

# Strategies for Managing Human Behaviour Among Public Secondary School teachers: Challenges and Practice

Carlos M. Espinoza <sup>1</sup>  
1 – Palaris Colleges

Publication Date: May 9, 2026

DOI: [10.5281/zenodo.20096073](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20096073)

## Abstract

This study determined the extent of managing human behavior strategies among public junior high school teachers in Malasiqui District II-A and II-B, Pangasinan during the 2025-2026 school year. Using a descriptive research design with 326 teachers and 19 school administrators as respondents, the study assessed strategies across four dimensions: managing stress, decision-making, motivation and engagement, and leadership. Findings revealed that managing stress was very satisfactory (AWM=28.24), decision-making fairly satisfactory (AWM=30.23), motivation and engagement very satisfactory (AWM=3.34), and leadership very satisfactory (AWM=3.39). No significant differences existed between teacher and administrator perceptions across all dimensions. Weaknesses overshadowed strengths in managing human behavior strategies. A proposed action plan was developed to enhance behavior management strategies focusing on stress management workshops, decision-making training, performance evaluation systems, and leadership development programs.

**Keywords:** *human behavior management, stress management, decision-making, motivation, employee engagement, leadership styles, teacher development, educational administration, Pangasinan, action plan*



## Chapter 1

### THE PROBLEM

#### Rationale

During the past several decades, management and organization theorists, primarily those studying business organizations, have made especially important contributions to our understanding of organizational behavior and management. For example, Peter Druker (2017) explored the limitations of traditional command-and-control models of organizations in stimulating worker productivity, especially in areas in which “knowledge workers” are especially important. Margaret Wheatley (2006) extended this notion, encouraging managers and workers in times of uncertainty and chaos to embrace resilience, adaptation, and creativity, while Peter Senge (1990) led the exploration of learning organizations, and Edgar Schein (1985) established the role of executives in all sectors striving for excellence in a strategic fashion, a theme recently echoed by Jim Collins (2001, 2011) in his books *Good to Great* and *Great by Choice*.

Because of its emphasis on individual behavior, contemporary organizational behavior draws heavily from the field of psychology. Psychology theories and models form the basis of our knowledge about perception and learning, human motivation, and small-group or one-on-one interactions. But not all schools of thought within psychology play an equal role in the study of organizational behavior. For example, psychological theories such as those espoused by Sigmund Freud assume that human personality and behavior are largely fixed at a young age. Not surprisingly, such perspectives are not particularly useful to adults in organizational settings. On the other hand, behavioral psychology, with its emphasis on learning and behavioral change, is quite useful and important. Likewise, social psychology, as explored early on by Karl Weick (1979) offers insights into group behavior, conflict, power and leadership.

A recent and compelling emphasis in the social psychology of organizational behavior is termed positive organizational scholarship, the study of positive organizational behavior, the practical outcome. Positive organizational scholarship traces its beginning to the late 1990sm when Martin Seligman, president of the American Psychological Association, argued that his field had too long focused on illness or pathology and proposed as an alternative what he called “positive psychology” (Seligman, 2002). Instead of focusing on what was wrong (i.e., happiness, pleasure, and joy) and how human beings could use their talents to create positive institutions that would, in turn, promote even greater positive circumstances for individuals and groups. The new approach was to emphasize the best in the human condition and model ways in which excellence and high performance could be sustained (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011).

Organizational scholars soon began to explore how this new approach to psychology might be reflected in studies of organizational behavior (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Nelson & Cooper, 2007) Fed Luthans (2002), working with the Gallup organization and noting its emphasis on strengths rather than weakness in the larger population, proposed that confidence, hope, and resiliency should be incorporated into learning about organizational behavior. Similarly, Kim Cameron, Jane Dutton, and Robert Quinn (2003) further elaborated the notion of positive organizational scholarship, suggesting a greater emphasis on human strengths, resilience, and vitality and the creation of setting characterized by appreciation, collaboration, fulfillment, abundance, and human well-being.



Cameron and Collegues (2003) wrote, “Imagine a world in which almost all organizations are typified by greed, selfishness, manipulation, secrecy, and a single-minded focus on winning. Wealth creation is the key indicator of success”. Distrust and anxiety would characterized individuals in those organizations would emphasize individuals in those organization, and social relations would be strained. Researchers looking into such organizations would emphasize excellence and extraordinary performance. Positive organizational behavior does not dismiss the first view, which has a clear basis in reality, but emphasizes the second; it seeks, as the old Johny Mercer song says, to “accentuate the positive”.

This approach is closely related to what we might call a strength-based approach to personal and organizational development (Rath, 2007; Buckingham, 2011). Instead of focusing on deficiencies – either those of the individual or those of the organization – this approach builds on their strengths. (A parallel strengths – based approach is often used in community development – the focus is not on what’s wrong with a community but what is right and what can be built upon).

We should note one other contemporary approach to the study of organizational behavior. New developments in the way the brain affects behavior, called neuroscience, or more informally brain science, suggest that the physiology of the human brain in directly connected to human behavior, including organizational behavior. For example, stress affect everyone, but the structure of the brain means that certain people are less affected by stress than others. Brain science may eventually be able to tell us, from a physical standpoint, which individuals are likely to be most resilient and why. Brain research has also shown that our brains are highly flexible and adaptable, which means that learning can take place not just in our early years but throughout our lives.

A similar argument is developed in a popular and highly readable book by New York Times columnist David Brooks called *The Social Animal* (2012). Drawing on recent work in neuroscience mind – the world of emotions, intuitions, and deep-seated longings – tends to play a much more significant role. Brooks concludes that we are not rational animals but, first and foremost, social animals. Daniel Goleman, writing in *Social Intelligence* (2007), comes to the same conclusion. Basing his work on recent advances in neuroscience, Goleman identifies a human predisposition to be aware of and sensitive to other human beings.

One emerging theme in brain studies is that human behavior, a theme we will revisit often. The study of organizational behavior then draws on work from many disciplines. The influence of these fields is not singular; each of them may provide insights into a particular topic within the field of organizational behavior. For example, our understanding of conflict and power in organizations may be explored from a psychological, managerial, sociological, anthropological, or political standpoint. Each of these perspectives may emphasize different aspects of the causes, sources, and manifestations of these phenomena as well as our role in managing and responding to them. Similarly, we can choose to emphasize the negative forces underlying organization life, or we can choose to emphasize the more positive and affirming. In fact, the more different angles and lenses we can use to look at human behavior in organizations, the more likely our actions will be effective. Our approach in this book is to employ as many tools and perspectives as possible.



## Does Good Management Make a Difference

We know that managers perform many different roles and functions in public organizations, but do these actions make a difference in the productivity of the organization? Certainly, that has been the prevailing wisdom in management and organizational behavior for some time (Pfeffer, 1998; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). However, recently the Gallup organization, better known for its broad social and political public opinion surveys, has been measuring management practices and their effect on productivity (Asplund & Blacksmith N.D.). This research has shown that employees who are engaged in their work essentially doubled their odds of success when compared to those who are less engaged. Moreover, employee engagement clearly made a difference in terms of productivity, quality, and customer service. The survey investigated how employees become engaged and found that managers using positive leadership behaviors such as a strengths – based approach, maintaining a positive perspective when difficulties arise, and providing frequent recognition and encouragement were a key factor in employee engagement. Another extensive study, this one of school districts, found that managerial quality was related to 10 of 11 performance indicators, covering a wide range of organizational goals from school attendance to student success on standardized tests (Meier & O’Toole, 2002). These findings indicate that good management and good leadership clearly make a difference.

What exactly is a good boss worth? A recent research study by the National Bureau of Economic Research looked at 23,878 workers matched to 1,940 bosses at a very large technology service company between 2006 and 2010 (McGregor, 2012). The study found that removing a poorly performing manager and replacing him or her with a top-performing manager is roughly equal, in terms of productivity, to adding an extra person to the team. The top-performing manager is like the star athlete who makes everyone around him or her look better.

Researchers have also looked at the other side of the coin – how does poor management affect the work of the organization? There’s an old adage that people don’t quite their jobs; they quite their bosses. Studies have shown that old adage to be true. In study after study, when asked what one factor determines their satisfaction, engagement, and commitment, employees point to the quality of their immediate supervisor. According to a 2005 study, when employees were asked what factor most negatively impacted their productivity, 58% cited poor management, a figure 20 points above the second leading negative impact, lack of motivation (Malveau, 2005). Another recent study of 2,865 leaders in a large financial services company that used feedback from employees, other managers, and their associates – a method called 360-degree feedback – shows a direct correlation between levels of employee engagement and the effectiveness of their supervisors (Zenger & Folkman, 2012).

Good management is associated with happy, engaged, and committed employees. Clearly, managers make a difference, and if you have the skills and abilities to manage and lead effectively, you will likely have more productive and satisfied employees. Obviously, this is a compelling reason to learn the ins and outs of organizational behavior.

## Management Stress

Just a month ago, Susan was very excited about her appointment as assistant city



manager for South Suburbia. She had moved from a similar position in a small town in a neighboring state, and although the move required her to leave her family and friends, the new job was a terrific opportunity to use her experience and learn new skills. But as she sat at her desk with her pounding head in her hands, she wondered whether she had made the right decision. She was deeply committed to public service, but there was so much to do. The city manager was asking for her to present strategic plans within 2 weeks for the units that reported to her. The previous night she had managed to anger a member of the city council by strongly recommending a project that, unbeknown to her, he was on record as firmly opposing. She glanced at her phone and saw the two lights that still were blinking. Two citizens were on hold, both demanding that she immediately attend to their problems (a pothole in the street and an unspecified “police incident”) or else they would call the local newspaper. She already had a stack of phone messages to return, four of which were from the mayor’s office. On top of all that, she was due at a public meeting in 15 minutes, where she was supposed to facilitate a discussion about economic development and growth – a topic that recently had triggered controversy and angry conflict in the community. The final blow was the note she held in her hand; her boyfriend’s mother was coming to town and wanted to stay with her this weekend. Not only did she not know this woman, but she had to work.

Anyone who has worked in the public service knows that it can be stressful for a variety of reasons. As public servants, we tackle a broad range of difficult and important problems, often under less than ideal circumstances. Controlling crime, educating children, protecting the environment, securing our national defense, and delivering health care and myriad public programs and services create difficult challenges for the public servants who are charged with their delivery. In working to do so, for example, we sometimes are asked to achieve goals that are conflicting or ambiguous. At the same time, we are responsible to elected officials, citizens, our supervisors, and our peers – all of whom might expect different things from us. There often is more to be accomplished than seems humanly possible. Our programs often are underfunded and understaffed. Working conditions for some public sector jobs can be unpleasant, and sometimes they even can be dangerous. And after all of that, the public we serve might not always appreciate us.

All of these stressors are, of course, compounded by the realities of everyday life during the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Traffic, noise, family issues, health problems, time pressures, and all of the other everyday stresses and strains of living can take their toll. Two-income families, changing role expectations, the divorce rate, and changing demographics all challenge our sense of family, not to mention our free time. We are bombarded with information and new technology demanding that we change our ways of communicating and even our ways of thinking.

But before throwing up your hands in despair, you should recognize that stress is a part of being human. You can experience stress anytime you are put in the position of having to adapt or change. Thought of in this way, it is difficult to imagine a meaningful existence that does not include some level of stress. So eliminating stress is not only bad for you but impossible, life requires that we adapt to changes that occur and respond to demands that are encountered. To put it bluntly, to have no stress, we probably would have to be dead.

In fact, the stress response can contribute to our sense of well-being, motivation, and



performance. As Vaillant (2017) put it, stress does not kill people, rather, it is the capacity of people to adapt to the demands of life that enables them to live. Stress that is too intense, too frequent, or poorly managed can be personally and organizationally destructive (Quick, Quick, Nelson & Hurrell, 2017). The key, of course, is to manage stress both in our personal lives and in the public organizations where we work so that it is a mostly constructive force rather than a mostly destructive one.

Although we concentrate here on organizational stress, it is important to recognize from the outset that we cannot completely isolate work-related stressors from stresses arising from factors outside of the organization. The reality is that we experience stress as individuals who must respond to demands that arise in both our private and professional lives. In other words, we cannot seal off the workplace from stresses that we experience stress as individuals who must respond to demands that arise in both our private and professional lives. In other words, we cannot seal off the workplace from stresses that we experience from other aspects of our lives. For example, if we have a sick relative or are going through a difficult divorce, then we probably will not be able to entirely check those feelings at the workplace door. At a minimum, during those types of life events, we might be more vulnerable to stressors at work. And, of course, bringing those stresses to work might dramatically influence our ability to perform at our best level. Fortunately, if we can understand stress, recognize its effect on us and those around us, and learn ways of coping with it, there will then be both personal and organizational benefits.

This chapter considers ways of meeting this challenge. It begins by considering the consequences and costs of unchecked stress in the workplace. It then describes the stress reaction and identifies some sources of work-related stress. The remainder of the chapter is devoted to strategies for increasing our resiliency to stress, strategies for reducing unnecessary stress, and ways of coping with stress when it occurs. The intent is to provide insights that will allow us to both manage our own stress better and understand how our actions may cause stress in the work lives of others. In addition, organizational-level issues with regard to workplace stress are discussed so that we can become more aware of how organizations can modify their practices to increase the likelihood that stress will be productive, rather than a destructive, force in public organizations.

### **Where do we begin?**

Are you stressed? That might seem like a ridiculous question, particularly because many of you are in school at the same time as you are working and handling family and other responsibilities. Of course you are stressed, you might say. The truth, again, is that all of us experience stress at some level. But it is important to know when we might be exhibiting the symptoms of stress that is too frequent or too intense. Such stress often is exhibited in physical symptoms of stress that is too frequent or too intense. Such stress often is exhibited in physical symptoms. The items in the following subsection represent some of the most common symptoms associated with stress (Smith, 2023). It is important to remember that there might be other causes for such symptoms and that an extremely broad array of physical changes and maladies can be stress related.



## Decision – Making

Public administrators face numerous responsibilities and choices. Some of their decisions have limited impact, primarily within their organizations. But other decisions may affect the lives of thousands of people (or more) on a daily basis, and they are decisions that just seem to cascade on one another. Imagine the situation faced by transportation officials in the Northeast Corridor when they discovered that a major section of Interstate 95 (I-95) between Philadelphia and Wilmington, Delaware, had been undermined and that repairs would require completely shutting down a 10-mile section of the highway for several months. The decision to do so was itself a major move, affecting not only the incredibly high volume of traffic between New York and Washington, DC, but also those who commute from Wilmington to Philadelphia to work every day and think of the decisions that flow from that. How do they reroute traffic? In so doing, what impact will the action have on businesses and residential neighborhoods adjacent to the detour? How can they minimize the difficulty? Can they encourage alternative modes of transportation, perhaps working with Amtrak to add additional commuter trains? What do they do with the cars that people would now want to park at the train station? And after all that, they discover that the parking lot nearest to the station has just been converted to long-term parking only.

Of course, not all decisions are, or should be, treated alike. Some require quick action, whereas others allow more time to decide. Imagine the difference in the I-95 example if, instead of being able to plan several months for the shutdown, transportation officials were awakened in the middle of the night to learn that the highway was closed by a sudden gas explosion and needed to be shut down immediately and for the next several months. Of course, as we saw in Chapter 4, adding time pressure to already difficult situations makes them even more difficult. And as we know, in an increasingly complex world with high-speed information systems, decision-makers must respond to events of enormous complexity within minutes or even seconds. Whatever the size and shape of the required decision, it is naïve to think that time always is available for decision-making to undergo a calculated process. By the same token, it also is a mistake to think of decision – making as simply a random process (Hall, 2019).

There are several ways of thinking about the different types of decision that public administrators must make. Some researchers have divided decision into two types: 1) programmed decisions (which are repetitive and routine and for which a procedure or decision rule has been established or may be easily specified) and 2) non programmed decisions (which occur infrequently and are poorly structured). For nonprogrammed decisions, there is no apparent decision rule, and administrators are required to engage in difficult problem solving (Simon, 2017).

Risk may be viewed as an inescapable part of every decision (Buchanan & O’Connell, 2006). For most of the decisions that people, make, the risks are small. But on a larger scale, the positive and negative implications can be enormous. At a minimum, decisions entail opportunity costs for paths not taken.

Interestingly, decisions differ at different levels of the organizations, leading to another way of characterizing decisions. Decision that take place at the top of the organization typically are labeled strategic or high-risk decisions. Strategic decisions may involve gathering



intelligence, setting directions, uncovering alternatives, assessing these alternatives to choose a plan of action, or implementing the plan (Eisenhardt & Zbaracki, 1992; Harrison & Phillips, 1991; March, 1994). In a public or nonprofit organization, these decisions might involve starting a new program (e.g., community policing) or a new service (e.g. an immunization program). High levels of uncertainty and even the possibility of conflict often characterized these decisions, and external events often shape choices.

On the other hand, low-risk decisions involve less uncertainty and occasionally permit a degree of delegation. For example, imagine that a change in an organization's benefits package seems advantageous. Such a change might come about by asking the human resources department of research available benefits and provide a recommendation to be approved by top management. Or there might even be more delegation. The human resources department might gather information from representative of various stakeholder groups (including employees) invited to serve on a "benefits committee". The final recommendation might even be left to the consensus reach by the committee. Shows the types of decisions that we might expect to be made at different levels of the organization. From this figure, we may conclude that the more uncertain the conditions surrounding the required decision, the higher up in the organization the decision – making is likely to take place. Or, to put it differently, nonprogrammer decision are more likely to be found at the lower levels.

Another issue is the relationship between decision-making and problem solving. Starling (1993) provided the following illustration: Effective decision – makers know that very few problems or events are unique. Most are manifestations of underlying problems. Therefore, before attempting a quick fix on Problems A, B, C and D, they will try to find the basic problem, E. Once E is solved, A, B, C, D, and any future problems stemming from E are eliminated. Thus, effective decision-makers make few decisions.

Indeed, Starling indicated that administrators often make more decisions than they need to make. Because the underlying causes of problems are not always obvious, problems are treated as unique. This results in administrators treating the root causes (Morehead & Griffin, 1992). It is important to remember that all problems require decisions, but not all decisions will require problem solving.

Finally, we should note that public managers face a particular difficulty in that their decisions often are (necessarily) made in clear public view. Certainly, the prospect of scrutiny increase as decision – making moves from private to public organizations (Millett, 1966; Nutt, 1999; Stahl, 1971). "Sunshine" laws often force the conduct of the public's business into the open, requiring such organizations to make decisions in front of the public's business into the open, requiring such organizations to make decisions in front of interest groups, stakeholders, and the media. "Even when sunshine laws do not apply, mechanism of accountability and oversight make all actions in public organizations, even contingency plans or hypothetical scenarios, subject to review and interpretation by outsiders" (Nutt, 1999) Blumenthal (1983) used the term fishbowl management to refer to the way in which public organizations must make strategic decisions.



Business executive Chester Barnard is credited with importing the term decision-making from the lexicon of public administration into the business world (Buchanan & O'Connell, 2006). According to Starbuck (1983), Barnard's introduction of decision – making into the business world changed how managers thought about what they did and spurred “a new crispness of action and a desire for conclusiveness”. For Starbuck, policy-making could go on and on, but decision-making refers to the end of deliberation and beginning of action.

However, even organizations known for their decisiveness may experience ambiguity over who is accountable for the decision and as a result, the decision-making process can stall. Rogers and Blenko (2006) identified four primary bottlenecks: 1) global versus local decision-making, 2) center versus business unity, 3) function versus cross-functional, and 4) inside versus outside partners. For the public manager, the last three are particularly relevant. In the case of the second bottleneck, center versus business unit, think of where the policy decision lies: Should the decision to leave a package be made at the central post office or by the delivery person who knows the neighborhood? For the function versus cross-function, consider who is responsible for identifying health care needs for the elderly: are the needs the responsibility of the heart surgeon alone, or are there partners that should be brought to the decision-making to provide for the comprehensive health and well-being of the patient? And finally, networks, collaborations, and contracts exemplify the accountability issues for decision-making. For example, inside versus outside accountability is questioned when garbage is not picked up in neighborhood: who will the resident call to report the problem – the city or the garbage company that has been contracted for a pick-up?

Blenko, Mankins, and Rogers (2010) wrote that “ultimately, an organization's value is just the sum of the decisions it makes and executes”. Reorganizations should only be made if it is going to help the organization make decisions better and faster. Blenko and colleagues recommend six steps for decision-driven organizations: 1) be clear about which decisions are most important; 2) figure out where in the organization those decisions need to be made; 3) organize your structure around sources of value; 4) figure out the level of authority your decision-makers need, and give it to them; 5) adjust other parts of your organizational system, such as information flow and processes, to support decision-making and execution; and 6) equip your managers to make decisions quickly and well.

Nutt's (2001) work adds to our understanding of the issue of decision-making by introducing the concept of what he terms “decision debacles”, decisions that go so wrong that they are reported by the media. In fact, he has found that half of all decisions fail (Nutt 1997, 1999b, 2002). Not all failed decisions lead to media attention, but three common elements are found in debacles and failed decisions: 1) faulty decision practices, 2) premature commitments, and 3) misallocation of resources (such as time and money spent on analyses to justify the wrong problem). Nutt also found that the context has less than previously thought. In other words, best practices can be followed regardless of the decision to be made and the circumstances surrounding it. The prospects of success also improve when managers work to uncover hidden concerns, take steps to manage the social and political forces, identify results, encourage innovation, and estimate risk (Nutt, 2001).



Managers facing new situations often employ the same strategies and tactics that proved successful in the past without questioning whether those strategies are appropriate for the new circumstances. This has been called the “experience blind spot”. While this danger can be particularly perilous for managers who move into a new role organization, this blind spot can also affect tenured managers who face unexpected crises.

### **Leadership in Public Organization**

Leadership is becoming one of the most widely debated but least clearly understood concepts in the study of public and private organizations these days. There are frequent calls for enhanced leadership in organizations of all types. Yet no one seems exactly sure what constitutes leadership, where it comes from, or how it might be developed. Certainly, there is agreement that the traditional topdown models of leadership, where it comes from, or how it might be developed. Certainly, there is agreement that the traditional topdown models of leadership that we associate with groups such as the military are outdated and unworkable in modern society – even in the military. Today’s society can be described as a) highly turbulent, subject to sudden and dramatic shifts; b) highly interdependent, requiring cooperation across many sectors; and c) greatly in need of creative and imaginative solutions to be problems facing us. Under these conditions, public and private organizations need to be considerably more adaptable and flexible than in the past. Yet the traditional command-and-control form of leadership does not encourage risk and innovation. Quite to the contrary, it encourages uniformity and convention. For this reason, many people now argue that a new approach to leadership is desirable. Under these circumstances, there are several issues that we need to keep in mind.

Certainly, we need to understand how leadership has been studied and practiced in the past to understand the context in which modern discussions of leadership are taking place. Studies of the lives and careers of outstanding leaders and related efforts to draw up lists of the qualities or characteristics of those leaders that made them successful provide an important backdrop to our study of leadership today. Similarly, studies suggesting that different leaders exhibit different styles help us to understand the range of option available to us. And those exploration of the various contexts or situations in which leadership takes place, along with the suggestion that different approaches might be more effective in different circumstances, will help us to situate our own efforts to lead.

At the same time, we should understand that leadership is changing in many ways, and we should be attentive to those changes. First, we should understand that, in today’s world and certainly in tomorrow’s world, more and more people are going to want to participate in the decisions that affect them. In the traditional top-down model of organizational leadership, the leader was the one who established the vision of the group, designed ways of achieving that vision, and inspired or coerced others into helping to achieve that vision. But increasingly, those in organizations want to be involved; they want a piece of the action. Moreover, clients or citizens also want to participate, as well they should. As Bennis (1983) correctly predicted many years ago, “Leadership...will become an increasingly intricate process of multilateral brokerage...More and more decisions will be public decisions; that is, the people they affect will insist on being heard”.



Second, leadership is increasingly being thought of not as a position in a hierarchy but rather as a process that occurs throughout organizations (and beyond). In the past, a leader was considered the person who held a formal position of power in an organization or a society. But increasingly, we are coming to think of leadership as a process occurring throughout organizations and societies. Leadership will not just be something reserved for presidents, governors, mayors, and department heads; instead, it will become involved in from time to time. Indeed, there are many who argue that such a shift in the distribution of leadership will be necessary for our survival.

It is safe to predict that over the coming years we will see more and more instances of what we term shared leadership in public organizations, both within the organizations and as administrators relate to their many external constituencies. As Helgesen (1996) put it, leaders in the future will be found “not only among those who constitute what in the industrial era we called the rank and file. And, as we will see, the notion of shared leadership is especially important in the public sectors as administrators work with citizens and citizen groups of all types. In these efforts, public administrators will need to develop and employ new leadership skills that include important elements of empathy, consideration facilitation, negotiation, and brokering.

Third, we should understand that leadership is not just about doing things right; it is about doing the right things (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). In other words, leadership inevitably is associated with important human values such as freedom, equality, and justice. Through the process of leadership, people working together make choices about the directions they want to take, they make fundamental decisions about their futures. Such choices cannot be made simply on the basis of a rational calculation of costs and benefits. They require a careful balancing of human values, whether those reflected in the direction in which an organization chooses to move or as citizens and governmental officials work together in the development of public policies. Leadership, as we will see, can play a “transformational” role in this process, helping people to confront important values and, indeed, to grow and develop individually and collectively in the process of such confrontations. Accordingly, a number of writers on leadership have urged that we examine the “servant” role of leadership (Greenleaf, 2002) and that we be attentive to “leading with soul” (Bolman & Deal, 1995).

In this chapter, we consider these important and evolving issues, but we also reflect on how these consideration might affect the way in which you go about trying to improve your own leadership capabilities. We examine traditional approaches to leadership, contemporary approaches to leadership, and some special considerations related to leadership in the public serviced. We then explore the implications of these ideas for leadership development. We begin by examining the way in which you think about leadership now.

### **Communicating Effective with Others**

Mary Lou Cooper, head of an internal audit agency in state government, sees signs of fatigue in John Carter, one of her best employees. Being concerned about his health, she suggests that he take some time off. John, on edge because of an illness in his family, already is worried that he is not doing his job as well as he can and takes Mary’s suggestion as an effort to get him out of the way. Concerned that he might lose his job, he does not follow Mary’s advice and



instead works even harder – at some risk to his health and psychological well-being. Meanwhile, Steve Jackson and Phil Dexter, two very close friends, hear rumors of a new and very attractive management position for which they both would be eligible. In a lunchroom conversation, Steve happens to comment on a recent mistake Phil made on an important project. Phil hears of the comment from someone else, takes offense at Steve’s “negative campaigning” for the new job, and isolates himself from Steve. The two friends soon become intense rivals or even enemies. Then they hear that John has been working especially hard recently. They assume that he also wants the new job, so they both begin to shape their conversations to disparage John. Suddenly, the organization is in chaos. People are hurt, friendships are damaged, and the actual work of the organization is pushed to a back burner.

Obviously, clear and constructive communication within public organizations to accomplish their tasks most effectively and responsibility but also for people in the organizations to live happier and more satisfying lives. But communicating effectively with others is not easy. What would seem to be a simple process of speaking, listening, and understanding actually is enormously complex. Moreover, there are several important barriers to effective communication in organizations, many of which we examine in this chapter. There also are some lessons we can learn about communication that will enable us to communicate more effectively with others, and we examine several of these techniques as well. Finally, there are some special communication issues that those in public organizations often face – how to counsel employees in a supportive fashion, how to conduct meetings, and how to write good memos, reports, and proposals.

Communication can be defined most simply as the transmission of information from one party to another. In its classic formulation, communication appears to be quite straight forward. First, there is the sender, or the one who initiates the communication by sending some types of message. That message is transmitted through various channels or media – speech, body language, e-mail, and so on. The message goes to the receiver, who then may or may not provide feedback. In this formulation, communication is successful when the receiver understand what the sender intended.

In practice, communication is much more complicated than this simple model implies. Imagine that Anne, the dean of the School of Public Affairs at a major Midwestern university, wants to encourage faculty to contribute to the college’s endowment fund, especially because this would provide a model for those outside who might be asked to give. The first problem that Anne faces is how to formulate the message. Anne knows what she wants and what she means to communicate, but she also knows that faculty might resent her request. For this reason, she wants to choose just the right words to express her meaning clearly and carefully. She also must make a decision about what channel to use of communicate her message. In the best of all possible worlds, she would like to talk with each faculty member individually so that she could gauge the individuals response and shape her message to that reaction. But time limitations make that impossible. So she is left with others alternatives such as making an announcement in a meeting of the school faculty and sending’s memo or an e-mail to everyone in the school. Whatever her choice, when the message is received it will be interpreted differently by different faculty members. Some might recognize the importance of having solid internal contributions from those in the organization prior to undertaking an external fundraising campaign. Others might believe that the university’s recent raises have been so small that for someone to ask for money



is simply ludicrous. In response to Anne's message, some faculty members might send contributions. Other might send back sharply worded letters complaining about the dean's cruel and ruthless arm-twisting tactics.

As our example shows, what is critical in any communication is what the sender meant and what the receiver understood. When Anne began to think about her communication problem, she knew what she meant, but she also recognized the difficulty of putting that meaning into words. Similarly, the receivers of the message will interpret the message differently based on their own perceptions (of the situations, of the dean, and even of themselves). They need to translate the message into terms meaningful to them. Communication, then, not only is concerned with transmitting information but also is concerned with establishing common meanings.

But the process of establishing common meaning raises several other issues. First, as we already have seen, the sender has to encode the intended meaning and the receiver has to decode the meaning. Communication involves creating meaning, transmitting meaning, and deciphering meaning. But the different parties involved in the process do so in terms of their own particular circumstances. We view the world through different lenses shaped by our accumulated perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, and interpretations. Using different lenses, we see (or hear) different things.

This topic has recently been popularized in discussions of women seeking executive-level positions in business and other organizations. Sheryl Sandberg, COO of Facebook, in a popular TED Talk (see [http://www.ted.com/talks/sheryl\\_sandberg\\_why\\_we\\_have\\_too\\_few\\_women\\_leaders](http://www.ted.com/talks/sheryl_sandberg_why_we_have_too_few_women_leaders)) and later in her book *Lean In* (2013), argues that women who aspire to the highest level jobs often undermine themselves by being less assertive and less confident than men. Some of the problem is related to body language. For example, Sandberg encourage women to "sit at the table", not off to the side. While they are at the table, both men and women are likely to be more successful if they sit up straight, project interest in the discussion, speak with confidence and a firm voice, and avoid rambling.

### **Managing Conflict**

Conflict management is an important part of any relationship, any group, or any organization. You may experience conflict with a friend, a classmate, a coworker, a supervisor, or a subordinate. Conflict may be about personal preferences, political differences, or organizational policies and procedures. Conflict may reside largely below the surface, but it also may break into the open – sometimes at the oddest time – and, on occasion, latent conflict may explode into sheer nastiness. In interpersonal conflict (the type that we are primarily concerned with), Lulofs and Cahn (2000) make the following assertions about the people involved:

The people are interdependent; the people perceive that they seek different outcomes or they favor different means to the same ends; the conflict has the potential to negatively affect the relationship if not addressed; and there is a sense of urgency about the needs to resolve the issue.

In any case, as Barbara Male reminded us in the introductory quote to this chapter, conflict always is more complicated than it may appear.



Most students of organization view conflict as inevitable (DeVoe, 1999). They argue that as long as there are humans, deadlines, and things that do not work, there is going to be conflict. Public administrators are especially open to conflict because they are, by the very nature of their work, required to deal with uncertainty, ambiguity, and differences of opinions. In addition, the current trends toward workforce diversity, globalization, and partnerships with other organizations are making the way in which managers from different organizations and cultures deal with conflict increasingly important. (Sybolt, Derr, & Nielson, 1996). In a nutshell, conflict arises whenever interest collide, and the public sector is one place where interacts inevitably collide.

### **Statement of the Problem**

This study determine the extent of managing human behavior In Public Secondary Schools in Malasiqui District II-A and II-B during the school year 2025 – 2026.

Specifically it seeks answer to the following related questions.

1. What is the extent of managing human behavior in public secondary schools in Malasiqui District II-A and II-B as perceived by the teachers themselves and the school administrators.
  1. Managing stress,
  2. Decision Making,
  3. Motivation and engaged,
  4. Leadership,
  5. Managing Conflict, and
  6. Effective communication?
2. In there a significant differences between the perception of the teachers and school administrators on the extent of managing human behavior?
3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the school administrators in managing human behavior in public secondary schools of Malasiqui Division of Pangasinan?
4. What action plan can be proposed to enhance the extent of behaviors?

## Chapter 2

### Research Methodology

This chapter presents the research design and procedures that include the research method, research design, respondents of the study and the statistically treatment of data.

#### Research Design

The descriptive design was employed in this study. This research method is used to established the prevailing status or conditions in a particular area of concern. It is also suitable to situations which call for the analysis of differences without variable manipulation. Hence, the descriptive method is appropriate for the study.

The present study focused on determining the Managing human behavior of the teachers in public secondary school in Malasiqui, Division of Pangasinan I. It also sought to determine the significance of the difference between the perceptions of the teachers manifest professional and practice personal qualities at 5% level of significance.

#### Locale and Population of the Study

The study was conducted in the Municipality of Malasiqui during the school year 2025 – 2026. The subjects of the study consisted of the total enumeration of all school administrators. There are nineteen (19) public secondary schools covering the Municipality of Malasiqui with a total of 326 teachers and 19 school administrators.

Table 1 shows the distribution of subject respondents by school.

**Table 1**

#### Distribution of Subject Respondent

School	Number of School Administrators
1. Aliaga National High School	2
2. Calbueg National High School	1
3. Canan National High School	2
4. Clemente Cristobal National High School	3
5. Don Pedro National High School	2
6. Domingo Boquiren National High School	1
7. Lareg-Lareg National High School	2
8. Lokeb Norte National High School	2
9. Lokeb Sur National High School	2

10. Lunec National High School	1
11. Mabulitec-Integrated School	1
12. Malasiqui National High School	9
13. Nalsian-Tomling National High School	2
14. Nancapian National High School	1
15. Olea National High School	2
16. Palapar National High School	1
17. San Julian National High School	1
18. Talospatang National High School	3
19. Tobor National High School	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>

### Data Gathering Tool

The research study made use of the questionnaire as the data gathering instruments. It consisted of two (2) parts.

Part I consisted of the profile of the respondents in terms of age, sex, highest educational attainment, years of teaching experience and seminars/training attended for the last three (3) years.

Part II consisted of the indicators on professional and personal qualities of teachers.

This is adopted from Zulueta (2006) in his book *Principles and Methods of Teaching*.

### Data Gathering Procedure

The researcher sought permission from the Schools Division Superintendent pertaining to the conduct of the study. Likewise, he also asked permission from the nineteen (19) school administrators in the Municipality of Malasiqui.

The set of questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher to all the public secondary school teachers in the said Municipality. It took him three (3) weeks for both floating and retrieving the said questionnaires. The researcher was able to retrieve all the questionnaire from the respondent teachers and their school administrators.

### Statistical Treatment of Data

Problem Number 1 on determining the profile of teachers was answered by using frequency counts and percentages.

Problem Number 2 on determining the extent to which teachers manifest professional and practice personal qualities was answered by using 4-Value Likert Scale with the average weighted mean (AWM) and their descriptive ratings as follows:

Scale		Descriptive Rating	
4	(3.26 – 4.00)	Always (A)	- 5 times a week
3	(2.51 – 3.35)	Often (O)	- 4 times a week
2	(1.76 – 2.50)	Sometimes (S)	- 2-3 times a week
1	(1.00 – 1.75)	Rarely (R)	- Once a week

Problem Number 3 on determining the significant differences in the perceptions of teachers themselves across their profile variables was answered by using the t-test for sex, years of teaching experience and seminars/training attended for the last three years. However, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used under profile variables age and highest educational attainment and then subjected to Post-hoc test particularly the Scheffe's test or S-test to purposely determine the significance of the differences between pair of means one after the another.

Formula:

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{SD\bar{X}}}$$

where:

$X_1$  = First Mean

$X_2$  = Second Mean

$SD\bar{X}$  = Standard error of difference between the two means

$$F = \frac{\text{Mean - Square for Between Groups}}{\text{Mean - Square for within Groups}}$$

Post-hoc test using the Scheffe's test or S-test

$$F = \frac{\chi^1 - \chi^2}{S^2w(N_1+N_2) \div N_1N_2}$$



Problem Number 4 on the significant differences between the perceptions of the teachers themselves and their school administrators on their extent of manifest along professional qualities was answered by using the t-test.

Problem Number 5 on the significant differences between the perceptions of the teachers themselves and their school administrators on their extent of practices along personal qualities was answered by using the t-test.

Problem Number 6 on determining the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in their extents of manifestations and practices was answered by using the average weighted mean. A mean value of 2.51 and Above is classified as “Strengths” while a mean value of 2.50 and Below is considered “Weaknesses”.

Problem Number 7 on formulation of proposed action plan was based on the findings of the study.

### Chapter 3

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Strategies In Management Human Behavior

**Table 2**  
**Managing Skills**

A. Managing Stress	Teachers		School Administrators		Overall	
	AWM	DE	AWM	DE	AWM	DE
1. Recognizing and Evaluating how stress is influencing both our performance and that of others.	3.40	FS	3.41	VS	3.41	VS
2. Sufficiently self-aware to knows when we might be getting into the destructive and unproductive ends of the stress curve.	3.41	VS	3.41	VS	3.41	VS
3. Be aware of how stress may influence others.	3.35	FS	3.41	FS	3.37	FS
4. Preventing unnecessary and destructive levels of stress and strain.	3.38	FS	3.38	FS	3.38	FS
5. Be attentive to responsibilities and capabilities of managing own stress.	2.60	S	3.37	S	2.60	S
6. Be cognigent of the role of their organization in effective stress management.	2.60	S	2.60	S	2.60	S
7. Have excuse to aid physical strengths and stamina.	2.35	S	2.60	S	2.36	S
8. Learning Progressive relaxation controlled breathing and similar approaches be helped in coping with stress.	3.41	VS	2.36	VS	3.42	VS
9. Attitude adjustment of healthy attitude help tolerance for stress.	3.42	VS	3.42	VS	3.42	VS
10. Become more resilient emphasize the value of social competence, problem solving skills and development of critical consumers.	2.70	FS	3.42	FS	2.70	FS
<b>Overall Average Weighted Mean</b>	<b>28.19</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>2.70</b>	<b>VS</b>	<b>2.80</b>	<b>VS</b>

Table 2 revealed the top four (4) indicator that were answered in managing stress. They were as follows: learning progressive relaxation controlled breathing he helped in coping with stress (7.42) very satisfactory, attitude adjustment of health attitude help tolerance with stress

(3.42) very satisfactory; recognizing and evaluating how stress is inflowing both our performance and that of others (3.41) very satisfactory and sufficiently self aware to become when we might be getting into the destructive and unproductive of the stress curve (3.41) descriptive (3.41). The findings implied that they know how to cope up with stress at least in a certain acceptable level. They revealed that they know and are aware how stress affects their performance and on how they are destructive act unproductive ends.

Considering further the effects of stress in ones work of performance there were bottom three (3) on how they were affected by their stress which were described as fairly satisfactory such as be aware of how stress may influence others 3.37, preventing concieny and destructive level of stress and strain (3.38) and become more resilient emphasize the value of social competence, problems solving skills and development of critical consumers 2.70 described as fairly satisfactory. The findings wanted to show that the teachers fairly to upgrade their knowledge and skills in dealing with stress when necessary.

As a whole, it revealed that they failed to cope up in higher level of using the stress when they were confronted with such particularly in works. The was proven by the needed total average weighted mean of 28.24.

**Table 3**  
**Decision Making Style**

B. Decision Making	Teachers		School Administrators		Overall	
	AW M	DE	AWM	DE	AW M	DE
1. Distinguish what really matters in your organization.	2.60	S	2.60	S	2.60	S
2. The goal should be to move toward an action not only to reach consensus.	2.65	FS	2.66	FS	2.66	FS
3. Package delivery, exercising moral imagination.	3.38	FS	3.37	FS	3.38	FS
4. Ways of thinking action in implementation should be the goal.	2.60	S	2.65	FS	2.63	FS
5. Distinguish what truly mother some discusses matters more than the others.	3.40	FS	3.35	FS	3.38	FS
6. Translate goals and objectives into pay off and utility	3.20	FS	3.20	FS	3.20	FS
7. Choose among alternative	3.50	VS	3.50	VS	3.50	VS
8. Consider the consequences	2.69	FS	2.69	FS	2.67	FS

9. Select alternative whose consequences have the greatest utility	3.35	FS	3.35	FS	3.35	FS
10. Individuals must be organized in a structured way to achieves as objective.	3.38	FS	3.40	FS	3.39	FS
<b>Overall Average Weighted Mean</b>	<b>2.80</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>2.71</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>2.83</b>	<b>FS</b>

Table showed that choosing among alternative was rated very satisfactory with a weighted mean of 3.00. The findings implied that the teachers were able to make good decision by having alternative. It could be noted further that they were able to manifest safe decision by considering what really matters to organization (2.66), package delivery exercising moral integrating (3.38) ways of thinking action in implementation should be the goal (3.63) translate goals and objectives into pay off and utility (3.20), consider the consequences (2.69), relect alternative whose consequences have the greatest utility (3.35) and finally individual must be organized in a structured way to achieve as objective (3.39), described as facial satisfactory.

As a whole the table describe the managing decision at least fair enough to be safe in making decision.

**Table 4**  
**Motivation and Engagement**

C. Motivation and Engagement	Teachers		School Administrators		Overall	
	AW M	DE	AWM	DE	AW M	DE
1. Positive working relationship with boss	3.40	FS	3.41	VS	3.41	VS
2. Good pay	2.50	FS	2.50	FS	2.50	FS
3. Freedom on the job	3.20	FS	3.20	FS	3.20	FS
4. Praise for a job well done	4.20	VS	4.20	VS	4.20	VS
5. Interesting and challenging work	3.50	VS	3.50	VS	3.50	VS
6. Knowing that there will be consequences for good performance.	3.41	VS	3.50	VS	3.46	VS
7. Clear written job description	3.40	FS	3.40	FS	3.40	FS
8. Chance for position	3.20	VS	3.20	VS	3.20	VS

9. Performance evaluation	3.70	VS	3.50	VS	3.56	VS
10. Time off from work and regular hours	4.10	VS	4.10	VS	4.10	VS
<b>Overall Average Weighted Mean</b>	<b>3.92</b>	<b>VS</b>	<b>3.82</b>	<b>VS</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>VS</b>

Table revealed the overwhelming results in motivation and engagement as proven by six (6) indicators rated very satisfactory such as positive working relationship with boss (3.4) praise with a job well done (4.20) people enjoying working with the group (3.50) interesting and challenging work (3.46) chance of position (3.50); and a nice office (4.00). The findings implied that the role of motivation and engagement can inspire employees to aspire for more challenging to become productive and achieve.

As a whole, it can be manifested that the employee / teacher can be satisfied and inspired by giving proper boosting of the employees / teacher and proper necessities and award may be the greatest helps.

**Table 5**  
**Style in Managing Leadership**

D. Leadership	Teachers		School Administrators		Overall	
	AWM	DE	AWM	DE	AWM	DE
1. Tells what group members what they are supposed to do.	3.40	FS	3.40	FS	3.40	FS
2. Acts friendly with members of the group.	3.35	FS	3.40	FS	3.38	FS
3. Sets standard of performance for group members.	3.38	FS	3.40	FS	3.39	FS
4. Tell others to feel comfortable in the group.	3.45	VS	3.46	VS	3.46	VS
5. Makes suggestions about to solve problem.	3.41	VS	3.41	VS	3.41	VS
6. Responds, favorably to suggestion made by other.	3.40	FS	3.41	VS	3.41	VS
7. Makes their perceptions clear for other	3.41	VS	3.42	VS	3.42	VS
8. Praise others, fairly	3.45	VS	3.46	VS	3.46	VS
9. Develops a plan of action for the group	3.45	VS	3.46	VS	3.46	VS
10. Behave in a predictable manner towards group member.	3.35	FS	3.36	FS	3.36	FS
<b>Overall Average Weighted Mean</b>	<b>3.42</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>3.39</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>3.39</b>	<b>FS</b>

Table 5 showed the overwhelming description of the learning competencies along leadership as it challenges the very satisfactory results. To prove we have tell others to feel comfortable in the group 3.39; makes suggestions about how to solve problem 3.41; very satisfactory, responds favorably to suggestions made by others 3.41; makes their perception clear for others 3.43; develop plans of action for the group 3.96. The results implied that they are ready to face any consequences where it happens. The were aware on what to do anything helpful.

As a whole their performance of the competencies was commendable. They manifest help sources of leadership proven by the total average weighted mean of 3.39.

### Summary of the Strategies in Managing Human Behavior

Table 6 presented the summary of the styles of the heads in managing human behavior

**Table 6**

#### Summary of the Strategies in Messaging Behavior

Indicators	Teachers		School Administrators		Overall	
	AW M	DE	AWM	DE	AW M	DE
1. Managing Stress	28.19	FS	28.24	VS	28.24	FS
2. Decision Making	2.70	FS	27.1	FS	30.23	FS
3. Motivation and Engagement	3.92	VS	3.82	VS	3.34	VS
4. Leadership	3.42	FS	3.39	FS	3.39	VS
<b>Overall Average Weighted Mean</b>	<b>3.42</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>3.39</b>	<b>FS</b>	<b>3.39</b>	<b>FS</b>

Table 6 revealed the summary of the strategies in managing human behavior, that managing stress fairly satisfactory 28.24; decision making fairly satisfactory 30.29; motivation and engagement 3.34 very satisfactory and leadership 3.39 very satisfactory. The findings implied that the strategies in managing human behavior showed positive results that can push the ability to manage human organization particularly along decision making, motivation and engagement and leadership.

**Strengths and Weaknesses of the Teachers and School Administrator in Strategies for Managing Human Behavior**
**Table 7**
**Strengths and Weaknesses in Strategies of Teachers  
for Managing Human Behavior**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
1. Managing Stress		2.80
2. Decision Making		2.83
3. Motivation and Engagement		2.83
4. Leadership		3.34

The table showed the strategies in managing the human behavior was weeks proven by the weighted means of managing stress 2.8, decision making 2.83; motivation and engagement 2.83; and style in managing leadership 3.34. The findings implied that the respondents lack the needed style in dealing with the abilities in improving the style to make the management of human behavior workable and beneficial to the organization particularly in educational parkens.

### Proposed Action Plan to Enhance / Improve the Style of Managing Human Behavior

Managers or administrators perform diversified roles and functions in organization but these functions make a difference in of the productivity of the organization or institution. However recently organization has been meaning management parties and their effect in productivity. This has shown that employees who are engaged in their work. Essentially developed the success their work in terms with their productivity, quality, and services. Have employees become engaged and found that manager/leader, administrators using positive leadership behavior such as strengths – based approach, maintaining a procedure perspective when difficulty arises and officially employees engaged. To have a supremfull enjoyment certain styles or strategies and needed to be applied self as managing stress, decision making motivation and engagement, leadership, effective communication and managing conflict.

#### Action Plan Proper

The action plan is compressed of the following parts. Access of Concern, Goals / Objectives Strategies / Activity, People involvement, Budget, Time Frame, and Success indicator.

Areas of Concern	Goals / Objectives	Activities / Strategies	Budget	People Involvement	Success Indicator
1. Managing Stress a. Attentive to requalities b. Congregent of the role c. Have excuse to aid physical strengths	Manage stress when it confront them.	Group work  Reporting  Lecture in managing stress  Exercises on stress managing	P5,000.00 MOE	Teachers, Learners Community People	90% of the teachers and parents shall have the ability to make stress.
2. Decision Making a. Choosing alternative b. Have consequence	Make responsible decision using the different strategies  Teachers shall have	Lecture on decision making  Group dynamic on decision making	P9,000.00	Teachers, school Heads, Learners, Parents	90% of the Teachers shall have learned how to make decision

c. Select alternatives	condency ralant alternative in making decision	reporting  Exercises on how to make decision using attractive based from consequences  Lecture, presentation of reports			
3. Motivation and Engagement  a. Praise for job  b. Performance evaluation  c. Intrating and challenging work.	Learn how to give praise for job accomplished  Consider the effective performance evaluation of the work close	Group dynamic  Reporting  Creative		Teachers, school Heads, Learners, Parents	90% of the teachers shall have applied the strategies in performance evaluations.
4. Leadership  a. Makes suggestions  b. Tell others to feel comfortable  c. Sets attended for group member	Lear how to make suggestion during the process of pleasing etc.  Let the members of the group to make suggestions	Lecture on leadership  Make suggestion  Reporting on leadership  Exercise on the aspect of leadership	P5,000.00	Teachers, school Heads, Learners, Parents	90% of the teachers shall have secured to deal in making suggestion comfortable.

## Chapter 4

### Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendation

This chapter discussed the different strategies in managing human behavior as in managing stress, decision making, motivation and engagement, leadership, managing conflict, and effective of the teachers and school administrators on the extent of managing human behavior, strengths and weaknesses of the school administrators in managing human behavior applying the different styles. Finally the results would be formulation of the proposed enhance the extent of human behavior in management of human behavior.

Below and the proceeding pages revealed the different findings, conclusions and recommendation of the study.

#### Findings

The following are the findings of the study:

1. The strategies in managing human behavior was described very satisfactory in managing stress 28.21 in leadership fairly satisfactory in decision making 3.23 very satisfactory in motivation and engagement 3.34, and very satisfactory in leadership 3.39.
2. There was no significant difference between the perception of the teachers and school administrators in strategies managing in human behavior.
3. The weaknesses overshadowed the strengths of the teaches in strategies in managing human behavior.
4. Action plan to improve the strategies in managing the human behavior was formulated.

#### Conclusions

The following were the conclusion as a results of the findings.

1. The teachers were showed acceptable performance in applying the strategies in managing human behavior along the different chosen dimension.
2. the two groups of respondents did not contradict each other as they have the same point of perceptions.
3. There were no weaknesses than strengths of the respondents.
4. The action were formulated to enhance the strategies in managing human behavior.

#### Recommendations

The results of the analysis of the data gathered yielded the following recommendation to enhance / improve the strategies of managing human behavior.

1. The teachers / administrator should continually upgrade themselves in dealing to the aspect of strategies of inspiring the human behavior and knowledge in strategies in managing human behavior particularly in the context of human personality in the twenty fourth century.



2. The teachers and school administrators must work kind in had to make the human organization achieve the goals of the minimum of the organization particularly DepEd.
3. The teachers must work together with the educational activities to enhance the budget of modernization of human management organization.
4. The proposed plan of action must be used to enhance / improve the strategies to managing human organization.