digital media. Educate students on their rights and responsibilities as digital citizens, including online civic participation, respectful communication, and the ethical use of technology for social change. Analyze media portrayals of civic issues, political campaigns, and social movements to understand how media influences public opinion and civic engagement.

Extracurricular Activities. Extracurricular activities serve as dynamic platforms that complement formal education by engaging students in practical experiences and community participation, thereby fostering civic consciousness through active involvement in social, cultural, and service-oriented initiatives.

Student Government and Leadership Programmes. Establish a student council to give students a voice in school matters and experience in democratic processes. Offer leadership workshops to develop skills in public speaking, negotiation, and conflict resolution. Encourage student participation in decision-making regarding school policies and events.

Debate Clubs and Model United Nations. Organize debate clubs to promote critical thinking and understanding of various civic issues. Host Model United Nations (MUN) simulations to engage students in global issues and diplomacy. Provide opportunities for students to participate in debate and MUN competitions.

Volunteer Programmes. Create school-wide volunteer programmes where students participate in community service projects like park clean-ups or assisting at food banks. Encourage students to document and reflect on their volunteer experiences and the impact on the community.

Environmental Clubs. Form environmental clubs to involve students in sustainability initiatives like recycling programmes and tree planting. Organize events like Earth Day celebrations and sustainability workshops to promote environmental stewardship.

Community-Based School Projects. Community-based school projects are purposeful educational initiatives that connect students with real-life community issues, enabling them to develop civic consciousness and leadership skills through active participation in service activities, local problem-solving, and collaborative engagement with society.

Community Awareness Campaigns. Guide students in creating community awareness campaigns on topics like public health and social justice. Use multimedia tools to raise awareness and engage the community. Evaluate the impact of campaigns and encourage students to present their findings to peers and community members.

Intergenerational Programmes. Develop programmes connecting students with older generations through storytelling and collaborative projects. Organize events where students learn about local history and culture from older community members. Encourage students to document and share their findings, fostering mutual respect between generations.

Community Improvement Projects. Engage students in projects like revitalizing public spaces or creating community gardens. Collaborate with local businesses and residents to enhance the community's quality of life. Encourage students to take ownership of projects from planning to evaluation. Promoting Civic Consciousness Through Extracurricular and Community Activities

Reflective Practices. Incorporate reflective practices like journals and group discussions to help students process their experiences and understand their civic impact. Encourage students to critically analyse the challenges and successes of their projects.

Mentorship and Support. Provide mentorship from teachers, community leaders, and alumni to guide students in their civic activities. Establish a network of mentors offering advice, resources, and encouragement.

Recognition and Incentives. Recognize students' civic achievements through awards and public acknowledgments. Offer incentives like scholarships and community service hours to motivate students.

By implementing these strategies, schools can foster a strong sense of Civic Consciousness in students, helping them become informed, engaged, and responsible citizens.

Leadership Behaviour

Leadership Behaviour among students refers to the actions, attitudes, and qualities displayed by students that inspire, motivate, and guide others towards common goals or objectives. It involves taking initiative, demonstrating integrity, fostering collaboration, and serving as positive role models within their school or community.

Katz and Kahn, (1978), defined Leadership Behaviour as the set of actions and activities that leaders engage in to guide, motivate, and influence others to achieve collective goals.

To House and Aditya (1997), Leadership Behaviour encompasses the behaviours that leaders use to motivate subordinates, provide direction, and implement plans to achieve organizational goals.

Yukl (2012), described Leadership as the actions and activities carried out by an individual in a leadership role to influence, motivate, and guide others toward achieving organizational goals.

To Northouse (2016), Leadership Behaviour refers to the activities and actions of a leader that influence and guide the behaviour of others towards achieving set goals and objectives.

Leadership behaviour among students encompasses a range of behaviours, including taking on leadership roles in student organizations, clubs, or extracurricular activities, demonstrating effective communication and interpersonal skills, empowering and supporting peers to reach their full potential, engaging in problem-solving and decision-making in group settings, showing empathy, inclusivity, and

respect towards others, and setting a good example through ethical conduct and integrity.

Characteristics of Leadership Behaviour

The characteristics of leadership behaviour encompass the qualities and actions that enable individuals to effectively guide, influence, and support others. These characteristics serve as the foundation of a leader's ability to foster trust, inspire motivation, and drive a group toward shared objectives. Understanding these qualities offers insight into how leaders create positive impact, cultivate collaboration, and bring out the best in those they lead. The key characteristics of leadership behaviour are explained in the following sections.

Vision and Direction. Leaders possess a clear vision and are capable of articulating it effectively, guiding individuals and teams toward shared objectives with purpose and clarity.

Communication Skills. Effective leaders excel in both verbal and non-verbal communication, ensuring ideas are conveyed clearly, feedback is constructive, and active listening is practiced.

Emotional Intelligence and Empathy. They understand and manage their own emotions while being sensitive to the emotions and perspectives of others, fostering trust and meaningful relationships.

Decision-Making Ability. Leaders exhibit sound judgment, analytical thinking, and ethical decision-making, even under challenging and uncertain circumstances.

Adaptability and Resilience. They demonstrate flexibility in the face of change, adapting strategies and guiding their teams through dynamic environments with confidence.

Integrity and Accountability. Ethical behaviour and transparency are fundamental to leadership, with leaders taking responsibility for their actions and decisions, thereby building trust.

Motivation and Inspiration. Leaders inspire and empower others by creating an encouraging environment that nurtures innovation, commitment, and professional growth.

Problem-Solving Skills. They address challenges with creativity and efficiency, resolving conflicts and ensuring continuous progress toward goals.

Delegation and Teamwork. Effective leaders recognize individual strengths, delegate tasks appropriately, and promote collaboration to optimize team performance.

Confidence and Charisma. Leaders exhibit confidence and a charismatic presence, influencing others positively and instilling a sense of shared purpose and direction.

Dimensions of Leadership Behaviour

Leadership Behaviour encompasses a range of actions, attitudes and decisions that leaders exhibit to guide, inspire and manage others. The study of Leadership Behaviour identifies key dimensions that are instrumental in shaping the dynamic of leadership.

To Gandhiji (1927) leadership was deeply rooted in transformational and servant leadership principles, guided by core values such as nonviolence, truth, self-discipline, empathy, and simplicity. His philosophy of nonviolence emphasized moral courage and self-restraint, promoting peaceful change without resorting to conflict. Truth was central to his life and leadership, as he believed honesty and transparency built integrity and trust. Gandhiji practiced self-discipline rigorously, believing that a leader must lead through personal restraint and sacrifice. His empathy and compassion drove him to work tirelessly for the welfare of others, particularly the marginalized, while his

servant leadership approach prioritized the needs of the people above personal gain. Simplicity and minimalism defined his lifestyle, reflecting his commitment to humility and essential values over material wealth. He showed remarkable resilience and patience, enduring hardships with unwavering dedication, and promoted self-reliance through the Swadeshi movement, encouraging empowerment and national pride. Gandhiji embraced inclusivity and respect for diversity, striving to unite people across divisions and foster mutual understanding. His moral courage and willingness to sacrifice for his principles inspired his followers, while his visionary and purpose-driven leadership provided a clear goal of a free, just, and self-reliant nation. Collectively, these dimensions established Gandhiji as a model of ethical, value-based leadership committed to social change and the greater good.

Kalam (2002) developed dimensions of leadership by a harmonious blend of transformational and servant leadership principles, focusing on visionary thinking, integrity, dedication, empowerment, resilience, and service to society. A forward-looking vision was central, encouraging innovative thinking, scientific advancement, and national development, particularly among the youth, to inspire progress toward long-term goals. Integrity and ethics formed the foundation of this leadership style, promoting honesty, transparency, and moral conduct, which fostered trust and credibility within the community. Dedication and hard work were demonstrated through a relentless commitment to excellence, with an emphasis on perseverance, discipline, and active participation in achieving shared objectives. Empowerment and education were key elements, advocating for the dissemination of knowledge, the cultivation of individual potential, and the promotion of self-confidence through scientific inquiry and continuous learning. This approach aimed to unlock the abilities of others while fostering meaningful contributions to society. Resilience and optimism

were equally vital, enabling the leader to maintain a positive outlook during adversity and to motivate others to overcome challenges with determination. Central to this leadership philosophy was the principle of service to society, which prioritized uplifting the underserved and reinforcing the belief that true leadership is rooted in selfless action for the collective good. These dimensions, grounded in values of vision, humility, and dedication, collectively created a legacy that continues to inspire individuals to pursue national progress, personal growth, and societal transformation.

Bar-On's (2006) dimensions of leadership behaviour are deeply rooted in the Emotional Intelligence framework, which emphasizes the vital role of understanding and managing emotions for effective leadership. These dimensions align with various leadership theories, such as transformational, servant, and situational leadership, underscoring the importance of emotional and interpersonal competencies in guiding teams and achieving organizational goals. The key dimensions include self-awareness, which involves recognizing one's own emotions, strengths, and weaknesses to make balanced decisions while considering their impact on others. Self-regulation enables leaders to manage their emotions consistently, especially under pressure, avoiding impulsive reactions and ensuring steady leadership. Motivation, as identified by Bar-On, refers to the internal drive to accomplish goals with persistence and optimism, which encourages teams to adopt a similarly positive and resilient mindset. Empathy allows leaders to understand and value the emotions of others, fostering inclusive environments where individuals feel respected and supported. Social skills are essential for building strong relationships, resolving conflicts, and guiding teams toward shared objectives. Stress tolerance is crucial for maintaining composure and rational decision-making in high-pressure situations, ensuring that emotions do not interfere with effective leadership. Reality testing enables leaders to assess situations objectively,

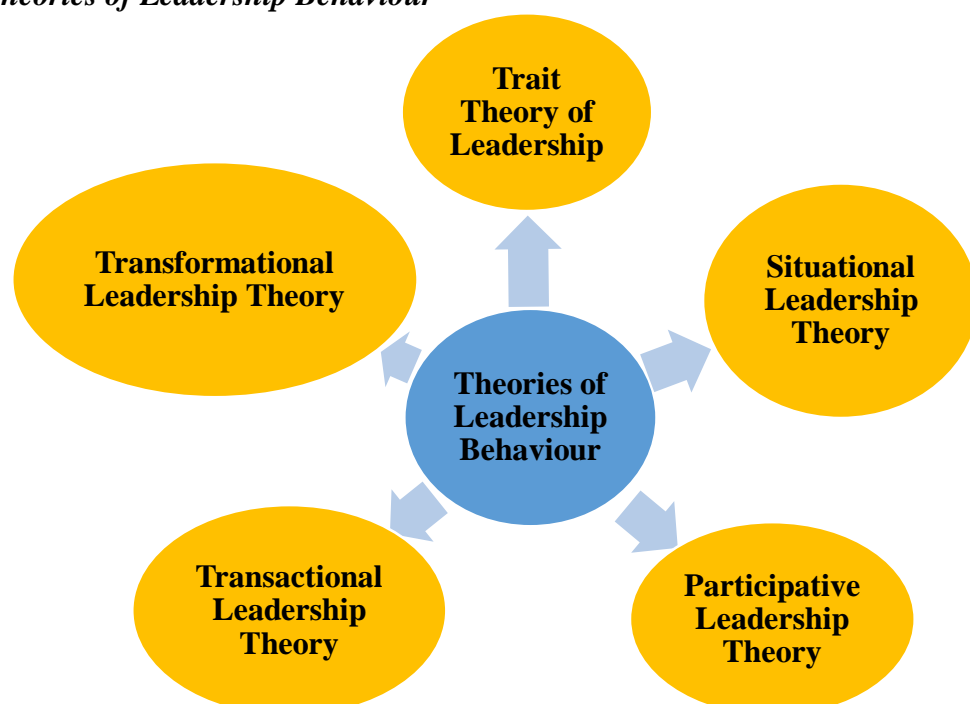
maintaining a realistic perspective on challenges and formulating practical solutions. Optimism, another vital dimension, reflects a positive outlook and belief in success, inspiring confidence and motivating teams by focusing on opportunities rather than limitations. Collectively, these dimensions provide a comprehensive understanding of emotional and social intelligence, empowering leaders to connect with their teams and overcome challenges.

Theories of Leadership Behaviour

Leadership behaviour theories focus on how leaders influence, motivate, and guide their teams through their actions and approaches. These theories emphasize observable behaviours rather than inherent traits, showing how leadership can be learned and developed. Various models have been introduced over time, highlighting different leadership styles, from task-oriented to people-oriented approaches. Understanding these theories helps to identify effective leadership behaviours that improve performance, foster teamwork, and achieve success in different settings.

Figure 1.7

Theories of Leadership Behaviour



Trait Theory of Leadership. Trait Theory (Stogdill, 1948) argues that effective leaders possess specific intrinsic traits that contribute to their success. Stogdill's research suggests that traits such as intelligence, self-confidence, and integrity are commonly found in successful leaders. However, he also highlighted that these traits alone do not guarantee leadership success; rather, the context in which these traits are applied plays a significant role. This theory implies that while certain personal attributes are beneficial, the interaction between the leader and their environment must also be considered.

Situational Leadership Theory. Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) posits that leadership effectiveness depends on adapting one's style to the specific situation and the readiness of followers. Hersey and Blanchard propose that leaders should vary their approach—whether directing, coaching, supporting, or delegating—based on the followers' development level and task demands. This flexibility allows leaders to better address different situations and enhance their effectiveness.

Participative Leadership Theory. Participative Leadership Theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) highlights the importance of involving followers in decision-making processes. Vroom and Yetton developed a model that outlines various levels of participation, from autocratic to full group involvement. The theory argues that greater follower participation in decisions leads to improved decision quality and higher levels of commitment and satisfaction among team members.

Transactional Leadership Theory. Transactional Leadership Theory (Burns, 1978) centres on the transactional relationship between leaders and followers, where rewards and penalties are used to manage performance. Burns described this approach as focusing on exchanges—rewarding achievements and addressing deviations from

expected performance. This theory emphasizes maintaining order and meeting established objectives through clear and reciprocal agreements between leaders and followers.

Transformational Leadership Theory. Transformational Leadership Theory (Bass, 1985) focuses on leaders who inspire and elevate their followers by creating a compelling vision and fostering an environment of motivation and innovation. Bass expanded on Burns' concept by emphasizing that transformational leaders engage in behaviours such as providing a vision, offering intellectual stimulation, and showing individualized support. This approach aims to significantly impact followers and drive organizational change.

These theories provide a comprehensive understanding of Leadership Behaviour by highlighting different aspects of how leaders influence and guide their followers. By integrating these theories, helps the investigator to analyse and interpret Leadership Behaviour among higher secondary students, understanding how various styles and approaches impact their development and effectiveness.

Styles of Leadership Behaviour

Leadership behaviour comes in various styles, each defined by how leaders make decisions, manage their teams, and set goals. These styles—like transformational, transactional, democratic, and autocratic—show how leaders interact with their teams, communicate expectations, and handle challenges. By understanding these styles, we can see how leaders adapt their approach to fit their team's needs and drive success.

Weber (1922) identified the following styles of leadership: Charismatic leadership, Traditional leadership, and Bureaucratic leadership. Charismatic leadership relies on the personal appeal and exceptional qualities of the leader, who inspires and motivates

followers through vision and emotional connection. This type of leadership is particularly effective during times of crisis or significant change, as followers are drawn to the leader's strong personality and ability to provide direction. Traditional leadership is based on long-standing customs and established practices, where authority is often inherited or passed down through generations, such as in monarchies or family-run organizations. This type of leadership focuses on maintaining continuity and stability but may resist innovation. Bureaucratic leadership is characterized by a focus on rules, procedures, and a clear hierarchy within the organization. Leaders in this style ensure that systems run efficiently by adhering strictly to guidelines. While this style fosters consistency and fairness, it can also stifle creativity and adaptability in dynamic environments.

Lewin (1939) categorized leadership styles into three types: Autocratic leadership, Democratic leadership, and Laissez-faire leadership. Autocratic leadership, also known as Authoritarian leadership, is a style where the leader maintains strict control over all decisions and gives little to no input to group members. Leaders provide specific instructions regarding tasks, expectations, and procedures, making this style effective in situations that require quick decision-making and firm direction. However, it can suppress creativity and negatively affect the morale and satisfaction of group members. Democratic leadership, also called participative leadership, involves group members in the decision-making process. This style encourages sharing ideas and opinions, although the leader has the final decision-making authority. It is often valued for its ability to increase job satisfaction and creativity, leading to high-quality decisions and improved productivity and satisfaction among group members. Laissez-faire leadership is a hands-off approach where leaders provide minimal direction and allow group members to make decisions. This style can lead to higher creativity and

innovation when group members are highly skilled and motivated, but it may result in lower productivity and satisfaction if group members lack self-motivation or direction.

Bass (1985) categorized leadership styles into two major types: transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership is characterized by the ability to inspire and motivate followers to achieve goals beyond their perceived capabilities by fostering a strong sense of purpose, encouraging innovation, and focusing on long-term objectives. Transformational leaders build meaningful relationships with their teams, promote personal and professional growth, and effectively guide organizations through significant periods of change and development. They instill loyalty and commitment through a clear vision and personal influence. In contrast, transactional leadership operates on a system of rewards and punishments, wherein leaders set clear tasks and expectations, and followers are rewarded for achieving goals or penalized for failure. While transactional leadership is effective in maintaining organizational stability and ensuring the completion of short-term objectives, it often lacks the emotional engagement, creativity, and forward-thinking vision that characterize transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

Impact of Leadership Behaviour on Students

Leadership behaviour has a profound impact on both individual and organizational outcomes. Positive leadership fosters an environment of trust, collaboration, and motivation, encouraging individuals to perform at their best. Leaders who communicate effectively, show empathy, and model integrity inspire others, boosting overall morale and productivity. This ripple effect can strengthen team dynamics and create a culture of continuous improvement. Recognizing the effects of leadership behaviour is essential for building environments that support growth and success at all levels.

Academic Performance Enhancement. Leadership Behaviour positively impacts academic performance by fostering a sense of responsibility, goal-setting, and time management skills among students. They often exhibit higher levels of engagement in their studies, take initiative in group projects, and demonstrate effective communication and problem-solving abilities, leading to improved grades and overall academic success.

Personal Growth and Development. Leadership Behaviour contributes to students' personal growth and development by enhancing their self-confidence, resilience, and self-awareness. Through leadership roles, students learn to navigate challenges, handle adversity, and develop a growth mindset, which are essential skills for success both in school and in life.

Social Skills and Relationship Building. Leadership Behaviour encourages students to develop strong interpersonal skills, such as active listening, empathy, and conflict resolution. By collaborating with peers, teachers, and community members in leadership roles, students cultivate meaningful relationships, build trust, and create supportive networks that enrich their social and emotional well-being.

Community Engagement and Service. Students who exhibit Leadership Behaviour are often actively involved in community service projects, volunteer work, and civic initiatives. Through their leadership roles, they inspire others to contribute to the welfare of their communities, address social issues, and make a positive impact on society at large.

Future Leadership and Success. Leadership Behaviour sets students on a path towards future leadership roles and career success. The skills and experiences gained through leadership opportunities in school prepare students to assume leadership

positions in higher education, the workforce, and their communities, enabling them to make meaningful contributions and lead positive change in the world.

Improvement in Academic Performance. Leadership Behaviour positively influences students' academic success by fostering responsibility, goal-setting, and effective time management skills. This leads to increased engagement, better performance in group projects, and enhanced problem-solving abilities, ultimately resulting in improved grades and overall academic achievement.

Personal Development. Leadership Behaviour contributes to students' personal growth by boosting their confidence, resilience, and self-awareness. Through leadership roles, students learn to overcome challenges, develop a growth mind-set, and handle adversity, which are vital skills for success in both academic and real-world contexts.

Enhancement of Social Skills and Relationships. Leadership Behaviour encourages students to cultivate strong interpersonal skills like active listening, empathy, and conflict resolution. By collaborating with peers, teachers, and community members, students build meaningful relationships, establish trust, and create supportive networks that enhance their social and emotional well-being.

Engagement in Community Service and Civic Initiatives. Students demonstrating Leadership Behaviour are often active participants in community service projects and civic engagements. Through their leadership roles, they inspire others to contribute to community welfare, address social issues, and make positive societal impacts.

Preparation for Future Leadership Roles. Leadership Behaviour sets students on a path toward assuming future leadership positions and achieving success in their careers. The skills and experiences gained through leadership opportunities in school prepare

students for leadership roles in higher education, the workforce, and community settings, enabling them to make significant contributions and lead positive change.

These summarized effects highlight the substantial influence of Leadership Behaviour among students on their academic performance, personal development, social engagement, and future leadership potential.

Strengthening Leadership Behaviour in students

Strengthening Leadership Behaviour in students is essential for fostering their personal growth, academic success, and future success in leadership roles.

Leadership Development Programmes. Implementing structured leadership development programmes within schools can provide students with opportunities to learn about leadership theories, practice leadership skills, and receive feedback and mentorship.

Experiential Learning Opportunities. Offering students hands-on experiences in leadership roles through student government, clubs, sports teams, and community service projects allows them to apply leadership skills in real-world situations and learn from their successes and failures.

Role Modeling and Mentorship. Providing students with access to positive role models and mentors who demonstrate effective Leadership Behaviours can inspire and guide them in developing their own leadership abilities.

Encouraging Self-Reflection. Encouraging students to engage in self-reflection exercises, such as journaling or guided reflections, can help them identify their strengths, weaknesses, values, and goals related to leadership, facilitating their personal growth and development as leaders.

Peer Leadership Opportunities. Creating opportunities for peer leadership, such as peer mentoring programmes or collaborative group projects, allows students to learn from and support each other in developing their leadership skills.

Integration into Curriculum. Integrating leadership education into the school curriculum across various subjects and grade levels ensures that all students have access to leadership development opportunities and recognize the relevance of leadership skills in their academic and personal lives.

These comprehensive effects underscore the profound impact of Leadership Behaviour among students, not only on their academic performance and personal growth but also on their social responsibility, community engagement, and future leadership potential.

Need and Significance of the Study

In the 21st century, the education system faces unprecedented challenges brought about by rapid technological advancements, globalization, climate change and societal shifts. Students and educators alike are navigating complex environments that require not only academic excellence but also the development of critical soft skills. Among these, leadership behaviour stands out as a pivotal skill in addressing the evolving needs of education. Leadership behaviour shapes students into responsibly influential individuals capable of guiding and inspiring others. It fosters resilience, adaptability, and ethical decision-making, which are vital in preparing students to tackle the uncertainties and demands of the modern world.

National Education Policy (2020) places utmost importance on the leadership of principals, teachers and students encouraging them to perform at their optimal best. NEP (2020) aims to nurture future ready leaders by integrating academic knowledge

with leadership skills, fostering a generation that is confident, responsible and capable of desired change in society.

The leadership behaviour of students plays a vital role in addressing the complexities of the 21st century. As emerging leaders, they are expected to develop the necessary skills and mindset to effectively respond to diverse societal challenges. By strengthening their leadership capabilities, students are encouraged to take initiative, make ethical decisions, and collaborate on meaningful solutions while leading with empathy and accountability. Cultivating such leadership qualities ensures that they are well-prepared not only for present-day demands but also for building a more just, innovative, and sustainable future. Leadership behaviour in students encourages them to take initiative, make ethical decisions, and collaborate effectively, all of which are essential qualities in tackling these multifaceted challenges (Northouse, 2019). They learn to work in teams, inspire others, and lead with empathy and a sense of social responsibility (Fullan, 2013). By fostering these skills early on, educational institutions prepare students to assume leadership roles where they can address the pressing concerns of the 21st century.

Interpersonal intelligence complements leadership behaviour by enhancing students' ability to understand and connect with others. At the higher secondary level, students are navigating complex social relationships, and their ability to communicate effectively, empathize, and resolve conflicts is crucial (Gardner, 1983). Interpersonal intelligence allows leaders to be effective because it enables them to engage with their peers in meaningful ways, fostering teamwork and collaboration. Higher secondary students who develop strong interpersonal intelligence are better equipped to handle group dynamics, leading to more inclusive and empathetic leadership (Fullan, 2013).

The interpersonal intelligence is a core component of leadership, as it ensures that leaders not only guide but also support and uplift their teams.

Civic consciousness plays a key role in shaping students into socially responsible leaders by giving it a moral and ethical foundation. In the higher secondary stage, students become more aware of societal issues and their potential role in addressing these challenges. Civic consciousness encourages students to think beyond personal achievement and consider the broader impact of their actions on their communities and the world (Levine, 2007). When students are civically conscious, they are more likely to engage in community service, participate in social activism, and advocate for change, all of which are leadership behaviours rooted in a sense of social responsibility. This creates a synergy between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness, as students learn to lead with a purpose that goes beyond personal success and focuses on contributing to the greater good. Leaders who are aware of social issues and committed to civic responsibilities are more likely to lead with integrity and a sense of duty towards their community (Levine, 2007).

Higher secondary education is a critical stage where students are not only preparing for their academic futures but also developing essential life skills, such as leadership behaviour, interpersonal intelligence, and civic consciousness. Leadership behaviour enables students to take initiative, collaborate effectively, and inspire others, while interpersonal intelligence equips them with the emotional and social awareness necessary to lead teams and work harmoniously with diverse groups. Meanwhile, civic consciousness grounds students in a sense of social responsibility, encouraging them to make ethical decisions and contribute positively to their communities.

The need for this study is evident as higher secondary students are the future leaders, and the cultivation of leadership behaviour, interpersonal intelligence, and

civic consciousness is critical in ensuring that they are well-prepared to meet the demands of the 21st century. Education systems must focus on the holistic development of students by integrating leadership training, interpersonal intelligence, and civic engagement into the curriculum. As these students progress to higher education and careers, they will encounter situations that require them to lead, collaborate, and act ethically. This study aims to explore how leadership behaviour is related to interpersonal intelligence and civic consciousness, providing insights into how educators can better prepare students for their future roles in society.

The significance of this study lies in its potential to bridge gaps in understanding how leadership behaviour, interpersonal intelligence, and civic consciousness interact in shaping the leaders of tomorrow. By focusing on higher secondary students, this research will provide valuable insights into the developmental stage where these critical skills are honed. The findings will contribute to the growing body of knowledge on 21st-century education, highlighting the importance of fostering students who are not only academically competent but also interpersonally intelligent and socially responsible. This study will guide educators, policymakers, and researchers in creating strategies and interventions that support the comprehensive development of future leaders, ultimately benefiting society as a whole.

This study is significant because it will provide useful data regarding Leadership Behaviour, Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students. It is useful to the curriculum framers and educational expert to modify the curriculum and provide various programmes for the development of Leadership Behaviour, Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. The findings of this study will provide insights into how these factors interact and contribute to the leadership potential of students, thereby offering guidance for educational

strategies that can foster strong leadership behaviour in future generation. It is very important to enhance the social skill, interpersonal skills and leadership skill of students. So, the present study focuses on Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students in relation to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness.

Statement of the Problem

The higher secondary stage of education is a critical juncture in a student's academic and personal development. It serves as the foundation for both further education and is a crucial attribute for students, as it prepares them to take on professional success. At this stage, students' leadership behaviour plays a vital role in responsibilities, make informed decisions and contribute effectively to society. This behaviour is not developed in isolation but is influenced by factors such as interpersonal intelligence and civic consciousness. However the extent to which interpersonal intelligence and civic consciousness contribute to leadership behaviour among higher secondary students remain an under explored area in educational research, and this study is an attempt to examine the combined impact of interpersonal intelligence and civic consciousness on leadership behaviour of higher secondary students, and is entitled as **LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF HIGHER SECONDARY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE AND CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS.**

Operational Definition of the Key Terms

Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal Intelligence refers to the ability to understand and interact effectively with others and is measured through the components, communication, empathy, cooperation, conflict resolution and social interaction.

Civic Consciousness

Civic Consciousness refers to awareness, an individual's sense of responsibility and active participation in community and societal issues and is measured through the components of Social Responsibility, Moral Consciousness, Political Consciousness, Legal Consciousness and Ecological Consciousness.

Leadership Behaviour

In this study Leadership Behaviour refers to a process of social influence, which maximises the efforts of others, towards the achievement of a goal including the dimensions of decisiveness, commitment, problem solving and ability of mentoring.

Higher Secondary Students

In this study higher secondary students refers to the students studying in plus-one and plus-two classes in government, aided and self-financing schools following state syllabus in Kerala.

Objectives of the Study

1. To find out the level of
 - a. Leadership Behaviour
 - b. Interpersonal Intelligence
 - c. Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.
2. To find out the significant difference, in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.
3. To find out the significant difference, in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.

4. To find out the significant difference, in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.
5. To study the significant difference, in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence groups of higher secondary students.
6. To study the significant difference, in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness groups of higher secondary students.
7. To study the correlation between a. Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students b. Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.
8. To assess the predictive efficiency of each of the variable viz, Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Hypotheses Framed

Based on the objectives of the study, the investigator formulated the following hypotheses.

1. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.
2. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.
3. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to Gender, Locality, Type of School, Type of Management, Stream of education, Father's occupation and Mother's occupation.

4. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence, groups of higher secondary students.
5. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness, groups of higher secondary students.
6. There exists significant correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students and sub samples.
7. There exists significant correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students and sub samples.
8. Combined and individual contributions of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Methodology in Brief

Method

The present investigation was undertaken to study the influence of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness on Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary School in Kerala. For getting the clear picture of scenario of the problem, it was intended to collect an extensive and true representative data from all over Kerala. Hence, Normative survey method was adopted by the investigator.

Variables of the study

For the present study Leadership Behaviour was taken as the criterion variable and Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness were taken and the predictor variables.

Background Variables

Gender, Locality, Type of school, Type of management, Stream of education and Parental occupation are the background variables selected.

Tools Used

The three tools were constructed and validated by the investigator.

Interpersonal Intelligence scale (Suja & Sreelatha 2022).

Civic Consciousness scale (Suja & Sreelatha 2022).

Leadership Behaviour scale (Suja & Sreelatha 2022).

Population

The population of the study consisted of higher secondary students studying in plus one and plus two classes in schools of Kerala following state syllabus.

Sample

The investigator used stratified sampling technique for selecting the sample. The sample consisted of 1050 higher secondary students studying in higher secondary schools of three districts in Kerala namely Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Wayanad districts.

Statistical Techniques

Following statistical techniques were used for the analysis of the data collected.

- Percentage wise analysis
- Test of significance of difference between means (t-test)
- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Scheffe's test
- Pearson product moment method of correlation
- Multiple Regression analysis.

Scope of the Study

It is envisaged that the findings of the study will be of much use in educational planning, execution of programmes of guidance and counselling and curriculum framers to prepare need based programme. It may also help the student to develop their Leadership Behaviour, enhance Interpersonal Intelligence skills and Civic Consciousness, and the teachers are given the opportunities to provide the necessary facilities and resources to excel in leadership.

Delimitations of the Study

The geographical area of the study was limited to three districts of Kerala and State syllabus only schools.

The sample size was limited to thousand and fifty higher secondary school students.

Organization of the Report

The report of the study is organized and presented in five chapters.

Chapter I gives details of conceptual framework of the variable, Need and significance of the study, Statement of the problem, Operational definitions of key terms, Objectives, Hypotheses formulated, Methodology in brief and scope of study.

Chapter II gives a detailed survey of the relevant studies on Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness, Leadership Behaviour and critical review of the studies collected.

Chapter III gives a detailed description of the method adopted for the study, Variables of the study, Tools used, Population and sample selected for the study, Procedure for data collection, Scoring and consolidation of data and statistical techniques used for analysis.

Chapter IV presents the data analysis and interpretation. It gives the results of various statistical methods used in the study such as t-test, ANOVA, multiple comparisons using Scheffe's method, the Pearson Product Moment method of correlation, step-wise regression analysis.

Chapter V presents the study in retrospect, The findings of the study, Conclusion drawn from the study, Implications of the study and suggestions for further research.

The conclusion is followed by references and appendices. The APA is adhered to the maximum extent possible with justifiable modifications, keeping in mind that a number of variations from the requirements described in the publication manual are not only permissible but also desirable in the preparation of final manuscripts (Publication Manual of the APA 7th edition 2019).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence.

Studies related to Civic Consciousness.

Studies related to Leadership Behaviour.

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness.

Studies related to Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour.

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour.

Critical Review.

The review of literature is an essential component of scholarly research, providing a comprehensive synthesis of previous studies and tracking the development of knowledge within a specific field. A literature review is a comprehensive summary of previous research on a topic, aimed at identifying patterns, themes, and gaps in the literature (Randolph, 2009). Literature review plays a significant role in research as it demonstrates the researcher's in-depth understanding of the field knowledge (Shah, Ahmed, and Khan, 2018). A well-constructed literature review provides the backdrop against which the new research is set, showing how it contributes to, and advances, existing knowledge (Machi & McEvoy, 2016). The procedure employed in literature review is writing, summarizing, integrating, analyzing, and criticizing (Thody, 2006).

This chapter seeks to establish the theoretical and empirical context for the study on leadership behaviour, interpersonal intelligence, and civic consciousness among

higher secondary students. The review of related literature based on the key variables of the study is presented under the following major headings;

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence.

Studies related to Civic Consciousness.

Studies related to Leadership Behaviour.

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness.

Studies related to Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour.

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour.

Studies related to Interpersonal Intelligence

Bar-On and Parker (2000) explored emotional and interpersonal intelligence levels among high school students in Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom. The sample included 1,200 students evenly distributed across the three countries. The findings revealed that students from all three countries exhibited a moderate level of interpersonal intelligence.

Parker et al. (2000) conducted a study to assess the overall level of interpersonal intelligence and also to identify areas where they exhibited strengths and weaknesses among adolescents in Canada. The sample comprised 500 students from various schools, representing diverse demographic and socioeconomic backgrounds. The findings revealed a moderate level of interpersonal intelligence among the participants, with particular strengths observed in teamwork and basic communication skills but challenges noted in empathy and conflict resolution.

Singh and Sharma (2010) explored the impact of type of school and levels of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Haryana. The study included a sample of 280 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on type

of school with students attending co-educational schools scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to those from single-gender schools.

Premavati (2012) examined gender differences and levels of interpersonal intelligence among secondary school students in the Coimbatore region. The sample consisted of 250 secondary school students, equally divided between males and females. The findings revealed a significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on gender and female students scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence than male students.

Kasirajan and Kanakaraj (2013) examined the gender differences and levels of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Tirunelveli district. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on gender. The female students displaying higher level of interpersonal intelligence levels compared to their male counterparts.

Shezad and Mahmood (2013) conducted a study to compare interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban higher secondary students in Pakistan. The sample comprised 280 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on locality, indicating that locality does not play a crucial role in shaping interpersonal intelligence of students.

Barman and Roy (2014) examined gender-based variations in interpersonal intelligence among college students in Kolkata. The study included a sample of 350 college students, equally distributed between male and female students from various academic disciplines. The findings revealed that female college students scored higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to their male peers, demonstrating superior

abilities in empathy, social sensitivity, and teamwork, while male students exhibited greater proficiency in leadership and conflict management.

Monika (2014) explored the differences in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban college students in Mumbai. The study involved a sample of 320 college students. The findings indicated that there were no significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of rural and urban students.

Gonzalez and Ramirez (2015) explored gender differences and levels of interpersonal intelligence among Mexican secondary school students. The study involved a sample of 250 secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of secondary school students based on gender and female students had higher levels of interpersonal intelligence than males, which the investigators suggested might be due to cultural and social factors encouraging empathy and social communication among girls.

Gupta (2015) examined the influence of school type on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The study included a sample of 300 students from various schools, including co-educational, girls-only, and boys-only institutions. The findings revealed that no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence among students from co-educational, girls-only, and boys-only schools, indicating that the type of school does not play a crucial role in developing interpersonal competencies in this study.

Singh and Sharma (2015) investigated interpersonal intelligence across educational streams in a sample of 400 higher secondary students in Delhi. The study sought to explore the differences in interpersonal intelligence among students from science, commerce, and humanities streams. Findings revealed that science students

scored significantly higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to their peers in commerce and humanities.

Banerjee and Mukherjee (2016) examined the influence of academic streams on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in West Bengal. The study comprised a sample of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students based on streams of education and students in the humanities stream demonstrating higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to those in the science and commerce streams

Gupta and Sharma (2016) examined the impact of school type on Interpersonal Intelligence particularly in areas related to empathy, effective communication and social interaction among higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The sample comprised 290 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on types of school with students from co-educational schools demonstrating higher levels of Interpersonal Intelligence compared to their peers in single-gender schools, particularly in areas related to empathy, effective communication, and social interaction.

Kumar and Singh (2016) explored gender differences in Interpersonal Intelligence among high school students in Jaipur. The sample consisted of 200 high school students. The findings revealed that there was no significant difference in Interpersonal Intelligence of male and female students, suggesting that gender does not play a crucial role in shaping interpersonal intelligence of students.

Nair and Rao (2016) examined the influence of type of school management on Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Kerala. The sample comprised 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences in Interpersonal Intelligence between students from different

management backgrounds, indicating that the type of school management does not play a crucial role in shaping interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students.

Raj and Menon (2016) conducted a study to examine the impact of locality on interpersonal intelligence among engineering students, especially assessing whether significant differences exist based on students' locality and understanding the implications of these differences in academic and social settings. The sample consisted of 250 engineering students from rural and urban areas. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban engineering students and suggest that locality does not significantly affect interpersonal intelligence of engineering students.

Ramesh and Thomas (2016) investigated the influence of mothers' occupations on Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Kerala. The research included 300 higher secondary students whose mothers were either homemakers or employed in different professions. The findings revealed no significant differences in Interpersonal Intelligence based on mothers' occupations.

Remesh and Iyer (2016) explored the influence of academic streams and Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu. The study included a sample of 320 higher secondary students. The findings indicated no significant differences in Interpersonal Intelligence based on academic streams, suggesting that factors other than academic background may have a greater influence on interpersonal skill development.

Ramesh and Iyer (2016) investigated the role of school type in shaping Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu. The study involved a sample of 350 higher secondary students, distributed among co-educational, girls-only, and boys-only schools. The findings revealed no significant differences

based on school type, implying that factors beyond the type of educational institution itself may play a more substantial role in shaping interpersonal competencies.

Sharma and Verma (2016) conducted a study to investigate the influence of type of school management on Interpersonal Intelligence and to assess the levels of interpersonal skills among students from different management backgrounds. The study involved 320 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in Interpersonal Intelligence based on type of school management, with students from self-financing schools demonstrating higher levels of Interpersonal Intelligence compared to those from government and aided schools.

Singh (2016) examined the impact of fathers' occupations on Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Delhi. The study consisted of 300 higher secondary students from various occupational backgrounds, including government, private, business, and casual labour sectors. The findings revealed no significant differences in Interpersonal Intelligence based on fathers' occupations, suggesting that fathers' occupation does not play a crucial role in shaping interpersonal competencies.

Wang and Chen (2016) investigated interpersonal intelligence among public and private secondary school students in China. The study involved a sample of 350 secondary school students. The findings revealed that students attending private schools scored higher in interpersonal intelligence than students attending public school. The investigator suggested that it might be due to private school as these schools often emphasize the development of interpersonal skills as part of their educational approach.

Jones et al. (2017) investigated the impact of locality and compared the Interpersonal Intelligence among 200 middle school students in the United Kingdom. The findings revealed significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of middle

school students based on locality and students from urban areas demonstrated higher Interpersonal Intelligence than those from rural areas, attributing this to the increased social interaction opportunities in urban settings.

Kaur and Gill (2017) examined the impact of school type on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Punjab. The sample consisted of 250 secondary school students. The findings indicated significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on type of school, with students from co-educational schools demonstrating higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to their counterparts in single gender schools.

Khan and Sharma (2017) conducted a study to investigate locality-based levels of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Punjab. The sample comprised 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary schools based on locality and urban students exhibiting higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to their rural counterparts.

Kumar (2017) analysed interpersonal intelligence across educational streams, among higher secondary students in Karnataka. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The primary objective was to find significant differences in interpersonal intelligence among students in science, commerce, and humanities streams and to evaluate the level of interpersonal intelligence in each stream. The findings revealed significant differences, with science students demonstrated significantly higher interpersonal intelligence than those in commerce and humanities streams.

Kumar and Sharma (2017) investigated the impact of type of school management and interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Uttar

Pradesh. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students, from government, aided, and self-financing schools. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on type of school management and also suggesting that factors other than school management may have a more substantial impact on the development of interpersonal intelligence.

Mehta and Joshi (2017) examined the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and co-curricular participation among higher secondary students in Gujarat. The study involved a sample of 250 higher secondary students actively engaged in sports, debates, and cultural activities. The findings revealed that students who participated in co-curricular activities demonstrated significantly higher interpersonal intelligence, particularly in teamwork and social interaction.

Narang and Mishra (2017) conducted a study to examine the influence of fathers' occupations on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students, evenly distributed across students whose fathers were in government jobs, private jobs, businesses, or casual labour. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation with students whose fathers were in government or business occupations scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to those whose fathers were casual labourers or in private jobs.

Raju and Rao (2017) analysed how different school management types influence interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Karnataka. The sample consisted of 360 higher secondary students evenly distributed across government, aided, and self-financing schools. The findings revealed that students from aided schools exhibited higher levels of interpersonal intelligence, particularly in

teamwork, empathy, and communication, compared to those from government and self-financing schools.

Reddy and Rao (2017) investigated the influence of gender and identify the differences in interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students. The study included a sample of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant gender differences in interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students and both male and female students demonstrated comparable levels of interpersonal intelligence.

Sharma and Singh (2017) explored the relationship between academic stream and interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh by examining whether the chosen academic stream influences interpersonal intelligence and identifying specific interpersonal skills where differences might exist. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings indicated significant differences, in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on streams of education, with humanities students scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to science and commerce streams of students, particularly in competencies such as teamwork, empathy, and effective communication.

Singh and Kumar (2017) conducted a study to examine the influence of mothers' occupations on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Haryana. The sample comprised 280 higher secondary students, with equal representation of students whose mothers were homemakers or employed in government, private, or business roles. The findings revealed significant differences, with students whose mothers were employed in government or business sectors scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to those whose mothers were homemakers.

Srinivas and Prasad (2017) assessed the influence of locality on interpersonal intelligence among secondary school students in Hyderabad. The study included a sample of 300 secondary school students, evenly distributed between rural and urban backgrounds. The findings indicated no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban students.

Thomas (2017) analysed the impact of type of school on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Kerala. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students from co-educational, girls-only, and boys-only schools. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on type of school.

Thomas (2017) investigated the influence of academic streams on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Kerala. The sample comprised 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on streams of education, indicating that the academic stream does not significantly influence interpersonal competencies in this group.

Desai and Patel (2018) examined the impact of academic streams on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Gujarat. The sample comprised 400 students. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students based on academic stream, with Humanities stream students exhibiting higher interpersonal intelligence compared to their peers in the science and commerce streams.

Gupta (2018) examined gender –based levels in interpersonal intelligence and secondary school students in Delhi. The sample comprised 280 secondary school students. The findings revealed that female students scored significantly higher in

interpersonal intelligence compared to their male counterparts, with a significant gender difference in interpersonal intelligence of secondary school students.

Gupta (2018) conducted a study to investigate the impact of type of school management on interpersonal intelligence and assessing the overall interpersonal intelligence of students from different educational environments among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The sample comprised 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence between students attending government, aided, and self-financing schools, indicating that the type of school management does not significantly influence interpersonal competencies of higher secondary students.

Gupta and Sharma (2018) examined the influence of mothers' occupations and its levels also identifying of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Punjab. The study involved 300 higher secondary students from diverse occupational categories, including homemakers. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation with students whose mothers were employed in private or government jobs demonstrating higher interpersonal intelligence.

Hoffmann and Strauss (2018) studied interpersonal intelligence among students in Germany, focusing on the differences between government and privately managed schools. The study sampled 300 students aged 12–16 and revealed that those in privately managed schools had higher interpersonal intelligence, possibly due to additional programmes that support social and emotional skill development in private schools.

Kumar and Iyer (2018) explored the impact of mothers' occupations and interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu. The sample

comprised 320 students, with representation from homemakers and other occupational categories. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupations.

Kumar and Rao (2018) investigated the impact of fathers' occupations and interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu. The sample comprised 320 higher secondary students, distributed across four categories of fathers' occupations: government, private, business, and casual labour. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation with students whose fathers were in government or business roles demonstrating higher levels of interpersonal intelligence.

Rahim et al. (2018) investigated the gender based levels of interpersonal intelligence among undergraduate students in Delhi. The sample comprised 350 undergraduate students. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on gender, and also indicating that both male and female undergraduate students possess similar levels of interpersonal intelligence.

Patel and Joshi (2018) investigated the influence of fathers' occupations and interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students. The study involved a sample of 350 higher secondary students from diverse occupational backgrounds. The results showed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on their fathers' occupations.

Patel and Sharma (2018) studied the variations in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban high school students in Ahmedabad. The sample consisted of 270 high school students. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban students, indicating that locality does not play a significant role in shaping interpersonal intelligence.

Saxena and Jain (2018) examined the effect of type of school on interpersonal intelligence and identifying the levels of interpersonal skills among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The study involved a sample of 320 higher secondary students, divided equally among co-educational schools, girls-only schools, and boys-only schools. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on type of school, with students from co-educational schools exhibiting higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to those from single-gender schools.

Singh and Sharma (2018) explored the impact of school type and to assess the levels of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Haryana. The study included a total sample of 285 students. The findings revealed significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on school type, with students from co-educational schools demonstrating higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to those from single-gender schools.

Thomas and Ramesh (2018) examined the influence of fathers' occupations on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Kerala. The sample included 320 higher secondary students from different occupational categories. The findings revealed no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on fathers' occupations.

Bhattacharya and Sengupta (2019) conducted a study to examine the influence of type of school on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in West Bengal. The sample comprised 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on type of school, with students from co-educational schools exhibiting higher interpersonal intelligence compared to those from girls-only and boys-only schools.

Mehta and Kumar (2019) explored the impact of locality on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Kolkata. The study involved a sample of 400 higher secondary students from rural and urban backgrounds. The findings indicated no significant differences in interpersonal intelligence between rural and urban higher secondary students, suggesting that locality does not significantly influence interpersonal intelligence.

Patel and Sharma (2019) investigated the impact of academic streams on interpersonal intelligence and to determine whether students from different academic streams exhibit varying levels of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Haryana. The sample comprised 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on streams of education, with Humanities stream students scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence compared to their counterparts in the science and commerce streams.

Patel (2019) investigated the impact of mothers' occupations on Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Maharashtra. The sample comprised 320 higher secondary students, including students whose mothers were homemakers or employed in government, private, or business jobs. The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation, with students whose mothers worked in professional roles scoring higher in Interpersonal Intelligence.

Sharma and Gupta (2019) examined the influence of fathers' occupations on Interpersonal Intelligence among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The study conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students evenly divided among students whose fathers worked in government, business, private jobs, or casual labour.

The findings revealed significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation, with students whose fathers were employed in government or business sectors showing higher levels of Interpersonal Intelligence, compared to those in private jobs or casual labourer.

Sharma and Kumar (2019) conducted a study to examine gender-based levels of interpersonal intelligence among undergraduate students in Pune. The sample consisted of 300 undergraduate students. The results showed no significant gender differences in the interpersonal intelligence among undergraduate students based on gender and students had similar levels of interpersonal intelligence.

Smith and Lee (2019) examined the influence of parental occupation on high school students' interpersonal intelligence. The study included 400 high school students in the United States. The findings revealed that students with parents in professional occupations exhibited higher interpersonal intelligence, likely due to greater exposure to social and communicative interactions in their environments.

Srinivas and Nair (2019) explored the impact of students' rural or urban backgrounds on their Interpersonal Intelligence and to identify specific interpersonal skills where differences were most pronounced among higher secondary students in Kerala. The study was conducted on a sample of 280 higher secondary students. The findings indicated significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on locality, with urban students exhibiting higher Interpersonal Intelligence than rural students, particularly in competencies such as active listening, conflict resolution, and teamwork.

Verma and Singh (2019) explored the influence of academic streams on interpersonal intelligence and also assess whether the academic stream chosen by students affects their interpersonal intelligence and to identify specific interpersonal

skills among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The study was conducted on a sample of 320 higher secondary students. The findings indicated significant differences in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on academic streams. Humanities stream students demonstrated higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to science and commerce stream students, especially in competencies such as active listening, conflict resolution, and social interaction.

Patel and Joshy (2020) investigated the influence of locality-based level of interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Gujarat. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students based on locality. The urban students scored a higher level of interpersonal intelligence compared to rural students.

Rao et al. (2020) examined gender and locality-based variations in interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Karnataka. The sample included 320 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on gender and locality. The urban students exhibited higher levels of interpersonal intelligence compared to their rural peers and female students showed higher level of interpersonal intelligence compared to male students.

Sharma and Kumar (2020) examined the influence and level of school type on interpersonal intelligence among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The sample consisted of 320 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in interpersonal intelligence based on type of school and girls-only school students exhibiting higher interpersonal intelligence compared to co-educational and boys-only schools students.

Istapra, Eva et al. (2021) conducted a study in Indonesia to examine the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and academic achievement among elementary school students. The study was conducted on a sample of 600 elementary school students and utilized a correlational quantitative approach to determine whether higher levels of interpersonal intelligence significantly predicted academic success. The findings revealed a strong positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and academic achievement, indicating that students with higher levels of interpersonal intelligence demonstrated improved academic outcomes compared to those with lower levels.

Kim and Lee (2022) conducted a study on the influence of school type on interpersonal intelligence by examining students in various school environments across South Korea, including both public and private institutions. The study found that students in private schools scored slightly higher in interpersonal intelligence than those in public schools. This difference was partly attributed to the greater emphasis on soft skills development in private institutions, which often provide more structured opportunities for students to strengthen their interpersonal abilities through group-based activities.

Sharma (2022) explored the impact of gender on interpersonal intelligence and level of interpersonal intelligence across dimension among higher education students in Mumbai. The study was conducted on a sample of 320 higher education students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the interpersonal intelligence of higher education students based on gender and also female students exhibited higher levels of interpersonal intelligence across most dimensions, especially in empathy, active listening, and conflict resolution, while male students demonstrated strengths in strategic communication and assertiveness.

Atkinson, Michael et al. (2023) conducted a study in the UK to examine the role of gender differences and socioeconomic background in Interpersonal Intelligence among secondary school students. The findings revealed that students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds demonstrated higher levels of Interpersonal Intelligence compared to those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, with female students scoring higher in empathy and communication skills, while male students exhibited stronger adaptability in social interactions.

Kamath and Sebastian (2024) analysed the interpersonal intelligence of upper primary school students in Kottayam District. The objective of the study was to assess the level of interpersonal intelligence among students and examine differences based on gender, type of school and locality. The sample consisted of 550 fifth-grade students selected from various schools across the district. The findings revealed that more than half of the students (57.3%) exhibited a high level of interpersonal intelligence. Significant differences were observed in interpersonal intelligence with respect to gender, school type, and locality, while family type showed no significant effect.

Studies related to Civic Consciousness

Totten and Pedersen (2013) analyzed the role of classroom culture in developing civic consciousness among college students in the United States. The objectives were to assess the impact of cooperative learning environments on civic awareness and to examine how classroom practices foster responsibility and engagement in civic activities. The findings revealed that cooperative learning environments enhanced students' sense of responsibility and increased their participation in civic activities.

Ghosh (2014) explored the relationship between gender and civic consciousness. The objectives were to analyze the levels of civic awareness among male and female students and to examine whether gender differences influenced civic

engagement. The sample consisted on 300 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant difference in civic consciousness based on gender, with female students exhibited significantly higher levels of civic consciousness compared to their male counterparts, particularly in community participation and social responsibility.

Bansal and Nair (2015) examined the role of type of school management in civic consciousness among adolescents in Kerala. The study included a sample of 300 adolescents. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness between students from government and private schools.

Kaur and Kaur (2015) examined the influence of gender on civic consciousness among higher secondary students in Punjab. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences between male and female students, indicating that gender was not a determining factor in their civic consciousness.

Nair (2015) assessed the impact of civic consciousness among students from different educational streams in Kerala. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness across the streams, suggesting that the type of educational stream did not have a notable impact on students' civic awareness.

Desai and Patel (2016) analyzed civic consciousness among higher secondary students in Gujarat to explore the impact of educational streams on civic awareness and to compare civic responsibilities among students from these streams. The sample consisted of 250 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant difference between streams of education and civic consciousness, indicating that the stream of study did not play a role in shaping civic awareness responsibilities.

Gupta and Sharma (2016) examined the influence of type of school management on the civic consciousness of secondary school students in Rajasthan. The sample consists of 300 secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the civic consciousness of secondary school students based on type of school management, with private school students showing a higher level of civic consciousness compared to government school students.

Patil and Patil (2016) examined a study on secondary school students in Maharashtra to examine the role of locality in shaping civic consciousness. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 secondary school students. The objective was to compare the levels of civic consciousness between rural and urban students of secondary school. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness, with both rural and urban students demonstrating comparable levels of civic consciousness.

Patel and Desai (2016) examined the relationship between type of school and students' civic consciousness. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 secondary school students. The objectives were to assess the levels of civic awareness among students based on school type and to compare civic engagement patterns across different school types. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness and civic engagement across school types.

Patel and Rao (2016) conducted a study on secondary school students in Karnataka to investigate the relationship between fathers' occupations and students' civic consciousness and to explore whether professional or non-professional occupational categories influenced students' civic behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed contradictory results, with some professional occupational groups showing high civic

awareness while others did not. No consistent patterns were observed linking fathers' occupational status to civic consciousness. It was noted, that students whose fathers worked in public service demonstrated slightly better understanding of civic responsibilities.

Roy and Chakrabarti (2016) examined a study on secondary school students in Odisha to analyze the impact of school management on civic consciousness and examine the role of teacher-student interactions. The sample consisted of 350 secondary school students. The findings revealed that students in schools with stronger teacher-student interactions exhibited higher levels of civic consciousness. However, no significant differences were found in civic consciousness between students from different school management types.

Sarkar and Biswas (2016) assessed gender-based differences in the levels of civic consciousness among secondary school students in North India. The sample consisted of 400 secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the civic consciousness of secondary school students based on gender, with female students exhibiting higher levels of civic consciousness compared to male students.

Boss and Dutta (2017) investigated the influence of type of school management and its levels on civic consciousness among adolescents. The sample consisted of 350 adolescents. The findings revealed a significant difference in civic consciousness based on type of school management, with private school students exhibiting higher levels of civic consciousness compared to government school students.

Gupta and Kumar (2017) investigated the differences in civic awareness across educational streams and the relationship between streams and students' civic engagement. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings

revealed significant differences in the civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on streams of education, with humanities students demonstrating higher levels of civic consciousness compared to their peers in science and commerce streams. Humanities students were also more likely to participate in community-based civic activities.

Kour (2017) analyzed the impact of mothers' occupations on students' civic consciousness and to assess the influence of professional and non-professional occupational backgrounds on students' civic awareness. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that students whose mothers were employed in education or healthcare exhibited significantly higher levels of civic consciousness compared to those whose mothers were homemakers or engaged in informal jobs. Other findings highlighted that employed mothers actively encouraged their children to participate in civic activities, contributing to their enhanced awareness of civic responsibilities.

Reddy and Rao (2017) examined the influence of school type on civic engagement in Andhra Pradesh. The sample consisted of 300 secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant differences in civic engagement of secondary school students based on the type of school.

Sharma (2017) assessed gender-based differences of civic consciousness among secondary school students in North India. The sample consisted of 250 secondary school students. The findings revealed no significant gender differences in civic consciousness, with male and female students displaying comparable levels of civic engagement.

Singh and Kaur (2017) examined the impact of school type on civic consciousness and its levels on secondary school students in Haryana. The sample

consisted of 250 secondary school students. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness across school types.

Singh and Kumar (2017) examined the influence of locality on civic consciousness of higher secondary students in Karnataka. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness between rural and urban students, indicating that locality did not significantly influence civic consciousness.

Chandra and Sharma (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh to analyze the impact of fathers' occupations on students' civic consciousness and to examine the influence of professional and non-professional occupational backgrounds on the levels of civic awareness. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed that students whose fathers were professionals or administrators exhibited significantly higher levels of civic consciousness compared to those whose fathers were engaged in manual or informal occupations. Other findings noted that students with professionally employed fathers were more actively involved in community and civic activities, demonstrating a greater understanding of civic responsibilities.

Deshmukh and Shah (2018) analysed the influence of locality on civic consciousness and its varying levels among higher secondary students in Gujarat. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on locality, with urban students exhibiting higher levels of civic consciousness compared to their rural counterparts.

Johnson and Morris (2018) examined the differences in civic consciousness among secondary school students from government, private, and aided schools in Tamil

Nadu. The sample consisted of 350 secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant difference in civic consciousness based on school type, with private school students exhibiting higher levels of civic consciousness compared to their government and aided school students.

Karsten and Janmaat (2018) explored civic attitudes among students in European countries, focusing on locality. The objectives were to examine the influence of rural versus urban schools on civic consciousness and to analyze the role of school leadership in fostering civic attitudes. The findings revealed that rural schools with strong leadership significantly fostered civic consciousness, highlighting the importance of community-driven educational practices in rural settings.

Kaur and Kaur (2018) examined the influence of gender on civic consciousness among higher secondary students in Punjab. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences between male and female students, indicating that gender was not a determining factor in their civic consciousness.

Raju and Suresh (2018) conducted a study on secondary school students to examine the relationship between type of school management and civic consciousness and to explore the role of extracurricular activities in fostering civic awareness. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant differences in civic consciousness based on type of school management, with private school students demonstrating higher levels of civic consciousness compared to government and aided school counterparts. Additionally, the study found that participation in extracurricular activities significantly contributed to fostering civic awareness among students.

Sharma (2018) assessed the levels of civic consciousness across science, commerce and humanities streams and to identify factors influencing civic engagement within each stream. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences, with humanities students scoring higher in civic awareness, particularly in areas like social responsibility and community engagement.

Singh and Kaur (2018) examined the gender differences in civic consciousness and civic engagement, as well as to assess the overall levels of civic consciousness among higher secondary students in Haryana. The sample consisted of 500 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness and civic engagement between male and female students, suggesting that both genders exhibited similar levels in civic consciousness and participation.

Bhat and Farooq (2019) investigated a study on higher secondary students in Jammu and Kashmir to examine gender differences in civic awareness and to analyze the relationship between gender and community participation. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed significant difference with female students demonstrated significantly greater civic awareness and responsibility than male students, particularly in volunteering activities and social responsibility programmes.

Iyer and Jain (2019) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu to analyze the effect of locality on students' civic consciousness and to compare their levels of civic consciousness. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed a significant difference in the civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on locality, with urban students exhibiting higher levels of civic consciousness compared to their rural counterparts.

Patel and Rao (2019) conducted a study on secondary school students in Karnataka to investigate the relationship between fathers' occupations and students' civic consciousness, and to explore whether professional or non-professional occupational categories influenced students' civic behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 students. The findings revealed contradictory results, with some professional occupational groups showing high civic awareness while others did not. No consistent patterns were observed linking fathers' occupational status to civic consciousness, although students whose fathers worked in public service demonstrated a slightly better understanding of civic responsibilities.

Rao and Sharma (2019) investigated adolescents in Andhra Pradesh to compare civic consciousness levels across type of school management and to analyze the role of value-based education initiatives. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 adolescents. The findings revealed that government school students exhibited higher levels of civic consciousness compared to private school students, attributed to the inclusion of civic values in government school curriculums.

Singh and Kumar (2019) examined the impact of school management on students' civic attitudes and to assess the role of school initiatives in promoting civic consciousness. The study was conducted on a sample of 450 adolescents. The findings revealed significant differences in the civic consciousness of adolescents based on type of school management with private school students exhibiting better civic consciousness compared to government school students.

Sharma and Verma (2019) investigated the effects of school type on civic consciousness with a sample of 280 adolescents. The findings revealed significant differences in the civic consciousness of adolescents based on type of school.

Verma and Singh (2019) examined the impact of educational streams on civic consciousness among higher secondary students in Punjab to compare civic engagement levels across science, commerce, and humanities streams and to explore the role of curriculum in shaping civic attitudes. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 higher secondary school students. The findings revealed significant differences in civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on streams of education with humanities students exhibiting the highest levels of civic consciousness, followed by science students, while commerce students displayed the least awareness.

Hansen et al. (2020) conducted a study on high school students in Denmark to examine the relationship between parental education and students' civic consciousness. The sample consisted of 300 high school students. The findings revealed positive relationship between parental education and civic consciousness, and students from families with higher educational attainment demonstrated superior civic consciousness and were more engaged in community activities. Other findings indicated that parental education influenced students' problem-solving abilities and ability to resolve societal conflicts. Well-structured civic education programmes contributed to higher levels of civic consciousness.

Mehta and Gupta (2020) investigated adolescents in Delhi to analyze the role of school type in shaping civic consciousness. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 adolescents. The findings revealed significant differences, in the civic consciousness based on type of school, with co-education school students exhibiting higher level of civic consciousness compared to those in single gender schools.

Patel and Mehta (2020) explored a study on higher secondary students in Maharashtra to assess the role of school management in shaping civic consciousness and to examine the influence of curriculum design. The sample consisted of 400 higher

secondary students. The findings revealed no significant difference in civic consciousness based on school management. The results indicated that curriculum design played a crucial role in shaping students' civic consciousness, with well-structured civic education programmes contributing to a higher level of civic consciousness.

Rao and Sharma (2020) investigated a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to examine rural-urban differences in civic consciousness and identify the factors influencing students' civic awareness. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on locality, with urban students demonstrating higher levels of civic consciousness, while rural students showed a stronger inclination toward community participation. Additionally, the study identified the school environment, parental involvement, and exposure to civic activities as key factors influencing civic consciousness among students.

Reddy and Balasubramaniam (2020) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Tamil Nadu to assess the influence of educational streams on students' civic consciousness. The study included a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in civic consciousness among students from different academic streams, suggesting that civic awareness was uniformly distributed. Well-structured civic education programmes were found to contribute to higher levels of civic consciousness.

Singh (2020) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Punjab to investigate the relationship between mothers' occupations and students' civic consciousness. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no clear patterns linking mothers' occupational status to students' civic

awareness. Students of employed mothers showed slightly better civic consciousness, though the differences varied significantly across occupational sectors and regions. Well-structured civic education programmes contributed to higher levels of civic consciousness.

Chaudhary and Verma (2021) explored a study on secondary school students in Uttar Pradesh to analyze locality-based variations in civic consciousness and the factors contributing to differences between rural and urban students. The sample included 400 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the civic consciousness of secondary school students based on locality, with urban students exhibiting higher civic awareness due to greater exposure to civic education programmes and community initiatives. Well-structured civic education programmes contributed to higher levels of civic consciousness.

Iyer and Sinha (2021) conducted a study on adolescents in Karnataka to investigate the influence of school type on civic consciousness and to examine variations between co-educational and single gender schools. The sample comprised 400 adolescents. The findings revealed no significant and substantial differences in civic consciousness based on school type, suggesting that the type of school did not play a major role in shaping civic consciousness among students.

Simonsen et al. (2021) investigated the impact of parental education on civic consciousness among high school students in Denmark. The objectives were to analyze the relationship between parental educational attainment and students' civic consciousness, as well as to explore how family background influences civic engagement. The findings revealed that students from families with higher educational attainment demonstrated superior levels of civic consciousness and civic engagement. Other findings suggested that these students were more proactive in participating in

civic activities and showed greater awareness of social and political issues compared to their peers from families with lower educational backgrounds.

Mouratidis et al. (2022) conducted a study on European high school students to explore civic consciousness using digital tools for civic education. The sample included European high school students. The findings revealed that students engaged in digital platforms demonstrated improved civic consciousness, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills in addressing societal conflicts. Other findings suggested that integrating technology in civic education effectively enhanced students' participation and understanding of civic responsibilities. Well-structured civic education programmes contributed to higher levels of civic consciousness.

Patel (2023) examined the influence of civic consciousness on school type among higher secondary students in Gujarat. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. Findings revealed a significant differences in civic consciousness of higher secondary students based on type of school and also the students from girls only school showed greater civic consciousness than co-education school students.

Raj and Singh (2023) examined civic consciousness among higher secondary students, emphasizing gender differences. The sample consisted of 500 higher secondary students. Results revealed that significant differences existed in the civic consciousness of male and female students and female students exhibited significantly higher levels of civic consciousness than male students.

Mitton, et al (2024) explored adolescents' perspectives on single gender schooling and its impact on their civic consciousness in Canada. The objective was to understand how single gender educational environments influence students' views on gender roles and civic responsibilities. The findings revealed that students exhibited

conflicting views, balancing societal messages and gendered expectations, which in turn affected their civic engagement and perceptions of gender equity.

Studies related to Leadership Behaviour.

Murphy and Johnson (2011) conducted a study on high school students in the United States to investigate the levels of leadership behaviour among students and analyze the factors influencing their leadership traits. The sample consisted of 400 high school students. The findings revealed that the majority of the students demonstrated moderate levels of leadership behaviour, indicating a balanced mix of strengths and areas for improvement, and also students exhibited adequate capabilities in teamwork and interpersonal skills but required further development to enhance their leadership effectiveness.

Blake and Smith (2013) investigated leadership behaviour among high school students in Australia to analyse the influence of locality. The study examined a sample of 250 students from urban and rural schools. The findings revealed significant differences in leadership behaviour of high school students based on locality, with urban students demonstrating stronger leadership skills due to greater access to resources and extracurricular opportunities.

Gupta and Singh (2016) investigated a study on higher secondary students in Delhi to examine the relationship between streams of study and Leadership Behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on stream of education, with students from the humanities stream demonstrating higher Leadership Behaviour compared to those in science and commerce streams. Humanities students excelled in teamwork, communication, and conflict resolution, attributed to their exposure to subjects that foster critical thinking

and social engagement. Commerce students exhibited moderate leadership traits, particularly in decision-making, while Science students focused more on individual problem-solving rather than collaborative leadership.

Johnson and Morris (2016) conducted a study on high school students in the United States to analyze the influence of parental occupations. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 high school students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on parental occupation, with students from entrepreneurial families exhibiting higher leadership behaviour due to their exposure to problem-solving and decision-making environments. Government employee families demonstrated moderate leadership traits, while private employee families showed slightly lower levels.

Kumar and Sharma (2016) conducted a study on secondary school students in Rajasthan to explore the impact of gender on leadership traits and roles. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant difference in the leadership behaviour of secondary school student based on gender, and that female students exhibited higher leadership behaviour compared to their male counterparts, especially in areas like conflict resolution, interpersonal communication, and team management. The study highlighted that cultural and societal influences might have contributed to these differences, with female students being more inclined toward cooperative and empathetic leadership, while male students focused on decision-making and assertiveness.

Mehta (2016) investigated the influence of mothers' occupations on the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students in Gujarat. The study was conducted on a sample of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that students

whose mothers were employed exhibited significantly higher levels of leadership behaviour compared to those whose mothers were not employed.

Das and Mukherjee (2017) explored the leadership behaviour of secondary school students in West Bengal, specifically examining gender differences in leadership traits. The study also analyzed the leadership characteristics of male and female students. The sample comprised 300 secondary school students. The findings indicated no significant differences in leadership behaviour between male and female students, suggesting that gender did not have a substantial impact on leadership traits. Both male and female students demonstrated similar abilities in areas such as teamwork, communication, and decision-making.

Desai (2017) investigated a study on secondary school students in Gujarat to examine the impact of locality on Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 300 secondary school students. The findings revealed no significant differences in leadership behaviour between rural and urban students, suggesting that locality did not play a substantial role in shaping leadership qualities. Both rural and urban students displayed similar abilities in communication, teamwork, and decision-making, indicating that Leadership Behaviour was influenced by factors other than locality.

Raj and Thomas (2017) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Kerala to examine the relationship between mothers' occupations and Leadership Behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in Leadership Behaviour among students based on their mothers' occupations.

Reddy and Rao (2017) examined a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to analyze variations in Leadership Behaviour across different streams of study. The sample consisted on 400 higher secondary students. The findings

revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on streams of study with humanities students showing superior leadership behaviour compared to their peers in science and commerce streams. Humanities students were noted for their ability to manage teams, resolve conflicts, and engage collaboratively, which were linked to their curriculum's emphasis on social issues and community involvement. Commerce students demonstrated moderate leadership skills, while Science students displayed a preference for analytical and task-oriented roles over leadership-focused tasks.

Singh and Kaur (2017) explored how leadership behaviour differs across locality among higher secondary students in Haryana. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students on locality, with urban students demonstrating stronger leadership behaviour compared to their rural counterparts. Urban students excelled in areas such as decision-making, team management, and communication skills, attributed to better exposure to educational resources and extracurricular opportunities. Rural students, while showing potential, lagged in collaborative and assertive leadership traits due to limited access to such resources.

Singh (2017) investigated a study on higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh to examine the relationship between fathers' occupations and leadership behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation with students whose fathers were government employees demonstrating higher leadership behaviour compared to those whose fathers were private employees. Students from government employee families excelled in areas such as decision-making, teamwork, and conflict resolution, which were attributed to

the structured and stable environment provided by their parents' professions. In contrast, students from private employee families displayed moderate leadership traits, often influenced by the dynamic and flexible nature of their parental occupations.

Brown and Miller (2018) conducted a study on high school students in Canada to analyze gender differences in leadership behaviour and also examine the disparities in leadership behaviour. The study consisted of 300 high school students. The findings revealed significant differences, in leadership behaviour of high school students based on gender, with female students demonstrating stronger collaborative and empathetic leadership styles, while male students excelled in directive and assertive leadership traits. The study emphasized that societal and cultural norms influenced the leadership traits exhibited by students.

Kumar and Sharma (2018) examined the influence of mothers' occupations on the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students. The study was conducted on a sample of 280 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that students whose mothers were employed demonstrated stronger leadership behaviours, particularly in areas such as communication and time management.

Mehta and Kaur (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Punjab to analyze the relationship between streams of study and examine differences in leadership behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that students from the Science stream demonstrated higher leadership behaviour compared to their peers in Commerce and Humanities. Science stream students excelled in decision-making, problem-solving, and task-oriented leadership traits, attributed to their curriculum's focus on analytical thinking and structured problem resolution. Commerce students exhibited moderate leadership behaviour, particularly in strategic planning and collaboration, while Humanities

students displayed strengths in empathetic and collaborative leadership but did not match the Science stream in assertive and goal-oriented leadership qualities.

Nair and Menon (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Kerala to explore the influence of school management on Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on type of school management with privately-managed school students exhibiting superior Leadership Behaviour compared to those in government and aided schools.

Omar and Hassan (2018) explored gender differences in Leadership Behaviour among 10th-grade students in Malaysia. The study on 150 students found that significant difference in the leadership behaviour of students based on gender, female students showed more effective leadership styles, particularly in collaborative and empathetic scenarios.

Parker and Davis (2018) investigated a study on secondary school students in Australia to explore gender differences in Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 350 secondary school students. The findings revealed no significant differences in Leadership Behaviour between male and female students, suggesting that leadership traits were influenced more by individual personality and training than by gender.

Patel and Sharma (2018) examined the impact of locality on leadership behaviour among secondary school students in Gujarat, focusing on differences in leadership levels between urban and rural students and assessing the influence of exposure to diverse social settings and structured leadership programmes. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of secondary students based on locality, with urban students exhibiting higher levels of leadership behavior,

particularly in conflict resolution and group coordination. The results suggested that urban students benefited from greater exposure to leadership opportunities, whereas rural students had comparatively less access to such initiatives.

Rao and Joshi (2018) explored the influence of locality on leadership behaviour and examine differences in leadership traits among higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in leadership behaviour based on locality, indicating that rural and urban students exhibited similar levels of leadership traits.

Rao and Reddy (2018) examined a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to analyze the impact of fathers' occupations on Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on the fathers' occupation, with students from government employee families showing superior Leadership Behaviour compared to those from private employee families. These students were particularly strong in conflict resolution, team coordination, and collaborative decision-making, attributed to their exposure to structured routines and value-driven principles in their household environments. Students from private employee families demonstrated moderate leadership skills but were less consistent in assertive roles.

Sharma (2018) explored the relationship between the type of school management and leadership behaviour and also analyzed variations in leadership traits among higher secondary students in Rajasthan. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on the type of school

management and students from privately-managed schools demonstrated higher leadership behaviour compared to their peers in government and aided schools. Private school students excelled in communication, team management, and conflict resolution due to better exposure to structured extracurricular activities and leadership training programmes. Government school students, while showing potential, exhibited less consistency in leadership development, whereas aided school students displayed moderate leadership traits, falling between the two groups.

Sharma and Reddy (2018) explored the impact of school management on leadership behaviour and analyzed variations in leadership behaviour among higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of students based on the type of school management. Students from privately-managed schools demonstrated higher leadership behaviour compared to their peers in government and aided schools.

Simons and Paige (2018) conducted a study on high school students in the United States to analyze the impact of gender on Leadership Behaviour. The study examined differences in leadership traits and effectiveness between male and female students in various group settings. The sample consisted of 400 high school students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on gender with female students demonstrating stronger collaborative and empathetic leadership qualities. Whereas male students showed higher confidence in decision-making and conflict resolution. These findings emphasize that gender-based societal expectations play a significant role in shaping students' leadership behaviour.

Sharma and Gupta (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Rajasthan to examine the influence of school management on Leadership Behaviour

and also assess the levels of leadership behaviour among students from different school management and how the school environment influences leadership traits. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students on type of school management, with students from private schools demonstrating higher leadership behaviour compared to their government school counterparts. Private school students excelled in areas such as team management, conflict resolution, and effective communication, which were attributed to greater access to extracurricular activities and structured leadership opportunities. Government school students, while displaying potential, lacked similar exposure to leadership training programmes.

Sharma and Gupta (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Rajasthan to examine the influence of school type on Leadership Behaviour and also assess variations in leadership traits across these school types and analyze how gender composition in schools impacts leadership skills. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour based on type of school with students from co-education schools demonstrating higher Leadership Behaviour compared to students from boys' and girls' schools. Co-education school students excelled in communication, teamwork, and conflict resolution, likely due to their exposure to diverse peer interactions. Boys' schools showed higher assertiveness in decision-making, while girls' schools emphasized empathy and collaborative leadership styles.

Burma and Gupta (2019) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh to analyze the relationship between locality and Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary school based

on locality, with urban students exhibited stronger Leadership Behaviour. The study emphasized that urban students had more opportunities to participate in leadership roles through school activities and community programmes, which positively influenced their leadership development.

Kumar (2019) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Haryana to explore the relationship between type of school and leadership behaviour and compare leadership traits across these school types and investigate the role of school environment and gender dynamics in shaping Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on types of school, with co-education school students outperforming those from boys' and girls' schools in leadership skills, particularly in adaptability, communication, and group management. Boys' school students exhibited stronger directive leadership traits, while girls' school students excelled in collaborative and empathetic Leadership Behaviours.

Kumar and Gupta (2019) explored the influence of type of school management on leadership behaviour of higher secondary students. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in Leadership Behaviour among students from government, private, and aided schools.

Lee and Kim (2019) examined the relationship between locality and Leadership Behaviour. The study was conducted on a sample of 400 secondary school students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of secondary school students based on locality, with urban students outperforming rural students in leadership traits such as communication, conflict resolution, and teamwork. The study

attributed these differences to the availability of resources and extracurricular opportunities in urban areas.

Patel and Nair (2019) investigated the relationship between fathers' occupations and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. The study was conducted on a sample of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in Leadership Behaviour among students based on their fathers' occupations. Students from government and private employee families displayed similar abilities in communication, teamwork, and decision-making. The study suggested that Leadership Behaviour was influenced more by individual traits and external factors, such as school environment and extracurricular opportunities, rather than the occupational background of the father.

Rani and Kumar (2019) investigated the gender differences in leadership behaviour of higher secondary student in Haryana. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The research also identify variations in leadership traits and effectiveness across male and female students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on gender with female students excelling in communication, interpersonal skills, and team management, while male students showed higher confidence in authoritative decision-making and handling complex leadership roles. The female students prioritizing inclusivity and collaboration and male students focusing on directive leadership.

Reddy and Menon (2019) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to explore the impact of mothers' occupations on Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation, with students whose mothers were business

owners exhibiting the highest Leadership Behaviour. These students excelled in areas such as decision-making, conflict resolution, and team-building, which were attributed to their exposure to entrepreneurial problem-solving environments. Students whose mothers were government employees also displayed strong leadership traits, while those with homemaker mothers exhibited moderate levels of Leadership Behaviour.

Sharma and Desai (2019) explored the relationship between streams of study and leadership behaviour of higher secondary students in Gujarat. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in leadership behaviour across the three streams. Students from all streams displayed comparable levels of teamwork, communication, and decision-making skills, indicating that leadership behaviour was not significantly influenced by the chosen stream of study.

Torres and Martinez (2019) conducted a study on high school students in Spain to examine the influence of locality on Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 300 high school students. The findings revealed no significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on locality and also indicated that locality alone did not play a significant role in shaping leadership traits among students.

Carter and Evans (2020) conducted a study on high school students in the United Kingdom to investigate the relationship between streams of study and Leadership Behaviour. The sample consisted of 400 high school students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on streams of study with Commerce students exhibiting the highest Leadership Behaviour due to their focus on strategic thinking and teamwork, followed by science and humanities students.

Chen and Wang (2020) investigated the impact of school management on Leadership Behaviour of high school students. The sample consisted of 300 high school students. The findings revealed significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on type of school management, with students from international schools demonstrating superior leadership behaviour due to the emphasis on holistic education and leadership training programmes. Students from private schools showed moderate leadership traits, while government school students lagged slightly behind.

Jain (2020) explored the impact of streams of study on leadership behaviour of higher secondary students in Madhya Pradesh. The study involved 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on streams of study, showing that students from Science, Commerce, and Humanities streams exhibited similar levels of leadership traits, such as collaboration, conflict resolution, and assertiveness.

Kaur and Sharma (2020) analyzed the relationship between mothers' occupations of higher secondary students in Punjab. The study involved 350 higher secondary students and leadership behaviour. The findings revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on mother's occupations, with students whose mothers were government employees demonstrating higher Leadership Behaviour compared to those whose mothers were homemakers or in private employment. Students from government employee families excelled in communication, team management, and conflict resolution, attributed to their exposure to structured and disciplined environments. Students of mothers in private employment showed moderate leadership skills, while those with homemaker mothers displayed relatively lower levels of leadership behaviour.

Lee and Johnson (2020) studied the impact of type of management on Leadership Behaviour in South Korea. A sample consisted of 200 high school students from private and public schools. The result revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of high school students based on type of management and students from private schools exhibited stronger leadership qualities due to structured training programmes.

Nair (2020) explored the relationship between locality and leadership behaviour of higher secondary students of Kerala. The sample consists of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences in leadership behaviour across rural and urban students. The study noted that both groups exhibited comparable skills in team management and conflict resolution, highlighting that leadership behaviour was likely influenced by individual traits and external training rather than the geographical setting.

Patel and Singh (2020) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Gujarat to explore gender differences in Leadership Behaviour. The study focused on comparing leadership behaviour across male and female students and identifying the strengths and weaknesses of Leadership Behaviours in each gender. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed no significant differences, in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on gender, indicating that Leadership Behaviour was not strongly associated with gender. Both male and female students were found to have comparable abilities in conflict resolution, team management, and collaboration.

Nguyen and Tran (2021) investigated Leadership Behaviour and parental education in Vietnam, using a sample of 180 high school students. The findings

highlighted a significant influence of parental education on students' leadership development, with higher-educated parents fostering more leadership attributes.

Reddy et al. (2021) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to explore locality-based differences in leadership behaviour and also compare the leadership traits of rural and urban students and analyze how social environments influence leadership development. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed that urban students exhibited higher Leadership Behaviour than rural students, particularly in conflict resolution, group coordination, and assertive decision-making. The study highlighted that urban students benefited from structured opportunities such as school leadership programmes and community engagement activities, which positively influenced their leadership development. Rural students, on the other hand, faced limitations due to fewer opportunities for participation in such activities.

Sharma and Verma (2021) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Rajasthan to analyze the influence of type of school on leadership behaviour and also compare leadership traits across these school types and identify which school environment fosters stronger leadership qualities. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant difference in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary schools based on types of school and students from girls-only schools demonstrated higher Leadership Behaviour compared to their peers from boys' and co-education schools. Girls' school students excelled in areas such as empathy, teamwork, and conflict resolution, attributed to the supportive and collaborative environment prevalent in these schools. The study also noted that the absence of gender-based competition in girls-only schools encouraged female students to take on leadership roles more confidently. Boys' schools showed higher

assertiveness in decision-making, while co-education schools reflected a balance of collaborative and assertive traits but did not surpass the Leadership Behaviour observed in girls-only schools.

Garcia et al. (2022) examined Leadership Behaviour across different streams of education in the Philippines. The study included 220 high school students from science, commerce, and arts streams. The result revealed significant differences in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on stream of education, with students in science streams demonstrated stronger leadership behaviour.

Singh and Patel (2022) analyzed the impact of locality on Leadership Behaviour in Punjab. The study also assessed the levels of Leadership Behaviour among rural and urban students and the influence of educational resources on leadership traits. The sample consisted of 350 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant difference in leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on locality with urban students demonstrated higher leadership behaviour compared to their rural counterparts. Urban students excelled in areas such as communication, decision-making, and team management due to better exposure to extracurricular activities and leadership training programmes. Rural students, while showing potential, lacked access to resources that could enhance their leadership abilities.

Ahmed and Yusuf (2023) explored a study on the influence of school management styles on leadership behaviour among high school students in Nigeria. The objective of the study is to assess how different management approaches impact students' leadership qualities and confidence. A sample of 300 students was included in the study. The findings revealed that school management styles significantly influenced leadership behaviour, with well-managed schools producing more confident leaders.

Rao and Mishra (2023) conducted a study on higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh to examine gender differences in Leadership Behaviour. The study analyzed various leadership traits and the effectiveness of male and female students in academic and extracurricular group settings. The sample consisted of 400 higher secondary students. The findings revealed significant difference in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students based on gender with female students demonstrated higher Leadership Behaviour than male students, particularly excelling in empathy, team-building, and effective communication. Female students were found to prioritize inclusivity and collaboration, while male students displayed more directive leadership styles. The study suggested that the leadership advantage among female students might be influenced by their stronger interpersonal skills and ability to foster group cohesion.

Studies on Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness

Singh and Gupta (2018) examined the interpersonal skills and civic responsibility of students from government and private schools in Mumbai. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The results revealed that students with well-developed interpersonal skills showed higher levels of Civic Consciousness, irrespective of the type of school.

Gupta and Singh (2019) investigated the role of Interpersonal Intelligence in social adjustment among adolescents. A sample of 400 adolescents students were selected from both rural and urban schools. The study revealed that Interpersonal Intelligence significantly predicted social adjustment in adolescents, with students scoring higher in Interpersonal Intelligence also showing better social adjustment.

Sharma (2020) investigated the role of Interpersonal Intelligence in developing Civic Consciousness among adolescents. A sample of 400 higher secondary students

from various schools in Delhi were selected. The findings revealed a significant positive correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. Students with higher Interpersonal Intelligence demonstrated greater civic awareness and participation in community activities.

Studies on Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour

Kumar and Singh (2015) conducted a study on the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 450 higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The objective was to compare the levels of leadership behaviour across groups with high, moderate, and low interpersonal intelligence. The findings revealed positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour, with students possessing higher levels of interpersonal intelligence exhibiting stronger leadership traits, such as effective communication, teamwork, and conflict resolution, compared to those with moderate and low levels of interpersonal intelligence.

Nair and Rao (2016) studied Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour among 300 higher secondary students in Kerala. Findings revealed a positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour and also suggesting that students with higher Interpersonal Intelligence were likely to show enhanced Leadership Behaviour.

Mukherjee and Basu (2016) examined the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 400 higher secondary students in West Bengal. The objective was to compare leadership behaviour across students with varying levels of interpersonal intelligence and determine if there were significant differences. The findings showed no significant differences, suggesting that leadership

behaviour might be influenced more by other factors, such as personality traits or situational contexts, rather than interpersonal intelligence alone.

Nair and Menon (2016) studied the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour in 350 higher secondary students in Kerala. The objective was to investigate whether leadership behaviour varied based on levels of interpersonal intelligence. The results indicated no significant differences, implying that interpersonal intelligence did not have a direct or substantial influence on leadership behaviour in this group.

Rao and Verma (2016) investigated the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 350 higher secondary students in Karnataka. The objective was to assess whether there was a significant correlation between students' interpersonal intelligence and their leadership behaviour. The findings revealed no significant correlation, suggesting that leadership behaviour may be influenced by other factors, such as personality traits, situational opportunities, or school environment, rather than interpersonal intelligence.

Sharma and Verma (2016) explored the relationship between Interpersonal Intelligence and leadership skills among 180 students participating in leadership training programmes. Findings revealed positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour, with higher Interpersonal Intelligence also exhibited strong leadership skills.

Srinivasan and Moni (2016) examined the correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour in 350 higher secondary students from Tamil Nadu. The objective was to investigate how interpersonal intelligence impacted leadership behaviour. The study found a positive relationship, with students who

exhibited higher interpersonal intelligence also demonstrating greater ability to manage and inspire teams.

Patel and Pawar (2017) explored the influence of interpersonal intelligence on leadership behaviour in a sample of 500 higher secondary students from Gujarat. The objective was to assess the levels of leadership behaviour and examine whether they varied significantly based on interpersonal intelligence levels. The study found significant differences, as students with higher interpersonal intelligence were more likely to demonstrate collaborative leadership styles, effective decision-making, and empathy in group settings compared to their peers with lower interpersonal intelligence.

Rao and Reddy (2017) explored the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 450 higher secondary students in Andhra Pradesh. The objective was to evaluate the levels of these variables and analyze their relationship. The results revealed a significant positive correlation, suggesting that students with higher interpersonal intelligence were better at collaborative leadership and motivating peers.

Sinha and Kumar (2017) examined the relationship between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour among 300 higher secondary students in Bihar. Findings revealed no significant correlation, indicating that Interpersonal Intelligence alone may not significantly determine Leadership Behaviour.

Srinivas and Prasad (2017) examined the relationship between Leadership Behaviour and interpersonal intelligence in a sample of 300 high school students. Findings revealed positive correlation between leadership behaviour and interpersonal intelligence of high school students, with higher interpersonal intelligence exhibited better Leadership Behaviour.

Desai and Joshi (2018) explored the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 300 higher secondary students in Maharashtra. The objective was to assess whether interpersonal intelligence influenced students' leadership behaviour. The study reported a significant positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour, with students who were strong in interpersonal intelligence displaying leadership traits such as effective communication, adaptability, and fostering group cohesion.

Patel and Mehta (2018) conducted a study on the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 300 higher secondary students in Gujarat. The objective was to examine whether interpersonal intelligence had a significant impact on leadership behaviour. The results showed no significant correlation, suggesting that leadership behaviour might depend on other factors such as motivation, external influences, or specific situational demands.

Singh and Sharma (2018) conducted a study on the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 500 higher secondary students in Punjab. The objective was to assess the level of interpersonal intelligence and its impact on leadership behaviour. The study found a positive correlation, between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour indicating that students with higher interpersonal intelligence exhibited stronger leadership qualities, such as teamwork, communication, and conflict resolution skills.

Chowdhury and Singh (2019) studied the correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour in 400 higher secondary students from Assam. The objective was to evaluate the levels of interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour and analyze their relationship. The study concluded that there was no

significant correlation between the two variables, indicating that interpersonal intelligence alone does not determine leadership behaviour in students.

Patel and Patel (2019) studied the relationship between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour among 400 higher secondary students in Gujarat. The objective was to determine how interpersonal intelligence influenced leadership behaviour. The findings showed a positive correlation, between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour with students scoring higher in interpersonal intelligence demonstrating enhanced leadership behaviours, including empathy, decision-making, and group management.

Rao and Reddy (2019) conducted a study on the complex dynamics of interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour in Andhra Pradesh. The study explored the impact of various forms of intelligence on leadership behaviour, including interpersonal intelligence. The results revealed a positive correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour, different forms of intelligence contributed to leadership development in varying ways, and students with higher levels of emotional and logical-mathematical intelligence demonstrated stronger decision-making and problem-solving skills, enhancing their leadership abilities.

Srinivasan and Nair (2019) analysed the leadership qualities and emotional intelligence in adolescents. A sample of 400 high school students from various schools in India were selected for the study. The study revealed that students with higher emotional intelligence had better leadership qualities.

Brown and Miller (2020) examined the relationship between Leadership Behaviour and Interpersonal Intelligence among secondary school students in Canada. The study included 200 students, revealed that higher Interpersonal Intelligence

exhibited superior Leadership Behaviour, particularly in conflict resolution and team management.

Chatterjee and Bhattacharya (2020) studied the higher secondary students in West Bengal, focusing on the relationship between various types of intelligence and Leadership Behaviour. This study revealed that students with high Interpersonal Intelligence did not exhibit significantly better Leadership Behaviour than those with average or low Interpersonal Intelligence.

Patil and Deshmukh (2020) investigated the relationship between Leadership Behaviour and Interpersonal Intelligence among 400 higher secondary students in Maharashtra. Findings revealed that students with high Interpersonal Intelligence did not significantly differ in Leadership Behaviour compared to those with lower levels, suggesting other traits also influence leadership behaviour.

Kim and Choi (2023) explored Leadership Behaviour and Interpersonal Intelligence among Korean high school students. The sample of 250 students highlighted that Interpersonal Intelligence skills, such as empathy and effective communication, enhanced leadership behaviour.

Studies on Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour.

Kumar and Singh (2015) conducted a study on the relationship between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour among higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The sample consisted of 450 students from various higher secondary schools. The objective was to determine the level of leadership behaviour among students with different levels of civic consciousness and to compare the leadership behaviour across high, moderate, and low civic consciousness groups. The findings revealed significant differences in leadership behaviour, with students possessing high levels of civic consciousness exhibiting better leadership behaviour than their peers.

Nair and Menon (2016) examined the relationship between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour among 350 higher secondary students in Kerala. The objective was to determine whether there was a correlation between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour. The study found no significant correlation between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour, suggesting that factors other than civic consciousness, such as personality traits and external influences, might play a more prominent role in determining leadership behaviour.

Raj and Menon (2016) explored Leadership Behaviour in relation to Civic Consciousness among 300 urban students in India. Findings revealed a strong positive relationship, indicating that students with higher Civic Consciousness tended to exhibit stronger Leadership Behaviour.

Verma and Joshy (2016) investigated the influence of civic consciousness on the leadership behaviour of 400 higher secondary students in Kerala. The objective was to determine the levels of leadership behaviour among students and to explore whether there were significant differences based on their levels of civic consciousness. The findings revealed no significant differences in leadership behaviour among students across the different levels of civic consciousness, suggesting that other factors might influence leadership behaviour.

Kumar and Singh (2017) explored the relationship between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour in 400 higher secondary students in Uttar Pradesh. The objective was to assess the levels of civic consciousness and leadership behaviour among students and investigate their correlation. The findings showed no significant relationship between the civic consciousness and leadership behaviour, indicating that civic consciousness did not directly influence leadership behaviour in this sample of students.

Patel and Kumar (2017) analyzed the impact of civic awareness on leadership skills in a sample of 250 urban and rural students in Gujarat. Findings revealed that civic awareness positively impacted leadership development, with urban students showing a higher correlation between civic awareness and leadership skills than rural students.

Patel and Pawar (2017) explored how civic consciousness influences leadership behaviour among 500 higher secondary students in Gujarat. The primary objective of the study was to compare the civic consciousness and leadership behaviour with varying levels of civic consciousness. The results showed that students with higher civic consciousness demonstrated superior leadership qualities, such as inspiring teamwork and ethical decision-making, compared to those with moderate or low civic consciousness.

Reddy and Thomas (2017) studied the relationship between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness in 450 higher secondary students from Andhra Pradesh. The objective was to analyze the correlation between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness among the students and analyze the correlation between them. The study found a significant positive correlation between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness; with students who scored high in civic consciousness also demonstrating enhanced leadership behaviour, particularly in areas like problem-solving and ethical responsibility.

Choudhury and Rao (2018) conducted a study on higher secondary students from Andhra Pradesh to analyze the relationship between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour. The objective was to assess the levels of these two variables and determine if there was a significant correlation between them. The sample consisted of 300 higher secondary students. The results revealed no significant correlation, between

civic consciousness and leadership behaviour, suggesting that leadership behaviour might depend more on situational and environmental factors rather than civic consciousness.

Hoffman et al. (2018) conducted a study on Leadership Behaviour and Civic Consciousness among university students in Germany. The sample consisted of 150 students from diverse disciplines. Findings indicated that students actively involved in civic activities displayed more proactive Leadership Behaviour, emphasizing collaboration and problem-solving.

Patel and Desai (2018) examined the correlation between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness in a sample of 400 higher secondary students from Gujarat. The objective was to assess the level of both variables and explore their interrelationship. The results showed a significant correlation between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness, suggesting that students with greater civic consciousness were more likely to exhibit leadership traits such as motivation, collaboration, and responsibility.

Gupta and Sharma (2019) explored the correlation between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness among 500 higher secondary students in Delhi. The objective was to assess the level of leadership behaviour and civic consciousness and examine the relationship between the two variables. The findings revealed a significant positive correlation, between leadership and civic consciousness indicating that students with higher levels of civic consciousness also exhibited stronger leadership behaviour, such as teamwork, communication, and decision-making skills.

Verma (2019) investigated Civic Consciousness as a predictor of leadership qualities among 350 secondary school students in Bangalore. Findings revealed that

Civic Consciousness significantly predicted Leadership Behaviour, with students more aware of civic responsibilities displaying stronger leadership qualities.

Patel and Singh (2021) studied the relationship between Leadership Behaviour and Civic Consciousness in a sample of 450 higher secondary students from public and private schools. Findings revealed a significant positive correlation, between leadership behaviour and civic consciousness indicating that students with higher civic awareness demonstrated stronger Leadership Behaviour.

Mehta and Verma (2023) examined the relationship between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour among 500 urban and rural higher secondary students. Findings revealed a significant positive correlation, between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour, suggesting that students with higher Civic Consciousness exhibited stronger Leadership Behaviour.

Critical review

The investigator reviewed 202 studies related to the variables under study viz, Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour. Of this 66 studies were related to Interpersonal Intelligence, 47 studies were related to Civic Consciousness, 49 studies were related to Leadership Behaviour, 3 studies were related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness, 22 studies were related to Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour and 15 studies were related to Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour. The review of related studies enabled the investigator to develop a perspectives of the nature of interaction of the variables concerned by the present investigation.

The investigator critically evaluated the existing literature on Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour. The review of literature reveals both agreements and contradictions.

A critical study of researches on Interpersonal Intelligence revealed that Interpersonal Intelligence yielding mixed results across various demographic variables such as gender, locality, type of school, type of management, stream of study and parental occupation. Gender has been extensively studied (Singh & Sharma, 2015; Kasiranjan & Kanakaraj, 2013; Barman & Roy, 2014; Monika, 2014; Gupta, 2018; Sharma, 2022; Gonzalez & Ramirez, 2015; Atkinson, Michael et. Al 2023) found a significant difference, and reporting that female students demonstrate higher levels of Interpersonal Intelligence than males. Some studies challenge this notion (Kumar & Singh, 2016; Rahim et.al., 2018, Reddy & Rao, 2017) argue that gender does not play a significant role in determining interpersonal intelligence.

Several studies on the impact of locality on Interpersonal Intelligence have reported varied diverse findings. Studies such as (Nair & Rao, 2016; Khan and Sharma, 2017; Srinivas & Nair, 2019; Rao, Patel & Joshi, 2020) suggest that urban students tend to have higher interpersonal intelligence. Some studies in contradiction with the above studies (Monika, 2014; Raj & Menon, 2016; Rahim. Et al, 2014; Mehta & Kumar, 2019) found no significant difference between Interpersonal Intelligence of rural and urban students.

The type of school plays a role in shaping interpersonal intelligence. Studies such as (Sharma & Kumar, 2020; Kamath & Sebastian, 2024) showed girls only school students possess higher interpersonal intelligence compared to the co-education and boys school students. Some studies (Kaur & Gill, 2017; Bhattacharya & Sengupta, 2019) indicate that students in co-educational schools tend to have higher interpersonal intelligence. Other studies (Gupta, 2015; Ramesh & Iyer, 2016) found no significant difference between type of school and interpersonal intelligence indicating that the type of school is not a sole determinant factor of interpersonal intelligence.

Researches by (Sharma & Verma, 2016; Wang & Chen, 2016; Hoffmann and Strauss, 2018; Kim & Lee, 2022) reported that students in self financing school showed higher interpersonal intelligence than aided and government school. Other studies (Nair & Rao, 2016; Kumar & Sharma, 2017) found no significant difference with Interpersonal Intelligence of students from different management types, indicating that institutional policies and teaching methodologies important than a school is Government and private. Research on academic streams and interpersonal intelligence showed varied findings. Some studies (Banerjee & Mukherjee, 2016; Sharma & Singh, 2017; Desai & Patel, 2018; Patel & Sharma, 2019) indicated that humanities students tend to have higher interpersonal intelligence, because their courses emphasize communication, negotiation and social engagement. Studies by (Singh & Sharma, 2015; Kumar, 2017; Mehta & Kaur, 2018) argue that science students demonstrate superior interpersonal intelligence, as they involve collaborative problem-solving, teamwork, and projects that require effective communication and cooperation. Some studies (Gupta, 2015; Thomas, 2017) found no significant differences among students from different streams, indicated that the learning environment may have a greater impact than their chosen field of study.

In parental occupation studies (Singh & Kumar, 2017; Gupta & Sharma, 2018; Thomas & Ramesh, 2018; Sharma & Gupta, 2019) consistently report that students whose parents are employed in professional or business sectors exhibited higher interpersonal intelligence.

Critical study of research on Civic Consciousness has predominantly focused on the role of gender, locality, type of school, type of school management, stream of study and parental occupation. Some studies on gender (Bhat & Farooq, 2019; Patel, 2023; Raj & Singh, 2023) reported higher Civic Consciousness among female students.

Urban students tend to score higher on Civic Consciousness, (Deshmukh & Shah, 2018; Chaudhary & Verma, 2021) potentially due to greater access to community activities and civic education. However, some studies, such as (Patil & Patil, 2016; Singh & Kumar, 2017) revealed no significant urban-rural differences, indicating that factors such as curriculum and civic programmes may be more critical in fostering Civic Consciousness. Future research could examine the impact of integrating civic engagement initiatives directly into the school curriculum and the role of community-based learning on students' Civic Consciousness. Studies by Patel & Desai, 2016; Singh & Kaur, 2017; Iyer & Sinha, 2021) reported no significant differences between type of school and civic consciousness and contradictions with the findings of (Reddy & Rao, 2018; Sharma & Verma, 2019; Mehta & Gupta, 2020). In type of management, private school students demonstrate higher levels of civic awareness compared to government school students, as reported by (Gupta & Sharma, 2016; Raju & Suresh, 2018; Singh & Kumar, 2019) but (Rao & Sharma, 2019) argued that government schools focusing on value-based education can achieve similar outcomes. In streams of education, students from humanities streams showed higher civic consciousness compared to those in science or commerce, as found by (Sharma, 2018; Verma & Singh, 2019). This can be attributed to the humanities' focus on social issues and ethical reasoning, fostering a deeper understanding of community responsibilities, studies like (Reddy & Balasubramaniam, 2020; Desai & Patel, 2016) reported no significant differences across streams, suggesting that civic consciousness depends more on teaching approaches than the subject matter. This indicates a need for interdisciplinary curricula that integrate civic education across all fields of study. Hansen et al. (2020) and Simonsen et al. (2021) emphasized the role of parental education in shaping students' civic consciousness, with children from highly educated families displaying

superior civic awareness. Similarly, Chandra & Sharma (2018) and Kaur (2017) highlighted the impact of parents' professional occupations, particularly in education and healthcare, on fostering civic responsibility among students. Contradictory findings by Singh (2020), however, revealed inconsistent patterns, suggesting that parental influence may vary significantly based on socio-economic and cultural contexts.

Studies on Leadership Behaviour suggest that gender, locality, type of school, type of school management, streams of study and parental occupation, significantly impact leadership development. Female students are frequently reported to exhibit collaborative Leadership Behaviours, with empathy and communication as core strengths (Omar & Hassan, 2018; Simons & Paige, 2018; Rani & Kumar, 2019; Rao & Mishra, 2023). Additionally, urban students generally display higher leadership qualities than their rural counterparts, likely due to enriched environments that foster leadership opportunities (Lee & Kim, 2019; Singh & Patel, 2022). Research on type of school some studies Sharma & Gupta, 2018; Kumar, 2019; suggest that students from co-education school exhibited stronger leadership behaviour than single gender schools. Research by Sharma and Varma, 2021 revealed that girls-only schools shows higher leadership behaviour than co-education schools. Studies on type of school management reveals that private schools foster higher leadership behaviour compared to government and aided schools (Sharma, 2018; Nair & Menon, 2018). Studies (Kumar & Gupta, 2019; Verma & Singh, 2020) found no significant differences, highlighting the need for further investigation into the role of school policies and environments. In stream of study significantly affects leadership behaviour. Humanities students are often better at collaborative and empathetic leadership due to their focus on social sciences and critical thinking (Gupta & Singh, 2016; Reddy & Rao, 2017). However, some studies (Mehta & Kaur, 2018; Garcia et al, 2022) found

Science students to excel in task-oriented leadership, while Commerce students (Carter & Evans, 2020) displayed strengths in strategic thinking and teamwork. These variations reflect how different curricula emphasize unique skill sets. However, findings on the influence of parental occupation are mixed, with some studies suggesting that school environment and peer influence may outweigh parental occupation in predicting Leadership Behaviour (Patel & Nair, 2019). Future research could focus on how different leadership training methods or peer-led programmes in schools impact leadership traits across diverse socio-economic groups. In parental occupation students from government employee families often exhibit stronger leadership traits due to the structured and disciplined environments at home (Singh, 2017; Rao & Reddy, 2018). Similarly, mothers' occupations significantly influence leadership behaviour, with working mothers (private employees or business owners) fostering higher leadership traits in their children compared to homemakers (Mehta, 2016; Kaur & Sharma, 2020). However, some studies (Raj & Thomas, 2017; Patel & Nair, 2019) found no significant differences, suggesting that leadership traits are shaped more by upbringing and exposure to opportunities than occupational status.

A critical study of researches on Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness showed that Interpersonal Intelligence is positively co-related to Civic Consciousness (Singh & Gupta, 2018; Sharma, 2020). Studies on leadership behaviour and interpersonal intelligence emphasize the role of social and emotional skills in shaping effective leaders. Research by Brown & Miller (2020) suggests that students with higher interpersonal intelligence demonstrate superior leadership abilities, particularly in communication, conflict resolution, and team work. Similarly, Kim & Choi (2023) highlight that empathy and active listening enhance leadership effectiveness in school environments. Studies such as (Rao & Reddy, 2017; Srinivasan

& Nair, 2019) showed positive significant correlation between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour.

A critical study of relationship between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour showed that Civic Consciousness is positively correlated to Leadership Behaviour (Patel & Kumar, 2017; Hoffman et. al, 2018; Patel & Singh, 2021; Mehta & Verma, 2023) and found that Civic Consciousness could predict Leadership Behaviour. This critical review sets the foundation for the present study, which aims to investigate the relationships between Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness, and Leadership Behaviour among higher secondary students. By addressing the gaps and leveraging methodological strengths, this research seeks to contribute valuable insights to the field.

While numerous studies have explored Interpersonal Intelligence, Leadership Behaviour, and Civic Consciousness individually, there is a notable gap in research investigating the interrelationships among these three variables. Existing studies primarily focus on one or two of these factors, but no comprehensive research has been conducted to analyse how Interpersonal Intelligence and civic consciousness influences Leadership Behaviour, or how these three variables collectively shape students' leadership behaviour in educational contexts. This gap highlights the need for a study that integrates all three constructs to better understand their combined impact. Therefore, this study aims to address this gap by examining the relationships among Interpersonal Intelligence, Leadership Behaviour, and Civic Consciousness in a higher secondary school setting. Higher secondary stage is a turning point in the life of students. Very few Indian investigators focused exclusively on Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. To the best knowledge of the investigator, not much have been conducted to investigate the influence of Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic

Consciousness on Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. Also, the present study differs from the above studies in terms of area, methodology, population and sample. Therefore the study entitled “Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students in relation to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness” will be different from the studies conducted in terms of formulating objectives and hypothesis as well as research design.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Method Adopted for the Study

Variables of the Study

Tools Used

Population

Sample Selected for the Study

Procedure for Data Collection

Scoring and Consolidation of Data

Statistical Techniques Used

Research methodology is a style of conducting a research work, which is determined by the nature of the problem. The methodology of this study is formulated based on the objectives, theoretical frame work of the variables, and the review of related literature on the variables under study.

The present investigation tries to study the Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students in relation to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. The study also aims to identify the combined and individual contributions of the predictor variables, Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness on the criterion variable Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. Description of methodology adopted by the investigator is presented under the following headings.

Method Adopted for the Study

The selection of a method, and the specific design within the method appropriate to the research problem, depends upon the nature of the problem and the kind of data required. Based on the problem and objectives of the present study, the investigator

adopted normative survey method for the investigation. The normative survey method was used, as it suggests gathering evidence relating to current conditions.

Normative survey method involves a clearly defined problem and definite objectives. It requires imaginative planning, careful analysis and interpretation of the data gathered and logical and skillful reporting of the findings. Using this method, the investigator tried to study the influence of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness on the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students.

Variables of the Study

The study is designed with Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness as the predictor variables, and Leadership Behaviour as the criterion variable. Gender (male/female), Locale of the school (Rural/Urban), Type of School(Co-Education/Girls/Boys), Type of management (Government / Aided / Self financing), Stream of study (Science/Commerce/Humanities), Parental Occupation (Father- Government employee / Private employee / Business / Casual Labourer / others), Mother- Government employee / Private employee / Business / Casual Labourer / Home maker / Others, were taken as the back ground variables in this study.

Tools Used

The successful outcome of the research depends upon the proper selection of the research tools. The nature of the tool depends on the variables included in the study. In order to measure the variables under study, the investigator constructed and validated the following tools.

- **Interpersonal Intelligence Scale** - Suja & Sreelatha (2022)
- **Civic Consciousness Scale** - Suja & Sreelatha (2022)
- **Leadership Behaviour Scale** - Suja & Sreelatha (2022)

The details regarding the preparation of the tools employed for the present study are outlined below.

Interpersonal Intelligence Scale

Interpersonal Intelligence scale was developed and validated by the investigator. The details of the procedure involved in the development of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale is given below.

Planning

Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students was measured by using Interpersonal Intelligence Scale constructed and validated by the investigator for the present study.

The investigator examined both print and electronic resources related to interpersonal intelligence and studied thoroughly the literature on Interpersonal Intelligence to get a theoretical basis for the preparation of the scale. The investigator reviewed many Interpersonal Intelligence scales. Majority of them were constructed and standardized in foreign context and for other samples and found not suitable for the present investigation. Thus the investigator decided to construct Interpersonal Intelligence scale for higher secondary students. For this, the investigator reviewed the literature and other available resources. Apart from this, the investigator, consulted and reviewed suggestions from Educationists and Psychologists. The investigator identified five dimensions - Communication, Empathy, Cooperation, Conflict resolution and Social interaction based on the theory of Multiple Intelligence (Gardener 1983) to be included in the Interpersonal Intelligence scale.

The investigator decided to develop the Interpersonal Intelligence scale as five point scale with responses as 'Always true' (A), 'Very true' (B), 'Sometimes true' (C), 'Occasionally true' (D) and 'Not at all true' (E).

Preparation of items for the Draft Scale

The investigator reviewed ample literature and scales related to Interpersonal Intelligence. Special emphasis was given to Multiple Intelligence theory of Gardener (1983). Based on this, the investigator identified five dimensions of interpersonal intelligence namely Communication, Empathy, Cooperation, Conflict resolution and Social interaction. Communication means the ability to convey ideas, thoughts and feelings effectively to others through verbal, non-verbal and written means. Empathy means the capacity to understand and share the feelings, perspectives and experiences of others. Cooperation refers to willingness and ability to work harmoniously with others towards a common goal. Conflict resolution is the process of addressing and resolving conflicts that may arise in interpersonal relationships. Social interaction means engaging with others in various social settings and contexts. An initial pool of seventy items was prepared on five dimensions of interpersonal intelligence. This pool of items were submitted to a group of four experts. Experts were requested to evaluate the items based on comprehensiveness of the test items, representativeness of the items, unambiguous Language, ability of the tool to measure the major dimensions of the concept, and appropriateness for the target population.

Based on their suggestions, some items were eliminated. The items on which the experts were unanimous on their opinion were retained.

After eliminating the vague items, fifty items were retained. This constituted the draft scale of Interpersonal Intelligence for higher secondary students. Out of fifty items, twenty five were of positive polarity and remaining twenty five items were of negative polarity. Ten items were to assess the communication, ten to assess the Empathy, ten to assess the Co-operation, ten to assess the Conflict resolution and ten

to assess the Social interaction of higher secondary students. The scale thus developed was a five point scale having five categories of responses namely 'Always true' (A), 'Very true' (B), 'Sometimes true' (C), 'Occasionally true' (D) and 'Not at all true' (E). The score for the positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and for negative items were 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The maximum score was 250 and minimum score was 50.

Pre-try-out

After preliminary screening and editing of the items, the scale was tried-out on sixty higher secondary students in Government Girls Higher Secondary School, Neyyattinkara in Thiruvananthapuram district. Pre-try-out was conducted to identify the ambiguities like difficulty in comprehending the language, difficulties in marking responses and to get an estimate of the time required for marking the responses of the scale. After this preliminary administration of the scale, minor changes were made in the language and sentence construction in some of the items. The average time required for the completion of all the items was found to be 30 minutes.

Draft Scale

Draft form of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale comprised of fifty items under five dimensions. An appropriate response sheet was also prepared. Each of the item had five responses. 'Always true' (A), 'Very true' (B), 'Sometimes true' (C), 'Occasionally true' (D) and 'Not at all true' (E). The score for positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3,4,5. The maximum score was 250 and minimum score was 50.

The distribution of items of draft Interpersonal Intelligence Scale is given in table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Distribution of Items in the draft Interpersonal Intelligence Scale.

Sl.no.	Dimension	Item No.		Total
		Positive Polarity	Negative Polarity	
1.	Communication	1,12,21,32,41	2,11,22,31,42	10
2.	Empathy	3,14,23,34,43	4,13,24,33,44	10
3.	Co-operation	5,16,25,36,45	6,15,26,35,46	10
4.	Conflict Resolution	7,18,27,38,47	8,17,28,37,48	10
5.	Social Relationship	9,20,29,40,49	10,19,30,39,50	10
Total				50

A copy of the draft form of Interpersonal Intelligence scale is given in Appendix A.

Pilot Study

After pre-try-out, the draft scale was administered to a sample of 400 higher secondary students from seven randomly selected schools in Thiruvananthapuram district. The sample was drawn randomly after giving due representation to all subsamples. As per the instructions in the draft Interpersonal Intelligence scale, the students were required to respond on a five point scale with responses, ‘Always true’ (A), ‘Very true’ (B), ‘Sometimes true’ (C), ‘Occasionally true’ (D) and ‘Not at all true’ (E). The score for positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and for negative items 1,2,3,4,5.

Item Analysis

Item analysis is used for selecting and rejecting the items of a tool on the basis of their difficulty value and discriminative power. The procedure suggested by Cronbach (1951) was followed for item analysis. Cronbach Alpha is a statistical coefficient that measures the internal consistency of a set of items in the scale. It indicates how well the items correlate with one another and contribute to a single underlying construct. Initially the overall Cronbach Alpha for the Interpersonal

intelligence scale was calculated as 0.816 which indicates good reliability of the scale. Then each item's correlation with the total test score was examined. Items with low correlation ($\alpha < 0.3$) may be weak or irrelevant to the construct being measured and hence should be revised or deleted. Thus items having item – total correlation coefficient below 0.3 were deleted and 37 items were selected.

Details of item selected for the Interpersonal intelligence scale are given in Appendix A.

Final form of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale

Final form of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale comprised thirtyseven items across five dimensions. An appropriate response sheet was also prepared. Each item had five responses. 'Always true' (A), 'Very true' (B), 'Sometimes true' (C), 'Occasionally true' (D) and 'Not at all true' (E). The score for positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3,4,5. The maximum score was 185 and minimum score was 37.

The final form of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale consisted of 37 items.

Table 3.2

Distribution of items in the final form of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale

Sl. No.	Dimensions	Serial number of items		Total Number of items
		Positive Polarity	Negative Polarity	
1.	Communication	6,11,21	1,16,26	6
2.	Empathy	17,27,30,34	7,12,22,32,36	10
3.	Co-operation	8,13,23,33,37	3,28,31,35	9
4.	Conflict Resolution	4	9,14,18,20,24	6
5.	Social Relationship	5,19,25	5,10,29	6
			Total	37 items

Tool Validation.

To ensure that the tool is sound, it is important to establish its validity and reliability.

Validity of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale. Both content validity and concurrent validity of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale were established.

Content Validity. The content validity of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale was established through a comprehensive evaluation of its theoretical foundation and alignment with relevant literature. A panel of four experts systematically reviewed the domain specifications to ensure that the scale accurately measured key dimensions of interpersonal intelligence, including communication, empathy, cooperation, conflict resolution, and social relationships. The experts assessed the clarity, relevance, and representativeness of the items to determine their adequacy in capturing the intended construct. Based on their evaluations, refinements were made to enhance the precision and applicability of the scale, thereby ensuring its content validity.

Concurrent Validity. The concurrent validity of the scale was established by correlating the scores of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale with an external criterion. For that Interpersonal Intelligence Scale Sengupta and Roy (2013) was used as an external criterion. Both the tools were administered to a sample of hundred higher secondary students and the correlation coefficient was found out. The validity coefficient thus obtained was 0.742.

Reliability of Interpersonal Intelligence Scale. Reliability is the degree of consistency with which the test measures what it intends to measure. Reliability of Interpersonal Intelligence scale was established by using Test-retest method. Test-retest reliability method of the Interpersonal Intelligence scale was done by administering the scale twice with a time interval of three weeks to a sample of one

hundred higher secondary students. The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.92, suggesting that the scale is highly reliable to measure the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students (Cohen et.al., 2007). The reliability coefficient of Interpersonal Intelligence scale is given in table 3.3.

Table 3.3.

Test-retest reliability coefficient of the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale.

Variable	Reliability Coefficient
Interpersonal Intelligence	0.92

Thus the scale is a reasonably valid and reliable tool for measuring the Interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students.

A copy of the final interpersonal intelligence scale, response sheet, scoring key, scoring manual and percentile norms are given in Appendix A.

Civic Consciousness Scale.

The Civic Consciousness Scale was constructed and validated by the investigator to measure the civic consciousness of higher secondary students. The following steps were adopted in the construction and validation of the scale.

Planning

The investigator reviewed thoroughly the existing research studies and tools related to Civic Consciousness to identify the key dimensions and theoretical basis for the scale. Special attention was given to the literature and theories dealing to focus more directly on the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students. Experts in the field were also consulted and their suggestions were taken into considerations. Based on this, the investigator identified five dimensions of Civic Consciousness namely, social responsibility, moral consciousness, political consciousness, legal consciousness

and ecological consciousness. The investigator decided to develop the Civic Consciousness Scale as a three point scale with responses as ‘Always’(A), ‘Sometimes’(B), ‘Rarely’ (C).

The investigator reviewed ample literature and scales related to civic consciousness. These dimensions provide a framework for a deeper exploration of the topic Civic Consciousness. These dimensions collectively contribute to a well-rounded Civic Consciousness, encouraging individuals to be responsible and engaged members of their communities. Experts in the field were also consulted and their suggestions were taken into consideration.

Preparation of items for the Draft Scale

The investigator prepared an initial pool of sixty five items falling equally (thirteen each) into the five dimensions of Civic Consciousness. The language was checked for ambiguity in wording, if any. It was also ascertained that the vocabulary used in the Civic Consciousness scale was appropriate for the sample under study. These items were given to four experts in the field of Education and Psychology for content analysis (List of experts appended in Appendix E). Experts were requested to evaluate the items based on comprehensiveness of the test items, representativeness of the items, unambiguous Language, ability of tool to measure the major dimensions of the concept and its appropriateness for the target population.

Based on the suggestions of the experts, some items were deleted and modifications was done in some items. Thus, fifty items were included in the draft form of the Civic consciousness scale. Out of fifty items, ten items each represented Social responsibility, Moral consciousness, Political consciousness, Legal consciousness and Ecological consciousness. Students has to respond on a three-point scale with the three response categories. The three responses were ‘Always’ (A),

‘Sometimes’ (B) and ‘Rarely’ (C). A score of 3, 2 and 1 were given to positive items and for negative items 1, 2 and 3. The maximum score of draft Civic Consciousness scale was 150 and the minimum score was 50.

Pre-try-out

After preliminary screening and editing of the items the Civic Consciousness scale was tried out on 50 students in Government Higher Secondary School, Balaramapuram in Thiruvananthapuram district, in order to find out the accuracy, difficulty in comprehending the language, difficulty in marking responses, estimate the time required for marking the responses and relevance of each item. After the preliminary administration of the scale, minor changes were made in the language and sentence constructions in some of the items and the draft Civic Consciousness Scale was prepared. The average time required for the completion of all the items was found to be 30 minutes.

Draft Scale

Draft form of Civic Consciousness Scale consisted of fifty items under five dimensions. Each of the item had three responses, ‘Always’ (A), ‘Sometimes’ (B) and ‘Rarely’ (C). The score for positive items were 3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3. The maximum score was 150 and minimum score was 50.

Table 3.4

Distribution of items in the draft Civic Consciousness Scale is given in table 3.4

Sl.no.	Dimension	Serial number of items		Total
		Positive Polarity	Negative Polarity	
1.	Social Responsibility	1,11,12,21,22,32	2,31,41,42	10
2.	Moral Consciousness	3,14,23,34,43,44	4,13,24,33	10
3.	Political Consciousness	5,6,26,35,46	15,16,25,36,45	10
4.	Legal Consciousness	7,8,18,27,28,38,47	17,37,48	10
5.	Ecological Consciousness	9,20,30,40,49	10,19,29,39,50	10
Total				50

A copy of the draft form of Civic Consciousness Scale is given in appendix B.

Pilot Study

The draft civic consciousness scale with 50 items was administered to a representative sample of 400 higher secondary students. The investigator visited randomly selected seven schools in Thiruvananthapuram district. The sample was drawn randomly after giving due representation to the sample selected. As per the instructions in the draft Civic Consciousness Scale, the students were required to respond on a three point scale as ‘Always’ (A), ‘Sometimes’(B) and ‘Rarely’(C). The score for positive items were 3,2,1 and for negative items 1,2,3. The maximum score was 150 and minimum score was 50.

Item analysis

Item analysis of Civic Consciousness Scale was done as per the instructions given in Mathew Item Analysis Table (Mathew, 1982). This table gives item criterion correlation (Phi-coefficient) and percentage of testees marking the keyed answer (P-value). Data was collected from a sample of 400 higher secondary students. The items

were scored. Then the response sheets were arranged in the descending order based on the criterion score. One hundred response sheets having the highest criterion score were separated which constitute the upper tail. Similarly one hundred response sheets having the lowest scores constitute the lower tail.

Then PL (percentage of individuals in the lower tail marking the keyed answer) and PU (percentage of individuals in the upper tail marking the keyed answer) were found out for each item using Mathew Item Analysis Table. The required number of items were selected from among the items having highest correlation value (Phi value) and medium P values. The Phi values were compared for every combination of PL and PU values. Phi is calculated using Guildford's (1954) formula.

$$\text{Phi} = \frac{P_U - P_L}{2\sqrt{pq}}$$

$$\text{Where, } P = \frac{P_U + P_L}{2}$$

$$q = 1 - p$$

Items with Phi values above 1 percent level of significance (0.18) were considered for selection. The least and highest Phi value of the selected items were 0.19 and 0.53 respectively. Similarly, the least and highest P value of the selected items were 56 and 75 respectively. The final Civic Consciousness scale consisted of 35 items.

The details of items selection for Civic Consciousness scale is given in Appendix B.

Final form of the Civic consciousness scale

The final form of Civic Consciousness scale comprised of 35 items. To avoid the tendency to give a stereo-typed response, items of positive and negative polarity were evenly arranged.

Final form of Civic Consciousness Scale consisted of thirty five items under five dimensions. Each of the item had three responses, 'Always' (A), 'Sometimes' (B) and 'Rarely' (C). The score for positive items were 3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3. The maximum scores was 105 and minimum scores was 35.

Table 3.5

Distribution of items in the final form of Civic Consciousness Scale.

Sl.no.	Dimensions	Serial number of items		Total Number of items
		Positive polarity	Negative polarity	
1.	Social Responsibility	6,11,16,26	1,21,33	7
2.	Moral Consciousness	2,7,9,22,24,27,31,34	12,17	10
3.	Political Consciousness	3,13,18		3
4.	Legal Consciousness	4,8,19,28,30,32	14,23,35	9
5.	Ecological Consciousness	10,15,20,25	5,29	6
			Total	35 items

Tool Validation

To ensure that the tool is sound, it is important to establish its validity and reliability.

Validity of Civic Consciousness Scale. Both content validity and concurrent validity of Civic Consciousness Scale was established.

Content Validity. A panel of four experts carefully reviewed the domain specification and verified the relevance, clarity, and comprehensiveness of the items in measuring civic consciousness. Based on expert opinion, the scale was found to possess reasonable content validity.

Concurrent Validity. The concurrent validity of the scale was established by correlating the scores of the Civic Consciousness Scale with an external criterion score of Civic Consciousness scale Patel and Singh (2017). Both the scales were administered to a sample of hundred higher secondary students and the correlation coefficient was found out. The validity coefficient thus obtained was 0.712.

Reliability of Civic Consciousness Scale. Reliability of Civic Consciousness scale was established by using Test-retest method. Test-retest reliability of the Civic Consciousness Scale was done by administering the scale twice with a time interval of three weeks to a sample of one hundred higher secondary students. The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.82, suggesting that the scale is highly reliable to measure Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students. The value showed that Civic Consciousness scale is a reliable tool, since the obtained reliability coefficient is acceptable for a reliable tool (Cohen. et.al., 2007). The reliability coefficient of Civic Consciousness scale is given in table.3.6.

Table 3.6

Test-retest reliability co-efficient of Civic Consciousness Scale

Variable	Reliability Coefficient
Civic Consciousness	0.82

A copy of the final Civic Consciousness Scale, the response sheet, scoring key, scoring manual and percentile norms are given in Appendix B.

Leadership Behaviour Scale

Leadership Behaviour scale was developed and validated by the investigator. This scale is constructed based on various theories and perspectives of experts in the field of education and psychology. Various procedures and steps which were used in

the construction and validation of Leadership Behaviour Scale are described in this subsection of the report.

Planning

An available literature on Leadership Behaviour was examined and studied extensively by the investigator. Majority of the tools used were found to be subject specific and developed in foreign context. Hence the investigator decided to construct a scale to measure the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students in Indian Context. The investigator identified four dimensions of Leadership Behaviour namely, Decisiveness, Commitment, Problem Solving and Ability of mentoring. The investigator decided to develop the scale as a five point scale with responses as Always (A), Often (B), Sometimes (C), Rarely (D) and Not at all (E).

Preparation of the Items for the Draft Leadership Behaviour Scale

The investigator reviewed extensive body of literature and scales related to Leadership Behaviour. Based on this the investigator identified four dimensions of Leadership Behaviour namely Decisiveness, Commitment, Problem solving and Ability of Mentoring. Decisiveness means ability to make firm and timely decisions, often in challenging or uncertain situations, Commitment in Leadership Behaviour means a dedication to the goals, vision, values of the team and motivating others to follow. Problem-solving skills, identify issues, creative thinking and develop solutions. Ability of mentoring means capacity to guide, support and develop the skills and knowledge. Experts in the field were also consulted and their suggestions were taken into consideration. (List of experts appended in Appendix E).

The draft form of Leadership Behaviour Scale comprised of four dimensions namely Decisiveness, Commitment, Problem solving and Ability of mentoring with equal number of items (fifteen each) in four dimensions. An initial pool of sixty items

was prepared. This pool of items was given to a group of five experts and based on their suggestions, those items which were complex and vague were eliminated. The items on which the experts were unanimous on their opinion were retained.

Forty items were included in the draft form of the Leadership Behaviour Scale. Out of forty items, twenty were of positive polarity and remaining 20 items were of negative polarity. Ten items were to assess the views on Decisiveness, ten to assess the views on commitment, ten to assess the views on Problem solving and ten to assess the views on Ability of mentoring. The scale thus developed was a five point scale with five categories of responses namely, 'Always' (A), 'Often' (B), 'Sometimes' (C), 'Rarely' (D) and 'Not at all' (E). The scores for positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and for negative items were 1,2,3,4,5. The maximum score of Leadership Behaviour Scale was 200 and minimum score was 40.

Pre-try-out

After preliminary screening and editing of the items the Leadership Behaviour scale was tried out on sixty higher secondary students in Govt. higher secondary school, Parassala, in Thiruvananthapuram district, in order to find out the accuracy, difficulty in comprehending the language, difficulty in marking responses, estimate the time required for marking the responses and relevance of each item. After the preliminary administration of the scale, minor changes were made in the language and sentence constructions in some of the items. The average time required for the completion of all the items was found to be 30 minutes.

Draft Scale

The draft Leadership Behaviour Scale comprised of forty items under four dimensions. Each of the item had five responses; 'Always' (A), 'Often' (B), 'Sometimes' (C), 'Rarely' (D) and 'Not at all' (E). The score for positive items were

5,4,3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3,4,5. The maximum score was 200 and minimum score was 40.

Distribution of items in the Draft Leadership Behaviour Scale is given in table 3.7

Table 3.7

Distribution of items in the draft Leadership Behaviour Scale

Sl.no.	Dimension	Item No.		Total Number of items
		Positive Polarity	Negative Polarity	
1.	Decisiveness	1,3,13,15	2,4,5,12,14,24	10
2.	Commitment	6,7,9,17,19,21	8,16,18,20	10
3.	Problem Solving	11,23,25,27,33	10,22,26,32,40	10
4.	Ability of mentoring	29,31,35,37,39	28,30,34,36,38	10
Total				40 items

A copy of the draft form of Leadership Behaviour Scale is given in Appendix C.

Pilot study

After pre-try-out, the scale was administered to a sample of 400 higher secondary school students in seven randomly selected schools in Thiruvananthapuram district. The sample was drawn randomly after giving the representations to gender. Locality of institution, Type of management, Type of school, and Stream of study. As per the instruction in the draft Leadership Behaviour scale, the students were required to respond on the five point scale as Always (A), Often (B), Sometimes (C), Rarely (D) and Not at all (E). For a positive item in the scale a score of '5' was given in the response 'Always (A)', '4' was given in the response 'Often (B)', '3' was given in the response 'Sometimes (C)', '2' was given in the response 'Rarely (D)' and '1' was given in the response 'Not at all (E)'. For negative items the scoring scheme was reversed.

Item Analysis

Item analysis of Leadership Behaviour Scale was done as per the instructions given by Cronbach (1951).

The procedure suggested by Cronbach (1951) was followed for item analysis. For item analysis, 400 response sheets which were completed in all respects were selected. The items were scored. Then the response sheets were arranged in the descending order based on the criterion score. One hundred response sheets having the highest criterion score were separated which constitute the upper tale. Similarly one hundred response sheets having the lowest scores constitute the lower tale.

To ensure the internal consistency of the Leadership behaviour Scale, Cronbach's Alpha was employed for item analysis. Cronbach Alpha is a statistical coefficient that measure the internal consistency of a set of items in the scale. It indicates how well the items correlate with one another and contribute to a single underlying construct. Initially the overall Cronbach Alpha for the Leadership scale was calculated as 0.866 which indicates good reliability of the scale. Then each item's correlation with the total test score is examined. Items with low correlation ($\alpha < 0.3$) may be weak or irrelevant to the construct being measured and hence should be revised or deleted. Thus items having item – total correlation coefficient below 0.3 were deleted and 28 items were selected.

The details of items selected for Leadership Behaviour Scale is given in Appendix C.

Final form of Leadership Behaviour Scale

The final form of the Leadership Behaviour Scale comprised of 28 items. To avoid the tendency to give a stereo-typed response, items of positive and negative polarity were evenly arranged.

Final form of Leadership Behaviour Scale comprised of twenty eight items under four dimensions. Each of the item had five responses; Always(A), Often(B), Sometimes(C), Rarely(D) and Not at all(E). The score for positive items were 5,4,3,2,1 and negative items were 1,2,3,4,5. The maximum score was 140 and minimum score was 28.

Table 3.8.

Distribution of items in the final form of Leadership Behaviour Scale

Sl.no	Dimensions	Serial number of Items		Total Number of items
		PositivePolarity	Negative Polarity	
1	Decisiveness	5,17	1,9,13	5
2	Commitment	2,6,10,14,21	18,23,25	8
3	Problem Solving	3	7,11,15,1	5
4	Ability of Mentoring	8,12,16,19,24,26	4,20,22,28	10
Total				28 items.

Tool Validation

To ensure that the tool is sound, it is important to establish its validity and reliability.

Validity of Leadership Behaviour Scale. Both content validity and concurrent validity of Leadership Behaviour Scale were established.

Content Validity. The content validity of the Leadership Behaviour Scale was established through a thorough evaluation of its theoretical foundation and relevance to existing literature. A panel of experts systematically reviewed the domain specifications to ensure that the scale accurately measured key dimensions of leadership behaviour. The experts assessed the clarity, relevance, and representativeness of the items to determine their adequacy in capturing the intended construct. Based on their

evaluations, necessary refinements were made to enhance the precision and applicability of the scale, thereby ensuring its content validity

Concurrent Validity. The concurrent validity of the scale was established by correlating the scores of the present scale with external criterion scores of another Leadership Behaviour Scale (Mitra and Banerjee 2021). Both the scales were administered on a sample of hundred higher secondary students and coefficient of correlation was found out. The validity coefficient thus obtained was 0.724.

Reliability of Leadership Behaviour Scale. Reliability of Leadership Behaviour scale was established by using Test-retest method. Test-retest method was done by administering the scale twice with a time interval of three weeks to a sample of one hundred higher secondary students. The reliability co-efficient was found to be 0.84 suggesting that the scale is highly reliable to measure Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This value showed that Leadership Behaviour is a reliable tool, since the obtained reliability coefficient is acceptable for a reliable tool, (Cohen, et.al., 2007). The reliability coefficient of Leadership Behaviour scale is given in table 3.9.

Table 3.9.

Test-retest reliability co-efficient of Leadership behaviour scale.

Variable	Reliability Coefficient
Leadership behaviour	0.84

The tool used for the final study consists of 28 items and a general data sheet to assess the Leadership behaviour of higher secondary students.

A copy of the final Leadership Behaviour scale, the Response sheet, Scoring key, Scoring manual and percentile norms are given in Appendix C.

Population

The population of study consisted of all higher secondary students studying in classes XI and XII in Government, Aided and Self financing schools in Kerala state during the academic year 2022 - 2023. According to the performance and statistical information provided by the department of Higher Secondary Education, Government of Kerala, the total number of higher secondary students (XI and XII) across the state of Kerala is 7,64,688.

Sample selected for the study

Higher secondary students from schools in the southern, northern, and central parts of Kerala were included to obtain a representative cross-section of the state. Stratified sampling technique was employed to draw the sample, as it ensures a representative picture of the entire population. This technique is appropriate when the population comprises subgroups of varying sizes, ensuring that the sample includes individuals from each stratum proportionately. Within each stratum or subgroup, the selection was done randomly, allowing each individual in the population an equal chance to be part of the sample—as nearly as possible (Garrett, 2004). The data collection procedure was carried out as follows.

Initially, the state of Kerala was divided into three zones—South, Central, and North. From these three zones, one district was randomly selected: Thiruvananthapuram from the South zone, Ernakulam from the Central zone, and Wayanad from the North zone. From each selected district, schools were chosen at random. Specifically, 10 schools were selected from Thiruvananthapuram, 10 from Ernakulam, and 7 from Wayanad, resulting in a total of 27 schools selected for the study. Due representation was given to gender, locality, type of school, type of management, stream of study, and parental occupation. The data were collected from a

total sample of 1080 Higher Secondary students across the three selected districts of Kerala.

The scrutiny of the response sheets indicated that a few of them were incomplete. Also, in some response sheets, more than one alternative was found marked, making it impossible to identify the response chosen by the students. In the personal information schedule, some items were found unanswered in some response sheets. All these resulted in the rejection of 30 response sheets from the initial sample thus reducing the final sample size to 1050. The details of the stratification of the total sample (1050) are presented in table 3.10. The list of schools selected for the study is provided in Appendix F.

Table 3.10

Details of the final sample collected

Background variables	Background characteristics	Count	Percent
Gender	Male	402	38.29
	Female	648	61.71
Locale of the school	Rural	654	62.29
	Urban	396	37.71
Type of School	Co-Education	821	78.19
	Girls	183	17.43
	Boys	46	4.38
Type of management	Government	717	68.29
	Aided	298	28.38
	Self-financing	35	3.33
Stream of study	Science	483	46.00
	Commerce	321	30.57
	Humanities	246	23.43
Occupation of Father	Government employee	165	15.71
	Private sector	138	13.14
	Business	198	18.86
	Casual Labourer	269	25.62
	Others	280	26.66
Occupation of Mother	Government employee	113	10.76
	Private sector	75	7.14
	Business	68	6.48
	Home maker	409	38.95
	Others	385	36.67

Procedure for Data Collection

For administration of the tools, the investigator visited different higher secondary schools in the districts of Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam and Wayanad. The investigator got permission from the Heads of higher secondary schools selected for the study. Before administering the tools, the investigator explained the purpose of the study to the students. Three tools namely, Interpersonal Intelligence Scale, Civic Consciousness Scale, Leadership Behaviour Scale and the Personal Information Schedule were used for the data collection. At first the personal information schedule, was given to the students to collect the demographic details. Then the tools were administered in the order, Interpersonal Intelligence Scale, Civic Consciousness Scale, and Leadership Behaviour Scale respectively. All the tools were self-administered ones. Although instructions for filling the scales were clearly given in each tool, some general instructions were given to the subjects. The subjects were requested not to skip any item. At the end of completion of each scale, the subjects were asked to check for omissions, if any. A cordial atmosphere was maintained during the tool administration. Though the time limit stipulated for each scale, it was not strictly adhered to. But majority of students completed the tools in the prescribed time.

Scoring and Consolidation of Data

The data collected were scored systematically using scoring keys. The collected response sheets were scrutinized for any faulty responses or incompleteness. If any of the response sheet was found incomplete or making more than one response for the same item, the set of response sheets belonging to that particular individual was not taken into consideration for analysis. Interpersonal Intelligence scale, Civic Consciousness scale and Leadership Behaviour scale were scored using the scoring key

prepared by the investigator. The data was consolidated by entering the data in the MS-Excel spread sheet for the statistical analysis.

Statistical Techniques Used

The main statistical techniques employed for the present study are described as follows

Preliminary Analysis

For the preliminary analysis of the data collected, the important statistical constants computed for the predictor and criterion variables were Arithmetic mean, Standard deviation for the total sample.

The data collected were classified into three groups high level, moderate level and low level. For this mean and SD of the scores were calculated.

To find the level of Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour, of higher secondary students the investigator employed the following procedure.

- | | | |
|----------------|---|--------------------------------------------------------|
| High level | - | (Mean+1 σ) and above |
| Moderate level | - | (Mean+1 σ and Mean-1 σ) scores between |
| Low level | - | (Mean-1 σ) and below. |

Major Analysis

The data collected for the present investigation were analyzed using the following statistical techniques: Test of significance of difference between means for large samples (t test), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by multiple comparison of Scheffe's test, Pearson product moment method of correlation (Pearson r), and Step wise regression analysis. They are explained below

t-test. The t-test or test of significance of the difference between means for large independent sample is used to compare the means between any groups on any of the

variables (Garrett, 2004). This test is used to find the significant level of difference between two groups of populations.

In the study, level of significance is fixed on 0.05 level.

ANOVA (F- test). ANOVA is used to test the differences among the means of the samples by examining the amount of variation within each of the samples relative to the amount of variation between the samples (Kothari, 2004).

In the study, F value is interpreted in terms of P value.

Multiple Comparisons Using Scheffe's Method. This test was used for post hoc analysis. A significant F obtained as the result of ANOVA, does not indicate which of the three groups differ among themselves. In such cases, the comparison of the differences between means for any two groups is done during Scheffe's procedure (Scheffe's.1957).

The Pearson Product Moment Method of Correlation. The Pearson Product-moment method of correlation was used to find out the correlations among Interpersonal intelligence, Civic consciousness and Leadership behaviour. (Garret, 2004). The following statistical procedure is used in interpreting r Verbal interpretation of correlation is done as Garret, (2004)

r from 0.00 to + 0.20 denotes indifferent or negligible relationship.

r from + 0.20 to + 0.40 denotes low correlation present but slight.

r from + 0.40 to + 0.70 denotes substantial or marked relationship.

r from + 0.70 to + 1.00 denotes high to very high relationship.

Step-wise Regression Analysis. Step wise regression analysis is the statistical technique to select the set of variables that best predict the criterion variable and that eliminates superfluous predictor variables (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2013).

In regression analysis, the predictor variables are entered one by one on the basis of the size of contribution of each variable in predicting the criterion variable. Hence, as the first step, predictor variable having the highest correlation with the criterion variable is entered. Then the variable having the next highest correlation is entered second and so on. Preceding like this a stage comes that, further entering of variables will not make significant change either in the percentage variance or in R. It is an indication that the variable entered last and the remaining variables are not significant predictors of the criterion variable.

Multiple regression equations were derived to predict Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary school students by using the two predictor variables Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. The contribution of each predictor variable of Leadership Behaviour also can be found out. The regression equation which expresses the relationship between criterion variable and the two predictor variables (X_1 and X_2) in the score form is given by

$$Y = B_2X_2 + B_1X_1 + K \text{ (Constant).}$$

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Preliminary Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

Percentage Wise Analysis

Major Analysis

Differential Analysis

Correlation Analysis

Multiple Regression Analysis

The present study as stated earlier, attempts to find out the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students in relation to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are the predictor variables and Leadership Behaviour is the criterion variable in this study. Demographic variables are gender, locality of institution, type of school, type of school management, stream of study and parental occupation.

Analysis was mainly carried out in two phases: Preliminary analysis and Major analysis. Preliminary analysis gives the descriptive statistics to know the pattern of the distribution of scores and the level of Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. Major analysis elaborates the significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour based on the background variables selected, correlation among the variables under study and step-wise regression analysis.

To test the null hypotheses of the present study, the data collected from 1050 higher secondary students was subjected to statistical analysis.

Null Hypotheses Formulated

Null hypothesis 1

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligences of higher secondary students with regard to a) Gender b) Locality c) Type of School d) Type of Management e) Stream of education and f) Parental occupation.

Null hypothesis 2

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to a) Gender b) Locality c) Type of School d) Type of Management e) Stream of education and f) Parental occupation.

Null hypothesis 3

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to a) Gender b) Locality c) Type of School d) Type of Management e) Stream of education and f) Parental occupation.

Null hypothesis 4

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students.

Null hypothesis 5

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary students.

Null hypothesis 6

There exists no significant correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and sub samples of higher secondary students.

Null hypothesis 7

There exists no significant correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and sub samples of higher secondary students.

Null hypothesis 8

Combined and individual contributions of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are not significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary analysis was conducted to examine the distribution of scores in Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour.

Descriptive Statistics

Before starting up with the major statistical analysis, the investigator studied the nature of distribution of variables in the study by estimating the major statistical constants like mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for the total sample of higher secondary students (N=1050). Results are presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Basic statistical constants of the distribution of scores of Interpersonal Intelligence for the total sample (N=1050) of higher secondary students.

Variables	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interpersonal Intelligence	1050	127.20	124.00	111.00	17.46	0.51	-0.57

As the measures of central tendency (Mean, Median and Mode) cluster around nearer scores, it can be seen that the distribution of scores of Interpersonal Intelligence for the total sample is nearly normal. The indices of skewness(0.51) and kurtosis(-0.57) for the scores of Interpersonal Intelligence suggests that the distribution is a nearly normal one.

Figure 4.1

Normal probability curve - Interpersonal Intelligence

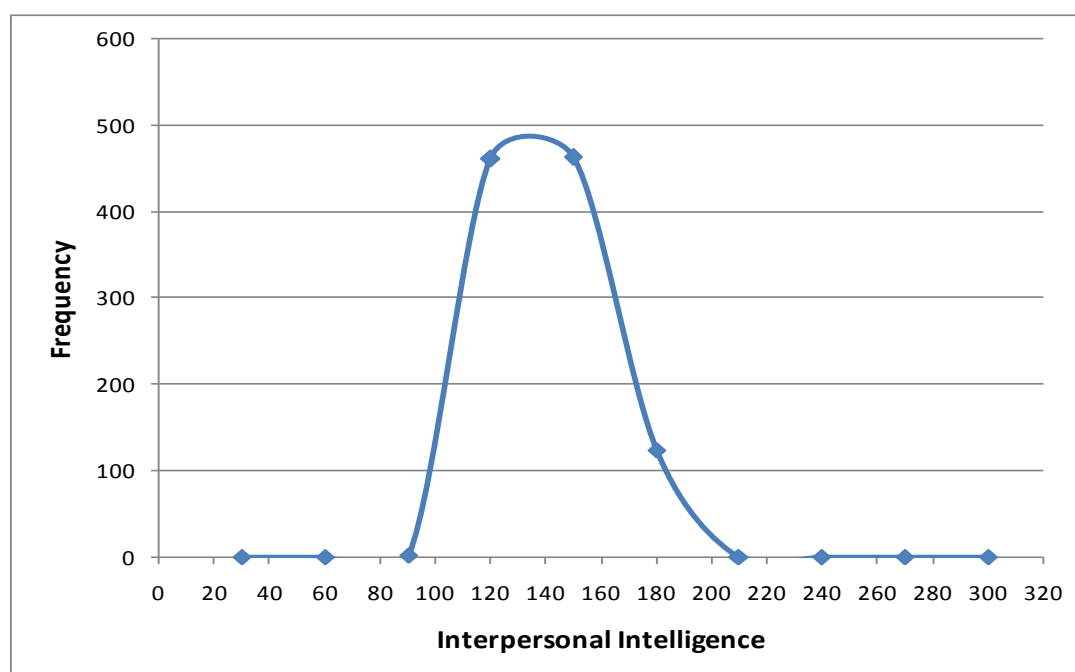


Table 4.2.

Basic statistical constants of the distribution of scores of Civic Consciousness for the total sample (N=1050) of higher secondary students.

Variables	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Civic Consciousness	1050	81.77	82.00	73.00	9.21	0.05	-0.74

As the measures of central tendency (Mean, Median and Mode) cluster around nearer scores, it can be seen that the distribution of scores of Civic Consciousness for the total sample is nearly normal. The indices of skewness(0.05) and kurtosis(-0.74) for the scores of Civic Consciousness suggests that the distribution is a nearly normal one.

Figure 4.2

Normal probability curve - Civic Consciousness

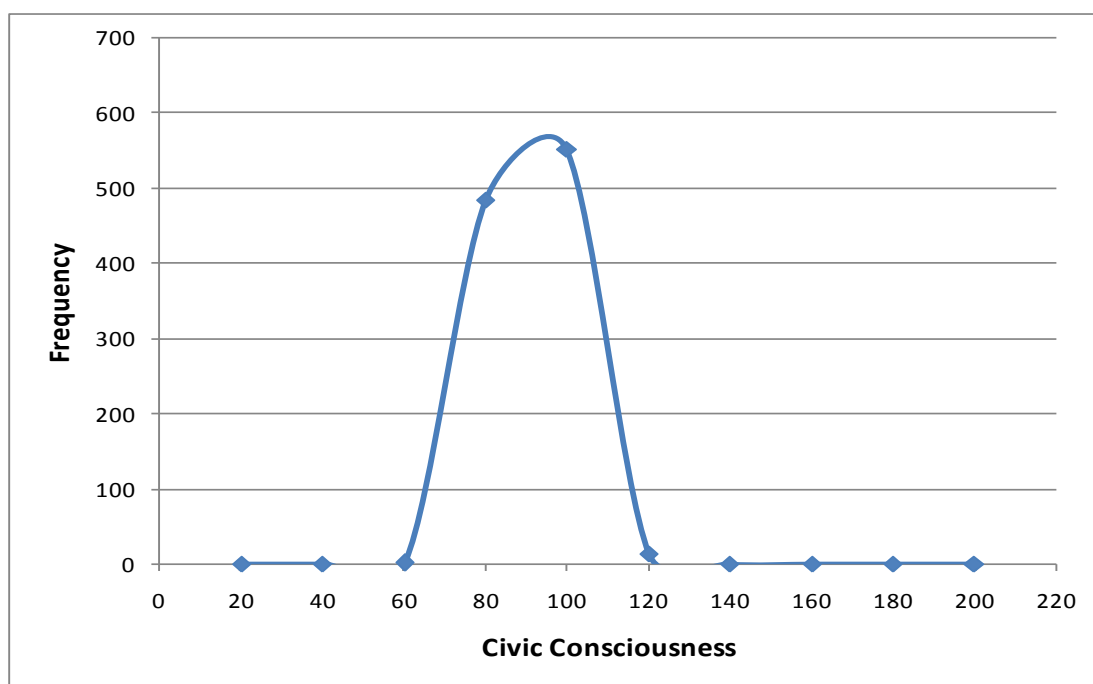


Table 4.3.

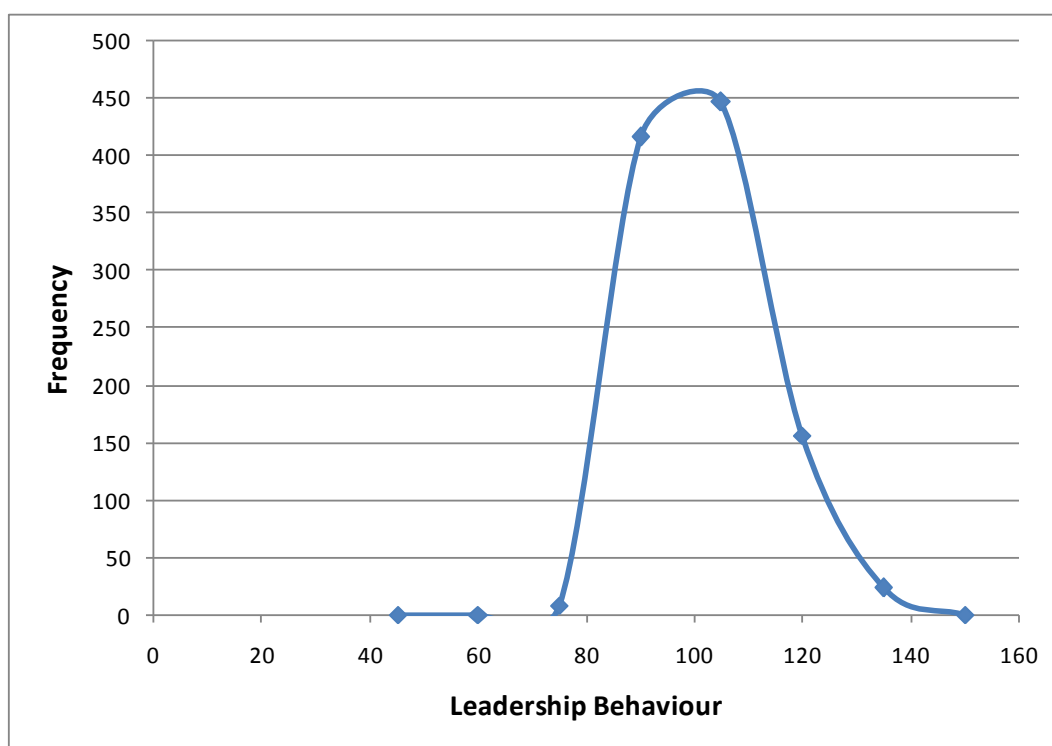
Basic statistical constants of the distribution of scores of Leadership Behaviour for the total sample (N=1050) of higher secondary students.

Variables	N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Leadership Behaviour	1050	94.93	94.00	83.00	11.12	0.61	0.06

As the measures of central tendency (Mean, Median and Mode) cluster around nearer scores, it can be seen that the distribution of scores of Leadership Behaviour for the total sample is nearly normal. The indices of skewness(0.61) and kurtosis(0.06) for the scores of Leadership Behaviour suggests that the distribution is a nearly normal one.

Figure 4.3

Normal probability curve - Leadership Behaviour



Percentage wise analysis

Levels of occurrence of a particular variable in a sample is found out to know the degree to which that particular variable occurs among the sample. In this study, three levels namely high, moderate and low are considered. This gives details about how much percentage of sample belong to high group, how much percentage of sample belong to moderate group and how much percentage of sample belong to low group.

The percentage of higher secondary students belonging to different levels (high, moderate and low) of Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour is presented in this section.

The total sample was divided into three groups namely, high, moderate and low based on their scores in Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour. Assuming a normal distribution of scores, the conventional procedure of using sigma distances was used for classifying sample into groups. Considering the baseline of the normal curve representing the distribution extending from -3σ to $+3\sigma$ higher secondary students whose scores fall between $M+\sigma$ and $M-\sigma$ were classified as 'Moderate group', higher secondary students whose scores were below $M-\sigma$ were classified as 'Low group', and higher secondary students whose scores were above $M+\sigma$ were classified as 'High group'.

Percentage of Higher Secondary Students under three levels of Interpersonal Intelligence.

For the distribution of Interpersonal Intelligence scores, arithmetic mean was 127.2 and standard deviation was 17.46. Therefore, higher secondary students whose Interpersonal Intelligence scores were 145 and above (rounded value of $M+\sigma$) were considered as 'high Interpersonal Intelligence group', whose scores were less than 110 (rounded value of $M-\sigma$) were considered as 'low Interpersonal Intelligence group', and

the remaining who got scores in between 145 and 110 were considered as ‘moderate Interpersonal Intelligence group’. The data and results of the classification are shown in table 4.4 given below.

Table 4.4

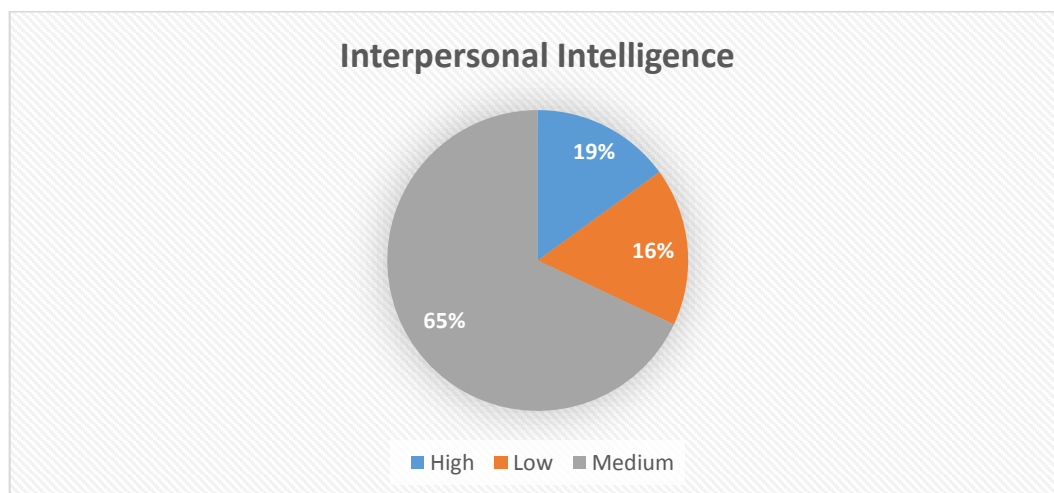
Percentage wise distribution of Higher Secondary Students under different levels of Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal Intelligence Groups		Count	Percentage
High	(above 145)	204	19
Moderate	(between 145 & 110)	681	65
Low	(below 110)	165	16

From the results in table 4.4, it is clear that majority of higher secondary students possess moderate level of Interpersonal Intelligence (65%). This result is in agreement with the findings of Parker et al.(2000), Bar-on and Parker (2000) and Nair and Rao(2016) which indicated that majority of higher secondary students had moderate level of Interpersonal Intelligence. Graphical representation of the percentage of Interpersonal Intelligence is given in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.4

Graphical representation of the levels of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students.



Percentage of Higher Secondary Students under three levels of Civic Consciousness.

For the distribution of Civic Consciousness scores, arithmetic mean was 81.77 and standard deviation was 9.21. Therefore, higher secondary students whose Civic Consciousness scores are 91 and above (rounded value of $M+\sigma$) were considered as ‘high Civic Consciousness group’, whose scores are less than 73 (rounded value of $M-\sigma$) were considered as ‘low Civic Consciousness group’, and the remaining who got scores in between 91 and 73 were considered as ‘moderate Civic Consciousness group’. The data and results of the classification are shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5

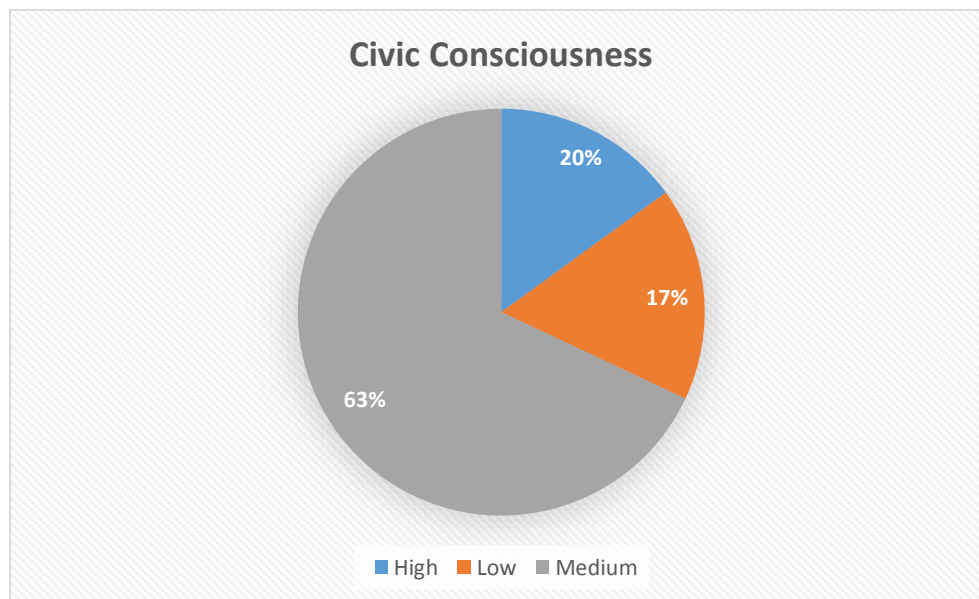
Percentage wise distribution of higher secondary students under different levels of Civic Consciousness.

Civic Consciousness	Count	Percentage
High (Above 91)	210	20
Moderate (between 91 and 73)	663	63
Low (Below 73)	177	17

From the results in table 4.5, it is clear that majority of higher secondary students possess moderate level of Civic Consciousness (63%). This result is in agreement with the findings of Torney – Purta et al. (2001), Kahne and Sporte (2008), which indicated that majority of higher secondary students had moderate level of Civic Consciousness. Graphical representation of the percentage of Civic Consciousness is given in figure 4.2.

Figure 4.5

Graphical representation of the levels of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.



Percentage of Higher Secondary Students under three levels of Leadership Behaviour

For the distribution of Leadership Behaviour scores, arithmetic mean was 94.93 and standard deviation was 11.12. Therefore, higher secondary students whose Leadership Behaviour scores were 106 and above (rounded value of $M+\sigma$) were considered as 'high Leadership Behaviour group', whose scores were less than 84 (rounded value of $M-\sigma$) were considered as 'low Leadership Behaviour group', and the remaining who got scores in between 106 and 84 were considered as 'moderate Leadership Behaviour group'. The data and results of the classification are shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Percentage wise distribution of higher secondary students under different levels of Leadership Behaviour.

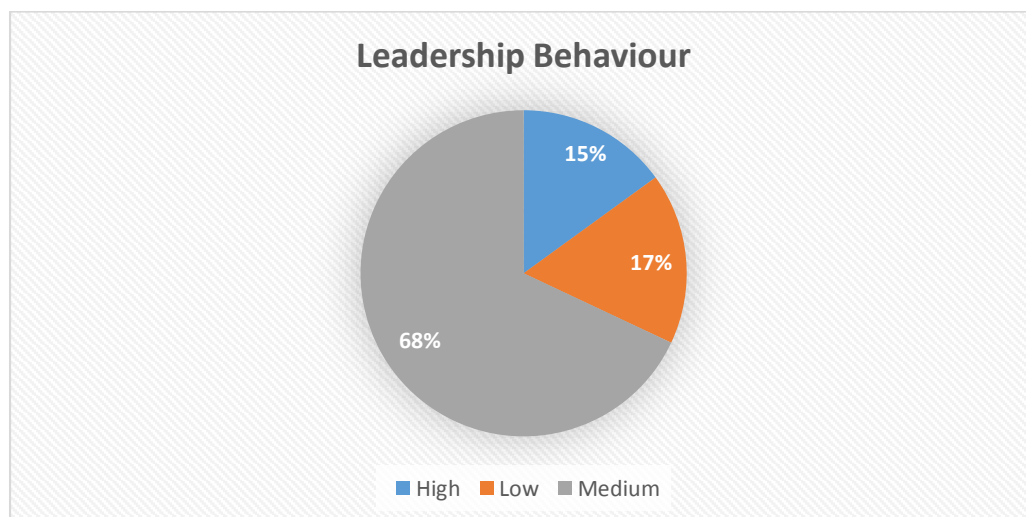
Leadership Behaviour		Count	Percentage
High	(Above 106)	157	15
Moderate	(Between 106 to 84)	716	68
Low	(Below 84)	177	17

From the results in table 4.6, it is clear that majority of higher secondary school students possess moderate level of Leadership Behaviour (68%). This result is in agreement with the findings of Murphy and Johnson (2011), which indicated that majority of higher secondary students had moderate level of Leadership Behaviour. Graphical representation of the percentage of Leadership Behaviour is given in figure 4.6.

Graphical representation of the levels of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Figure 4.6

Graphical representation of the levels of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.



Major Analysis

Differential Analysis

Significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students.

To ascertain whether there exists any significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students, with reference to the background variables selected, *t* test and ANOVA were employed. Level of significance for testing of hypothesis was fixed at 0.05 level.

Null hypothesis 1. There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to a) Gender, b) Locality, (c) Type of school, (d) Type of management, (e) Stream of education and (f) Parental occupation.

Gender wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students

Two groups of higher secondary students namely male and female have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of male and female Higher Secondary Students.

Category	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Male	402	121.45	15.15	9.029*	0.000
Female	648	130.76	17.86		

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.5 shows that, the calculated *t* value (*t*-9.029; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-1(a), 'there exists no significant

difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to gender' is not accepted. It shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of male and female higher secondary students.

This result is in tune with the findings of Mayer and Salovey (1997), Petrides and Furnham (2000), Premavathi (2012), Kasirajan. and Kanakaraj (2013), Monica (2014) which indicates gender wise significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students.

This result is in contradiction with the findings of Kumar and Singh (2016), Reddy and Rao (2017), Sharma and Kumar (2019), Nair and Menon (2020) which indicates no gender wise differences in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students. This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Since the mean Interpersonal Intelligence scores of female students is greater than that of male students, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that female students possess high Interpersonal Intelligence compared to the male students.

This result is in agreement with the result of Gupta (2018) and Sharma (2022).

Locality wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students

Two groups of higher secondary students namely rural and urban have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in rural and urban schools.

Locale of the School	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Rural	654	126.66	16.89	1.251*	0.211
Urban	396	128.08	18.36		

Note : * indicates not significant.

Results in table 4.8 shows that, the calculated t value ($t=1.251$; $P>0.05$) is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-1 (b), “there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to locality’ is accepted. No significant difference existed in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of rural and urban higher secondary students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Shezad and Mahmood (2013), Monica (2014), Raj and Menon (2016), Srinivas and Prasad (2017), Rahim et al. (2018), Mehta and Kumar (2019), Patel and Sharma(2019) which indicates that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of Rural and Urban students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Khan and Sharma (2017), Srinivas and Nair (2019), Rao et al (2020) and Patel and Joshy (2020). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Type of School wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Co- education, Girls, and Boys schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to type of school.

Type of School	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Co-Education	126.48	17.42	Between Group	2160.65	2	1080.33		
Girls	130.26	18.07	Within Group	317626.93	1047	303.37	3.561*	0.029
Boys	127.87	14.5	Total	319787.58	1049			

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.9 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=3.561$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-1(c), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in different type of the school’ is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in Co-education, Girls and Boys schools.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Bhattacharya and Sengupta (2019), Kaur and Gill (2017), Singh and Sharma (2018), Sexena and Jain (2018), Gupta and Sharma (2016). This result is in contradiction with the findings of Gupta (2015), Ramesh and Iyer (2016) and Thomas (2017). The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Interpersonal Intelligence. Hence Scheffe’s multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table 4.10*Result of Scheffe's Test*

Type of School	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Co-Education (A)	821	A Vs B	0.030	Sig. at 0.05 level
Girls (B)	183	B Vs C	0.708	Not significant
Boys (C)	46	A Vs C	0.870	Not significant

The result in table 4.10 shows that there existed significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in Co-Education and Girls only schools. The other pairs do not differ in their Interpersonal Intelligence.

Since the mean Interpersonal Intelligence scores of higher secondary students in Girls only school is greater than that of students in Co-education and Boys school and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Girls only school students possess high Interpersonal Intelligence compared to the Co-education and Boys school students.

The result is in agreement with the findings of Sharma and Kumar(2020) and Bhattacharya and Sen Gupta(2019).

Type of School Management wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Government, Aided and Self financing higher secondary schools have been subjected for study as per analysis given in table 4.11.

Table 4.11.

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to type of management.

Type of Management	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government	127.50	17.58	Between Group	1233.1	2	616.57		
Aided	127.13	17.58	Within Group	318554.4	1047	304.25	2.026*	0.132
Self-financing	121.43	12.75	Total	319787.6	1049			

Note : * indicates not significant.

Results in table 4.11 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=2.026$; $P>0.05$) is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-1(d), ‘there exists no significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in different type of management schools’ is accepted. No significant difference existed in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in Government, Aided and Self financing higher secondary schools.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Nair and Rao (2016), Kumar and Sharma (2017), Gupta (2018) which indicates that there is no significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in different types of management. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Sharma and Verma (2016), Raju and Rao (2017). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Stream of Education wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce and Humanities streams have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12.

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students based on stream of study.

Stream of study	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Science	129.22	17.77	Between Group	4504.92	2	2252.46		
Commerce	124.40	17.58	Within Group	315282.66	1047	301.13	7.480*	0.005
Humanities	126.87	16.18	Total	319787.58	1049			

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.12 that the calculated F value ($F=7.480$); $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 1 (e), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to their ‘stream of study’ is not accepted. It shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce and Humanities streams.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Banerjee and Mukherjee (2016), Sharma and Singh (2017), Desai and Patel (2018), Verma and Singh (2019), Patel and Sharma (2019) which indicates that there is significant difference among Science, Commerce and Humanities stream students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Gupta (2015), Ramesh and Iyer (2016) and Thomas (2017). This

difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Interpersonal Intelligence. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table 4.13

Result of Sheffe's Test

Stream of study	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Science (A) 821	483	A Vs B	0.001	Sig. at 0.05 level
Commerce (B)	321	B Vs C	0.244	NS
Humanities (C)	246	A Vs C	0.225	NS

The result in table 4.13 shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students studying in Science and Commerce streams. The other pairs do not differ in their Interpersonal Intelligence.

Since the mean Interpersonal Intelligence scores of Science stream students is greater than that of Commerce and Humanities stream students, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Science stream students possess high Interpersonal Intelligence compared to the Commerce and Humanities stream students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Singh and Sharma (2015) and Kumar (2017).

Parental occupation wise comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students

Comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence based on occupation of father.

Five groups of higher secondary students classified, based on the fathers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.14.

Table 4.14

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation.

Fathers' Occupation	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government Employee	125.36	16.01	Between Group	3906.2	4	976.5384		
Private Sector	123.20	17.27	Within Group	315880.14	1043	302.86	3.224*	0.012
Business	129.09	17.74	Total	319786.29	1047			
Casual Labourer	127.92	16.84						
Others	128.22	18.52						

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.14 that the calculated F value ($F=3.224$; $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 1.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation' is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on their fathers' occupation.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Narang and Mishra (2017), Kumar and Rao (2018), Sharma and Gupta (2019) which indicates that there is significant difference with Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students

based on their father's occupation. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Singh (2016), Patel and Joshi (2017), Thomas and Ramesh (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Interpersonal Intelligence, hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table: 4.15

Result of Scheffe's Test

Fathers' Occupation	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Government employee (A)	165	A Vs B	0.885	NS
Private Sector (B)	138	B Vs C	0.050	Sig. at 0.05 level
Business (C)	198	A Vs C	0.389	
Casual Labourer (D)	269	A Vs D	0.697	NS
Others (E)	278	B Vs D	0.153	NS
		C Vs D	0.972	NS
		A Vs E	0.593	NS
		B Vs E	0.105	NS
		C Vs E	0.990	NS
		D Vs E	1.000	NS

It is evident from table 4.15 that, there existed a significant difference based on the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students whose fathers' are Private employees and Business men. The other pairs do not differ in their Interpersonal Intelligence.

Comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence based on occupation of mother.

Five groups of higher secondary students classified based on the mothers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.16.

Table 4.16

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students with regard to mothers' occupation.

Mothers' Occupation	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government Employee	128.93	16.5	Between Group	4275.525	4	1068.88		
Private Sector	127.55	19.4	Within Group	315512.06	1045	301.93	3.540*	0.01
131.91	20.2	Total	319787.58	1049				Business
Home maker	124.96	17.18						
Others	128.17	16.88						

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.16 that the calculated F value ($F = 3.540$; $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 1.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation is not accepted.

This result is in tune with the findings of Singh and Kaur (2017), Gupta and Sharma (2018), Patel (2019) which indicates that there is significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence based on their mothers' occupation. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Ramesh and Thomas (2016), Mehta and Joshy (2017) and Kumar and Iyer (2018) which indicates that there is no significant difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on their mothers' occupation. This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Interpersonal Intelligence. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table 4.17

Result of Scheffe's Test

Mothers' Occupation	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Government employee(A)	113	A Vs B	0.991	NS
Private sector (B)	75	B Vs C	0.691	NS
Business (C)	68	A Vs C	0.870	NS
Home Maker (D)	409	A Vs D	0.329	NS
Others (E)	385	B Vs D	0.843	NS
		C Vs D	0.050	Sig. at 0.05 level
		A Vs E	0.997	
		B Vs E	0.999	
		C Vs E	0.613	
		D Vs E	0.150	

It is evident from table 4.17 that, there existed a significant difference based on the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students whose mother's are Business women and Home makers. The other pairs do not differ in their Interpersonal Intelligence.

Significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students

Level of significance for testing of hypothesis was fixed at 0.05 level. To ascertain whether there exists any significant difference in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students, with reference to the background variables selected, *t* test and ANOVA were employed.

Null Hypothesis-2

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to a) Gender, b) Locality, (c) Type of school, (d) Type of management, (e) Stream of education and (f) Parental occupation.

Gender wise comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students

Two groups of higher secondary students namely male and female have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.18.

Table 4.18

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of male and female higher secondary students.

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Male	402	79.07	9.03	7.676*	0.000
Female	648	83.45	8.92		

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.18 shows that, the calculated t value ($t= 7.676$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-2(a), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to gender’ is not accepted. It shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of male and female higher secondary students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Ghosh (2014), Sarkar and Biswas (2016), Bhat and Farooq (2019) which indicates gender wise significant difference in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Kaur and Kaur (2015), Sharma (2017), Singh and Kaur (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Since the mean Civic Consciousness scores of female students is greater than that of male students, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that female students possess high Civic Consciousness compared to the male students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Raj and Singh (2023).

Locality of institution wise comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students.

Two groups of higher secondary students studying in rural and urban schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.19.

Table 4.19.

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students studying in rural and urban schools.

Locale of the School	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Rural	654	81.55	9.09	0.998*	0.318
Urban	396	82.14	9.40		

Note: * indicates not significant.

Results in table 4.19 shows that, the calculated t value ($t=0.998$; $P>0.01$) is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-2(b), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to locality' is accepted. No significant difference is existed in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of Rural and Urban higher secondary students.

This result is in tune with the findings of Patil and Patil (2016), Deshmukh and Shah (2018), Rao and Sharma (2020) which indicates that there is no significant differences in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of rural and urban higher secondary school students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Singh

and Kumar (2017), Iyer and Jain(2019), Chaoudhary and Verma (2021). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Type of school wise comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Co- education, Girls and Boys higher secondary schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.20.

Table 4.20

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to type of school.

Type of School	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Co-Education	81.69	9.02	Between Group	306.40	2	153.20		
Girls	82.62	10.08	Within Group	88582.19	1047	84.61	1.811*	0.164
Boys	79.85	8.56	Total	88888.60	1049			

Note: * indicates not significant.

Results in table 4.20 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=1.811$; $P>0.05$) is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-2(c), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to type of school’ is accepted. No significant difference is existed in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in Coeducation, Girls and Boys higher Secondary Schools.

This result is in tune with the findings of Patel and Desai (2016), Singh and Kaur (2017), Iyer and Sinha (2021) and contradiction with Reddy and Rao(2018), Sharma and Verma (2019) and Metha and Gupta (2020).

Type of school management wise comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Government, Aided and Self financing higher secondary schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.21.

Table 4.21

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students with regard to type of school management.

Type of school Management	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Remark
Government	82.37	9.37	Between Group	832.7	2	416.37			
Aided	80.61	8.7	Within Group	88055.9	1047	84.10	4.951	0.007	Sig.at 0.05 level
Self-financing	79.51	8.91	Total	88888.6	1049				

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.21 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=4.951$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-2(d), there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to type of school management' is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in Government, Aided and Self-financing schools.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Gupta and Sharma (2016), Boss and Dutta (2017), Raju and Suresh (2018), Singh and Kumar (2019). This result is in

contradiction with the findings of Bansal and Nair (2015), Roy and Chakrabarthi (2016), Patel and Mahta (2020).

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Civic Consciousness. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis is given in table 4.22..

Table 4.22

Result of Scheffe's test

Type of school	N	Pair	p(Scheffe)	Remark
Government (A)	717	AVs B	0.021	Sig. at 0.05 level
Aided (B)	298	BVs C	0.798	NS
Self financing (C)	35	AVs C	0.198	NS

It is evident from table 4.22 that, there existed a significant difference in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students in Government and Aided schools. The other pairs do not differ in their Civic Consciousness.

Since the mean Civic Consciousness scores of higher secondary students in government school is greater than that of higher secondary students in Aided and self financing schools, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Government school students possess higher Civic Consciousness compared to Aided and Self financing school students.

This study is in agreement with the findings of Rao and Sharma (2019).

Comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students based on Stream of education.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Science, commerce and Humanities streams have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23.

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students based on stream of study.

Stream of study	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Science	81.91	8.86	Between Group	44.81	2	22.41		
Commerce	81.46	9.46	Within Group	88843.79	1047	84.86	0.264*	0.768
Humanities	81.91	9.55	Total	88888.60	1049			

Note: * indicates not significant.

It is evident from table 4.23 that the calculated F value (F-0.264); $p > 0.05$) is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 1 (e), ‘there exists no significant Difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to stream of study’ is accepted. No significant difference existed in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce and Humanities stream.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Nair (2015), Desai and Patel (2016), Reddy and Balasubramaniam (2020) which indicates that there is no significant difference in the Civic Consciousness of Science, Commerce and Humanities stream students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Gupta and Kumar (2017), Sharma (2018) and Verma and Singh (2019). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Comparison of Civic Consciousness of Higher Secondary Students based on Parental occupation.

Comparison of Civic Consciousness based on Occupation of Father.

Five groups of higher secondary students classified based on the fathers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.24.

Table 4.24

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation.

Fathers' Occupation	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government Employee	82.48	8.19	Between Group	1520.1	4	380.0179		
Private Sector	78.80	9.38	Within Group	87060.928	1043	83.47	4.553 *	0.001
Business	81.49	9.18	Total	88580.999	1047			
Casual Labourer	82.19	9.62						
Others	82.53	9.03						

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.24 that, the calculated F value ($F=4.553$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 2.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation' is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on their fathers' occupations.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Chandra and Sharma (2018) which indicates that there is significant difference in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on their fathers' occupation. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Patel and Rao (2019).

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Civic Consciousness, hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.25.

Table: 4.25

Result of Scheffe's Test

Fathers' Occupation	N	Pair	p(Scheffe)	Remark
Government employee (A)	165	A Vs B	0.016	Sig. at 0.05 level
Private sector (B)	138	B Vs C	0.134	NS
Business (C)	198	A Vs C	0.901	NS
Casual labourer (D)	269	A Vs D	0.999	NS
Others (E)	278	B Vs D	0.014	Sig. at 0.05 level
		C Vs D	0.955	NS
		A Vs E	1.000	NS
		B Vs E	0.004	Sig. at 0.05 level
		C Vs E	0.827	NS
		D Vs E	0.996	NS

It is evident from table 4.25 that, there existed a significant difference based on the means scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students whose fathers' are in Private employee and Casual labourers and Private employees and Others. The other pairs do not differ in their Civic Consciousness.

Comparison of Civic Consciousness based on Occupation of Mother.

Five groups of higher secondary school students classified based on the mothers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.26.

Table 4.26

Data and results of test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to mothers' occupation.

Mothers' Occupation	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p
Government Employee	82.77	8.54	Between Group	1322.5517	4	330.64	3.946	0.00
Private Sector	81.49	7.41	Within Group	87566.047	1045	83.80		
Business	81.57	8.28	Total	88888.599	1049			
Home maker	80.48	9.9						
Others	82.94	8.95						

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.26 that the calculated F value ($F = 3.946$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 2.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation' is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on their mothers' occupations.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Kaur (2017) and in contradiction with the findings of Singh (2020).

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Civic Consciousness. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.27.

Table 4.27*Result of Scheffe's Test*

Mothers' Occupation	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Government employee(A)	113	A Vs B	0.927	NS
Private sector (B)	75	B Vs C	1.000	NS
Business (C)	68	A Vs C	0.948	NS
Home Maker (D)	409	A Vs D	0.237	NS
Others (E)	385	B Vs D	0.942	NS
		C Vs D	0.935	NS
		A Vs E	1.000	NS
		A Vs E	0.813	NS
		B Vs E	0.862	NS
		C Vs E	0.007	Sig. at 0.05 level

It is evident from table 4.27 that, there existed significant difference based on mean scores of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students whose mothers' are in Private sector and Casual labourer and Private sector and Others. The other pairs do not differ in their Civic Consciousness.

Significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students

To ascertain whether there exists any significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with reference to the background variables selected, *t* test and ANOVA were employed. Level of significance for testing of hypotheses was fixed at 0.05 level.

Null hypothesis 3

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regards to a) Gender, b) Locality,

c) Type of school, d) Type of management, e) Stream of education and f) Parental occupation.

Gender wise comparison of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students

Two groups of higher secondary students namely male and female have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.28.

Table 4.28

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of male and female higher secondary students.

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Male	402	92.33	9.98	6.263	0.000
Female	648	96.54	11.50		

Note: * indicates significant at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.28 shows that, the calculated t value ($t= 6.263$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-3(a), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regards to gender’ is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of male and female higher secondary students.

This result is in tune with the findings of Simons and Paige (2018), Rani and Kumar (2019), which indicates gender wise significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Das and Mukherjee (2017, Patel and Singh (2020). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

Since the mean Leadership Behaviour scores of female students is greater than that of male students, and the difference for means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that female students possess high Leadership Behaviour compared to male students.

The result is in agreement with the findings of Kumar and Sharma(2016) and Rao and Mishra(2023).

Comparison of the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students with regards to Locality of Institution.

Two groups of higher secondary students namely rural and urban have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.29.

Table 4.29

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students studying in rural and urban schools.

Locality	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Rural	654	93.44	10.23	5.403	0.000
Urban	396	97.37	12.09		

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.29 shows that, the calculated t value ($t=5.403$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-3(b), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to locality’ is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of rural and urban higher secondary students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Singh and Kaur (2017), Patel and Sharma (2018) which also indicates locality wise significant differences in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Desai (2017), Nair (2020), Rao and Joshi (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc. Since the mean Leadership Behaviour scores of Urban students is greater than that of Rural students, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Urban students possess high Leadership behaviour compared to Rural students.

The result is in agreement with the findings of Singh and Patel (2022) and Reddy et al. (2021).

Type of school wise comparison of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Co- education, Girls, and Boys schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.30.

Table 4.30

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students based on type of school.

Type of School	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Co-Education	94.49	10.78	Between group	1408.10	2	704.05		
Girls	97.36	12.3	Within Group	128416.10	1047	122.65	5.740*	0.003
Boys	92.98	11.24	Total	129824.21	1049			

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level

Results in table 4.30 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=5.740$; $P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-3 (c), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to type of school’ is not accepted. There existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Co-education, Girls and Boys schools.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Sharma and Gupta (2018) and Kumar (2019) which indicates that there is significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in different types of school. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Mishra and Rao (2017) and Verma (2020).

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Leadership Behaviour. Hence Scheffe’s multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.31.

Table 4.31

Result of Scheffe’s Test

Type of school	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Co-Education (A)	821	A Vs B	0.007	Sig. at 0.05 level
Girls (B)	183	B Vs C	0.057	not significant
Boys (C)	46	A Vs C	0.667	not significant

The result in table 4.31 shows that there existed significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Co-education and Girls only schools. Other pairs of students do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Since the mean Leadership Behaviour scores of higher secondary students in Girls only school is greater than that of students in Co-education and boys school, and

the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Girls school students possess higher Leadership Behaviour compared to Co-education and Boys school students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Sharma and Verma (2021).

Type of School Management wise comparison of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Aecondary Atudents.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Government, Aided and Self financing schools have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.32.

Table 4.32

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students based on type of school management.

Type of Management	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government	95.01	10.93	Between Group	856.27	2	428.13		
Aided	95.30	11.6	Within Group	28967.94	1047	123.18	3.476*	0.031
Self-financing	90.11	10.09	Total	129824.21	1049			

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.32 shows that, the calculated F value ($F=3.476$; $P\leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis-3(d), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to type of management is not accepted. There existed significant

difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Government, aided and Self financing schools.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Sharma (2018), Nair and Menon (2018) and in contradiction with the findings of Desai (2017). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Leadership Behaviour . Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis is given in table 4.33.

Table 4.33.

Result of Scheffe's Test

Type of management	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Government (A)	717	A Vs B	0.931	NS
Aided (B)	298	B Vs C	0.033	Sig. at 0.05 level
Self financing (C)	35	A Vs C	0.039	Sig. at 0.05level

It is evident from table 4.33 that, there existed significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Aided and Self financing schools. The other pairs do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Since the mean Leadership Behaviour scores of Aided school students is greater than that of students in Government and Self-financing school, and the difference between means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that higher secondary students studying in Aided school possess higher Leadership Behaviour compared to Government and Self-financing school students.

Stream of education wise comparison of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students.

Three groups of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce and Humanities streams have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in Table 4.34.

Table : 4.34

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students based on stream of study.

Stream of Study	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Science	96.09	11.04	Between Group	1224.38	2	612.19		
Commerce	93.8	11.58	Within Group	128599.82	1047	122.83	4.984*	0.007
Humanities	94.11	10.48	Total	129824.21	1049			

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.34, the calculated F value ($F=4.984$; $p \leq 0.5$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 3 (e), ‘there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to their stream of study’ is not accepted. It shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce and Humanities streams.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Gupta and Singh (2016), Reddy and Rao (2017) and Patel (2018) which indicates that there is significant difference in the Leadership behaviour of higher secondary students studying in Science, Commerce

and Humanities streams. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Sharma and Desai (2019) and Jain (2020). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Leadership Behaviour. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.35.

Table 4. 35

Result of Scheffe's Test

Stream of study	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Science (A)	483	A Vs B	0.017	Sig. at 0.05 level
Commerce (B)	321	B Vs C	0.947	NS
Humanities (C)	246	A Vs C	0.075	NS

The result in table 4.35 shows that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of Higher secondary students studying in Science and Commerce streams. The other pairs do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Since the mean Leadership Behaviour scores of Science students is greater than that of Commerce and Humanities stream students, and the difference for means is statistically significant, it can be interpreted that Science stream students possess higher Leadership Behaviour compared to Commerce and Humanities stream students.

The result is in agreement with the findings of Mehta and Kaur (2018).

Parental occupation wise comparison of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students

Comparison of Leadership Behaviour based on Occupation of Father.

Five groups of higher secondary school students classified based on the fathers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.36.

Table 4.36

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation.

Fathers' Occupation	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Government Employee	94.58	11.11	Between Group	1986.77	4	496.69		
Private Sector	92.50	10.26	Within Group	127436.81	1043	122.18	4.065*	0.003
Business	95.03	11.36	Total	129423.58	1047			
Casual Labourer	94.29	9.99						
Others	96.86	12.11						

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.36 that the calculated F value ($F = 4.065$; $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level hence the null hypothesis 3.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupation' is not accepted. It indicated that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on their fathers' occupations.

This result is in tune with the findings of Singh (2017) and Rao and Reddy (2018) which indicates that there is significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour

of higher secondary students based on fathers' occupations. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Patel and Nair (2019).

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Leadership Behaviour. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.37.

Table: 4.37

Result of Scheffe's procedure

Fathers' Occupation	N	Pair	p(Scheffe)	Remark
Government Employee (A)	165	A Vs B	0.616	NS
Private Sector (B)	136	B Vs C	0.373	NS
Business (C)	198	A Vs C	0.997	NS
Casual Labourer (D)	269	A Vs D	0.999	NS
Others (E)	278	B Vs D	0.664	NS
		C Vs D	0.972	NS
		A Vs E	0.355	NS
		B Vs E	0.006	Sig. at 0.05 level

It is evident from table 4.37 that, there existed significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students whose fathers are in Private sector and Others. The other pairs do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Comparison of Leadership Behaviour based on Occupation of Mother.

Five groups of higher secondary students classified based on the mothers' occupation have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.38.

Table 4.38

Data and results of the test of significance of difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students with regard to mothers' occupation.

Mother	Mean	SD	Source	Sum	df	Mean	F	p
Government	95.79	11.05	Between group	3569	4	892.49		
Private sector	92.56	10.62	Within group	12625	1045	20.82	7.38*	
Business	99.85	11.98	Total	12982	1049			0.00
Home maker	93.35	10.31				7		
Others	95.94	11.55						

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.38 that the calculated F value ($F = 7.387$; $p \leq 0.01$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 3.(f), 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on mothers' occupation' is not accepted. It indicated that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on their mothers' occupations.

This result is in tune with the findings of Mehta (2016) and Kumar and Sharma (2018). This result is in contradiction with the findings of Raj and Thomas (2017). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Leadership Behaviour. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis given in table 4.39.

Table 4.39.*Result of Scheffe's Test*

Mothers' Occupation	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Government employee(A)	113	A Vs B	0.421	NS
Private Sector (B)	75	B Vs C	0.004	Sig. at 0.05 level
Business (C)	68	A Vs C	0.216	NS
Home Maker (D)	409	A Vs D	0.360	NS
Others (E)	385	B Vs D	0.988	NS
		C Vs D	0.000	Sig. at 0.05 level
		A Vs E	1.000	NS
		B Vs E	0.205	NS
		C Vs E	0.121	NS
		D Vs E	0.027	Sig. at 0.05 level

It is evident from table 4.39 that, there existed significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on their mothers' occupation in Private sector and Business, Business and Home maker and Home maker and Others. The other pairs do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Null hypothesis 4.

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students.

Three Interpersonal Intelligence group (low, average and high) of higher secondary students have been subjected for study as per the analysis given in table 4.40.

Table 4.40

Comparison of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on the levels of Interpersonal Intelligence.

Interpersonal Intelligence Group	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Low	90.64	8.24	Between Group	14130.90	2	7065.45		
Average	92.56	10.26	Within Group	115693.31	1047	110.50	63.941*	0.0
High	102.03	12.74	Total	129824.21	1049			

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.40 that the calculated F value ($F=63.941$), ($p \leq 0.05$) are significant at 0.05 level hence the null hypothesis 4, 'there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students' is not accepted. It indicated that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students.

This result is in agreement with the findings of Kumar and Singh (2015) and Patel and Pawar (2017), which also indicates that there is significant difference between Interpersonal Intelligence group (low, average and high) and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Mukherjee and Basu (2016) and Nair and Menon (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Interpersonal Intelligence. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table 4.41*Result of Scheffe's Test*

Interpersonal Intelligence group	N	Pair	p (Scheffe)	Remark
Low (A)	165	A Vs B	0.002	Sig. at 0.05 level
Average (B)	681	B Vs C	0.000	Sig. at 0.05 level
High (C)	204	A Vs C	0.000	Sig. at 0.05 level

It is evident from table 4.41 that, there existed significant difference between low and average, average and high and low and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students in their Leadership Behaviour.

Null hypothesis 5

There exists no significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary students.

Three Civic Consciousness group (low, average and high) of higher secondary students have been subjected for study as per the analysis in the table 4.42.

Table 4.42.

Comparison of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on levels of Civic Consciousness.

Civic Consciousness Group	Mean	SD	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Low	92.46	11.15	Between Group	6816.55	2	3408.28		
Average	94.01	10.38	Within Group	123007.65	1047	117.49	29.010*	0.000
High	99.9	11.93	Total	129824.21	1049			

Note : * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

It is evident from table 4.42 that the calculated F value (F=29.010); ($P \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. Hence the null hypothesis 6, 'there exist no significant difference in the mean scores in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary students is not accepted. It indicated that there existed significant difference in the mean scores of Interpersonal Intelligence of low, average and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary students.

This result is in tune with the findings of Kumar and Singh (2015) and Patel and Pawar (2017), which also indicates that there is significant difference between Civic Consciousness group and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Verma and Joshy (2016). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The result does not help to identify exactly the pairs of groups which differ significantly in their Civic Consciousness. Hence Scheffe's multiple comparison is used for further analysis.

Table 4.43.

Result of Scheffe's Test

Civic Consciousness Group	N	Pair	P (Scheffe) Squares	Remark
Low (A)	177	A Vs B	0.240	NS
Average(B)	663	B Vs C	0.000	Sig. at 0.05 level
High (C)	210	A Vs C	0.000	Sig. at 0.05 level

The result in table 4.43 shows that there existed significant difference between average and high and low and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary

students. The other pair low and average Civic Consciousness groups do not differ in their Leadership Behaviour.

Correlation Analysis

Correlation among the variables under study is analysed and discussed below.

Null hypothesis 6

There exists no significant correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and sub samples of higher secondary students.

Correlation between the variables of Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour was estimated using Pearson's Coefficient Correlation method. The data and result of correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students and correlation with regard to total sample and subsamples is presented in table 4.44.

Table 4.44

Correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and subsamples of higher secondary students.

Background Characteristics	Category	Pearson coefficient of correlation (r)	Shared variance (R)	P	Verbal Interpretation
Total sample		0.706*	49.84	0.000	Substantial
Gender	Male	0.681*	46.38	0.000	Substantial
	Female	0.702*	49.28	0.000	Substantial
Locale of the school	Rural	0.769*	59.14	0.000	Substantial
	Urban	0.623*	38.81	0.000	Substantial
Type of School	Co-education	0.693*	48.02	0.000	Substantial
	Girls	0.715*	51.12	0.000	Substantial
	Boys	0.846*	71.57	0.000	Substantial
Type of Management	Government	0.691*	47.75	0.000	Substantial
	Aided	0.722*	52.13	0.000	Substantial
	Self-financing	0.859*	73.79	0.000	Substantial
Occupation of Father	Government	0.62*	38.44	0.000	Substantial
	Private sector	0.857*	73.44	0.000	Substantial
	Business	0.730*	53.29	0.000	Substantial
	Casual labourer	0.773*	59.75	0.000	Substantial
	Others	0.637*	40.58	0.000	Substantial
Occupation of Mother	Government	0.741*	54.91	0.000	Substantial
	Private sector	0.836*	69.89	0.000	Substantial
	Business	0.754*	56.85	0.000	Substantial
	Home maker	0.704*	49.56	0.000	Substantial
	Others	0.656*	43.03	0.000	Substantial

Note * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Based on the results in table 4.44 following findings are derived.

The coefficient of correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students is 0.706, which is significant at 0.05 level and verbally interpreted as substantial. The positive significant correlation is noted

between interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour of all subsamples based on the background variables. Hence the null hypothesis – 6 is not accepted.

The value of 'r' shows that there is positive substantial correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students (Garret, 2005). That is, as Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students increases, Leadership Behaviour also increases. This result is in tune with the results of Singh and Sharma (2018), Rao and Reddy (2017), Patel and Patel (2019), Srinivasan and Mony (2016) and Desai and Joshi (2018) which also indicates positive significant correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of students.

This result is in contradiction with the findings of Rao and Verma (2016), Chaudhary and Singh (2017), Patel and Mehta (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques, Contextual factors etc.

The obtained 'r' has a shared variance of 49.84. The percentage variance shared between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour is 49.84. It shows that about 49.84% of variation in Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students can be attributed to the variation in their Interpersonal Intelligence.

Correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and subsamples of Higher Secondary Students.

Null hypothesis 7

There exists no significant correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and sub samples of higher secondary students.

Correlation between the variables of Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students was estimated using Pearson's Coefficient Correlation method. The data and results of correlation between Civic Consciousness

and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students and correlation with regard to total sample and subsamples are presented in table 4.45.

Table 4.45

Correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of total sample and sub samples of higher secondary students.

Background Characteristics	Category	Pearson coefficient of correlation (r) (R)	Shared Variance	P	Verbal Interpretation
Total		0.644 *	41.47	0.000	Substantial
Gender	Male	0.689 *	47.47	0.000	Substantial
	Female	0.608 *	36.97	0.000	Substantial
Locale of the school	Rural	0.722 *	52.13	0.000	Substantial
	Urban	0.532 *	28.30	0.000	Substantial
Type of School	Co-Education	0.640 *	40.96	0.000	Substantial
	Girls	0.655 *	42.90	0.000	Substantial
	Boys	0.603 *	36.36	0.000	Substantial
Type of management	Government	0.643 *	41.34	0.000	Substantial
	Aided	0.616 *	37.95	0.000	Substantial
	Self-financing	0.914*	83.54	0.000	Substantial
Stream of study	Science	0.531 *	28.20	0.000	Substantial
	Commerce	0.766 *	58.68	0.000	Substantial
	Humanities	0.702 *	49.28	0.000	Substantial
Occupation of father	Government	0.681*	46.38	0.000	Substantial
	Private sector	0.726*	52.71	0.000	Substantial
	Business	0.547*	29.92	0.000	Substantial
	Casual	0.76*	57.76	0.000	Substantial
	Others	0.577*	33.29	0.000	Substantial
Occupation of mother	Government	0.635 *	4.032	0.000	Substantial
	Private sector	0.662 *	43.82	0.000	Substantial
	Business	0.368 *	13.54	0.000	Substantial
	Home maker	0.72 *	51.84	0.000	Substantial
	Others	0.633*	40.07	0.000	Substantial

Note: * indicates significant difference at 0.05 level.

Results in table 4.45 shows that, the coefficient of correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students is 0.644, which is significant at 0.05 level and verbally interpreted as substantial. The positive significant correlation is noted between civic consciousness and leadership behaviour of all subsamples based on the background variables. Hence the null hypothesis – 7 is not accepted.

The value of 'r' shows that there is positive substantial correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students (Garret, 2005). As Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students increases, Leadership Behaviour also increases. This result is in agreement with the result of Gupta and Sharma (2019), Reddy and Thomas (2017), Patel and Desai (2018), which also indicates that positive significant correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. This result is in contradiction with the findings of Nair and Menon (2016), Kumar and Singh (2017), Choudhary and Rao (2018). This difference may be attributable to many reasons such as difference in sample, tools, statistical techniques etc.

The obtained 'r' has a shared variance of 41.47. The percentage variance shared between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour is 41.47. It shows that about 41.47% of variation in Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students can be attributed to the variation in their Civic Consciousness.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Null hypothesis 8

Combined and individual contributions of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are not significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

To find out the influence of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness on Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students, step wise regression analysis was done using ANOVA approach. Step wise regression analysis is an exploratory analytic procedure used to identify sets of variables within pre identified conceptual or cultural domains that predict variance in the dependent variables. Stepwise regression is used to test hypotheses regarding which variables predict the greatest amount of variance by entering variables into the regression equation in the order of their hypothesized importance, based on researcher experience and prior data analysis.

The input data for the step wise regression analysis were the means, standard deviations of the predictor and the criterion variables and the correlation matrix of the criterion variables with the predictor variables.

Table 4.46

Input data for stepwise regression analysis

Variables		Mean	Standard deviation
Predictor variables	Interpersonal Intelligence	127.20	17.46
	Civic Consciousness	81.77	9.21
Criterion variable	Leadership Behaviour	94.93	11.12

The correlation matrix of the criterion variable Leadership Behaviour with the two predictor variables Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness is presented in Table 4.46.

Table 4.47

Correlation matrix of the criterion variable and the predictor variables.

Variables	Leadership Behaviour	Interpersonal Intelligence	Civic Consciousness
Leadership Behaviour	1.0	0.706*	0.644*

Note: * indicates significance at 0.05 level

The co-efficient of correlation presented in the above table 4.47 indicates that the predictor variable Interpersonal Intelligence has the highest correlation with the criterion variable leadership behaviour. Therefore the predictor variable Interpersonal Intelligence was selected as the first variable to be entered in the regression analysis.

Result of step 1 Regression Analysis.

The variable selected for step 1 regression analysis is Interpersonal Intelligence(x1). The result of step 1 regression analysis is given in table 4.48.

Table 4.48*Results of Step 1 regression analysis*

Model Summary					
R	R²	Percentage Variance (R² x 100)	Adjusted R²	Standard error of the estimate	
0.706	0.499	49.9	0.498	7.87976	

ANOVA					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square of variance	F	p
Regression	64753.287	1	64753.287	1042.884*	0.000
Residual	65070.919	1048	62.091		
Total	129824.206	1049			

*indicates significance at 0.05 level.

Coefficient of Regression					
Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficient		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	37.689	1.789		21.067	0.000
Interpersonal Intelligence	0.450	0.014	0.706	32.294	0.000

. The results shown in table 4.48 suggest that, index of predictability is 0.706 and the percentage variance accounted by the variable Interpersonal Intelligence in predicting Leadership Behaviour is 49.9%. This suggest that 49.9 percent of the variation in the variable Leadership Behaviour can be accounted for the variation in the variable Interpersonal Intelligence.

The obtained F value (F=1042.88., $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. This suggests that the variables Interpersonal Intelligence is highly significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour.

The equation for predicting the criterion variable Leadership Behaviour using the predictor variable Interpersonal Intelligence (X_1) can be written as $Y = 0.450 X_1 + 37.689$

The equation suggests that for unit increase in the predictor variable Interpersonal Intelligence (X_1), the criterion variable, Leadership Behaviour (Y) increases by 0.450 units.

Results of step II regression analysis.

The second input variable is Civic Consciousness(X_2), which has the second highest value ($r=0.644$) in the correlation matrix with the criterion variable Leadership Behaviour(Y). So the predictor variable Civic Consciousness was entered in the second step analysis . The results are presented in table 4.49.

Table 4.49

Result of Step II regression analysis

Model Summary

R	R²	Adjusted R²	Percentage Variance (R² x 100)	Standard error of the estimate
0.715	0.512	0.511	51.2	7.78053

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Regression	66442.407	2	33221.204	548.779	0.000
Residual	63381.798	1047	60.537		
Total	129824.206	1049			

Coefficient of Regression

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient		Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
(Constant)	31.239	2.147		14.547	0.000
Interpersonal Intelligence	0.346	0.024	0.543	14.410	0.000
Civic Consciousness	0.241	0.046	0.199	5.282	0.000

The results shown in table 4.49 suggest that, index of predictability (R) is 0.715 and the percentage variance accounted by the variable in predicting Interpersonal Intelligence (X1) and Civic Consciousness (X2) in predicting Leadership Behaviour is 51.2%. This suggests that 51.2 percent of the variation in the variable Leadership Behaviour can be accounted for by the variation in the Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness and remaining 48.8 percent of the variation is attributable to other factors.

The multiple regression (R), the index of prediction has changed from 0.706 to 0.715 and the percentage of variance has increased from 49.9 to 51.2.

The obtained F value ($F=547.78$, $p \leq 0.05$) is significant at 0.05 level. This suggests that the variables Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are highly significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour. Hence the null hypothesis is not accepted. That means the joint and individual contribution of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness is significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

The equation for predicting the criterion variable Leadership Behaviour using the predictor variables Interpersonal Intelligence (X₁) and Civic Consciousness (X₂) can be written as

$$Y = 0.346 X_1 + 0.241 X_2 + 31.239$$

The equation suggests that for unit increase in X_1 , Y increases by 0.346 units when the effect of X_2 is held constant and that for unit increase in X_2 , Y increases by 0.241 units when the effect of the variable X_1 is nullified.

The increment in the percentage variance after step 2 analysis was found out and presented in table 4.50.

Table 4.50

Increment in Percentage Variance after step II analysis.

Variables ($R^2 \times 100$)	Percentage variance	Increment in the percentage of variance
Interpersonal Intelligence (X_1)	49.9	1.3
Civic Consciousness(X_2)	51.2	

R^2 is found to be 0.512 and accordingly 49.9% of difference in Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students can be attributed to difference in Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. The total contribution of 51.2 percent can be further broken down to the independent contribution of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. Since $R^2 = 0.499 + 0.13$, the contribution of Interpersonal Intelligence to the variation of Leadership Behaviour is 49.9%. The contribution of Civic Consciousness in 1.3 % , the remaining 49.2 % of the variance of the criterion variable may be attributed to some other factors not considered in this analysis.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Study in Retrospect.

Major Findings of the Study.

Conclusions.

Educational Implications of the Study.

Limitations.

Suggestions for Further Research.

Study in Retrospect

The present investigation is titled LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF HIGHER SECONDARY STUDENTS IN RELATION TO INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE AND CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS. Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are the predictor variables and Leadership Behaviour is the criterion variable in this study. Normative survey method was adopted for the study. The tools used were the Interpersonal Intelligence Scale, Civic Consciousness Scale and Leadership Behaviour Scale, all of which were constructed and validated by the investigator. A sample of 1050 higher secondary students studying in classes XI and XII was selected using stratified random sampling techniques. The major statistical techniques employed for the study were percentage analysis, t test, ANOVA followed by Scheffe's test, Pearson product moment method of correlation and stepwise regression analysis. The findings and conclusions drawn from the study, implications of the study and suggestions for further research are summarized in this chapter.

Major Findings of the study

Findings based on percentage analysis.

1. Majority of higher secondary students (65%) possess moderate level of Interpersonal Intelligence.
2. Majority of higher secondary students (63%) possess moderate level of Civic Consciousness.
3. Majority of higher secondary students (68%) possess moderate level of Leadership Behaviour.

Findings based on differential analysis.

1. Significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of male and female higher secondary students. ($t=9.029$; $p\leq 0.05$). Female students are found to have higher Interpersonal Intelligence compared to male students (mean value, male – 121.45, female – 130.45).
2. No significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of rural and urban higher secondary students. ($t=1.251$; $p>0.05$).
3. Significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher Secondary Students studying in co-education, girls only and boys schools. ($F=3.561$; $p\leq 0.05$). Students studying in girls only schools are found to have more Interpersonal Intelligence compared to boys and co-education school students (mean values, co-education – 126.48, girls – 130.26, boys – 127.87).
4. No significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of government, aided and self financing higher secondary students. ($F=2.026$; $p>0.132$).
5. Significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of Higher secondary students studying in science, commerce and humanities streams.

- ($F=7.480$; $p\leq 0.05$). Students studying in science stream found to have more Interpersonal Intelligence compared to students studying in commerce and humanities stream (mean value, science – 129.22, commerce – 124.40, humanities – 126.87).
6. Significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on the occupation of father – ($F=3.224$; $p\leq 0.05$).
 7. Significant difference was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students based on the occupation of mother - ($F=3.540$; $p\leq 0.05$).
 8. Significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of male and female higher secondary students. ($t=7.676$; $p\leq 0.05$). Female students are found to have higher Civic Consciousness compared to male students (mean value, male – 79.07, female – 83.45).
 9. No significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of rural and urban higher secondary students. ($t=0.998$; $p>0.05$).
 10. No significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in co-education, girls only and boys higher secondary schools. ($F=1.811$; $p>0.05$).
 11. Significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in government, aided and self-financing schools. ($F=4.951$; $p\leq 0.05$). Government school students are found to have higher Civic Consciousness compared to students studying in aided and self financing schools (mean value, government – 82.37, aided – 80.61, self-financing – 79.51).
 12. No significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students studying in science, commerce and humanities streams. ($F=0.264$; $p>0.05$).

13. Significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on the occupation of father – ($F=4.553$; $p\leq 0.05$)
14. Significant difference was noted in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students based on the occupation of Mother - ($F=3.946$; $p\leq 0.05$).
15. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of male and female higher secondary students. ($t=6.263$; $p\leq 0.05$). Female students are found to have higher Leadership Behaviour compared to male students (mean value male – 92.33, female – 96.54).
16. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of rural and urban higher secondary students. ($t=5.403$; $p\leq 0.05$). Urban school students are found to have higher Leadership Behaviour compared to rural higher secondary students (mean value rural – 93.44, urban – 97.37).
17. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in co-education, girls only and boys schools. ($f=5.740$; $p\leq 0.05$). Higher secondary students studying in Girls only schools are found to have higher Leadership Behaviour compared to co-education and boys schools (mean value, co-education – 94.49, girls – 97.36, boys – 92.98).
18. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in government, aided and self-financing schools. ($F=3.476$; $p\leq 0.05$).
19. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students studying in science, commerce and humanities streams. ($F=4.984$; $p\leq 0.05$). Science stream students found to have more Leadership Behaviour than commerce and humanities stream students (mean value, science – 96.09, commerce – 93.8, humanities – 94.11).

20. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on the occupation of father. ($F=4.065$; $p\leq 0.05$.)
21. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students based on the occupation of mother. ($F=7.387$; $p\leq 0.05$).
22. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Interpersonal Intelligence group of higher secondary students. ($F=63.941$; $p\leq 0.05$). High Interpersonal Intelligence group is found to be high Leadership Behaviour than low Interpersonal Intelligence group.
23. Significant difference was noted in the Leadership Behaviour of low, average and high Civic Consciousness group of higher secondary students. ($F=29.010$; $p\leq 0.05$). High Civic Consciousness group is found to be high Leadership Behaviour than low Civic Consciousness group.

Findings based on correlation analysis.

1. Positive and significant substantial correlation was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. ($r=0.706$; $p\leq 0.05$). That is as Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students increases, Leadership Behaviour also increases.
2. Positive significant substantial correlation was noted in the Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students of all sub-samples based on background variable.
3. Positive and significant substantial correlation existed between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. ($r=0.644$; $p\leq 0.05$). That is as Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students increases, Leadership Behaviour also increases.

4. Positive significant substantial correlation was noted in the Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students of all sub-samples based on background variables.

Findings based on regression analysis.

1. Combined and individual contribution of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness is significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.
2. The regression equation for predicting Leadership Behaviour can be written as

$$Y = 0.346 X_1 + 0.241 X_2 + 31.239$$

Y – Leadership Behaviour

X₁ – Interpersonal Intelligence

X₂ – Civic Consciousness and

Constant – 31.239.

3. The combined predictive power of the predictor variables on Leadership Behaviour was 51.2 %. ie. 51.2 % of variance in Leadership Behaviour is accounted for Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.

Conclusions

- Majority of higher secondary students possess moderate level of Interpersonal Intelligence.
- Majority of higher secondary students possess moderate level of Civic Consciousness.
- Majority of higher secondary students possess moderate level of Leadership Behaviour.

- Gender, type of school, stream of education and parental occupation are significant factors in Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students. But locality of the institution and type of school management are not a significant factors in the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students.
- Gender, type of school management and parental occupation are significant factors in Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students. But locality of the institution, type of school and stream of education are not a significant factor in the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.
- Gender, locality of the institution, type of school and type of school management, stream of education and parental occupation are significant factors in Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.
- High Interpersonal Intelligence group is found to be high Leadership Behaviour than low Interpersonal Intelligence group..
- There is positive and substantial significant correlation between Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students of total sample and subsamples.
- There is positive and substantial significant correlation between Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students of total samples and subsamples.
- Combined and individual contribution of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness is significant in predicting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. The combined predictive power of the predictors on Leadership Behaviour was 51.2 %. ie. 51.2 % of variance in Leadership Behaviour can be attributed to difference in the Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.

- The regression equations developed in the study can be used to predict the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students, when the scores of Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are known.

The study revealed that Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are significant predictors of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Educational Implications of the Study

The study revealed that Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are contributing factors of Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. A total of 51.2 % of the variance in Leadership Behaviour can be attributed to Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness among higher secondary students. In light of the study's findings, appropriate measures should be adopted in schools to enhance the Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness among higher secondary students, thereby improving their Leadership Behaviour.

The results of the present study revealed that nearly 68% of higher secondary students had a moderate level of Leadership Behaviour. So their Leadership Behaviour should be improved. Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness are found to be predictors of Leadership Behaviour. In order to improve the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students, their Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness must be improved. Enhancing Interpersonal Intelligence is a significant factor in promoting Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students.

Findings revealed that 65% of higher secondary students possess a moderate level of Interpersonal Intelligence.

The programmes, aimed at developing Interpersonal Intelligence, will naturally lead to the growth of Leadership Behaviour in students.

The following measures can be undertaken in schools to enhance the Interpersonal Intelligence of higher secondary students.

- Social-Emotional Learning (SEL) components should be systematically integrated into the curriculum of higher secondary schools. This integration will support the development of empathy, emotional regulation, and social awareness among students.
- Schools should design and implement structured programs such as project-based learning, debates, guided discussions, public speaking sessions, and environmental initiatives. These activities should aim to develop communication skills, collaborative problem-solving, and civic responsibility.
- Hands-on projects like community service, group research, and entrepreneurship-based assignments should be included to enhance students' teamwork capabilities and interpersonal effectiveness.
- Training workshops should be regularly organized for both students and teachers, focusing on communication strategies, active listening, and emotional self-regulation. These workshops will equip participants with essential interpersonal skills applicable to academic and social settings.
- Peer mediation programs and values-based education initiatives should be launched to foster conflict resolution skills and instill a culture of empathy, cooperation, and leadership responsibility among the school community.
- Schools should establish Composite Skill Development Labs and Vocational Training Centres, providing students with experiential learning opportunities that promote both interpersonal and collaborative skills.

- Senior students should be encouraged to mentor junior students through structured mentoring programs, enabling the development of leadership, empathy, and responsibility.
- Democratic processes such as student council elections should be conducted to teach students the values of participation, leadership, and decision-making in real-life settings.
- Yoga, mindfulness, and guided relaxation practices should be incorporated into the school routine to help students maintain emotional balance and enhance their interpersonal functioning.
- Implementing rotating leadership roles, in class to gain confidence and take responsibilities for managing group dynamics.
- Schools should facilitate student-led discussions and debates on critical social issues such as gender equality, child rights, cyber safety, and civic duties. These platforms will nurture critical thinking, social awareness, and responsible communication.
- Recognition and award systems should be established to publicly acknowledge students who exhibit leadership and interpersonal excellence, thereby motivating others to strive for similar qualities.
- Arranging visits to local governance institutions such as legislative assemblies or courts, and students should be assigned to observe and report on specific functions or judicial processes to encourage critical thinking.
- Organizing thematic exhibitions, such as science exhibitions on renewable energy or art competitions depicting the effects of climate change, to foster creativity and awareness among students.

- Digital collaboration projects, such as online platforms for students to work together on assignments or creative tasks, should be implemented to enhance communication and listening skills.
- Initiating collection drives for food, clothing, or school supplies to support victims of natural calamities helps develop leadership qualities such as initiative, responsibility and team coordination.
- Students should be assigned as presidents or secretaries of school clubs to develop organizational and teamwork skills.
- Implementing Experience and Learn” workshops focused on problem-solving and critical thinking.
- Organizing Buddy Programmes to pair students with peers to support each other academically and socially.
- Conducting personality development programmes in schools.
- Encouraging students to participate in various school clubs such as the Arts Club, Science Club, Sports Club, Music Club, and Eco Club along with house-based activities.
- Providing students with opportunities to analyze their successes and failures, encouraging them to learn from these experiences.
- Arranging common celebrations of important festivals of various religions.
- Conducting training sessions for parents focusing on positive communication, conflict resolution and ethical leadership at home.
- Encouraging parents to assign their children small leadership roles at home.

The study revealed that Civic Consciousness is a significant factor in the Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students. Hence to improve Leadership Behaviour, Civic Consciousness should be enhanced.

Following measures can be undertaken in schools to enhance the Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.

Civic Consciousness plays a crucial role in shaping Leadership Behaviour among students. Schools can cultivate these qualities through targeted interventions that promote social responsibility, democratic participation, and active citizenship. Here is a structured approach with some suggested programmes.

- Inclusion of Civic Education in Curriculum by integrating lessons on governance, social justice, and ethical responsibility to help students recognize the relevance of civic engagement in everyday life.
- Including Experiential Learning Modules, such as Service-learning or project-based units, in the curriculum.
- Organizing School-Wide Civic Campaigns, such as anti-narcotics, drug abuse prevention, and road safety initiatives.
- Integrating civic themes in classroom discussions.
- Implementing compulsory participation in community service programmes, such as NSS (National Service Scheme) and NCC (National Cadet Corps).
- Engaging students in afforestation initiatives, environmental awareness programmes, and sustainability campaigns, such as “Plant a tree, Grow a future”.
- Organizing mock elections within the school to simulate the democratic process, and assigning roles such as candidates, election officers, and voters, ensuring each student actively participates to understand the importance of fair voting.
- Implementing green campus initiatives to make students responsible environmental stewards.
- Implementing Scouts and Guides programmes in schools provides students with valuable opportunities to develop civic consciousness.

- Arranging participation in programmes like mock parliaments and model UN conferences.
- Encouraging students to actively participate in community development and environmental protection initiatives, such as 'Nallapadam' and the 'Seed Project' initiated by dailies.
- Developing standardized assessment criteria to evaluate students' holistic development.
- Establishing Electoral clubs and Democracy Rooms in schools to foster a culture of civic engagement, democratic participation, active citizenship and electoral literacy among students.
- Organizing community living camps and citizenship training programmes.
- Motivating students to buy eco-friendly products.
- Forming clubs where students lead environmental initiatives, such as waste segregation, composting and water conservation.
- Encouraging students to use non-toxic natural products for cleansing and washing.
- Arranging field trips to nearby industries to analyze the prevailing conditions of labour wages, safety and working environments.
- Observing Constitution Day and initiate to read the preamble of the constitution of India and highlight the values reflected in it.
- Organizing fund-raising programmes like food fests and donating them to the underprivileged communities and orphanages.
- Organizing social visits to differently-abled schools, poor homes and old-age homes to foster inclusivity and social responsibility among students.

By incorporating these programmes, schools can effectively cultivate Civic Consciousness in students, helping them grow into socially responsible and engaged citizens.

Also, based on the findings of the study, the following interventions can be made.

The study revealed that male students have lower interpersonal intelligence, civic consciousness, and leadership behaviour compared to female students. To address gender disparities, educational institutions should assign male students leadership roles in sports events, cultural festivals, and academic fairs to enhance their sense of responsibility, teamwork, and decision-making skills. Allowing male students to lead discussions on topics they are passionate about and organizing skill development and personality development programmes can further support their growth. Providing opportunities for male students to lead community service initiatives, such as plastic waste management campaigns, tree-planting drives, and awareness programmes on environmental conservation etc.

The study also highlighted that rural students tend to exhibit lower leadership behaviour, compared to their urban counterparts. To address this disparity, schools and teachers should implement targeted programmes such as urban-rural exchange initiatives, inter-school competitions, and student-led campaigns. Improving infrastructure and providing better facilities and resources for civic engagement can enhance leadership skills. Conducting training sessions on basic computer literacy, internet usage, and digital communication can bridge the technology gap and boost students' confidence in digital interactions. Furthermore, establishing leadership platforms within schools, such as social welfare clubs and public service groups, can

offer rural students structured opportunities to develop their leadership skills in a supportive environment.

The findings of the study revealed that higher secondary students from co-educational and boys-only schools tend to have lower interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour compared to those in girls-only schools. To address this issue, well-designed interventions can help students develop essential interpersonal and leadership skills by fostering collaboration between different school settings. Initiatives such as joint student councils, leadership projects, and debate forums create opportunities for meaningful interaction. Additionally, guided self-reflection and peer feedback sessions enable students to assess their strengths and areas for growth. Hands-on learning experiences, cooperative learning strategies, and leadership challenges further enhance their skills. Organizing civic responsibility campaigns, hosting art exhibitions, and staging theater performances can also encourage teamwork, creativity, and social awareness, helping students bridge the gap with their peers in girls-only schools.

The study revealed that higher secondary students from self-financing schools demonstrated comparatively lower levels of civic consciousness and leadership behaviour. To address these gaps, a comprehensive, multi-tiered approach should be implemented, integrating curricular and extracurricular activities, mentorship programmes, and community engagement to enhance student participation in various competitions. This, in turn, boosts their confidence and compliance with policies. Implementing policies that ensure equity and providing student governance opportunities, such as student councils and peer-led initiatives, can foster leadership skills. Encouraging parental and community involvement in school activities further helps create a supportive learning environment. Additionally, establishing clear

assessment standards ensures consistent evaluation of students' progress in civic consciousness and leadership development. Training sessions for teachers should be organized to equip them with strategies for fostering civic consciousness and leadership behaviour among students, ensuring the long-term sustainability of these initiatives.

The study found that humanities stream students at the higher secondary level tend to have lower interpersonal intelligence and leadership behaviour than their peers in science and commerce streams. To address this, tailored programmes can be introduced to align with their learning styles. Implementing subject enrichment activities can provide experiential learning opportunities, fostering creativity, innovation, and the practical application of knowledge. Initiating career guidance sessions, skill expos, hackathons, boot camps, and academic olympiads can enhance critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Integrating interdisciplinary approaches that incorporate insights from science and other fields can further develop analytical abilities. Establishing humanities-focused innovation labs can encourage students to design solutions for social issues through collaborative and creative thinking. Organizing peer mediation circles can help strengthen interpersonal relationships, conflict resolution, and active listening. Introducing social journalism clubs can enable students to investigate, report, and present real-world community challenges, thereby enhancing teamwork, communication, and leadership skills through collaborative reporting.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are outlined below:

- The study could not maintain an equal proportion of higher secondary students based on background variables such as gender and type of school.

- The study could not ensure an equal distribution of participants based on the occupational status of fathers and mothers.

Suggestions for Further Research

The present study highlights several new areas for future researchers to explore. Findings revealed that 51% of the change in Leadership Behaviour is due to the Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness. Studies can be conducted to find out the other contributing variables of Leadership Behaviour.

- A study can be conducted to explore the gender differences in the Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour and the reasons for the same.
- Studies can be conducted to develop intervention packages on Interpersonal Intelligence and Civic Consciousness to enhance Leadership Behaviour of students.
- Investigation on how gender roles and societal expectations influence Leadership Behaviour, can be carried out.
- Analysis of the role of peer influence and teacher student relationships in shaping Interpersonal Intelligence and Leadership Behaviour of higher secondary students, can be conducted.
- A comparative study on Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour among students of different educational levels (Primary, Secondary and higher secondary) can be conducted to analyse the developmental bonds.
- A comparative study on Interpersonal Intelligence, Civic Consciousness and Leadership Behaviour among students from different cultural and geographical background can be conducted.

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Appendices

Appendix A

CENTRE FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
N.V.K.S.D COLLEGE OF EDUCATION (Autonomous)
ATTOOR, KANNIYAKUMARI DISTRICT – 629 177.

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

(Suja and Sreelatha - 2022)

Draft Scale

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Interpersonal Intelligence. Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always True' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Very True' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Somewhat True' with the item, mark (✓) in column C, if you feel 'Occasionally True' with the item, mark (✓) in column D, if you feel 'Not at all True' with the item, mark (✓) in column E. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided.

While answering, kindly see that no item is omitted.

1. I listen carefully when someone is talking to me.
2. When I speak, I rarely use gestures to support dialogues.
3. I am sensitive to other's feelings.
4. I rarely listen and consider the feelings of others.
5. Learning together removes boredom.
6. I rarely act as a facilitator in the group activities.
7. I won't take personally other people's disagreements.
8. I would argue my points and stick on it.

9. I make contacts with others easily.
10. I am not bothered about friendship and relationship.
11. I become impatient with people who do not express their thoughts and opinions clearly.
12. When somebody is speaking, I request him/her to repeat the ambiguous statements.
13. I can't imagine other people's point of view.
14. It upsets me to see when someone is being treated disrespectfully.
15. I am reluctant to accept criticism and suggestions.
16. I enjoy team work.
17. I rarely follow rational arguments.
18. I try to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach.
19. I feel difficulty in maintaining relationship with others.
20. I find it easy to get emotionally close to others.
21. Before I communicate, I understand who my receiver is and how it reaches him.
22. I become tensed while talking about my feelings.
23. I easily tend to be excited when the people around me is feeling excited.
24. I never feel sorry for other students who are being teased.
25. I encourage others not to give up and overcome problems.
26. I am not interested to lead a project work.
27. During conflicts, I talk to friends how I feel.
28. I never try to find a compromise solution.
29. I try to provide support to others during their difficult times.
30. I never enjoy the company of my peers.
31. I never give my ears to other's opinion.

32. I maintain eye contact throughout a conversation.
33. Other people's misfortune does not disturb me a great deal.
34. While watching movies, I easily associate with the characters.
35. I am not capable to guide others in a proper manner.
36. While working on a problem with others, I try to find a collective solution.
37. I never allow myself to compromise while solving the problems.
38. I try to be considerate of other's wishes in negotiations.
39. I hesitate to attend social activities.
40. I have friends who support me in all matters.
41. I used to try to improve my listening skills.
42. I rarely share information with others.
43. When my friend is upset, I make him feel better.
44. I never take extra efforts to put others at ease.
45. I try to develop a sense of togetherness among classmates.
46. I quite often find fault with my team members.
47. I used to avoid the situations which create controversy.
48. After I have made a decision, I defend it strongly.
49. I prefer not to depend on others.
50. I never trust others completely.

Item Analysis of Interpersonal Intelligence scale – Cronbach's Alpha

No of Items	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale Variance if item deleted	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if deleted
1	167.4650	492.039	-0.086	0.819
2*	168.7900	477.061	0.183	0.815
3*	167.7400	478.404	0.196	0.814
4*	167.9950	465.412	0.373	0.810
5*	168.01800	472.570	0.237	0.813
6*	168.4350	473.905	0.206	0.814
7	168.3950	505.769	-0.324	0.826
8	169.0150	487.743	-0.003	0.819
9	168.0300	482.652	0.082	0.817
10*	167.7250	465.979	0.356	0.810
11	168.7600	481.379	0.106	0.816
12	168.4950	491.467	-0.069	0.820
13*	168.0100	473.296	0.235	0.813
14*	168.1900	465.220	0.331	0.811
15*	168.3250	471.447	0.277	0.812
16*	167.9100	459.59.	0.452	0.807
17*	168.2350	480.161	0.135	0.816
18*	168.7300	477.545	0.155	0.815
19*	168.3350	457.932	0.439	0.807
20	168.5850	483.319	0.064	0.818
21*	168.0250	479.532	0.148	0.815
22	168.8100	482.195	0.089	0.817
23*	168.3050	467.630	0.340	0.811
24*	168.1500	451.626	0.553	0.804
25*	168.1150	463.821	0.335	0.810

26*	168.5950	454.343	0.478	0.806
27*	168.3150	468.287	0.310	0.811
28*	168.1200	450.317	0.570	0.804
29*	168.1600	461.713	0.407	0.809
30*	167.9600	464.471	0.360	0.810
31*	168.2500	456.148	0.457	0.807
32*	168.3550	464.351	0.397	0.809
33*	168.6300	468.938	0.316	0.811
34*	168.4900	458.784	0.454	0.807
35*	168.2650	473.281	0.227	0.813
36*	168.0950	460.730	0.468	0.807
37*	168.5500	466.942	0.331	0.811
38	168.3550	479.858	0.118	0.816
39*	168.3600	468.302	0.308	0.811
40*	168.1400	463.196	0.382	0.809
41*	168.0900	463.128	0.405	0.809
42*	168.7150	460.969	0.393	0.809
43*	167.9200	457.119	0.462	0.807
44*	168.5650	459.895	0.418	0.808
45*	168.1450	466.326	0.337	0.810
46*	168.5300	457.476	0.421	0.808
47	168.1950	493.997	-0.112	0.821
48	169.1750	493.210	-0.097	0.821
49	168.1750	479.683	0.131	0.816
50	168.8500	502.651	-0.237	0.826

Note: ‘*’ indicates items selected for the final scale.

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE

(Suja and Sreelatha – 2022)

FINAL SCALE

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Interpersonal Intelligence. Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always True' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Very True' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Somewhat True' with the item, mark (✓) in column C, if you feel 'Occasionally True' with the item, mark (✓) in column D, if you feel 'Not at all True' with the item, mark (✓) in column E. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided.

1. When I speak, I rarely use gestures to support dialogues.
2. I am sensitive to other's feelings.
3. I rarely act as a facilitator in the group activities.
4. I try to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach.
5. I am not bothered about friendship and relationship.
6. Before I communicate, I understand who my receiver is and how it reaches him.
7. I rarely listen and consider the feelings of others.
8. Learning together removes boredom.
9. I rarely follow rational arguments.
10. I feel difficulty in maintaining relationship with others.
11. I maintain eye contact throughout a conversation.
12. I can't imagine other people's point of view.
13. I enjoy team work.
14. I never try to find a compromise solution.
15. I try to provide support to others during their difficult times.
16. I never give my ears to other's opinion.
17. It upsets me to see when someone is being treated disrespectfully.
18. I am reluctant to accept criticism and suggestions.
19. During conflicts, I talk to friends how I feel.
20. I never enjoy the company of my peers.

21. I used to try to improve my listening skills.
22. Other people's misfortune does not disturb me a great deal.
23. I encourage others not to give up and overcome problems.
24. I never allow myself to compromise while solving the problems.
25. I have friends who support me in all matters.
26. I rarely share information with others.
27. While watching movies, I easily associate with the characters.
28. I am not interested to lead a project work.
29. I hesitate to attend social activities.
30. When my friend is upset, I make him feel better.
31. I am not capable to guide others in a proper manner.
32. I never take extra efforts to put others at ease.
33. While working on a problem with others, I try to find a collective solution.
34. I easily tend to be excited when the people around me is feeling excited.
35. I quite often find fault with my team members.
36. I never feel sorry for other students who are being teased.
37. I try to develop a sense of togetherness among classmates.

RESPONSE SHEET

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

Item no	A. Always True	B. Very True	C. Somewhat True	D. Occasionally True	E. Not at all True	Score
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
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37						

Scoring sheet

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

Item no.	A. Always True	B. Very True	C. Somewhat True	D. Occasionally True	E. Not at all True
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	5	4	3	2	1
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	5	4	3	2	1
5	1	2	3	4	5
6	5	4	3	2	1
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	5	4	3	2	1
9	1	2	3	4	5
10	1	2	3	4	5
11	5	4	3	2	1
12	1	2	3	4	5
13	5	4	3	2	1
14	1	2	3	4	5
15	5	4	3	2	1
16	1	2	3	4	5
17	5	4	3	2	1
18	1	2	3	4	5
19	5	4	3	2	1
20	1	2	3	4	5
21	5	4	3	2	1
22	1	2	3	4	5
23	5	4	3	2	1
24	1	2	3	4	5
25	5	4	3	2	1
26	1	2	3	4	5
27	5	4	3	2	1
28	1	2	3	4	5
29	1	2	3	4	5
30	5	4	3	2	1
31	1	2	3	4	5
32	1	2	3	4	5
33	5	4	3	2	1
34	5	4	3	2	1
35	1	2	3	4	5
36	1	2	3	4	5
37	5	4	3	2	1

SCORING MANUAL

INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE

Interpersonal Intelligence scale is a scale to measure the interpersonal intelligence of higher secondary students. The scale consists of five dimensions namely, Communication, Empathy, Co-operation, Conflict resolution and Social relationship. The scale has 37 items. For each items, there are five responses such as 'Always True' (A), 'Very True' (B), 'Sometimes True' (C), 'Occasionally True' (D) and 'Not at all True' (E). The most appropriate answer should be marked with a \checkmark mark in the appropriate column. The scores for positive items are 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 and for negative items are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The maximum score of interpersonal intelligence scale is 185 and minimum score is 37. The average time required for the completion of all items was found to be 30 minutes. Scoring key is provided for each item in the response sheet.

Distribution of items in Interpersonal Intelligence Scale

Dimensions of interpersonal scale	Items		Total number of items
	Positive items	Negative items	
Communication	6,11,21	1,16,26	6
Empathy	2,17,27,30,34	7,12,22,32,36	10
Co-operation	8,13,23,33,37	3,28,31,35	9
Conflict resolution	4	9,14,18,20,24	6
Social relationship	5,19,25	15,10,29	6

Total 37 items

Norms of the Test – Interpersonal Intelligence Scale

A norms is quantitative measure representing the standard of a specified group. Based on the average performance of particular group at a particular time, percentile norms for the general sample (Interpersonal Intelligence) are calculated and given below.

Percentiles for Interpersonal Intelligence

Percentile	Value
5	105.00
10	107.00
20	111.00
25 (Q1)	112.00
30	115.00
40	119.00
50 (Q2)	124.00
60	130.00
70	137.00
75 (Q3)	141.00
80	144.00
90	152.00
95	160.00

CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS SCALE

(Suja and Sreelatha - 2022)

Draft Scale

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Civic Consciousness scale. Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Sometimes' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Rarely' with the item, mark (✓) in column C. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided. While answering, kindly see that no item is omitted.

1. I support basic human rights.
2. I do not like to take part in cleaning drives.
3. I used to appreciate the teachings of other religions.
4. I don't bother about the denial of other's rights.
5. I think there should be strict rules and regulations on the use of money in election campaigns.
6. I am interested in following the political events in India.
7. I know about freedom of thoughts, speech and expression.
8. I know cyber bullying is illegal.
9. I prefer to use cloth bags instead of plastic bags.
10. I think rapid technology improvement is creating more environmental problems than benefits.
11. I enjoy participating in social service activities.

12. I believe that everyone should spend some of his time for the welfare of the country.
13. When I am in a hurry, I neglect the traffic rules.
14. I never take others property without their permission.
15. I have no confidence in political parties.
16. I believe corporate should not be allowed to interfere in political campaigns.
17. I don't have an idea, where to seek for legal help against child labour.
18. I am a law abiding person.
19. I never use organic manures for my garden.
20. I believe plants and animals have the same right as humans to exist.
21. I believe that school programmes will promote an understanding about duties and responsibilities of students.
22. I like to engage myself in charity work.
23. I respect and protect aged people.
24. I have the habit of plucking flowers while visiting gardens.
25. I think politics is an open door of huge corruption.
26. I like to attend political meetings and rallies.
27. I give warning while I see somebody throwing away trash on road.
28. Personal rights are highly significant to me.
29. I am not interested in recycled products.
30. I plant trees, whenever and wherever possible.
31. I think it is not my responsibility to help the community.
32. Before I leave the class room, I ensure that the lights and fans are switched off.
33. I believe corruption is permissible during crucial situations.

34. As a pedestrian, while crossing the road, I always follow the traffic signals.
35. Mock parliament helps to enhance democratic values.
36. I believe gender discrimination prevails in politics.
37. I think law breaking acts in daily life is very common.
38. I think women protection and legal services should be included in the curriculum to reduce violence against women.
39. I prefer organic fruits and vegetables occasionally only.
40. I sort waste before disposing.
41. I never volunteered in school projects.
42. I think students are not adequately informed about their rights.
43. I never destroy public property.
44. I complain whenever I witness injustice.
45. School campus better to keep away from politics.
46. I express my political opinions freely.
47. I think strict rules should be there to reduce child abuse.
48. I never defend when my rights are violated.
49. I am aware of the consequences of deforestation.
50. Problems like pollutions are not my concern.

Item Analysis of Civic Consciousness scale – Mathew Item Analysis

Details of items selected for Civic Consciousness scale.				
Item No.	PU	PL	Phi	P
1	95	78	0.25	
2*	71	51	0.21	61
3*	77	45	0.33	61
4*	81	40	0.42	61
5*	86	58	0.31	72
6	44	40	0.04	42
7*	88	62	0.30	75
8*	89	53	0.40	71
9*	78	51	0.28	65
10	44	37	0.07	41
11*	72	46	0.26	59
12*	86	53	0.36	70
13*	79	45	0.35	62
14*	84	49	0.37	67
15	46	44	0.02	45
16	49	40	0.09	45
17*	73	43	0.30	58
18*	74	49	0.26	62
19*	80	36	0.45	58
20*	91	52	0.43	72
21*	88	49	0.42	69
22*	80	52	0.30	66
23*	93	51	0.47	72
24*	74	39	0.35	57
25	42	40	0.02	41
26	33	37		
27*	71	47	0.24	59
28*	70	49	0.21	60
29	64	54	0.10	59
30*	57	48	0.09	53

31	83	49	0.36	66
32*	71	45	0.26	58
33	52	50	0.02	51
34*	90	58	0.37	74
35*	71	50	0.22	61
36	51	47	0.04	49
37	45	33	0.12	39
38*	88	51	0.40	70
39	59	45	0.14	52
40*	77	47	0.31	62
41*	70	42	0.28	56
42	46	43	0.03	45
43*	85	50	0.37	68
44*	69	43	0.26	56
45	31	37		
46*	68	49	0.19	59
47*	83	34	0.50	59
48*	80	38	0.43	59
49*	81	32	0.41	61
50*	84	32	0.53	58

Note: * indicates items selected for the final Civic Consciousness Scale.

Civic Consciousness

(Suja and Sreelatha – 2022)

FINAL SCALE

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Interpersonal Intelligence. Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Sometimes' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Rarely' with the item, mark (✓) in column C. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided. While answering, kindly see that no item is omitted.

1. I do not like to take part in cleaning drives.
2. I used to appreciate the teachings of other religions.
3. I think there should be strict rules and regulations on the use of money in election campaigns.
4. I know about freedom of thoughts, speech and expression.
5. I never use organic manures for my garden.
6. I enjoy participating in social service activities.
7. I never take others property without their permission.
8. I think strict rules should be there to reduce child abuse.
9. I know cyber bullying is illegal.
10. I prefer to use cloth bags instead of plastic bags.
11. I believe that everyone should spend some of his time for the welfare of the country.
12. I don't bother about the denial of other's rights.
13. Mock parliament helps to enhance democratic values.
14. I don't have an idea, where to seek for legal help against child labour.
15. I believe plants and animals have the same right as humans to exist.
16. I like to engage myself in charity work.
17. When I am in a hurry, I neglect the traffic rules.
18. I express my political opinions freely.

19. I give warning while I see somebody throwing away trash on road.
20. I sort waste before disposing.
21. I think it is not my responsibility to help the community.
22. I respect and protect aged people.
23. I have the habit of plucking flowers while visiting gardens.
24. I am a law abiding person.
25. I am aware of the consequences of deforestation.
26. I believe that school programmes will promote an understanding about duties and responsibilities of students.
27. As a pedestrian, while crossing the road, I always follow the traffic signals.
28. Personal rights are highly significant to me.
29. Problems like pollutions are not my concern.
30. Before I leave the class room, I ensure that the lights and fans are switched off.
31. I never destroy public property.
32. I think women protection and legal services should be included in the curriculum to reduce violence against women.
33. I never volunteered in school projects.
34. I complain whenever I witness injustice.
35. I never defend when my rights are violated.

RESPONSE SHEET

CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS SCALE

Item no.	A. Always	B. Sometimes	C. Rarely	Score
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
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24				
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26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35				

Scoring sheet

CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS SCALE

Item no.	A. Always	B. Sometimes	C. Rarely
1	1	2	3
2	3	2	1
3	3	2	1
4	3	2	1
5	1	2	3
6	3	2	1
7	3	2	1
8	3	2	1
9	3	2	1
10	3	2	1
11	3	2	1
12	1	2	3
13	3	2	1
14	1	2	3
15	3	2	1
16	3	2	1
17	1	2	3
18	3	2	1
19	3	2	1
20	3	2	1
21	1	2	3
22	3	2	1
23	1	2	3
24	3	2	1
25	3	2	1
26	3	2	1
27	3	2	1
28	3	2	1
29	1	2	3
30	3	2	1
31	3	2	1
32	3	2	1
33	1	2	3
34	3	2	1
35	1	2	3

SCORING MANUAL

CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS

Civic Consciousness scale is a scale to measure the civic consciousness of higher secondary students. The scale consists of five dimensions namely, Social Responsibility, Moral Consciousness, Political Consciousness, Legal Consciousness and Ecological Consciousness. The scale has 35 items. For each items, there are three responses such as 'Always' (A), 'Sometimes' (B), 'Rarely' (C). The most appropriate answer should be marked with a \surd mark in the appropriate column. The scores for positive items are 3, 2, 1 and for negative items are 1, 2, 3. The maximum score of civic consciousness scale is 105 and minimum score is 35. The average time required for the completion of all items was found to be 30 minutes. Scoring key is provided for each item in the response sheet.

Distribution of items in civic consciousness Scale

Dimensions of civic consciousness	Items		Total number of items
	Positive items	Negative items	
Social Responsibility	6,11,16,26	1,21,33	7
Moral Consciousness	2,7,9,22,24,27,31,34	12,17	10
Political Consciousness	3,13,18		3
Legal Consciousness	4,8,19,28,30,32	14,23,35	9
Ecological Consciousness	10,15,20,25	5,29	6

Total 35 items

Norms of the Test – Civic Consciousness Scale

A norms is quantitative measure representing the standard of a specified group. Based on the average performance of particular group at a particular time, percentile norms for the general sample (Civic Consciousness) are calculated and given below.

Percentiles for Civic Consciousness

Percentile	Value
5	67.00
10	70.00
20	73.00
25 (Q1)	75.00
30	76.00
40	79.00
50 (Q2)	82.00
60	85.00
70	87.30
75 (Q3)	89.00
80	90.20
90	94.00
95	97.00

Appendix C

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR SCALE

(Suja and Sreelatha 2022)

Draft Scale

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Leadership Behaviour. Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Often' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Sometimes' with the item, mark (✓) in column C, if you feel 'Rarely' with the item, mark (✓) in column D, if you feel 'Not at all' with the item, mark (✓) in column E. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided. While answering, kindly see that no item is omitted.

1. I like to make decisions quickly and instinctively.
2. I postpone making decisions wherever possible.
3. I collect all the information I need to make a choice.
4. I am afraid of the consequences of my decision.
5. I quite often make an independent decision by myself.
6. I define the roles and responsibilities for each group member.
7. I make my perspectives clear to others.
8. I place interests above the group interest.
9. I set standards for performance of group members.
10. I seldom enjoy solving new problems.
11. I carefully analyse the problems and give solutions.
12. I have difficulty in taking decisions in ambiguous situations.
13. I like to study the outcomes in detail before making choices.
14. I make decisions based on friend's influence.
15. I take decisions without pressure from others.

16. I do not feel a strong sense of belongingness to the group.
17. I encourage my team members to work towards goals and values.
18. I am reluctant to provide a plan for how the work to be done.
19. I am honest and transparent with my team members.
20. I won't volunteered myself to put extra effort for the success of the group.
21. I tried to perform all the task assigned to be conscientiously.
22. When I cannot solve a problem, I get very frustrated.
23. I am able to direct peers in solving a problem.
24. I hardly consider my personal problems while taking decision.
25. When problem arises, I immediately address them.
26. I try to avoid problematic situations rather than solving them.
27. I strive to view the problem from different perspectives and generate multiple solutions.
28. I am reluctant to provide timely feedback to the needy.
29. I guide others to set their goals and adopt strategies for achieving it.
30. I hesitate to give credit to the members of the group.
31. I encourage everyone to be active in the group.
32. When confronted with a problem, I am not sure whether I can handle the situation or not.
33. I don't let problems upset me, no matter how difficult they are.
34. I hesitate to act as an initiator of the team.
35. I encourage for high quality work.
36. I cannot serve as a scaffolder to others in team work.
37. I am accessible and available to others.
38. I don't have better understanding of how to treat people.
39. I am good at bringing out the best in other people.
40. I avoid complicated challenges.

Item Analysis of Leadership Behaviour scale – Cronbach's Alpha

Details of item selected for Leadership Behaviour Scale.

No.of Items	Scale Mean if item Deleted	Scale Variance if item Deleted	Corrected Item -Total Correlation if item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
1	130.3050	470.364	-0.073	0.871
2*	130.9200	438.717	0.521	0.860
3*	129.9750	446.829	0.411	0.862
4*	131.1400	448.191	0.301	0.864
5	131.4150	458.043	0.155	0.866
6*	130.2450	445.261	0.405	0.862
7*	130.1150	443.127	0.435	0.861
8	130.9250	457.678	0.128	0.868
9	130.7500	458.259	0.135	0.867
10	131.1600	450.929	0.260	0.865
11*	130.1450	446.496	0.377	0.862
12	131.2450	454.286	0.241	0.865
13*	130.2500	440.641	0.485	0.860
14*	130.9650	447.632	0.315	0.864
15	130.4300	453.171	0.236	0.865
16*	130.8100	446.165	0.354	0.863
17*	130.0300	437.919	0.522	0.859
18*	130.7950	436.636	0.453	0.860
19*	130.0400	443.978	0.432	0.861
20*	130.8100	437.773	0.447	0.861
21*	130.1350	448.117	0.352	0.863
22*	131.3200	449.415	0.309	0.864

23	130.3900	450.490	0.299	0.864
24	131.3900	462.068	0.071	0.868
25*	130.4200	450.124	0.302	0.864
26	131.2700	455.083	0.175	0.867
27	130.3950	450.009	0.289	0.864
28*	130.9750	436.989	0.459	0.860
29*	130.3550	438.512	0.452	0.861
30*	130.4050	428.232	0.596	0.857
31*	130.0750	435.919	0.527	0.859
32*	130.9300	444.015	0.389	0.862
33	130.7000	452.673	0.218	0.866
34*	130.9500	438.530	0.432	0.861
35*	130.0600	448.589	0.324	0.863
36*	130.8000	444.804	0.354	0.863
37*	130.2050	442.335	0.435	0.861
38*	130.6600	433.592	0.541	0.859
39*	130.3600	446.825	0.349	0.863
40*	131.1500	435.234	0.462	0.860

Note: ‘*’ indicates items selected for the final scale.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR SCALE

(Suja and Sreelatha – 2022)

FINAL SCALE

Instructions

Given below are some statements about your Leadership Behaviour . Please indicate your responses to each of them by marking a tick mark (✓) in the column which indicates your feelings best.

Eg: If you feel 'Always' with the item, mark (✓) in column A, if you feel 'Often' with the item, mark (✓) in column B, if you feel 'Sometimes' with the item, mark (✓) in column C, if you feel 'Rarely' with the item, mark (✓) in column D, if you feel 'Not at all' with the item, mark (✓) in column E. Give your responses in separate response sheet provided. While answering, kindly see that no item is omitted.

1. I postpone making decisions wherever possible.
2. I define the roles and responsibilities for each group member.
3. I carefully analyse the problems and give solutions.
4. I am reluctant to provide timely feedback to the needy.
5. I collect all the information I need to make a choice.
6. I make my perspectives clear to others.
7. When I cannot solve a problem, I get very frustrated.
8. I guide others to set their goals and adopt strategies for achieving it.
9. I am afraid of the consequences of my decision.
10. I am honest and transparent with my team members.
11. When confronted with a problem, I am not sure whether I can handle the situation or not.
12. I encourage everyone to be active in the group.
13. I make decisions based on friend's influence.
14. I encourage my team members to work towards goals and values.
15. I avoid complicated challenges.
16. I encourage for high quality work.
17. I like to study the outcomes in detail before making choices.
18. I do not feel a strong sense of belongingness to the group.
19. When problem arises, I immediately address them.

- 20. I hesitate to give credit to the members of the group.
- 21. I tried to perform all the task assigned to be conscientiously.
- 22. I hesitate to act as an initiator of the team.
- 23. I am reluctant to provide a plan for how the work to be done.
- 24. I am good at bringing out the best in other people.
- 25. I won't volunteered myself to put extra effort for the success of the group.
- 26. I am accessible and available to others.
- 27. I don't have better understanding of how to treat people.
- 28. I cannot serve as a scaffolder to others in team work.

RESPONSE SHEET

Item no.	A. Always	B. Often	C. Somewhat	D. Rarely	E. Not at all
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					
16					
17					
18					
19					
20					
21					

22					
23					
24					
25					
26					
27					
28					

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR SCALE

RESPONSE SHEET

Item no.	A. Always	B. Often	C. Somewhat	D. Rarely	E. Not at all
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	5	4	3	2	1
3	5	4	3	2	1
4	1	2	3	4	5
5	5	4	3	2	1
6	5	4	3	2	1
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	5	4	3	2	1
9	1	2	3	4	5
10	5	4	3	2	1
11	1	2	3	4	5
12	5	4	3	2	1
13	1	2	3	4	5
14	5	4	3	2	1
15	1	2	3	4	5
16	5	4	3	2	1
17	5	4	3	2	1
18	1	2	3	4	5
19	5	4	3	2	1
20	1	2	3	4	5

21	5	4	3	2	1
22	1	2	3	4	5
23	1	2	3	4	5
24	5	4	3	2	1
25	1	2	3	4	5
26	5	4	3	2	1
27	1	2	3	4	5
28	1	2	3	4	5

SCORING MANUAL

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Leadership behaviour scale is a scale to measure the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students. The scale consists of four dimensions namely, Decisiveness, Commitment, Problem solving and Ability of mentoring. The scale has 28 items. For each items, there are five responses such as 'Always' (A), 'Often' (B), 'Sometimes' (C), 'Rarely' (D) and 'Not at all' (E). The most appropriate answer should be marked with a $\sqrt{}$ mark in the appropriate column. The scores for positive items are 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 and for negative items are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The maximum score of leadership behaviour scale is 140 and minimum score is 28. The average time required for the completion of all items was found to be 30 minutes. Scoring key is provided for each item in the response sheet.

Distribution of items in leadership behaviour Scale

Dimensions of leadership behaviour	Items		Total number of items
	Positive items	Negative items	
Decisiveness	5,17	1,9,13	5
Commitment	2,6,10,14,21	18,23,25	8
Problem Solving	3	7,11,15,1	5
Ability of Mentoring	8,12,16,19,24,26	4,20,22,28	10

Total 28 items

Norms of the Test – Leadership Behaviour Scale

A norms is quantitative measure representing the standard of a specified group. Based on the average performance of particular group at a particular time, percentile norms for the general sample (Leadership Behaviour) are calculated and given below.

Percentiles for Leadership Behaviour

Percentile	Value
5	80.00
10	82.00
20	85.00
25 (Q1)	86.00
30	88.00
40	90.00
50 (Q2)	94.00
60	97.00
70	100.00
75 (Q3)	102.00
80	104.00
90	110.00
95	116.00

PERSONAL INFORMATION SCHEDULE

1. Name :
2. Gender : Male / Female
3. Order of Birth : First / other than first
4. Type of family : Nuclear / Joint
5. Class of study : XI / XII
6. Stream of study : Science / Commerce / Humanities
7. Type of School : Co-Education / Girls / Boys
8. Locale of the school : Rural / Urban
9. Type of management : Government / Aided / Self-financing
10. District : Trivandrum / Ernakulam / Wayanad
11. Parental Occupation

Father	:	Government employee / Private sector / Business / Casual Labourer / Others
Mother	:	Government employee / Private sector / Business / Casual Labourer / Home maker / Others.

LIST OF EXPERTS

CONTENT VALIDITY

1. Dr. Bindu R L,
Faculty of Education. Professor
Department of Education
University of Kerala.
2. Dr. Issac Paul
Professor of Education
Govt. College of Teacher Education
Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala.
3. Dr. P Saravanan
Librarian(SG) & Research Supervisor
Lekshmipuram College of Arts and Science
Neyyoor, Kanyakumari (Dist)
Tamilnadu.
4. Dr. Hemalettha Thilakom S
Assistant Professor in Physical Science
Government College of Teacher Education
Kozhikode, Kerala.

LIST OF SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR THE STUDY

THIRUVANANTHAPURAM DISTRICT

1. CARMEL GIRLS HSS, VAZHUTHACAD
2. GOVT. GIRLS HSS, NEYYATTINKARA
3. GOVT. BHSS, NEYYATTINKARA
4. GOVT. GIRLS HSS, COTTONHILL
5. GOVT. HSS, BALARAMAPURAM
6. L.M.S BOYS HSS, AMARAVILA
7. M.V. HSS, ARUMANOOR
8. GOVT. HSS, THIRUPURAM
9. SREE VIDHYADHI RAJA HSS, NEYYATTINKARA
10. ST.THERESA`S CONVENT GHSS, NEYYATTINKARA

ERNAKULAM DISTRICT

1. GOVT GIRLS HSS, MATTANCHERY
2. GOVT GIRLS HSS, NORTH PARUR
3. FATIMA MATHA HSS, PIRAVOM, MUVATTUPUZHA
4. GOVT MODEL HSS, NEAR KOOTHATTUKULAM
5. ST THERESAS CGHSS
6. GOVT. HSS, CHOWARA
7. VIDHYADHIRAJA VIDHYABHAVAN HSS, ALUVA
8. ST MARY`S HSS,MORAKKALA
9. SACRED HEART HSS,THEVARA
10. GOVT. HSS,MULANTHURUTHY

WAYANAD DISTRICT

1. GOVT. HSS, KANIYAMBETTA
2. DR. AMBEDKAR.M.MHSS, NALLOORNAD
3. ST.MARY'S HSS, MULLENKOLLY P O
4. JAYASREE HSS, KALLUVAYAL
5. ST. JOSEPH'S GIRLS HSS, MEPADI
6. ST. THOMAS HSS, NADAVAYAL
7. GOVT. HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL, KALPETTA.

Publications

GENDER DIFFERENCE IN THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF HIGHER SECONDARY STUDENTS.

G. P. Suja, Ph.D. Scholar, NVKSD College of Education (Autonomous), Attoor, Kanniyakumari District, Tamil Nadu, India.

Dr. S. Sreelatha, Principal, NVKSD College of Education (Autonomous), Attoor, Kanniyakumari District, Tamil Nadu, India.

Abstract

In this study, an attempt has been made to study the gender difference in the Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students. Data was collected from a sample of 400 higher secondary students selected from Thiruvananthapuram district in Kerala state using random sampling technique. Normative survey method was used. The results showed that the levels of leadership behaviour of higher secondary students were moderate and also no significant gender differences in the Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students.

Keywords:

Leadership behaviour, Gender difference, Higher Secondary Students.

Introduction

Leadership is defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group towards goal achievement (Ranch & Behling). Leadership Behaviour refers to the traits and actions that make an individual effective as a leader. This article explores gender differences in leadership behaviour among higher secondary students. It investigates how male and female students exhibit leadership behaviour. By analysing these differences, the study aims to shed light on the role of gender in shaping leadership behaviour among students at the higher secondary level. Understanding gender differences in leadership behaviour among higher secondary students can resolve on potential inequalities, challenges or advantages that students of different genders may face in their educational journeys. This knowledge can be valuable for educators, policymakers and researchers aiming to create a more equitable and inclusive educational environment.

Need and Significance of the study

The topic of Gender difference in Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary students is important as it can interpret how gender influences leadership behaviour. Understanding these differences can help educator and policy makers tailor leadership development programs that cater to the needs of both genders, promoting more inclusive and effective leadership qualities among students. Educational Leadership is a collaborative process that unites the talents and forces of teachers, students and parents to improve the quality of education and the education system itself. Understanding leadership behaviour at a young age can help students develop essential leadership skills that will benefit them throughout their lives. Leadership can correlate with academic success, as leadership often requires qualities like discipline, motivation, and goal-setting. Future leaders can have a significant impact on society. By studying their behaviours, we can better understand how to nurture and guide positive leadership.

As per the National Education Policy, 2020 Learning is complete and holistic only when a student is able to effectively perform and fulfil his/her responsibilities and duties towards self, school, family, society and above all, the nation. The goal is to nurture good citizens and responsible human beings, well-aware of their potential and competence (CBSE, 2020). In the fast changing world of work, students are required to acquire 21st century skills like leadership to navigate life beyond school. These skills will also equip them to cope with the changing socio-economic and political landscape and the unforeseen challenges of life.

Developing Leadership Behaviour is essential for students as it prepares them for success in an ever changing world. Leadership Behaviour empower students to take on leadership roles not only in their careers but also in their communities, making a positive impact. Students with these skills are better prepared to be active informed and responsible global citizens who can address global challenges. Incorporating these Leadership Behaviour into education prepares students to thrive in the 21st century, where adaptability and innovation are key to success in an ever-evolving world.

Studying the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students is significant because it contributes to personal development, career readiness, community engagement, academic success, and societal well-being. It provides insights into how to cultivate effective leaders from a young age, benefiting individuals and society as a whole.

Objectives

1. To study the level of Leadership behaviour among higher secondary students.
2. To study the gender wise differences if any in the leadership behaviour of higher secondary students.

Hypothesis

There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership behaviour of male and female higher secondary students.

Methodology

The investigator adopted normative survey method for the study. Data was collected from a sample of 400 students studying in various higher secondary schools of Thiruvananthapuram District in Kerala state using random sampling technique. Leadership Behaviour scale (Suja and Sreelatha 2023) was used to collect data. Leadership Behaviour scale includes 28 statements in the four dimensions namely, Decisiveness, Commitment, Problem Solving and Ability of mentoring. Validity and reliability of the tool were established. Percentage, t-test and ANOVA were used for the analysis of data.

Results and Discussions.

Percentage wise distribution of the sample according to gender background.

Different levels of Leadership Behaviour of Higher Secondary Students.

Table 1 Percentage wise distribution of different levels of Gender difference in leadership behaviour.

Gender difference in Leadership behaviour	Count	Percent
Low	81	20.25
Moderate	250	62.50
High	69	17.25
Total	400	100.00

From the above table it is clear that majority of the Higher Secondary Students possess moderate level of Leadership Behaviour. Nearly 63% (62.50) of students having moderate level, 20.25% possess low level and 17.25% possess high level of Leadership Behaviour.

Table 2 Gender wise comparison of Leadership behaviour of higher secondary students.

Gender	Mean	SD	N	t	P	Remark
Male	95.03	10.14	113	0.526	0.599	NS
Female	94.44	10.22	287			

Results in table 2 shows that the calculated t value is 0.526 and P value 0.599, which is not significant at any level, therefore the null hypothesis there exists no significant difference in the mean scores of Leadership behaviour of male and female higher secondary students is accepted.

Thus it is interpreted that there is no significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour of male and female Higher Secondary Students. Leadership behaviour of higher secondary students are not influenced by gender.

Discussion and Conclusions

The result of the present study revealed that 63% of higher secondary students had moderate level of leadership behaviour and also noted that no gender difference in leadership behaviour. Leadership behaviour is an ongoing process that requires a supportive and nurturing environment. To improve the leadership level of students, provide students with opportunities to take on leadership roles in clubs, student government and community service projects. Encourage them to lead by example and actively participate in decision-making processes. Encourage students to participate in extra curricular activities. Parents and community involvement creating a collaborative approach to develop the level of leadership behaviour of students. Encourage them to seek out resources, books, and role models to continually enhance their leadership skills.

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CIVIC CONSCIOUSNESS OF HIGHER SECONDARY STUDENTS

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Abstract

In this study, an attempt has been made to study the civic consciousness of higher secondary students. The sample for the study comprised of 300 higher secondary students selected from schools of Wayanad district in Kerala state using random sampling technique Normative survey method was used. The finding of the study revealed that the levels of civic consciousness higher secondary students were moderate and also significant gender and locality difference were noted.

Keywords: Civic Consciousness, Higher Secondary Students, Gender difference, Locale.

INTRODUCTION

Civic consciousness is the recognition that each citizen is for the society and the genuine interests of the society are the interests of the citizen. Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students is an important aspect of their education and personal development. It refers to their awareness, understanding and active engagement in civic and social issues as well as their sense of responsibility towards their communities. In the sphere of education, nurturing civic consciousness among students in higher secondary levels is of utmost importance for shaping the future of democratic societies. Civic consciousness, which entails awareness of civic rights, responsibilities, and active participation in societal affairs, is fundamental in fostering engaged and accountable citizens. As adolescents transition into adulthood, developing civic consciousness becomes crucial for their growth, influencing their roles as active contributors to communities and society at large. Several scholars have underscored the pivotal role of education in promoting civic consciousness among young people (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 2020; Kahne & Westheimer, 2021). Educational institutions serve as vital platforms for instilling democratic values, imparting civic knowledge, and encouraging civic engagement among students (Hess, 2016). However, understanding the factors that shape civic consciousness among higher secondary students is multifaceted and requires a comprehensive approach to develop effective strategies for its enhancement.

Need and Significance of the study

Understanding civic consciousness help students become actively engaged citizens who participate in the democratic process and contribute to their communities. It fosters a sense of social responsibility, encouraging students to address social issues and work towards positive change. Civic consciousness equips students with the skills needed for peaceful conflict resolution. It encourages students to take an active role in community building and promoting social cohesion. In an interconnected world, understanding civic

consciousness can help students become responsible global citizens who are aware of global issues and their role in addressing them. The youth of today will play a pivotal role in shaping the future of the country. These future citizens are the young generation who will inherit and govern India in the coming years. The future citizens of India need access to quality education and skill development opportunities. Future citizens should be environmentally conscious and advocate for sustainable practices. Addressing issues like climate change, pollution, and resource management is vital for India's future. The young generation of India will be catalysts for positive change, progress, and development. Their collective actions and choices will determine the trajectory of India's future, making it imperative for society and policymakers to invest in their education, empowerment, and well-being. A well-educated and skilled population can contribute significantly to the country's economic growth and innovation. The future of India, therefore, is closely tied to the aspirations, actions, and values of its future citizens.

The study of civic consciousness holds immense importance in shaping informed and engaged citizens. Understanding civic consciousness aids in designing effective citizenship education programs aimed at nurturing responsible and active citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). It also promotes democratic engagement by encouraging individuals to participate in civic and political activities, such as voting and community organizing (Galston, 2001). Additionally, a strong sense of civic consciousness contributes to social cohesion by fostering shared values and responsibilities within society (Putnam, 2000). Research on civic consciousness is crucial for policymakers to develop initiatives that promote civic engagement and address societal challenges (Levinson, 2012). Moreover, studying civic consciousness among youth is essential for their development as civically minded individuals who can positively contribute to their communities and society (Flanagan & Levine, 2010). Overall, investigating civic consciousness is imperative for nurturing active citizenship, promoting democratic values, and building cohesive and inclusive societies.

Higher secondary students are future leaders and decision-makers, so fostering civic consciousness at this stage can have a long-lasting impact on the quality of governance and civic life in a society. Studying the civic consciousness of higher secondary students is significant as it contributes to the development of informed, engaged, and responsible citizens who play an active role in shaping their communities and nation.

Objectives

1. To study the level of civic consciousness among higher secondary students.
2. To find out whether there is any significant difference in the civic consciousness of higher secondary students with regard to the background variables Gender and locale.

Hypotheses

1. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of civic consciousness of male and female higher secondary students.
2. There exists significant difference in the mean scores of civic consciousness of rural and urban higher secondary students.

METHODOLOGY

The investigator adopted normative survey method for the study. Data was collected from a sample of 300 higher secondary students studying in Wayanad district in Kerala state using random sampling technique. Civic consciousness scale (Suja and Sreelatha 2023) was used to collect data. Civic consciousness scale include 35 statements in the five dimensions namely Social responsibility, Moral consciousness, Political consciousness, Legal consciousness and Ecological consciousness. Validity and reliability of the tool were established. Percentage, t test, ANOVA were used for the analysis of the data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Percentage wise Distribution of different levels of Civic consciousness of higher secondary students.

Table 1: Different levels of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.

Civic Consciousness	Count	Percent
Low	47	15.67
Moderate	193	64.33
High	60	20.00
Total	300	100.00

From the above table, it is clear that majority of the higher secondary students possess moderate level of civic consciousness. Nearly 64 % (64.33) students have moderate level of Civic Consciousness, nearly 16% (15.67) of students have low level and 20% of students possess high level of Civic Consciousness.

Gender wise comparison

Table 2: Gender wise of differences in the civic consciousness of higher secondary students.

Gender	Mean	SD	N	t	P	Remarks
Male	77.27	9.03	123	5.464	0.000	0.01 level
Female	82.85	8.20	177			

Results in table - 2 shows that, the calculated t value ($t = 5.464$; $p = 0.000$) is significant at 0.01 level. Hence the hypothesis 'there exists significant difference in the mean scores of Civic consciousness of male and female higher secondary students' is accepted. It show that there existed significant difference in the civic consciousness of male and female higher secondary students. Mean values shows that Civic Consciousness of female higher secondary students is higher than that of male higher secondary students.

Locality wise comparison of Civic Consciousness of higher secondary students.

Table 3: Comparison of Civic Consciousness based on Locale of the school.

Locale of the school	Mean	SD	N	t	P	Remark
Rural	78.43	8.95	187	5.740	0.00	Sig. at 0.01 level
Urban	84.09	7.84	113			

Results in table 3 shows that the calculated t value ($t=5.740$; $p=0.00$) is significant at 0.01 level. Hence the hypothesis 'there exists significant difference in the mean scores of Civic consciousness of rural and urban higher secondary students' is accepted. It shows that there existed significant difference in the civic consciousness of rural and urban higher secondary students. Mean values shows that urban students are having higher civic consciousness than rural students.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Civic consciousness has to be developed for the welfare of all and for the reconstruction of the society. A civic minded person is willing to serve their community sacrifice their personal interests for the welfare of society.

A strong civic consciousness among higher secondary students is essential for building a better and more inclusive future for all. The result of the present study revealed that 64% of students possess moderate level of civic consciousness. So their civic consciousness interests should be promoted. Fostering civic consciousness among higher secondary students is crucial for nurturing responsible and active citizens. The role of schools and educators is fundamental in nurturing this civic consciousness through both academic and extra curricular activities. Educating students about rights, responsibilities and the importance of active citizenship fosters a sense of social responsibility. The result revealed that civic consciousness of female students have high civic consciousness compared to male students and urban students possess high civic consciousness than rural students. To engage rural students, it's crucial to cultivate a sense of community belonging and duty through participation in local activities and groups. Introducing civics education into the curriculum with topics pertinent to rural life can deepen their comprehension of civic obligations. Hands-on learning experiences like community service projects or simulated elections allow rural students to grasp the practical aspects of civic involvement. Similarly, for male students, exposure to positive male role models and mentors who actively participate in civic affairs can serve as inspiration and guidance. So develop long-term strategies for sustaining youth civic engagement ensuring that it becomes a lifelong commitment. Fostering civic consciousness is an ongoing process, and it requires the collaboration of educators, community leaders and parents to create an environment where civic engagement is valued and encouraged.

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