

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

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ABSTRACT Swaziland is a small country situated in-between South Africa and Mozambique towards the southern tip of Africa. A former British colony, Swaziland has a history of colonial education based on colonial interests 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 doing so, the management and leadership factors that exist in the Swaziland public schools are identified based on theoretical and empirical research. Swaziland achieved independence in 1968 upon which history documents its educational policy reform to a more inclusive, equal and progressive education regime. 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%, but have a lower-order reliability as measured by Cronbachalpha (<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.

1 BACKGROUND

This study explores the roles played by principals as managers and leaders of schools and forms part of a broader study into management and leadership in the Swaziland school education system. There is a rich narration of literature in terms of management and leadership within a global education context, with much emphasis on the role of the school principal in a school setting. (This, however, is not so within the Swaziland school education context, where very limited research seems to be documented pertaining to the Swaziland contextual literature.) More specifically, this study focuses on the perceived roles played by school principals as managers and also as leaders within the Swaziland school context.

A quantitative investigation by means of a questionnaire was used to solicit the views of teachers in this regard, aiming to better understand the perceived role school principals play within the Swaziland school education context and, in addition, how this understanding may be explored to better influence the success of the Swaziland school education objectives. Furthermore, this study seeks to demonstrate the practical nature of the evolution of management and leadership as theoretical constructs and how this knowledge may be used to better influence the outcomes of Swaziland's school education offerings. The impact of this research allows for better management and leadership considerations and insights into how principal leadership influences overall school success.

2 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, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (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 below provides a summarised distinction between management and leadership.

Table 1: Management and leadership activities

Activity	Management	Leadership
PLANNING Creating an agenda	PLANNING Establishing goals and formulating strategies and plans to reach goals	ESTABLISHING DIRECTION Developing a vision, mission and strategies for change
ORGANISING Developing a human network to achieve the agenda	ORGANISING AND STAFFING Developing a structure for the assignment of tasks and resources	ALIGNING PEOPLE Motivating people and teams to follow a vision
LEADING	MANAGING	DEALING WITH CHANGE

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Executing the agenda	The complexities of policies, processes and procedures	
CONTROLLING Checking whether the agenda is achieved	CONTROL MEDIA Comparing the plan and the outcome of the process or project and taking corrective action	STEERING PEOPLE In the right direction through motivation and checking control mechanisms; checking that subordinates follow new direction

Source: Smitet *al.* (2011:315).

The above table 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 Cover (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.

3 MANAGEMENT

3.1 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”. Smitet *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.

3.2 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 operating within a dynamic business environment (Mancosa, 2013). A brief history of the development of management theory is shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Management theory and philosophy evolution

Management theory and philosophy evolution: Schools of thought	Description	Timeframes
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

Adapted from: Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom (2013), Cronje *et al.* (2004) and Stoner and Freeman (1992)

3.3 Management theories

- **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 more appropriate to a stable and predictable organisation (Stoner & 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.

4.3.4 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 ensure overall success. As a result, businesses became socially responsible towards its stakeholders.

Table 3: Modern management theories and approaches

Theory	Description of theory
Quantitative theory	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.

Systems theory	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.
Contingency theory	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.

MANAGEMENT STYLES

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

Table 4: Management styles

Management style	Description
Autocratic	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.
Consultative	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.
Persuasive	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.

Democratic	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.
Chaotic	This style is more modern, where the manager allows staff total control over the decision-making process.
Laissez faire	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.

3.5 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 Smitet *al.* (2011:309), is a management function that “activates people to do things willingly”. Another view is that 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&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, Erasmus and Strydom (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

Leadership theory	Description of theory
Trait theory	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
Behavioural theory	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.
Contingency theory	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.

Adapted from: Daft (2014:17-18); Smitet *al.* (2011:323); and Kempster, Higgs & Wuerz (2014:152-157).

3.5.1 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 summarised in Table 6.

Table 6: Leadership styles

Contemporary styles	Description
Transactional leadership	Transactional leaders are basically leaders who do what

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	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 leadership	These are leaders who 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	This 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	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.

Adapted from Smitet *al.* (2011) and Lencioni (2002)

The two popular theories that often pertain to educational leadership literature are the transformational leadership and distributed leadership.

3.6 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, Sherman and Clayton (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 Bundrett *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

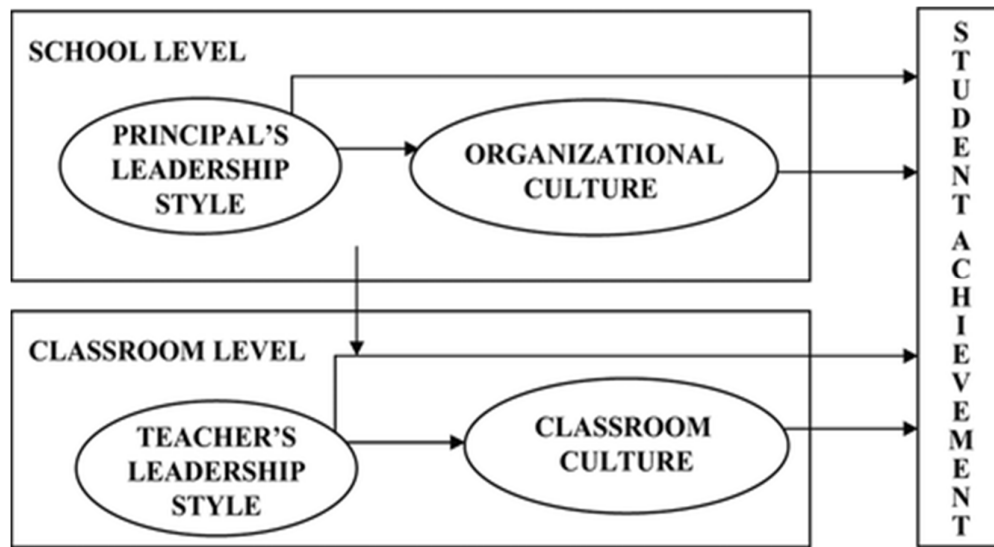
the accountability assumed by the principal him-/herself (Sanzo, Sherman & Clayton, 2011:33).

The issue of principal and leader accountability is further demonstrated by Militello, Fusarelli, Alsbury and Warren (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, Pashiardis and Kyriakides (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). Figure 1 demonstrates possible relationships between the influences of the school principal leadership on learner achievement.

Figure 1: Relationships between the influences of the school principal leadership on learner achievement



Adapted from: Kythreotis, Pashiardis and Kyriakides (2010)

From Figure 1, the influence of school leadership on the development of the organisational culture and how it is transferred to the teachers' leadership style are clear. 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, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson & Merchant, 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.

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

4.1 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 & Rothman, 2006; Van Wyk, 2006). This questionnaire was distributed using a stratified sample of state schools, to Swaziland educators, and the principal supervised the completion and collection of the questionnaires. The questionnaire also measured demographic and biographic variables of educators in schools.

The questionnaire was only administered to government schools to ensure that the sample group is representative of only government schools, because private schools are structured differently, funded and governed differently as well as serve a different population group than those served by government schools. While the regulatory requirements that govern government schools also govern private schools, the educator profile, education, training and philosophy are different, as many are religious-based schools or schools that are part of an international model of schooling. 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. A total of 550 questionnaires were distributed, and 377 completed questionnaires were received. This signified a satisfactory response rate of 68.5 %.

4.2 Statistical analysis

The empirical results for this article 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).

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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 & 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, Steed & Price, 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 Cronbachalpha (Wuensch, 2009:58). The minimum Cronbachalpha coefficient for this study is set at 0.70 (Field, 2007:668).

4.5 RESULTS

4.5.1 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 7 presents the results:

Table 7: KMO and Bartlett's test

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

Sig.	.000
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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.

5.2 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 8. The five factors explain a cumulative variance of 52.053 %

Table 8: 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

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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 9.

Table 9: 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

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. Table 10 shows differential behaviour between micro- and ‘good’ managers.

Table 10: Micro- versus ‘good’ managers

Micro-managers	Good managers
Dictate how to do a task, when it will not affect the quality of the results	Clearly communicate expectations for outcomes
Redo work themselves	Give feedback and, when work is not quite right, ask that it be redone differently
Constantly check up on work that a staff member has shown in the past they do well	Set major milestones and benchmarks and check in on those as they near
Ask to see all emails before they go out or to be in every project meeting	Ask to see ‘slices’ of work (a sample of the whole, such as a segment of a document or a page from a new website design)
Never allow a staff member to take full ownership of a piece of work, only assigning it out task-by-task	Shift the weight of a responsibility to a staff member and expect her to obsess over details and drive the work forward
Manage experienced, skilled staff members in the same way they would manage more junior, less experienced ones	Adjust their approach to fit the context – managing less experienced or less skilled employees more closely
Manage low-importance projects as closely as they would manage high-importance ones	Adjust their approach to fit the context – managing high-importance projects more closely

Adapted from: The Management Centre (2014)

The table above suggests how 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%.

Factor 2: Leadership involvement

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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 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 interesting 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%.

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%.

Factor 4: Managerial effectiveness

Two statements loaded onto factor 4. 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. Interestingly, 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. 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%.

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%.

Factor 6: Conduciveworking environment

Two statements loaded onto factor 6, i.e. 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 on a low .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%.

Table 11 contextualises the six labelled factors.

Table 11: Factor labels and contextualisation

Factor	Factor label	Factor refers to:
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	The working environment and how conducive it is

	environment	
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5.5 Reliability

The reliability of the six factors was calculated using the Cronbachalpha coefficient. The results appear in Table 12.

Table 12: Reliability of the factors

Factors	Cronbachalpha
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 extensive research on reliability by Cortina (1993)) 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 suggests that assuming this study were to be undertaken within another application context, these factors are unlikely to be found again.

5.6 Inter-factor correlations

The correlations between the factors were calculated by means of Pearson's correlation coefficients at $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.10$. The results appear in Table 13.

Table 13:Factor correlation matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
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

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.

6 DISCUSSION

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 issue of accountability in schools is a much spoken about concept and an issue that is not an ideal easily achieved in an environment with strong political and social issues. This, however, is largely dependent again on the success of the leadership displayed by the school leaders and principals. The transformational and distributed leadership styles are more akin to approaching leadership in the contemporary era of school leadership. This requires a special leadership ability that meaningfully undertakes such leadership that allows for a multi-pronged approach to school effectiveness.

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

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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.

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