

The Role Played By Principals as Managers and Leaders of Public Schools in Swaziland¹

Z. Hamid, C.A. Bisschoff and C.J. Botha

*The Management College of South Africa, Durban, South Africa and
NWU Potchefstroom Business School, North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa*

KEYWORDS Educators. Factors. Involvement. Leadership. Management

ABSTRACT Swaziland is a small country situated in-between South Africa and Mozambique towards the southern tip of Africa. As former British colony, achieving independence in 1968, Swaziland has a history of colonial education based and built on diverse education in the past. This study focuses specifically on role that principals play as managers and leaders in the Swaziland education sector and the management thereof. In total, six factors have been identified. They are *Managerial involvement, Leadership involvement, Managerial transparency, Managerial effectiveness, Management-driven outputs* and *Conducive working environment*. These factors explain a cumulative variance of 52 percent, but have a lower-order reliability as measured by Cronbach alpha (<0.60). The factors also do not correlate significantly with one another, indicating that the factors are individualistic in nature and should be managed as individual factors. The results are of value to education managers in Swaziland (and elsewhere), academia and future researchers.

INTRODUCTION

Overview of Swaziland

Swaziland is a small landlocked former British colony, bordering Mozambique and South Africa. Swaziland is approximately 17 000 square kilometres in size and consists of four major regions each with unique climatic conditions. They are Hhohho (highveld), Manzini (middleveld), Lubombo (lowveld and plateau) and Shielweni (middleveld) (Worlдатlas 2014).

According to the records of SA History (2014), the Swazi Nation as commonly referred to in current times, originated in Mozambique and moved over to what is in contemporary times Swaziland. The history is punctuated by fighting and politics with Swaziland finally receiving identity and ownership of its land from the British colonial powers. This history includes clashes between different local tribal groups which evolved with European settlers, traders and missionaries' moving into the area in the 1800's and in 1887 annexed the kingdom. After the period

of colonization Swaziland achieved total independence in 1968 (SA History 2014).

The country has an estimated population of 1.275 million citizens (2015) with a gender share of 53 percent females and 47 percent males (Countrymeters 2015), of which 78.8 percent resides in rural Swaziland while the official death rate is 13.75 in 1000 (CIA World Fact Book 2015). This population dispersion seems to remain relatively constant as 75.9 percent of Swazis resided in rural areas in 2005 (Makhala et al. 2005: 2). Whilst this is the case, considering real population numbers the population increased from 1.1 million in 2005 to 1.275 million in 2015, creating an increased demand on social amenities like hospitals, schools, social services and security

Swaziland has one of the highest HIV prevalence rates in the world. It is recorded in Nordtveit (2010: 227) that 26.1 percent of the Swaziland population is affected by this pandemic. There exists one national language in Swaziland which is Siswati. Swaziland is governed by a monarchy form of government whereby the king is the ruler of the land.

Swaziland Economy

Swaziland's is largely bordered by South Africa. The country is largely reliant on South Africa for its imports and exports from which it receives more than 90 percent of its imports and to which it exports 60 percent of its exports (Dube 2015: 3).

Address for correspondence:

Dr. C.A. Bisschoff
NWU Potchefstroom Business School,
North-West University,
Potchefstroom, South Africa
Telephone: +27 18 299-1411
Fax: +27 18 299-1441
E-mail: Christo.bisschoff@nwu.ac.za

The Swaziland economy is heavily reliant on subsistence agriculture in which 70 percent of its population is engaged. Sugar is Swaziland's main export product. It has a weak manufacturing sector and a declining mining sector. With the 2008 global financial crises and economic meltdown custom revenues have reduced and have significantly impacted negatively on the health of the economy. As a result of the declining economic resulted in a fiscal crises in Swaziland where the weakening manufacturing and mining sector, reduced custom revenues and an estimated unemployment rate of 40 percent resulted in Swaziland falling short on achieving its government programmes and Millennium Development Goals (ThinkAfricaPress 2016). In particular the goal of free and compulsory primary education to all citizens cannot be achieved in an economy that declined from 3.5 percent in 2008 to a negative growth rate of -1.5 percent in 2013, after recovering to a 2.5 percent growth rate in 2014 (African Development Bank Group 2014; Trade Economics 2015). Swaziland is ranked (in 2014) to be 123rd out of 189 countries according to the World Bank's "Doing Business Index" (DBI). This weak DBI ranking is congruent to the findings off the World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report 2013/14 which ranked Swaziland at 124 out of 148 countries (Schwab 2014).

Swaziland Education

According to Khumalo (2013), Swaziland has focused mainly on expanding its schooling provisioning since achieving independence in 1968. However, Swaziland has been challenged in recent years to provide Universal Primary Education (UPE) due to a number of factors such as financial constraints, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, poverty, political issues of governance, and civil uprising against the monarchy system. These challenges impact negatively on providing primary education in Swaziland to all as per the Millennium Development Goals set.

The Swaziland education provisioning is centrally managed and implemented from national level. The National Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for all areas of education provisioning and evaluation. The financial management of education provisioning in Swaziland is overseen by the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Planning and Development.

Swaziland education is governed by the Education Act (No. 9 of 1981) (SA 1981). The teaching profession was formalized through the promulgation of the Teacher Service Act in 1982. This act governs the teaching profession. The Teaching Service Commission (TSC) is responsible for dealing with issues of teacher recruitment, HR planning, and the welfare of Swazi teachers.

Swaziland has 179 secondary schools and 153 primary schools. The grading system works on an 'A' and 'O' level system having grades A to G with A being the highest achievement and G being the lowest achievement respectively. The bulk of these schools are state funded. The Swazi government indicates that their primary schools can accommodate roughly 155 000 learners. Limitation of places in secondary schools is a contemporary challenge, thus a junior/primary school certificate does not guarantee access to secondary schools. The University of Swaziland is the only University funded by Government. As of August 2011 the University operations have been suspended due to financial and administrative challenges. Recent years, that is, last 3 years has seen an exodus of foreign educators entering the Swazi Education system. The majority of these teachers are from Zimbabwe. Swaziland Ministry of Education has generally maintained that Swaziland has a shortage of Educators. The teacher student ratio in primary schools is 29: 26 per teacher and 16:40 per teacher in secondary schools (as of 2011 up to 2014). This is generally a good ratio when compared to countries in SADC according to the (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics (Indexmundi 2014).

The Swaziland Education Budget

The Ministry of Education and Training (MoE) deals with the development of the education budget which, once consulted with relevant stakeholders, is forwarded to the Ministry of Finance who submits it to the national budgeting process where it is then presented to parliament by the Minister of Finance. Like most developing countries, and similar to South Africa, Swaziland awards its largest portion of the budget towards education. The Swaziland education budget is directed to the attainment of the "Education for All Goals" as well as the Millennium Development Goals (MDG'S). The Swaziland Government annually awards approximately 19 percent of the

budget to education which amounts to ZAR 2.1 billion.

Problem Statement

Swaziland's education system evolved from a traditional cultural based education. The colonial education system, as employed by the British colonial reign, segregated education standards and the local inhabitants did not receive a proper education. However, political independence and self-regulating of the education system and its quality of education delivered, did not come without challenges. Managing education provision is becoming increasingly difficult and it seems that eradication of the injustices of the education system of the past, are not easily achieved. In addition, colonial education managerial systems were changed while managerial knowledge of the education system was also lost when British educators and managers withdrew from Swaziland after independence. Adding to the complexity of the educational challenges are the population growth, low economic growth rate, lack of infrastructure and the geographic location of school that does not dovetail well with the population. Financial provisioning is at the forefront of management challenges, and unfortunately the lack of funding has now reached proportions where the salaries of the educators are under pressure.

In essence, the education sector as a whole is facing trying times. There has been an influx of foreign teachers entering the Swazi education system, which, in turn, placed additional demands onto the remaining educators. However, before any attempt can be made to address and salvage the dire education situation, knowledge regarding the educational managerial and leadership environment is needed. More specifically, this study focuses on the perceived roles played by school principals as managers and also as leaders within the Swaziland school context.

Objectives

The primary objective of this paper is to analyse the role played by managers and principals in public schools of Swaziland to reach the Millennium Development Goals of bringing education to all citizens.

The primary objective is served by the following secondary objectives, namely to:

1. Theoretically study the roles of managers and leaders in school education;
2. Empirically identify the managerial and leadership roles educational managers and principals play in Swaziland education
3. Determine the relative importance of these management and leadership roles
4. Draw conclusions and make recommendations on the management and leadership to the Swaziland school education environment
5. Identify areas for further research to the benefit of Swaziland education.

Conceptualisation of Management and Leadership

Management and leadership are concepts that have through time undergone immense research and as a result the views, modals and theories on these concepts have evolved over time. Recent research and publications have at times rejected previous paradigms, while some have augmented previous paradigms. Allio and Fahey (2012: 6) indicate that, to date, leading thinking does not agree on what truly constitutes leadership and whether there exists a particular leadership practice that may be ultimately pursued. The relationship between management and leadership itself has been defined differently over time. Historically, the function of management was regarded to be independent of leadership, each function having unique characteristics. In this regard, Allio and Fahey (2012: 6) point out that it is possible to integrate leadership into management, especially in scenarios where leadership is regarded to be a key element in managing. School principals are a typical example of such shared management and leadership functionalities, where they are required to manage the school and personnel operationally, yet also provide the leadership required by the Ministries/Departments of Education for their respective schools.

Mullins (2010: 374) indicates that despite specific functional differences, the terms management and leadership are often used interchangeably, with management focusing on *getting things done through others*, while leadership focuses more on *interpersonal behaviour at all levels of an organisation* (such as the motivational, inspirational and enthusiastic behaviour of followers of a leader). Robbins and

Judge (2012: 174-175) add by stating that leadership and management are often confused and explain that *management*, according to Kotter (as cited by Robbins and Judge 2012:174-175), is about coping with complexities, while *leadership* is about dealing with change. In addition, the important point is also stressed by Robbins and Judge (2012:174) that *not all leaders are managers* and *not all managers are leaders*. Interestingly, the authors Smit et al. (2011:315) advocate similar positions by advocating that:

- ♦ Leadership is different from management;
- ♦ Both management and leadership are distinct; and
- ♦ Management and leadership are complementary to one another.

However, Smith et al. (2011) differ from the views of Robbins and Judge (2012) that a person can be a manager, a leader, both or neither. Table 1 provides a summarised distinction between management and leadership.

Table 1 indicates that the management and leadership functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling have unique meanings to management and leadership. Essentially, the functions show that for managers, the focus is on non-behavioural aspects of management, and for leaders, the focus is on the behavioural aspects of management.

Stephen Covey (2004) provides an interesting insight into management and leadership by stating that management and leadership are, in essence, different. He advocates that leadership precedes management as is shaped by the following descriptions:

- ♦ Management is a bottom-line focus, whereas leadership is about the top line;
- ♦ Management is about doing things right, while leadership is related to doing the right things; and that
- ♦ Management is about climbing the ladder of success, whereas leadership is about considering whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall.

Management

Defining Management

Management can be defined as the process of dealing with or controlling things or people, according to the Oxford Dictionary (2014). Management, according to Mullins (2010:425), is a generic term that is open to various interpretations. However, at a basic level, management is an active function that is about “making things happen through working with people and developing them towards objectives and desired results”. Smit et al. (2011) more formally define management as the planning, organising, leading and controlling of people and resources towards reaching the mission and objectives of the organisation.

Historical Overview of Management Theory Evolution

Management theories have evolved over time as a result of environmental forces, such as the political, social, economic and technological forces.

Table 1: Management and leadership activities

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Management</i>	<i>Leadership</i>
<i>Planning</i> Creating an agenda	<i>Planning</i> Establishing goals and formulating strategies and plans to reach goals	<i>Establishing Direction</i> Developing a vision, mission and strategies for change
<i>Organising</i> Developing a human network to achieve the agenda	<i>Organising and Staffing</i> Developing a structure for the assignment of tasks and resources	<i>Aligning People</i> Motivating people and teams to follow a vision
<i>Leading</i> Executing the agenda	<i>Managing</i> The complexities of policies, processes and procedures	<i>Dealing With Change</i>
<i>Controlling</i> Checking whether the agenda is achieved	<i>Control Media</i> Comparing the plan and the outcome of the process or project and taking corrective action	<i>Steering People</i> In the right direction through motivation and checking control mechanisms; checking that subordinates follow new direction

Source: Compiled from Smit et al. (2011: 315); Du Toit et al. (2013), Cronje et al. (2004)

es operating within a dynamic business environment (The Management Centre 2014). A brief history of the development of management theory is shown in Table 2.

Management Theories

A number of management theories have been developed historically. These theories are discussed below.

Scientific Management Theory

This theory focused on increasing individual work and productivity through specialisation, job division and a look at processes required for each job. The scientific management theory was pioneered by historic management scientists, such as Fredrick Taylor, Henry Gantt and Frank and Lillian Gilbreth.

Administrative Management Theory

This theory focused on how productivity could be increased at the level of the organisation. Major contributions to this theory were as a result of the works of Henri Fayol and Max Weber. This theory was designed around the elements of planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Some element of this theory may also be found in contemporary management practice. A criticism of this theory, however, is that the administrative management theory is historically more appropriate to a stable and predictable organisation (Stoner and Freeman 1992).

Behavioural and Human Relations Approach

This theory suggested a shift from the earlier scientific and administrative focus where the emphasis was on individual and organisational productivity, respectively. This theory focused on the needs of the labour force, their social needs and as a result shifted the focus to people management skills from technical skills. This approach raised the notions of individual motivation, group behaviour and interpersonal relationships within the labour force across all levels of the organisations. Significant contributions towards this theory were as a result of the works of Mary Parker Follet, Elton Mayo and Douglas McGregor.

Contemporary Approaches to Management

Modern management theories in most literature are seen to be considered between the periods of 1960 to the present. The modern approaches are contained within the spheres of the quantitative, system and contingency approaches towards understanding management theory. After 1960, the approach towards management was moving away from the strong human relations ideology of management with reference to the relationship between human relations morale and satisfaction, to that of productivity. This resulted in the present ideology of equal attention to human relations and productivity. This understanding was also shaped as a result of the emergence of businesses that separated ownership and management, which saw businesses employing professional managers to

Table 2: Management theory and philosophy evolution

<i>Management schools of thought</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Time frames</i>
Classical management school	Influenced by the macro-environmental factors (economic, technical and cultural) that brought about the industrial revolution	1900s
Behavioural management school	Influenced by the great depression and the decline in prosperity as well as the failure of the classical management school to provide workplace harmony	1920s-1930s
Quantitative management approach	Influenced by World War II, during which both the British and Americans approached solving war-related problems through mathematical and technological approaches	1940s
Contemporary management theories	Influenced by the rapid and ongoing change characterised by the business environment after World War II	1950/60 to present

Source: Du Toit et al. (2013), Smit et al. (2004) and Stoner and Freeman (1992)

Table 3: Modern management theories and approaches

<i>Theory</i>	<i>Description of theory</i>
<i>Quantitative Theory</i>	This theory deals with the development of mathematical tools and techniques towards management functioning. These tools are used to aid planning, controlling and aiding with decision-making as things could be quantified and represented in analytical terms.
<i>Systems Theory</i>	This theory views the organisation as a purposeful and unified system that is made up of interrelated elements. The focus is on the whole of the organisation as opposed to its individual parts.
<i>Contingency Theory</i>	This theory is premised on the systems approach, but looks at the application of management principles dependent on a particular situation faced at a particular point in time. The thinking is that a management method that may be successful within one context or point in time may not necessarily be successful within another context or point in time.

ensure overall success. As a result, businesses became socially responsible towards its stakeholders (Table 3).

Management Styles

Numerous managerial styles exist, befitting a wide array of organisations and management settings. Table 4 describes a number of the more commonly referred to, and espoused, management styles.

Leadership

Historical Overview of Leadership Theory

Leadership as a construct and leadership theories have evolved over time and as such

produced varying approaches to its commentary. Notwithstanding the deluge of writings and volunteering of definitions by various authors of leadership to date, there is no unified and accepted singular definition of leadership. While this is the case, there are a number of common elements found in the varying definitions of leadership. According to Allio (2013), the formative view on leadership was that leadership was good management, the semantic description being leadership being the process of leading, the transactional view that leadership is a social exchange between leader and follower, and the aesthetic view that leadership is an art form. Leadership, as defined by Smit et al. (2011: 309), is a management function that “activates people to do things willingly”. Another view is that

Table 4: Management styles

<i>Management style</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Autocratic</i>	This style is where the manager makes decisions without input from workers. This is a reflection of the opinions and type of manager. This style is often used when in crisis and there is no time for discussion and consultation. Prolonged display of this style can stifle staff creativity and enthusiasm and can result in a poor staff morale leading to a higher staff turnover.
<i>Consultative</i>	This is a form of autocratic styling of management where the manager listens to feedback from workers and at times reviews things when required. Communication is generally downward, however, feedback is encouraged.
<i>Persuasive</i>	This style involves the manager sharing some characteristics with that of an autocratic manager where the persuasive manager maintains control over the decision-making process. The difference though is that the manager will spend time working with his/her subordinates in an attempt to convince them of the benefits of the decision that is made. While there is more staff awareness, it does not mean that there is staff inclusivity in the management and decision-making process.
<i>Democratic</i>	This style is where the manager allows staff to participate in the decision-making process and agreements are achieved through majority consensus. This requires communication to function both ways. This style can slow down the time taken to make decisions.
<i>Chaotic</i>	This style is more modern, where the manager allows staff total control over the decision-making process.
<i>Laissez faire</i>	This style is where management remains in the background, but provides guidance when required. This style allows for staff to use their own ideas, innovation and creativity in their areas.

leadership, according to contemporary leadership guru John C Maxwell (1993), is “not about titles, positions or flow charts. It is about one life influencing another”

Leadership is regarded to be the oldest domain in managerial functioning, which is linked to individual and organisational success, financial performance and overall success (Lussier and Achua 2013). In this regard, Northouse (2013) points out that leadership’s correlation with business performance is even more relevant at present and that leadership is an important success factor that is a highly sought-after and valued commodity in the modern business environment.

Business and organisations, both in the public and private sector, post the 2008 financial crises, are more than ever before recognising and questioning the position of leadership in organisations. The very existence of organisations and its effect on people is fast becoming talked about. In the spirit of organisations and its existence for mass good, the school as an organisation is not devoid of the need for a look at its leadership. Schools function as a normal business would – the business of education with its primary function being a vehicle for student education development. With this premise, the principal of the school, who is the leader of the school, should be looking to invest in sound and effective leadership.

Leadership theories have evolved over time and as such produced varying approaches to its commentary. The longitudinal focus of many studies has attempted to identify the key characteristics and behaviour patterns of good leaders (and as such seeded the concept of leadership theories that resultantly evolved). Du Toit et al. (2012: 214) indicate that the major leadership theories are the *Trait theory*, *Behavioural theory* and the *Contingency theory*. Table 5 provides an overview of these theories.

Table 5: Overview of leadership theories

<i>Leadership theory</i>	<i>Description of theory</i>
<i>Trait Theory</i>	Leaders who have particular traits or characteristics. These traits or characteristics influence leadership abilities. The limitation of this theory is that there is no concrete evidence to suggest that the presence of such traits guarantees leadership success
<i>Behavioural Theory</i>	This theory focuses on the behaviour of successful leaders and moves away from who the leader is. The type of behaviour is examined against the degree of leadership success.
<i>Contingency Theory</i>	This theory focuses on contextual and situational elements that influence the type of leadership that will be deemed effective for that particular context and situation. Therefore, this theory suggests that leaders adjust the approach based on the context and situation.

Source: Daft (2014: 17-18); Smit et al. (2011: 323); and Kempster et al. (2014: 152-157).

Leadership Styles

As is the case with numerous management styles, there are also many leadership styles that underpin leadership approaches. Some of the more popular styles are (Smit et al. 2011; Lencioni 2002):

- ♦ Transactional leaders are basically leaders who do what managers do. They structure roles, clarify objectives and provide rewards in return. This style is seen as counterproductive in an environment that requires the development of a relationship between leader and follower.
- ♦ Charismatic leaders are able to and have immense abilities to fire up and motivate followers, which, in turn, have a great impact on organisations. This type of leadership is dependent on relationships or emotional investments that exist between leader and follower.
- Transformational leadership theory suggests that leaders are capable of arousing strong emotions in followers, but also influence the whole organisation. The focus is on initiation of innovation and change. In doing so, the leader provides a strong appeal to the followers or organisation values, morals and ideals.
- ♦ Distributed leadership focuses on the relational elements between the workforce, which places emphasis on many people being involved, as opposed to just the leader being involved.

Leadership in Schools and the Role of the Principal

Although educational research has shown that classroom instruction and the teaching and

learning strategy are most impactful on learner achievement, research by Sanzo et al. (2011) indicates that educational leadership is the next most influential element towards learner achievement. In this regard, the leadership reference within the school context refers to principals, head teachers and teachers in management and administration positions. This view is further strengthened by the works of Hallinger and Heck (1997), as cited in Brundrett et al. (2005), which state that studies consistently show the centrality of leadership to school effectiveness, quality and improvement.

The roles of principals have changed over time. The focus on the principal as leader has come under increased scrutiny as expectations of how a school should function, what its objectives are, as well as dealing with issues of accountability are investigated. The important role of the principal extends not only to its core practices within the educational environment, but also to the accountability assumed by the principal him-/herself (Sanzo et al. 2011: 33).

The issue of principal and leader accountability is further demonstrated by Militello et al. (2013:74) in the United States where, in the event of failing or poor success rates in schools, principals are held accountable and they run the risk of being removed from the school as principal. Within this context, it shows that final accountability is vested with the principal who is the leader of the school.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2010), Grogan et al. (2009) and McCarthy and Forsyth (2009) (as cited in Ng Foo Seong 2013: 425) point out that the role of the school leaders who lead and manage the schools is central to the quest of educational reform and educational success. Taking into account the central role of principals in the quest to ensure school success, Swaziland school principals should look to invest in the quality and appropriateness of the chosen leadership approaches. This is important for the galvanising of the school members and stakeholders in the pursuit of school success

In addition to the important role the principal as leader plays in school success, a study by Kythreotis et al. (2010) indicated that the principal's leadership style is directly and significantly related to a school's student achievement and, in this regard, the leadership style pursued by the principal in relation to the school stakeholders is vital for success. Dimock (2000), as

cited in Brundrett et al. (2005), indicates that there needs to be recognition of leadership being a distributed phenomenon between principal teachers and middle managers. This view suggests that leadership, while ultimately vested with the principal, is also expected from teachers and middle managers (heads of departments or equivalents).

Kythreotis et al. (2010) state that the influence of school leadership on the development of the organisational culture and how it is transferred to the teachers' leadership style are intermediately influenced from the principal via the teacher towards the learners. In addition, leadership also influences student achievements, which are the primary goal of a school. Resultantly, leadership in schools is a priority that should be of high value in order to achieve success in the educational environment. The poor performance of Swaziland schools could be vastly improved if revised management and leadership approaches are exercised.

For a school to be successful, the principal needs to exhibit transformational leadership to ensure that he/she creates the conditions to ensure healthy morale among teachers and members of the school and its leadership. This allows for the leadership to create an environment and condition to allow different members to be motivated at different times based on the overall objectives of the school. This environment and condition are enshrined in respect, trust and motivation and as a result of this, over time, all members will reach consensus on the overall objectives of the school (Yang 2014).

If schools were to realise their true success, then there needs to be leadership sustainability or leadership continuity for a period that will allow its objectives to be realised. This is referred to as sustainable leadership, which is achieved through the creation of a leadership culture (Garza et al. 2014: 798). Together, transformational leadership and sustainable leadership allow for principals to win the support of school teachers and members through time, as well as ensure enterprise-wide functioning towards common goals.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology pursued in this study includes a literature review together with an empirical study. The literature review exam-

ines the issues of management and leadership generally. It also examines leadership and management and the role of a school principal as the leader or manager of a school. The literature review included journal articles, textbooks, conference proceedings and Internet-based data. Libraries at the Management College of Southern Africa as well as that of the North-West University were used to source reference materials. EBSCO, EMERALD and SABINET were also used.

Data Collection

The empirical study profiled the educators in this study. Data was collected using the ASSET questionnaire (An Organisational Stress Screening Tool), developed by Cartwright and Cooper (2002), as an initial screening tool to help organisations assess the risk of occupational stress in their workforce (Naidoo 2011:15). This questionnaire proved to be a valid and reliable tool in similar educational research (Naidoo 2011; Jackson 2004; Jackson et al. 2006; Van Wyk 2006).

There are 179 Secondary schools in Swaziland. The majority of them are state funded. According to Khumalo (2013), Swaziland had 12,511 teachers at the time of data collection. A total of 550 teachers were randomly selected from the regions of Mbabane, Manzini and Ezulwini which resulted in 377 usable and completed questionnaires, representing a 68.5 percent response rate. This questionnaire was distributed to Swaziland public school educators, and the principals supervised the completion and collection of the questionnaires. The questionnaire also measured demographic and biographic variables of educators in schools. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the principals. The study had the permission and blessing of the Swaziland Ministry of Education, who assisted in facilitating and coordination of the distribution and retrieval of questionnaires.

Statistical Analysis

The empirical results for this paper are presented in accordance with themes as per the questionnaire used (see Appendix A). Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with a Varimax orthogonal rotation of the axis was used to identify management and leadership consideration factors required for management of the Swaziland's public schools (Field 2007: 749).

Prior to undertaking the factor analyses, the data was subjected to the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity to ensure that the sample was appropriate and that the data is suitable for EFA analysis (Field 2007: 668).

According to Du Plessis (2009: 26), KMO values of at least 0.6 should be present before advanced statistical analysis is considered, based on an adequate sample criterion. Generally, values below 0.5 are unacceptable, while values of 0.7 and higher are regarded significant and an adequate sample fit for advanced statistical analysis (Field 2007: 640) in support of research by Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). These authors also point out that values between 0.7 and 0.8 are regarded as 'good', while values between 0.8 and 0.9 are 'excellent'. Values between 0.9 and 1 are 'superb'. A value close to 1 suggests that the sample used is adequate and should yield usable results. This study set a KMO value at a minimum of 0.70, as suggested by Field (2007: 672).

The null hypothesis that variables in the population correlation matrix are uncorrelated is tested through the Bartlett's test of sphericity (Coakes et al. 2008). The acceptable significance level is equal or below .005 (Field 2007: 641). If the data value is below 0.005, then the data is suitable for the purposes of multivariate statistical analyses, such as factor analysis, because the inter-correlations between the variables are low and would not influence the results negatively (Du Plessis 2009: 58).

The reliability and the internal consistency of the data were determined by the calculation of the Cronbach alpha (Wuensch 2009:58). The minimum Cronbach alpha coefficient for this study is set at 0.70 (Field 2007: 668).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the KMO Test of Sample Adequacy

The adequacy of the sample was measured by employing the KMO measure of sampling adequacy. In addition, to determine the suitability to continue towards exploratory factor analysis, the inter-relationships between the variables were calculated by means of Bartlett's test of sphericity (Table 6).

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkinmeasure of sampling adequacy.		.621
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square df	615.406 120
	Sig.	.000

The analysis showed that the sample is adequate. The sphericity assumption was tested using Bartlett's test, and the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) was used to measure sample adequacy. The results arising from these two tests are found in the table above. The KMO measure returns a satisfactory value of .621. The Bartlett's test of sphericity returns a favourable value of .000 (which is less than the required value of 0.05). This denotes sufficient inter-variable relationships to conduct the factor analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The exploratory factor analysis identified six factors. An orthogonal Varimax rotation was employed to do so. Varimax was selected as rotational method because it attempts to maximise the dispersion of factor loadings by loading a smaller number of variables highly onto each factor, resulting in a more interpretable cluster of factors (Field 2007: 749). Only factor loadings that were equal to or higher than 0.40 were considered to be significant and were used in the analysis, while factors with Eigenvalues of 1 and higher were extracted from the matrix (Mutambara 2013: 115). The six factors extracted from the analysis as well as the pertaining statements that loaded onto these factors are shown in Table 7. The five factors explain a cumulative variance of 52.053 percent.

Table 7: Total variance explained

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.102	15.509	15.509	3.102	15.509	15.509	2.225
2	2.140	10.702	26.211	2.140	10.702	26.211	1.980
3	1.520	7.600	33.811	1.520	7.600	33.811	1.758
4	1.302	6.509	40.320	1.302	6.509	40.320	1.989
5	1.202	6.008	46.328	1.202	6.008	46.328	1.496
6	1.145	5.725	52.053	1.145	5.725	52.053	1.946

The individual factor loadings of the measuring criteria and the extracted factors are shown in Table 8.

Factor 1: Managerial Involvement

Three statements loaded onto factor 1. These are statements number 230, 214 and 228. A generally high loading of above 0.70 loaded for the first two statements with an acceptable loading of 0.590 for statement three. These statements deal with issues of management taking responsibility and being involved in areas they are responsible for and management playing a direct role in the progress and encouragement of the staff and institution. As a result, this factor was labelled *Managerial involvement*. The loadings suggest that staff indeed agree or feel that managers do play a role in the overall management of the institution, take responsibility, and encourage and empower staff and team work. Managers may remain involved in the functioning of a team, but at the same time not become micro-managers and detailed in the application of management. In the case of Factor 1, managers referred to are heads of departments, head teachers and general heads of departments. The variance explained is 15.509 percent.

The study undertaken examined the changing role played by managers and leaders in public schools. In the main, the role of principal is one of accountability and ultimate ownership. The study indicates that the leadership and management style employed by the principal are key to setting the organisational functioning culture and in this regard raises the issue of accountability. The role principals and educational managers in Swaziland play pertaining *Managerial*

Table 8: Rotated factor matrix

Criterion	Components					
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
q230	.733					
q214	.717					
q228	.594					
q218		-.754				
q209		-.609				
q210		-.565				
q225		-.454				
q206			.797			
q207			.645			
q216				-.792		
q229				.594		
q212					-.716	
q215					.574	
q211					-.459	
q220						.781
q223						.552

involvement is highlighted by Mazibuko (2007) who indicates that principals should be involved as managers in the community they serve, as administrative and functional managers in the school per se, and also to be more involved with the learners (since principals' instructional time is usually limited) to ascertain that they truly grasp the educational environment they serve in order to make effective managerial decisions. Principals should also play both managerial and leadership roles because they not only provide leadership and direct the activities of the educators and the learners, but also manage, control and monitor these activities (Mazibuko 2007: 77).

Factor 2: Leadership Involvement

Four statements loaded onto factor 2. These statements are statements number 218, 209, 210 and 225. Interestingly, all these statements loaded negatively. These statements largely deal with issues of leadership, development, leading by example and exhibiting or showing will for transformational leadership as a priority. Considering the negative loading, in practice, this suggests that the teachers do not agree that their leadership is involved. This is interesting when considered in relation to factor 1. This means that although the teachers do believe that managers are indeed playing a positive role, they do not also act as leaders. Leadership *per se* is not regarded to be actively present in the educational structure of Swaziland. It is also interest-

ing to note that while factor 1 deals with managers as described as heads of departments, factor 2 refers to leaders as principals and regional educational officers who form part of the executive-level management. Considering that factor 2 deals with strategic leadership issues such as leading by example and involvement, factor 2 is labelled *Leadership involvement*. The factor explains a variance of 10.702 percent.

According to Mazibuko (2007: 78-79), *Leadership involvement* also includes an instructional leadership focus on the core vision and mission of the school. That is to facilitate classroom instruction, pay attention to what is happening in teaching and, as instructional leader, work with educators to promote classroom learning. Therefore, the principal should always be available to provide guidance and support whenever necessary

Factor 3: Managerial Transparency

Two statements loaded onto factor 3. These are statements number 206 and 207. Both these statements deal with management's vision and managerial transparency, being accessible and democratically represented. As a result, this factor is referred to as managerial transparency. These factors loaded as good 0.797, and slightly lower 0.645, respectively. Readings of these loadings suggest that teachers concur that management is visionary, transparent, accessible and democratically represented. Considering the nature of the statements, factor 3 has been

termed *Managerial transparency*. The variance explained by the factor is 7.600 percent.

Managerial Transparency ensures both democracy and accountability and serves as development agent of subordinates (Mazibuko 2007: 47).

Factor 4: Managerial Effectiveness

Managerial effectiveness is defined by Bianca (2016) as the combined effect of a manager who uses different management tools and techniques. The mentioned definition above correspond with the two statements that loaded on factor 4 regarding managerial effectiveness. These are statements 216 and 229, which deal with the issues of how effective management is in dealing with management creating opportunities for staff and school development and how teachers perceive how management regards its leadership role in relation to school effectiveness. According to Bianca (2016) these are included in the different management tools and techniques management uses. Statement 216 loaded negatively as $-.792$, which indicates that teachers do not believe that school managers create opportunities for their and the school's development. The Wallace Foundation (2016) clearly states that one of the key responsibilities of the principal as leader is to manage people, processes and data. Opportunities will arise for both teachers and students. Statement 229 loaded slightly lower on $.594$, indicating that teachers do not feel that their school leadership is sensitive towards transformational leadership and its influence on school effectiveness. Both these statements deal with the broad area of how effective its management is, and as a result, the factor has been termed managerial effectiveness. The variance explained is 6.509 percent.

Factor 5: Management-driven Outputs

Three statements loaded onto factor 5. These are statements 211, 212 and 215. Statement 211 deals with the concept of how management approaches the completion of tasks and whether managers utilise their authority to obtain results. The statement loads negatively at $-.459$, which suggests that teachers do not believe that managers pay attention to task completion nor utilise their authority to obtain results. Statement 212 examines teachers' perception on whether

the school management leads by example and loaded on $-.716$, which indicates that teachers do not believe that managers lead by example. The statements that loaded onto factor 5 deal with management's focus on outcomes, and, as a result, are termed management-driven outputs. The variance explained is 6.008 percent.

Typically a manager of a school (or business) are involved in three aspects of management, namely the inputs received to perform the tasks, the processes to manufacture (or educate) the inputs to achieve the desired outputs (properly educated learners). Specifically the principal as manager of the school is required to manage or drive towards the desired inputs. In this regard Mazibuko (2007:30) indicated that the *input* indicators include the main characteristics of each grade of learners, school infrastructure, the budget and professionalism and support of the staff. *Processes* relate to how the school seeks to achieve its goals. This means that process indicators include the effectiveness of school governance, management, leadership, safety and the quality of teaching. Finally *Outputs* refers to the academic achievements of the school regarding set standards, behavioural standards and attendance. The principal as manager is required to act as driver of the school to achieve the set outputs.

Factor 6: Conducive Working Environment

Two statements loaded onto factor 6, that is, statements 220 and 223. Statement 220, which deals with the approach taken by management in conducting meetings, loaded on a high $.781$, which indicates that teachers concede that management indeed believes that meetings are democratic. Statement 223 loaded lower at $.552$ and deals with the issue of access to important policy and procedural information. This loading suggests that such information is not easily accessible. Both these statements deal with the working environment and its conduciveness for good functioning, and, as a result, is termed conducive working environment. The variance explained is 5.725 percent. Table 9 contentualises six labelled factors.

Reliability of the Data

The reliability of the six factors was calculated using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. The results appear in Table 10.

Table 9: Factor labels and contextualisation

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Factor label</i>	<i>Factor refers to:</i>
F1	Managerial involvement	Type of management and the level of involvement in encouragement and participation
F2	Leadership involvement	Type of leadership and its involvement in the environment
F3	Managerial transparency	Access to information and management's openness in the working environment
F4	Managerial effectiveness	How effective is management's role?
F5	Management-driven outputs	Management's focus on outcomes and attainment of objectives
F6	Conducive working environment	The working environment and how conducive it is

Table 10: Reliability of the factors

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Cronbach alpha</i>
Factor 1	0.497
Factor 2	0.510
Factor 3	0.449
Factor 4	0.415
Factor 5	0.177
Factor 6	0.321

The required coefficient of 0.7 set was not achieved as the minimum level of reliability in this study. As a result, the factors cannot be regarded as reliable. Field (2007:675), however, states that alpha coefficients of 0.57 (based on Cortina's (1993) extensive research on reliability) could also be regarded as reliable. However, even the lower coefficient is not reached by the factors, and despite acceptable sample adequacy and sphericity, none of the factors have acceptable reliability coefficients. In practice, the lower reliability levels do not influence the importance of the factors to the current study (Naidoo 2011). This does, however, mean that if this study were to be undertaken within another application context, these same factors are unlikely to be identified again.

Inter-factor Correlations

The correlations between the factors were calculated by means of Pearson's correlation

Table 11: Factor correlation matrix

<i>Component</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>
1	1.000	-.143	.104	-.001	.000	.143
2	-.143	1.000	-.075	-.039	.084	-.046
3	.104	-.075	1.000	-.043	-.049	.075
4	-.001	-.039	-.043	1.000	-.086	-.112
5	.000	.084	-.049	-.086	1.000	.067
6	.143	-.046	.075	-.112	.067	1.000

coefficients at $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.10$. The results appear in Table 11.

From the correlation analysis, it is evident that the factors show significant independence from one another as none of the factors correlate strongly to any other factors. This is especially noteworthy in the case of factors 1 and 2, where the analysis identified management and leadership as the two more important factors, signifying that management and leadership are truly perceived to be two separate issues in Swaziland's education system.

The low correlations also indicate that each factor should be managed as an entity, and that limited, if any, improvement will occur in any one of the other six factors as a result of managerial energy spent to improve one specific factor.

Importantly, much of the research points to a relation between school effectiveness as a mark of its leadership and in this regard school leadership is viewed from the perspective of how well students fair and in general their accomplishments. This juxtaposition of school leadership effectiveness and student success may be a limited one, considering that schools not only function for the production of a certain level of school leavers, but are also more recently seen as an agent for social cohesion and community development. Consequently, schools do not function independently from the environment and the external social objectives found in such

environments. If one has to consider this seriously, then the role of the leader and, in turn, the success of the leader should be seen more broadly to include the macro-objectives of social upliftment and social cohesion, community development and participation of stakeholder.

CONCLUSION

This paper reports on an evaluation of the perceived leadership role played by school principals in Swaziland Schools. A set of recommendations on possible considerations for managers and leaders of Swaziland Schools are offered. Six factors were extracted from the analysis and explain a cumulative variance of 52.053 percent. These factors were *Managerial involvement*, *Leadership involvement*, *Managerial Transparency*, *Management Driven outputs*, *Managerial effectiveness* and *Conducive Working Environment*. Research from all facets draws congruency in saying that leadership is a key element of team development and organizational development. This development becomes a pre requisite for business success. In this regard the quality of management and leadership can be seen in relation to probability of organizational and business success.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From the study the following recommendations are made. Recommendations pertaining to the research methodology followed are:

- ♦ The theory achieved as a result of the literature review provides a valuable literature base. This research methodology is encouraged for similar research because it creates a scientific base and perspective that is longitudinal in nature that may result in continued research.
- ♦ The use of a validated scientific data collection tool, such as the ASSET questionnaire, ensures that the data collection is well designed around theory as this shapes structure and content.
- ♦ The 5-point Likert-scale once again proved to be a valuable rating scale that can be employed with confidence; and
- ♦ That the statistical techniques employed are scientifically sound tools to employ in similar application setting by other researches
- ♦ The use of expert skills in statistical software usage and data analyses is highly

recommended as this provides a high degree of integrity in the methods utilized as well as militated against statistical flaws in empirical research.

Regarding the results of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- ♦ Managerial efforts should be guided when considering each management and leadership factor because its significance is shown by the variance explained. The main factors identified should receive priority attention and be dealt with first. This means that factors that explain a higher variance should receive first and most attention as this would result in higher returns on managerial inputs.
- ♦ Not all factors identified enjoy high reliability coefficients and in this case those that do not enjoy high coefficients should be attended to last as these sub factors are not likely to represent themselves again in a repeated study in a different context.

Regarding the Swaziland Education Ministry goals set in the Swaziland Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), the "Education for All" strategy as well as the annual education report, the following recommendations are made:

- ♦ A careful look at the policies and practice that preside over the school environment is required. This has to be done in a manner that allows for continuous policy review, creation of appropriate feedback mechanisms that allows for grass root level awareness and importantly the development of a system to identify and mitigate the negative effects of workplace stress in the school education sector. A general increase in the will of the leadership is required to meaningfully engage with these issues so not as to play down the issues that are not necessarily easily quantified in real and scientific terms.

Congruent to the above, the following general recommendations are made:

- ♦ A policy, plan and aligned budgeting are required for the training and development of the appropriate personnel towards the development of skills required to understand the issues of stress and its related challenges.
- ♦ The efforts planned for dealing with work stress in the school education sector has to be comprehensive, that is, consideration of general health and well-being, social influences, psychological and physiological health.

- ♦ Whatever plans are considered need to be sustainable
- ♦ Awareness and plans need to be organisational wide and cater for all teachers in the public school system
- ♦ Ensuring continuous awareness programmes are planned to ensure that there is adequate and sustained efforts in enlightening stakeholders to the importance of the campaign as well as the options/resources available to teachers.
- ♦ Ensure teachers are included in the engagements from inception related to the plans that may be put in place
- ♦ Ensure that continuous and longitudinal research is undertaken to empirically examine the trends that may unfold over time as a result of policies, initiatives and campaigns that may be instituted.

Regarding possible areas of future research it is recommended that:

- ♦ An expansion of this study be done into the other three areas to ensure the managerial challenges are generic (or localised to specific regions) before managerial interventions are formulated to improve the role managers and leaders play in Swaziland education.
- ♦ A longitudinal study be undertaken within a specific time frame to ensure that implementation of interventions to improve Swazi education are effective.

REFERENCES

- Allio RJ 2013. Leaders and leadership – many theories, but what advice is reliable? *Strat and Ldrsp*, 41(1): 4-12.
- Allio RJ, Fahey L 2012. What executives can learn from revisiting Michael Porter. *Strat and Ldrsp*, 40(2): 5-10.
- Bianca A 2016. What is the Meaning of Managerial Effectiveness? From <<http://work.chron.com/meaning-managerial-effectiveness-6993.html>> (Retrieved on 19 February 2016).
- Brundrett M, Burton N, Smith R 2005. *Leadership in Education*. London: Sage.
- CIA World Fact Book 2015. Swaziland People 2015. From <http://www.theodora.com/wfbcurrent/swaziland/swaziland_people.html> (Retrieved on 15 December 2015).
- Coakes SJ, Steed LG, Price JC 2008. *SPSS: Analysis Without Anguish*. Perth: Wiley.
- Countrymeters 2015. Population on Swaziland. From <<http://countrymeters.info/en/Swaziland>> (Retrieved on 15 December 2015).
- Covey S 2004. *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*. New York, NY: Simon and Shuster.
- Daft R 2014. *The Leadership Experience*. Stamford: Cengage learning.
- Daft RL 2014. *The Leadership Experience*. 6th Edition. New York, NY: Cengage Learning.
- Du Plessis TE 2009. *South African Expatriates as Potential Entrepreneurs: An Exploratory Study*. PhD Thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.
- Du Toit GS, Erasmus BJ, Strydom JW 2012. *Introduction to Business Management*. 8th Edition. Cape Town: Oxford University.
- Dube K 2015. About the Kingdom of Swaziland. From <http://about.comesa.int/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=107&Itemid=186> (Retrieved on 10 February 2016).
- Field A 2007. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. 2nd Edition. London: Sage.
- Garza E, Drysdale L, Gurr D, Jacobson S, Merchant B 2014. Leadership for school success: lessons from effective principals. *Int J of Educ Man*, 28(7): 798-811.
- Indexmundi 2014. Swaziland Economic Forum. From <http://www.indexmundi.com/swaziland/economy_profile.html> (Retrieved on 10 February 2016).
- Jackson LTB 2004. *An Adapted Model of Burnout for Teachers in South Africa*. PhD Thesis. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.
- Jackson LTB, Rothman S, De Vijver FV 2006. A model of work-related well-being for educators in South Africa. *Stress and Hlth*, 22(4): 263-274.
- Kempster S, Higgs M, Wuerz T 2014. Pilots for change: Exploring organisational change through distributed leadership. *Ldrsp and Org Dev J*, 35(2): 152-157.
- Khumalo TF 2013. Swaziland Effective Delivery of Public Education Services. From <http://www.osisa.org/sites/default/files/afriomap_swaziland_esd_dpaaper_web.pdf> (Retrieved on 10 May 2015).
- Kythreotis A, Pashiardis P, Kyriakides L 2010. The influence of school leadership styles and culture on students' achievement in Cyprus primary schools. *J of Educ Admin*, 48(2): 11-21.
- Lencioni P 2002. *The Five Dysfunctions of a Team - Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Lussier RN, Achua C 2013. *Leadership, Theory, Application and Skill Development*. 5th Edition. New York, NY: South Western Cengage Learning.
- Makhala BK, Mokaeanne M, Polaki V 2005. A Cross-National Comparison of Primary School Children's Performance in Mathematics Using SACMEQ. Paper presented at the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality Conference, 18-22 March, in Paris, France.
- Maxwell JC 1993. *Developing the Leader Within You*. Nashville, KY: Thomas Nelson.
- Mazibuku SP 2007. *The Managerial Role of the Principal in Whole-School Evaluation in the Context of Disadvantaged Schools in KwaZulu-Natal*. Doctoral Thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Militello M, Fusarelli B, Alsbury T, Warren TP 2013. How professional standards guide practice for school principals. *Int J of Educ Man*, 27(1): 74-90.
- Mullins LJ 2010. *Management and Organisational Behaviour*. 9th Edition. London: Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Mutamba E 2013. *Perceptions of Organisational Politics and its Impact on Managerial Practices at*

- the National Electricity Provider in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)*. PhD Thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.
- Naidoo K 2011. *Stress Management and its Impact on Work Performance of Educators in Public Schools in KwaZulu-Natal*. PhD Thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.
- Ng Foo Seong D 2013. Assessing leadership knowledge in a principalship preparation programme. *Int J of Educ Man*, 27(4): 425-445.
- Nordtveit H 2010. Schools as agencies of protection in Namibia and Swaziland: Can they prevent dropout and child labor in the context of HIV/AIDS and Poverty? *Comp Educ Rev*, 54(2): 223-242
- Northouse PG 2013. *Leadership - Theory and Practice*. 6th Edition. London: Sage.
- Oxford Dictionaries 2014. From <<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/management>> (Retrieved on 24 October 2014).
- Robbins SP, Judge TA 2012. *Organizational Behavior*. 15th Edition. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- SA History. 2014. South African History Online. From <<http://www.sahistory.org.za/>> (Retrieved on 10 September 2014).
- Sanzo KL, Sherman WH, Clayton J 2011. Leadership practices of successful middle school principals. *J of Educ Admin*, 49(1): 31-41.
- Schwab, K 2014. Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report 2013/14. From <http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GlobalCompetitivenessReport_2013-14.pdf> (Retrieved on 10 February 2016).
- Smit PJ, Cronje GJ de J, Brevis T, Vrba MJ 2011. *Management Principles: A Contemporary Edition for Africa*. 5th Edition. Cape Town: Juta.
- South Africa 1981. *Education Act (No. 9 of 1981)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Steinhouse R 2010. Putting the leadership back into management: Helping managers to lead and leaders to manage. *Strat Dir*, 26(9): 10-12.
- Stoner JR, Freeman S 1992. *Management*. 5th Edition. Mumbay: Pearson.
- The Management Centre 2014. Staying Involved Without Micromanaging. From <<http://www.managementcenter.org/article/staying-involved-without-micromanaging/>> (Retrieved on 6 October 2014).
- The Wallace Foundation. 2016. Five Key Responsibilities - The School Principal as Leader: Guiding Schools to Better Teaching and Learning. From <<http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/effective-principal-leadership/Pages/key-responsibilities-the-school-principal-as-leader.aspx>> (Retrieved on 15 February 2016).
- ThinkAfricaPress 2016. Africa Research Institute: Understand Africa Today. From <<http://www.africaresearchinstitute.org/tag/think-africa-press/>> (Retrieved on 17 February 2016)
- Trade Economics 2015. Swaziland GDP and Annual Growth Rate. From <<http://www.tradingeconomics.com/swaziland/gdp-growth-annual>> (Retrieved on 15 December 2015).
- Van Wyk D 2006. *Work Wellness Among Secondary School Teachers in the Goldfields Region of the Free State Province*. PhD Thesis. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education.
- Wuensch KL 2009. Factor Analysis – SPSS. FA-SPSS doc. SPSS Help Index. Version17. From <<http://spss.com/software/statistics>> (Retrieved on 6 May 2010).
- Yang Y 2014. Principals' transformational leadership in school improvement. *Int J of Educ Man*, 28(3): 279-280.

Paper received for publication on December 2014
Paper accepted for publication on March 2016