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School Principals' Distributed Leadership Style, Teachers' Job Satisfaction And Organizational Commitment: A Case Of Low-Income And Underdeveloped Country

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ABSTRACT

This research article investigates the effects of school principals' distributed leadership style on teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a low-income, underdeveloped country. Data was collected from 650 school teachers working at 65 conveniently selected private secondary schools in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. Statistical procedures such as descriptive statistics, reliability, validity, goodness of fit, and SEM were utilized to analyze the data quantitatively. The analysis results showed that principles distributed leadership style significantly affected teachers' job satisfaction (Beta = 0.425, $t = 12.142$) and organizational commitment (Beta = 0.387, $t = 9.439$) in private schools in Afghanistan. In addition, the results indicated that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between distributed leadership and teachers' job satisfaction (Beta = 0.142, $t = 7.474$). The results also suggested that teachers' work experience positively influenced their level of commitment and job satisfaction, while their age had no significant impact on the mentioned variables.

Keywords: Distributed Leadership Style, Teachers' Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment

1. INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely researched topics in organizational behaviors due to its importance for the organization's effectiveness. Employee job satisfaction is considered a significant route to the organization's prime performance (Mishra, 2013; Fink, 1992). Employee job satisfaction determines their effective job performance, ultimately influencing organizational goal attainment (Tentama, F., & Merdiaty, N. 2021, p. 48). Job satisfaction shapes individuals' feelings and attitudes about their jobs; thus, an employee with a higher level of job satisfaction increases organizational productivity while employees with lower job satisfaction decrease the efficiency level in the organization (Zia, A., Shah, M. H., & Naz, B. A. 2021, p. 278).

Moreover, (Irabor, I. E., & Okolie U. C. 2019, p. 98) concluded that job satisfaction creates a win-win situation for both organization and its employees. Job satisfaction positively influences employees' well-being. Employees who are highly satisfied with their jobs possess better mental and physical health than those with lower job satisfaction (Çobanoğlu, N. 2020, p. 319). Accordingly, Zia et al. (2021) maintained that job satisfaction enhances the quality and quantity of individual performance and improves their quality of life (p. 78).

In addition, the welfare index of job satisfaction at the workplace is not limited to the employee and employer only; in fact, it is extended to the coworkers and the whole organization (Tentama, F., & Merdiaty, N. 2021, p. 48). Satisfied employees perform their duties more enthusiastically and zeal, uplifting other employees' morale and even the supervisor (Ilahi, S., & Ahmed, M. 2016, p.12). Job satisfaction positively influences trust-building among the employees; it facilitates harmony and collaboration in the workplace, thus decreasing the tension and anxiety among the employees (Çobanoğlu, N. 2020).

On the other hand, lack of satisfaction at the workplace causes deviant behaviors among the employees. Employee dissatisfaction increases absenteeism and turnover (Gaertner, S. 1999, p. 490) and reduces the quality and quantity of employee output (Velnamy, T. 2008, p.70). Furthermore, Sani A. (2013) stated that dissatisfied employees tend to complain about their jobs, and job facets negatively affect coworkers' morale and increase employee tension and stress (p. 59).

Job satisfaction influences are vital for all organizations regardless of their types; however, their impacts are incredibly pervasive in the education sector. Educational institutions such as schools and universities play a pivotal role in the country's social growth and economic development (Grant, C. 2017; Ullah et al., 2022). They increase the efficiency and effectiveness of a country's human capital and determine the competencies, skills, and other productivity-enhancing potentials of a society (p.2).

Meanwhile, teachers are the most critical human resource in every educational institution since they have the potential to fulfill the mission of educational institutions and to transform the upcoming generations of a country (Shetty, B. R., & Gujarathi, R. 2012, p. 2). Teachers' job satisfaction at school strongly predicts their performance (Hendrawijaya, A. T., Hilmi, M. I., Hasan, F., Imsiyah, N., & Indrianti, D. T. (2020, p. 855). Accordingly, Mahafda & Al-Haddad. (2012) stated that teacher satisfaction level predicts their productivity and the quality of their services to their students, schools, and community. Satisfied teachers are highly preserved and dedicated to their duties, positively affecting schools' ability to attain their strategic goals (Li & Wang, 2016, p. 182). Similarly, Lopes J., & Oliveira, C. (2020) maintained that teacher satisfaction determines teachers' performance, students' academic achievement, and overall school effectiveness (p.641).

Moreover, teacher job satisfaction reduces the turnover rate in schools (Islam, Abad Shah & Jumani 2015, p. 319). Teachers' turnover is a severe problem for educational institutions. It increases the cost of selecting, recruiting, and training the replacement personnel (Kim, Twombly, & Wolf-Wendel, 2012, p. 39); besides the financial loss, turnover disrupts the educational programs and harms the reputation, effectiveness, and productivity of educational institutions (De, 2004, p. 593). It is extremely problematic for the school administration to manage teachers' turnover everywhere; however, it gets more difficult for those in low-income and underdeveloped countries like Afghanistan, which drastically lack an adequate skilled workforce. Afghanistan was positioned as 169 in 189 countries in terms of its workforce capabilities based on the findings of the Human Development Index Report (2020). Afghanistan is facing a severe shortage of qualified school teachers; moreover the Teaching staff turnover management poses the most important challenge for schools worldwide, especially schools in underdeveloped countries with scarce skillful teachers, like Afghanistan. There is a severe shortage of skilled teaching staff in the country due to the intense migration of highly skilled Afghans overseas. Moreover, due to the destructive war in Afghanistan and the fighting over the past five decades, many talented and skilled teachers have escaped abroad and have not yet returned.

Given the acute shortage of talented, qualified teachers in the country, teachers' job satisfaction assumes significance for the school administration in Afghanistan. This led inspired researchers and practitioners to remain inquisitive about the factors that could influence teachers' job satisfaction within the schools in Afghanistan.

Research studies indicated that leadership style profoundly affects teacher job satisfaction at schools (e.g., Steel et al., 2019; Dee, Henkin, & Singleton, 2006; Louis, 1998; Evans & Johnson, 1990). The literature review also indicates that organizational commitment mediated by leadership style impacts job satisfaction (Dappa, K., Bhatti, F., & Aljarah, A. 2019; Sarooghi, H., Libaers, D., & Burkemper, A. 2015; Khan & Ullah (2021).

The majority of these research studies depended on a sole-leadership approach to examine the influences of a singular school leader (School principal) on teacher job satisfaction. However, scholars believe that such a heroic leadership approach is inappropriate and inadequate to deal with the increasing complexity involved in the education sector of the postmodern age (e.g., Alshehri, K. 2022; Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Van Keer, H. 2009; Bush & Glover, 2003; Gronn, 2002). According to (Coates et al., 2009, p. 31), the leadership style in educational institutions must comply with its very nature. Similarly, Heifetz, Kania, & Kramer (2004) maintained that school leadership should be more collaborative and adaptive to encapsulate the views and interests of various stakeholders (p.25). The distributed approach to leadership seems more appropriate for practicing leadership in contemporary schools (Gronn, 2003; Hulpia et al., 2009). Research studies indicated that distributed leadership significantly relates to teachers' satisfaction in schools (e.g., Hulpia et al. 2009b; Sun A., & Xia, J. 2018; Samancioglu, M., Baglibel, M., & Erwin, B. J. 2020; Ullah et al., 2022).

According to D Jambo and L Hongde (2020), the majority of the studies investigating the impact of distributed leadership on teacher job satisfaction have been conducted in Western and Anglo-American counties. No study has examined the relationship between job distributed leadership organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Afghanistan.

The current study will investigate the relationship between distributed leadership practice, teachers' Organizational Commitment, and job satisfaction in public in private schools in Afghanistan.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Distributed Leadership

The conventional approaches to leadership, such as trait approach, skills approach, and style approach, concentrate inclusively on the sole leader and ratify that effective leadership is an outcome of a singular leader's personal attributes, abilities, and behavioral patterns. This traditional conceptualization of leadership overestimate the role and influences of a single leader and absolutely neglect the impact of followers and situation in manifesting and shaping the leadership process (Blasé 1997, p 138).

On the other hand, the distributed leadership approach suggests altering the conventional thinking about leadership. This leadership paradigm recommends a shift from the person solo perspective to a person plus leadership perspective (Spillane and Diamond 2007b, P.7). Distributed leadership extends the boundaries of leadership, signifying the important contribution of several informal leaders to the manifestation of leadership practice. Distributed leadership, as a more systematic and holistic approach, regards leadership practice as a sequel of the social process coming out of collaborative interaction among various formal and informal leaders (Harris, 2011, p. 8). From this perspective, effective leadership is attributed as a group property rather than the property of a single leader Gronn (2002). Accordingly, Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Van Keer, H. (2009) maintained that distributed leadership emerges from group activity that takes place within the social interaction of group members rather than individuals' actions (p. 4).

Similarly, Spillane et al. (2006) claimed that the social and interactive details of leadership could be best captured by conceptualizing it as a practice being distributed over formally assigned leaders, followers, and the context (p. 3). Moreover, it is essential to notice that leadership and followership are not fixed titles; instead, they are dynamic terms, meaning that based on the relevant experience, individuals that appear as leaders on a particular occasion may appear as followers on another (Grenda, 2011).

In addition, leadership is not about merely spreading the numbers, but it is about improving the leadership quality (Harris 2011, p .16). Distributed leadership is based on the idea that leadership knowledge, competencies, and attributes do not reside with the solo leader; instead, they are distributed over many individuals at all levels of the organization (Bennet et al., 2003). Therefore, it becomes necessary to integrate these dispersed leadership capabilities into the leadership repertory of the organization to add to its leadership capacity (p. 7). Accordingly, Harris and Lambert (2003) depicted that distributed leadership facilitates the articulation of various skills and expertise from across the organization to the leadership practice,

consequently enhancing the organization's leadership capacity to effectively deal with the increasing complexity of the contemporary business environment (p. 13). The contemporary business environment is too confusing and complicated; hence, to realize the environmental complexity, it is crucial to combine the various individual's perspectives into the holistic leadership process (Gosling J. & Mintzberg, H 2003).

Many scholars, including H. Hester (2012) and Gronn (2002), confessed that the traditional leadership approach doesn't fit the context of a modern organization and that the distributed approach to leadership best suits the intricacies working environment of the postmodern age. The same is verifiable in the education sector, as the traditional principle-centered leadership approach that restricts school administration to certain individuals is insufficient to solve the issues of schools in the present time to achieve efficient and effective performance (S. Jones, 2014; H. Hulpia, 2009; Ullah, 2020).

Accordingly, H. Hulpia (2009) urged that; it is important that all members of the school team actively take part in school leadership; the leadership function, responsibility, and authority are stretched over multiple leaders in school; tasks are accomplished through the collaborative interaction of the multiple leaders (p. 3). Under the distributed leadership perspective, the school-principal role is repositioned from exclusive leadership to someone kind of leadership that supports and facilitates building the leadership capacity in others (Harris, 2011, p. 8). She maintained that distributed leadership is a deliberate strategy of school administration to enhance the school leadership capacity (p. 9).

Distributed leadership has gained a lot of attention and fame in the last two decades, and it has been considered a significant contributor to organizational growth and effective performance (Harris, 2011, p. 9). It is positively related to school improvement and development (Bush, 2012). Distributed leadership enhances student learning and student academic achievement (Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. 2009, p. 659). Accordingly, (Jambo, D., & Hongde L. 2020) maintained that distributed leadership best fits the learning space requirements in the modern age and positively impacts students learning (p. 189).

In addition, distributed leadership positively influences teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Belgium (Alshehri, K. 2022; Hulpia, H. et al. 2009b). Distributed leadership directly increased teachers' level of self-efficacy that, in return, enhanced their level of job satisfaction in China (Sun, A., & Xia, J. 2018). Accordingly Samancioglu, M., Baglibel, M., & Erwin, B. J. (2020) reported a positive relation between distributed leadership, teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors in Turkish schools (p. 1/9).

The result of the meta-analysis indicated that most of the studies about the impact of distributed leadership and school outcomes had been investigated in high-income and well-developed countries (D Jambo and L Hongde 2020). The current study examines the effect of school principals distributed leadership style on teachers' job satisfaction mediated by organizational commitment in a low-income and least developed country like Afghanistan.

H1. Distributive leadership has a positive and significant impact on Job Satisfaction.

H2. Distributive leadership has a positive and significant impact on Organizational Commitment.

2.2 Organizational Commitment

Researchers and practitioners paid considerable attention to employee organizational commitment since it is a significant predictor of effective organizational outcomes (Maiti, R. B., Sanyal, S. N., & Mazumder, R. 2020, p. 728-729). Scholars provided different definitions of organizational commitment. Initially, the organizational commitment was conceptualized as side bets where employees were provided financial benefits to continue their membership with the organization. It was assumed that individuals tie-up with their organization due to the associated cost of quitting its membership (Reichers, A. E. 1985, p. 476). Latter, besides the economic interest, the organizational commitment was referred to as employees' emotional connection to their organization. Accordingly, Buchanan (1974) defined organizational commitment as employees' affective and emotional orientation to their organization (p. 553). Individuals' emotional attachment to their organization and their concurrences with organizational values predict their intention to remain in their organization and strive willingly to achieve its goals (Buchanan, 1974, p. 226). In addition, Liou S. R. (2008, July) maintained that individuals' organizational commitment development is a gradual and steady process, meaning that as time passes and employ interaction and attachment with their organization increases, their level of commitment also increases (p. 120). He argued that through this period, individuals internalize organizational values and identify with its mission, consequently becoming more committed to their organization (p. 19).

Organizational commitment also indicates an individual's moral obligation to stay in their organization (Mannari, 1997; Khan & Ullah (2021). He maintained that regardless of how satisfied they are at their work, individuals sometimes feel morally correct to stay in the organization (p. 59). Accordingly, Wiener (1982, 421) defined organizational commitment as a set of normative forces that make the employees feel indebted to the organization and morally incorrect to quit.

Afterward, in 1991 Meyer and Allen introduced a three-component model of organizational commitment as; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Explaining the three components of employee commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67) stated that; the affective component of employee organizational commitment delineates individual psychological affiliation with their organization. Individual wants to remain as a member of the organization due to the psychological attachment they have with their organization; the continuance component of employee commitment represent their economic ties with the organization. Employees prolong their membership with the organization since they need to do so. Their withdrawal from the organization is associated with financial loss; therefore, they need to do the cost and benefit analysis taking the withdrawal decision; the normative component of employee commitment represents their moral obligation to their organization. Individuals feel they ought to prolong their membership with the organization because they feel it morally correct to do so.

According to Al-Jabari, B., & Ghazzawi, I. (2019), the above three components all to gather represents develops individuals' psychological state that maintains their relationship with their organization (p. 83). The three-component model of

organizational commitment developed by Mayer and Allen is the most well-formed and accurate conceptualization of employee organizational commitment. The author utilized the three-component model in the current study to investigate whether organizational commitment mediates the effects of distributed leadership on teachers' job satisfaction in a private school in Afghanistan.

Many research studies indicated that there is a significant association between organizational commitment and school effectiveness (Hulpia, H., 2009). Committed teachers exhibit greater loyalty to their school and willingly make extra efforts to achieve effective and efficient performance (Park, 2005). Accordingly, scholars such as (Dee et al., 2006, p. 6005) that teachers' level of commitment ultimately leads to school effectiveness since committed teachers are more dedicated to the mission of the school and work hard to achieve it.

Organizational commitment engenders organizational citizenship behaviors, enhances job satisfaction, improves job performance, and reduces turnover (Maiti, R. B., Sanyal, S. N., & Mazumder, R. 2020; Lawrence, J., Ott, M., & Bell, A. 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Individuals' level of organizational commitment can forecast their level of satisfaction in the workplace. Research findings indicated that employee maintains their level of job satisfaction in alignment with their level of organizational commitment (Vandenbergh & Lance, 1992; Shore, 1989). Moreover, Dappa, K., Bhatti, F., & Aljarah, A. (2019) depicted that organizational commitment transfers the indirect effect of leadership behaviors on job satisfaction (p. 831).

H3. Organizational commitment has a positive and significant impact on Job Satisfaction.

H3a. Organizational commitment mediate the relationship b/w Distributive Leadership and Job Satisfaction.

2.3 Demographic Variables

The literature review regarding the impact of demographic variables on job satisfaction provided a mixed finding. Some scholars depicted that external factors have more prominent impacts on job satisfaction than internal factors (e.g., Brewer, Lem, and Cross, 2008). However, Beyene & Gituma (2017) concluded that intrinsic factors significantly impact job satisfaction more than external factors. Meanwhile, Bender and Heywoo (2006) suggested that both intrinsic and extrinsic variables profoundly affect job satisfaction at the workplace.

Demographic variables such as age, race, gender, and educational level significantly influence job satisfaction (Devaney & Chen, 2003). Some studies found that demographic variables such as age, work experience, and job rank have a very weak association with job satisfaction (Malik, 2011). In academia, Paul & Phua (2011) examined the effects of demographic variables on teachers' job satisfaction. They reported that variables such as age and job rank strongly influenced teachers' job satisfaction levels, while job experience, gender, and marital status had no significant impacts on teachers' satisfaction in Singapore (p. 150-151).

Accordingly, Sattar, A., Khan, S., Nawaz, A. et al. (2010) suggested that demographic variables such as age and work experience will always significantly impact job satisfaction (p. 60). Similarly, Eleswed M., & Mohammed, F. (2013, p.) indicated that both age and work experience significantly affected employees' commitment in Bahrain. Research findings confirmed that age is significantly related to teachers' Commitment in Turkish Schools (DEMİRTAŞ, Z. 2015, p. 260). Accordingly, Yucel, I., & Bektas, C. (2012, p. 1605) confirmed the significant moderate relationship between teachers' age and organizational commitment. In contrast, ÇAĞRI SAN, B., & TOK, T. N. (2017) suggested that no significant relationship existed between teachers' age and their level of organizational commitment. The current study utilized age and job experience as control variables to examine their impact on teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in private schools in Afghanistan.

H4. Age has a positive and significant impact on Job Satisfaction.

H4a. Age has a positive and significant impact on Organizational Commitment.

H5. Experience has a positive and significant impact on Job Satisfaction.

H5a. Experience has a positive and significant impact on Organizational Commitment.

2.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been the center of focus for researchers and practitioners for ages; however, there is no unanimously accepted definition for it (Aziz, B. 2011). Scholars defined job satisfaction differently in diverse settings (p. 77). According to Lock (1976, p.1394), job satisfaction refers to a pleasing emotional state that individuals obtain after evaluating their job or its related experiences. Similarly, Spector (1997) added that job satisfaction represents employees' positive and negative feelings (like and dislike) about their job and various job facets (p.vii). Job satisfaction is the outcome of an evaluation process where individuals judge the negative-positive aspects of their job (Weiss, 2002). Accordingly, (Kim S. & Min Park S. 2014, p. 65) maintained that job satisfaction is the after-effect of individuals' evaluative-judgment about the various aspects of their job. Di Paolo (2016) depicted that individuals' evaluation is based on their job's financial and non-financial qualities (p. 372).

Besides the financial and non-financial enhancement that the job offers, employees' expectation also influences their level of job satisfaction (D. M., & Raavi S. 2019, p.96). Job satisfaction is provoked due to the comparison between what the organization offers and what the employee expects from their job. Martin (1979, p. 316) argues that employees get dissatisfied if the organization's offers do not meet their expectations. Most initial research studies about employee satisfaction exclusively focused on meeting employees' basic needs; they had no account for the cognitive and attitudinal aspects of job satisfaction.

Accordingly, Hulin and Judge (2003) maintained that though job satisfaction apparently seems very simple as it seems, it underpins individuals' affective, behavioral and cognitive responses to their job in general or to the various job facets; consequently, it requires multiple measurement scales (p. 275).

Moreover, most scholars are contented that job satisfaction is a global or a general construct that represents the totality of employees' attitudes about the various aspects of their job (e.g., Judge and Larsen, 2001; Smith, 1992; Locke, 1969). General Job satisfaction is the holistic approach to evaluating all job facets that contribute to employee job satisfaction (Locke, 1969). In addition, the general job satisfaction scales ask individuals to integrate their opinions in a united and collective response (Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. 2009, p. 200). According to Spector (1997), as cited by (Lowhorn, G. L. 2009, p. 49), general job satisfaction is the most accurate and effective approach to investigating employee satisfaction in the organization. The author of the current study utilized a general job satisfaction approach to collect teachers' opinions about job satisfaction in private schools in Afghanistan.

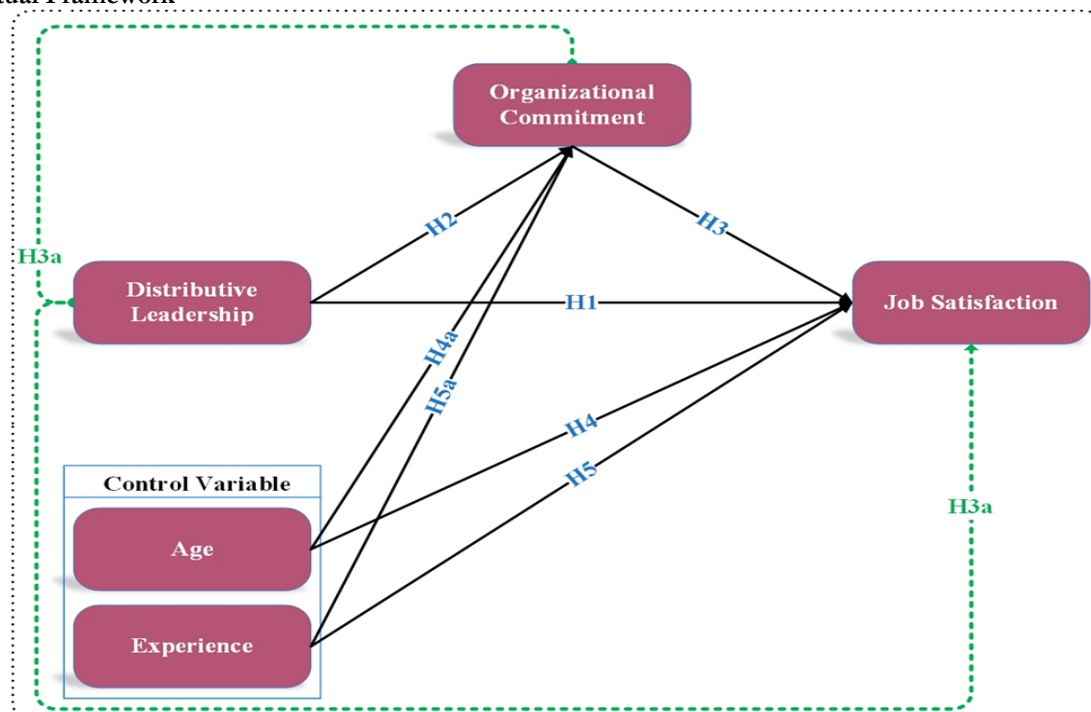
Job satisfaction is a strong predictor of teachers' well-being and school effectiveness (Hendrawijaya et al., 2020, p. 855). Job satisfaction is significantly related to teachers' productivity and the quality of the services they provide to their students, schools, and community (Mahafda & Al Haddad, 2012). Similarly, Lopes J., & Oliveira, C. (2020) maintained that teacher satisfaction at school determines teachers' performance, students' academic achievement, and overall school effectiveness (p.641). In addition, Islam, Abad Shah & Juman (2015, p. 319) suggested that teachers' satisfaction at school reduces their turnover rate. Teachers' turnover not only engenders financial losses but also disrupts the educational programs that hamper educational institutions' reputations (De, 2004, p. 593).

Research studies indicated that leadership style profoundly affects teacher job satisfaction at schools (e.g., Steel et al., 2019; Dee, Henkin, & Singleton, 2006; Louis, 1998; Evans & Johnson, 1990). The literature review also indicates that the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction is mediated by organizational commitment (e.g., Dappa, K., Bhatti, F., & Aljarah, A. 2019; Sarooghi, H., Libaers, D., & Burkemper, A. 2015).

The distributed approach to leadership seems more appropriate for practicing leadership in contemporary schools (Gronn, 2003; Hulpia et al., 2009). Distributed leadership significantly contributes to schools' success and growth in Australia and European countries (Harris, 2011). Research studies indicated that distributed leadership significantly relates to teachers' satisfaction in Belgium (Hulpia et al. 2009b), China (Sun A., & Xia, J. 2018), and Turkey (Samancioglu, M., Baglibel, M., & Erwin, B. J. 2020).

According to D Jambo and L Hongde (2020), most studies investigating distributed leadership's impact on teacher job satisfaction have been conducted in high-income and well-developed countries. No study has examined the relationship between job distributed leadership organizational commitment and job satisfaction in low-income and least-developed countries such as Afghanistan.

Conceptual Framework



2.5 Research questions

1. Is there any relationship between distributed leadership and job satisfaction?
2. Is there any relationship between distributed leadership and organizational commitment?
3. Is there any relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction?
4. Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between distributed leadership and job satisfaction?
5. Is there any relationship between age and job satisfaction?

6. Is there any relationship between age and organizational commitment?
7. Is there any relationship between work experience and job satisfaction?
8. Is there any relationship between work experience and organizational commitment

3. METHOD

This is a quantitative research study. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) examines the relationship between independent, mediating, and dependent variables. SEM analysis is an effective approach to testing complicated models. It is the best approach to estimate separated multiple-regression equations simultaneously. Moreover, SEM analysis can estimate the direct and indirect relationship between the independent mediating and dependent variables all together in a single model. The current study aimed to examine the impact of distributed leadership on teachers' job satisfaction as mediated by organizational commitment in private schools in Afghanistan. SEM analysis and model fit indices are used to test the accuracy of the hypothesized model in the context of private schools in Afghanistan.

3.1 Population and Sample framework:

The current study's population is the total number of school teachers (35109) working at private schools in Afghanistan. A total of three thousand two hundred ninety-six schools are operating in 34 districts of Afghanistan. Data is collected from 650 school teachers working at 65 conveniently selected private secondary schools in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. One thousand four hundred ninety-one private schools in Kabul accommodate 5440 teachers (Moe.gov.af, 2022). The survey questionnaire was sent to 650 randomly selected teachers from the list provided by the school administration. The author received 618 filled responses from the teachers.

3.2 Study Variables and Instrumentation:

This section delineates the study variables and their relevant instrumentation included in the data collection survey designed for this study.

3.2.1 Exogenous variable

Distributed leadership is the only latent independent variable in the current study. Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI), developed by Hulpia and Devos (2009), is used to gather data about school principal distributed leadership at schools. It consists of four observed variables: Leadership Supervision, Leadership Support, Participative Decision Making, and the Cohesive Leadership Team. The validity and reliability of DLI was tested and approved in the Spanish context (García-Martínez, I., Tadeu, P. J. A., Ubago-Jiménez, J. L., & Brigas, C. 2020, p. 1/9).

3.2.2 Endogenous variables

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment are the two independent variables in the current study. The sub-scale developed by Cammann et al. (1983) was used to collect the opinions of study respondents about the general job satisfaction of private school teachers in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. The scale has three items: All in all, I am satisfied with my job; In general, I do not like my job; In general, I like working here.

3.2.3 Mediating Variable

Organizational commitment is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between distributed leadership and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment consists of three observed variables: Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment. The three-dimensional organizational commitment scale developed by Mayer and Allen (1991) was used to collect the data about teachers' commitment at private schools in Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. The Scale reliability and validity were confirmed in the context of educational institutes in Uganda (Wilson, M., Bakkabulindi, F., & Ssempebwa, J. 2016).

3.2.4 Demographic Variables

Demographic variables contain correspondents' data regarding their; gender, age, marital status, education, and experience. Two of the demographic variables, age and work experience, are used as controlled variables in this study.

3.3 Data Collection

Primary data was collected through a survey questionnaire. The survey had four parts; the first part of the survey contained five items about the demographics of the survey respondents. The second part of the survey included 29 items about distributed leadership; items 1 up to 10 were related to Leadership Support; items 11 up to 13 were about Leadership Supervision; items 14 to item 23 were about Cohesive Leadership Team, and from Item 24 up to 29 were about Participative decision making. The third part of the survey contained 22 items; items 30 up to 41 were about Affective Commitment; items 42 up to 44 were about Continuance Commitment, and; items 45 up to 52 were about Normative Commitment. The fourth part of the survey contained three items from 53 to 55 about Job Satisfaction.

The Survey questionnaire was emailed to 650 randomly selected school teachers. The teachers' lists were collected on the formal request from the administration of 65 schools selected on a convenience-based basis. The author received filled survey questionnaires from 617 teachers, out of which eight questionnaires were blanked and disengaged. Finally, the data from 609 questionnaires were utilized for data analysis.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis contained descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, factor analysis, the goodness of fit analysis for the measurement model, fit indices for the structural model, and hypothesis testing through SEM path analysis. The SPSS 21 and Amos 21 software packages were used for data analysis.

4.1 Demographics of respondents

Table 1 delineates the demographic characteristics of the study respondents. Although Afghanistan is a dominant male country, the number of female teachers in schools is encouraging.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics

Items	Frequency (N=609)	(%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	310	50.9
Female	299	49.1
<i>Age</i>		
25-35	253	25.9
36-45	185	28.7
46-55	98	31.4
>55	73	14.0
<i>Education</i>		
Graduate	539	11.5
Master	70	88.5
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Single	37	6.1
Married	572	93.9
<i>Experience</i>		
1-3	252	11.7
4-6	153	15.3
7-10	133	31.7
>10	71	41.4

4.2 Common Method Bias

Harman's single-factor approach was used to examine the effect of Common Method Bias. The total variance calculated using a single factor is 18.752%, which is well below 50%, indicating that CMB had no effects on the study results (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

4.3. Descriptive Statistics

The constructs were measured on five points Likert scale from "1- strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree". Table 1.1 reveals Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard deviation, Kurtosis, and Skewness. According to Hair et al. (2010) and Bryne (2010), data is reflected to be normal if skewness is between -2 to +2 and kurtosis is between -7 to +7. Another research scholar Kline (2015), suggested that if Skewness and kurtosis values fall between -3 to +3, that indicates that the data is normally distributed. In this research, all Skewness and kurtosis fall between -1 to +1. The following table 1.1 provides the complete detail of descriptive statics.

Table 1.1 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender	609	1	2	1.49	0.500	0.036	-2.005
Nationality	609	1	2	1.50	0.500	0.003	-2.007
MS	609	1	2	1.94	0.239	-3.687	11.629
Edu	609	1	3	2.04	0.707	-0.058	-0.995
Age	609	25	60	43.32	9.896	-0.090	-1.121
Experience	609	1	15	8.88	3.643	-0.487	-0.631
SPT_1	609	1	5	3.52	1.195	-0.616	-0.444
SPT_2	609	1	5	3.47	1.164	-0.623	-0.357
SPT_3	609	1	5	3.46	1.148	-0.603	-0.336
SPT_4	609	1	5	3.50	1.164	-0.552	-0.503
SPT_5	609	1	5	3.48	1.108	-0.476	-0.445
SPT_6	609	1	5	3.45	1.126	-0.503	-0.455
SPT_7	609	1	5	3.48	1.140	-0.613	-0.381
SPT_8	609	1	5	3.42	1.120	-0.494	-0.359
SPT_9	609	1	5	3.49	1.118	-0.583	-0.330

SPT_10	609	1	5	3.50	1.142	-0.603	-0.394
SPR_1	609	1	5	3.45	1.143	-0.581	-0.340
SPR_2	609	1	5	3.48	1.133	-0.545	-0.492
SPR_3	609	1	5	3.43	1.161	-0.507	-0.498
CLT_1	609	1	5	3.46	1.126	-0.569	-0.372
CLT_2	609	1	5	3.47	1.130	-0.505	-0.485
CLT_3	609	1	5	3.48	1.108	-0.554	-0.309
CLT_4	609	1	5	3.44	1.136	-0.563	-0.393
CLT_5	609	1	5	3.50	1.131	-0.520	-0.458
CLT_6	609	1	5	3.46	1.186	-0.507	-0.571
CLT_7	609	1	5	3.53	1.118	-0.583	-0.331
CLT_8	609	1	5	3.49	1.126	-0.621	-0.321
CLT_9	609	1	5	3.50	1.118	-0.599	-0.323
CLT_10	609	1	5	3.52	1.081	-0.552	-0.346
PDM_1	609	1	5	3.51	1.123	-0.566	-0.341
PDM_2	609	1	5	3.51	1.141	-0.562	-0.408
PDM_3	609	1	5	3.43	1.213	-0.488	-0.632
PDM_4	609	1	5	3.41	1.139	-0.553	-0.341
PDM_5	609	1	5	3.52	1.109	-0.540	-0.361
PDM_6	609	1	5	3.40	1.177	-0.481	-0.537
AFC_1	609	1	5	3.39	1.230	-0.536	-0.648
AFC_2	609	1	5	3.50	1.121	-0.498	-0.403
AFC_3	609	1	5	3.44	1.130	-0.498	-0.492
AFC_4	609	1	5	3.46	1.122	-0.541	-0.344
AFC_5	609	1	5	3.53	1.068	-0.559	-0.256
AFC_6	609	1	5	3.46	1.179	-0.555	-0.526
AFC_7	609	1	5	3.54	1.137	-0.598	-0.416
AFC_8	609	1	5	3.51	1.126	-0.540	-0.415
AFC_9	609	1	5	3.47	1.109	-0.548	-0.288
AFC_10	609	1	5	3.46	1.126	-0.548	-0.369
AFC_11	609	1	5	3.48	1.075	-0.490	-0.364
AFC_12	609	1	5	3.48	1.087	-0.504	-0.343
CC_1	609	1	5	3.52	1.153	-0.561	-0.473
CC_2	609	1	5	3.47	1.151	-0.556	-0.471
CC_3	609	1	5	3.41	1.179	-0.412	-0.615
NC_1	609	1	5	3.40	1.209	-0.504	-0.572
NC_2	609	1	5	3.39	1.173	-0.506	-0.547
NC_3	609	1	5	3.49	1.108	-0.580	-0.280
NC_4	609	1	5	3.40	1.196	-0.535	-0.592
NC_5	609	1	5	3.54	1.129	-0.536	-0.433
NC_6	609	1	5	3.47	1.191	-0.539	-0.540
NC_7	609	1	5	3.56	1.093	-0.561	-0.311
NC_8	609	1	5	3.47	1.131	-0.510	-0.423
JS_1	609	1	5	3.60	1.026	-0.686	0.181
JS_2	609	1	5	3.62	1.048	-0.696	0.008
JS_3	609	1	5	3.64	1.072	-0.616	-0.184
SPT_Mean	609	1.40	4.50	3.48	0.902	-1.047	-0.573
SPR_Mean	609	1.00	5.00	3.45	0.968	-0.868	-0.428
CLT_Mean	609	1.40	4.60	3.49	0.887	-1.052	-0.550
PDM_Mean	609	1.00	4.83	3.46	0.912	-0.978	-0.479
AFC_Mean	609	1.50	4.58	3.48	0.871	-1.048	-0.603
CC_Mean	609	1.00	5.00	3.47	0.983	-0.790	-0.618
NC_Mean	609	1.00	4.75	3.47	0.886	-0.988	-0.529
JS_Mean	609	1.00	5.00	3.62	0.876	-1.147	0.395
DLS_Mean	609	1.55	4.33	3.47	0.773	-1.202	-0.105
OC_Mean	609	1.69	4.46	3.47	0.783	-1.101	-0.235

4.4 Assessment of Model fit and Measurement Model

The present research has four measurement models. The model fit indices for all measurement models successfully achieved the fit criteria (see table 2). The goodness of fit values, i.e., χ^2/DF for DLS, OC, Zero-order, and second-order, are 1.131, 1.168, 1.135, and 1.125, respectively. The threshold limit for RMSEA and SRMR is <0.08 , and this research magnificently achieved the threshold limit (see table 2). Next, this research checked all measurement models' NFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI values. All values fall within the acceptable range (see table 2).

The next step in this process is to check the reliability and validity of each construct for all four measurements. For composite reliability, the values must be greater than 0.7 (See table 2) (Hair et al., 2010). For convergent validity, the outer loadings must be higher than 0.704 and AVE greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). All CFA loadings and AVE values achieve the threshold limits (see table 3). For discriminant validity, this research applied the Fornell Larcker criterion technique. This technique has been used in numerous studies. According to the Fornell Larcker criterion assessment, the square root of AVE must be higher than below and right side values (see table 4).

Table 2: Model fit Indices

Fit Index	Cited	Fit criteria	Model fit Indexes				Fit (Yes/No)
			Results (DLS Measurement Model)	Results (OC Measurement Model)	Results (Zero Order Measurement Model)	Results (Full Measurement Model)	
X ²			419.443	265.166	1591.189	1597.621	
DF			371	227	1402	1420	
X ² /DF	(Kline,2010)	1.00 -5.00	1.131	1.168	1.135	1.125	Yes
RMSEA	(Steiger,1990)	<0.08	0.015	0.017	0.015	0.014	Yes
SRMR	(Hu&Bentler,1999)	<0.08	0.0213	0.0234	0.0292	0.0299	Yes
NFI	(Bentler&G.Bonnet,1980)	>0.80	0.962	0.968	0.925	0.925	Yes
IFI	(Bollen, 1990)	>0.90	0.995	0.995	0.990	0.991	Yes
TLI	(Tucker & Lewis, 1973)	>0.90	0.995	0.995	0.990	0.991	Yes
CFI	(Byrne, 2010)	>0.90	0.995	0.995	0.990	0.991	Yes

Table 3 Reliability & Validity Analysis

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (DLS Measurement Model)

Construct	Items	Loading >0.704	CR >0.7	AVE >0.5
SPT	SPT_1	0.786***	0.933	0.583
	SPT_2	0.759***		
	SPT_3	0.711***		
	SPT_4	0.736***		
	SPT_5	0.777***		
	SPT_6	0.711***		
	SPT_7	0.807***		
	SPT_8	0.771***		
	SPT_9	0.777***		
	SPT_10	0.791***		
SPR	SPR_1	0.804***	0.801	0.574
	SPR_2	0.763***		
	SPR_3	0.703***		
CLT	CLT_1	0.787***	0.932	0.579
	CLT_2	0.759***		
	CLT_3	0.690***		
	CLT_4	0.722***		
	CLT_5	0.783***		
	CLT_6	0.735***		
	CLT_7	0.776***		
	CLT_8	0.795***		
	CLT_9	0.784***		
	CLT_10	0.771***		
PDM	PDM_1	0.773***	0.882	0.554
	PDM_2	0.735***		
	PDM_3	0.740***		
	PDM_4	0.725***		
	PDM_5	0.761***		
	PDM_6	0.731***		

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (OC Measurement Model)				
AFC	AFC_1	0.700***	0.94	0.565
	AFC_2	0.762***		
	AFC_3	0.720***		
	AFC_4	0.684***		
	AFC_5	0.754***		
	AFC_6	0.742***		
	AFC_7	0.800***		
	AFC_8	0.775***		
	AFC_9	0.760***		
	AFC_10	0.780***		
	AFC_12	0.771***		
	AFC_11	0.762***		
CC	CC_1	0.724***	0.805	0.579
	CC_2	0.798***		
	CC_3	0.760***		
NC	NC_1	0.646***	0.902	0.535
	NC_2	0.702***		
	NC_3	0.770***		
	NC_4	0.699***		
	NC_5	0.772***		
	NC_6	0.737***		
	NC_7	0.777***		
	NC_8	0.739***		
Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (Zero Order Measurement Model)				
SPT	SPT_1	0.786***	0.933	0.583
	SPT_2	0.759***		
	SPT_3	0.711***		
	SPT_4	0.735***		
	SPT_5	0.776***		
	SPT_6	0.712***		
	SPT_7	0.807***		
	SPT_8	0.771***		
	SPT_9	0.777***		
	SPT_10	0.792***		
SPR	SPR_1	0.804***	0.801	0.574
	SPR_2	0.763***		
	SPR_3	0.703***		
CLT	CLT_1	0.787***	0.932	0.579
	CLT_2	0.760***		
	CLT_3	0.689***		
	CLT_4	0.722***		
	CLT_5	0.782***		
	CLT_6	0.735***		
	CLT_7	0.777***		
	CLT_8	0.795***		
	CLT_9	0.784***		
	CLT_10	0.771***		
PDM	PDM_1	0.774***	0.882	0.554
	PDM_2	0.736***		
	PDM_3	0.739***		
	PDM_4	0.724***		
	PDM_5	0.762***		
	PDM_6	0.729***		
AFC	AFC_1	0.700***	0.940	0.565
	AFC_2	0.762***		
	AFC_3	0.719***		
	AFC_4	0.684***		

	AFC_5	0.754***		
	AFC_6	0.742***		
	AFC_7	0.799***		
	AFC_8	0.776***		
	AFC_9	0.760***		
	AFC_10	0.781***		
	AFC_11	0.762***		
	AFC_12	0.771***		
CC	CC_1	0.730***	0.805	0.579
	CC_2	0.794***		
	CC_3	0.757***		
NC	NC_1	0.647***	0.902	0.535
	NC_2	0.700***		
	NC_3	0.770***		
	NC_4	0.697***		
	NC_5	0.772***		
	NC_6	0.738***		
	NC_7	0.778***		
	NC_8	0.740***		
JS	JS_1	0.758***	0.785	0.549
	JS_2	0.735***		
	JS_3	0.729***		

Alpha, Composite Reliability & Validity Analysis (Second Order Measurement Model)

DLS	SPT	0.858***	0.901	0.695
	SPR	0.797***		
	CLT	0.857***		
	PDM	0.820***		
OC	AFC	0.856***	0.867	0.686
	CC	0.788***		
	NC	0.839***		
JS	JS_1	0.758***	0.785	0.549
	JS_2	0.735***		
	JS_3	0.728***		

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant

Table 4: Discriminant Validity Analysis (Fornel Larcker)

Discriminant Validity Analysis DLS Model (Fornel Larcker)				
Constructs	1	2	3	4
1.SPT	0.763			
2.SPR	0.677	0.758		
3.CLT	0.741	0.691	0.761	
4.PDM	0.697	0.667	0.694	0.744
Discriminant Validity Analysis OC Model (Fornel Larcker)				
Constructs	1	2	3	
1.AFC	0.752			
2.CC	0.676	0.761		
3.NC	0.718	0.656	0.732	
Discriminant Validity Analysis Zero Order Model (Fornel Larcker)				

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.SPT	0.763							
2.SPR	0.677	0.758						
3.CLT	0.741	0.691	0.761					
4.PDM	0.697	0.667	0.694	0.744				
5.AFC	0.384	0.348	0.381	0.398	0.752			
6.CC	0.356	0.306	0.360	0.358	0.677	0.761		
7.NC	0.388	0.356	0.365	0.393	0.718	0.657	0.732	
8.JS	0.544	0.464	0.525	0.522	0.493	0.460	0.497	0.741

Discriminant Validity Analysis Second-Order Model (Fornel Larcker)

Constructs	1	2	3
1.DLS	0.833		
2.OC	0.531	0.828	
3.JS	0.620	0.583	0.741

Note: Values on the diagonal (italicized) represent the square root of the average variance extracted, while the off diagonals are correlations

Graphical Representation of assessment of measurement model (DLS)

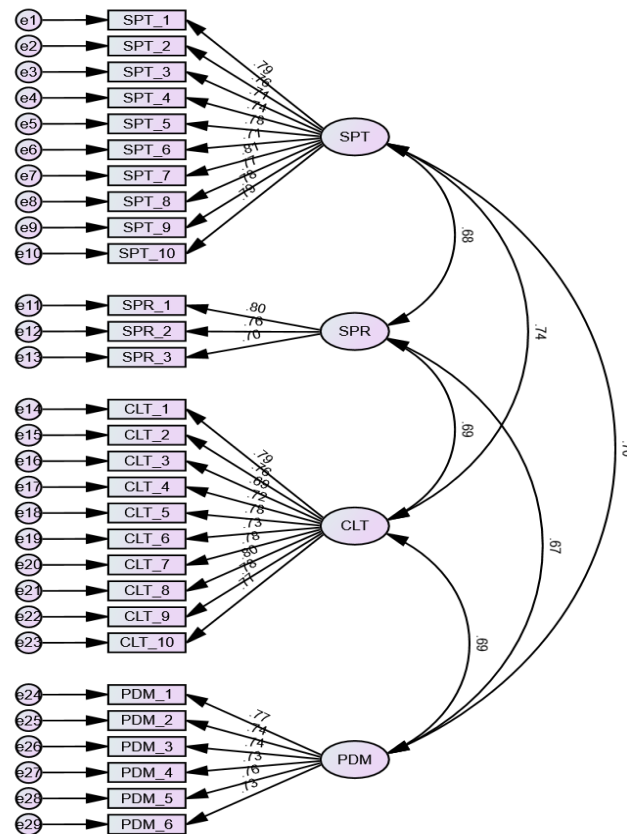
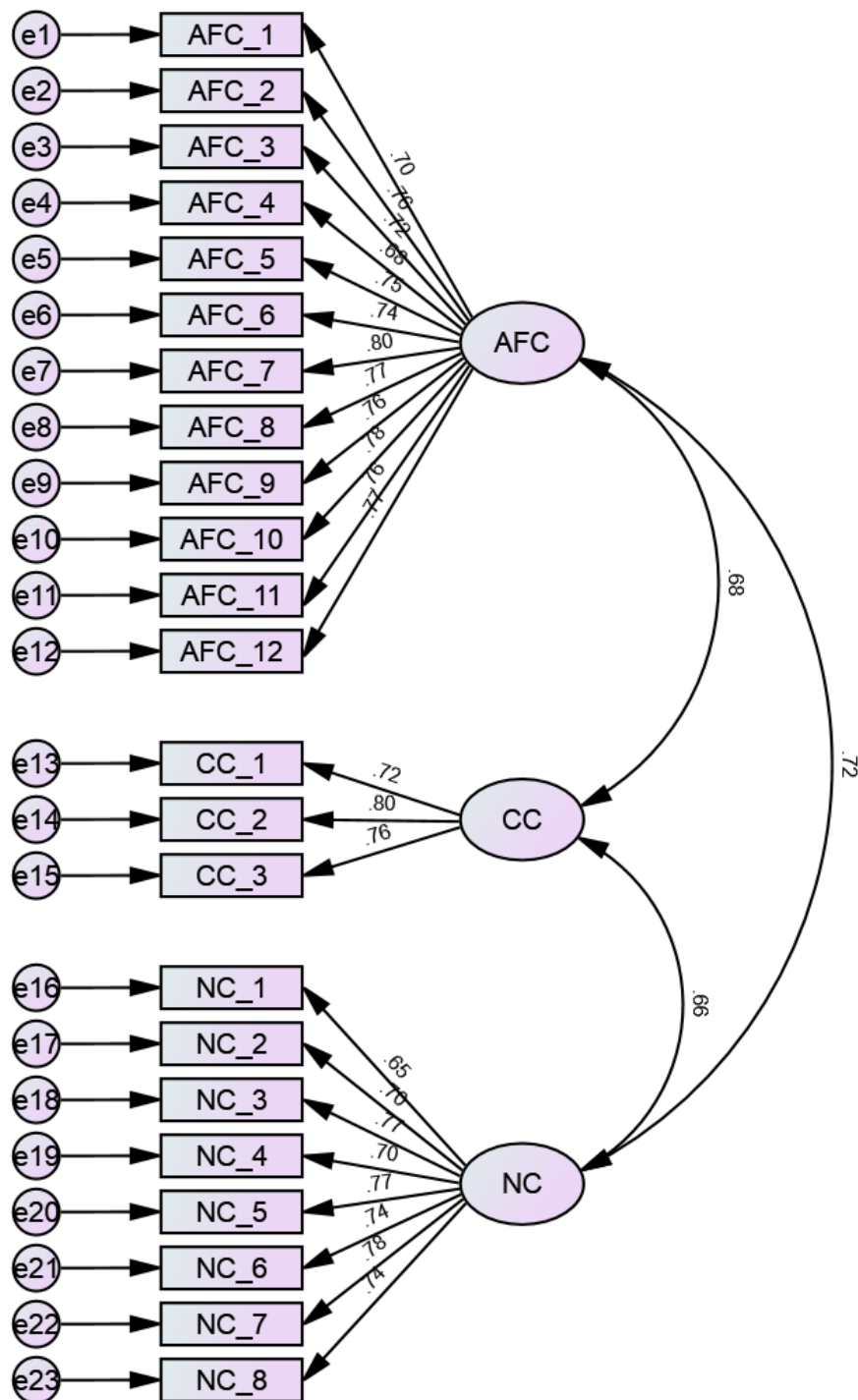
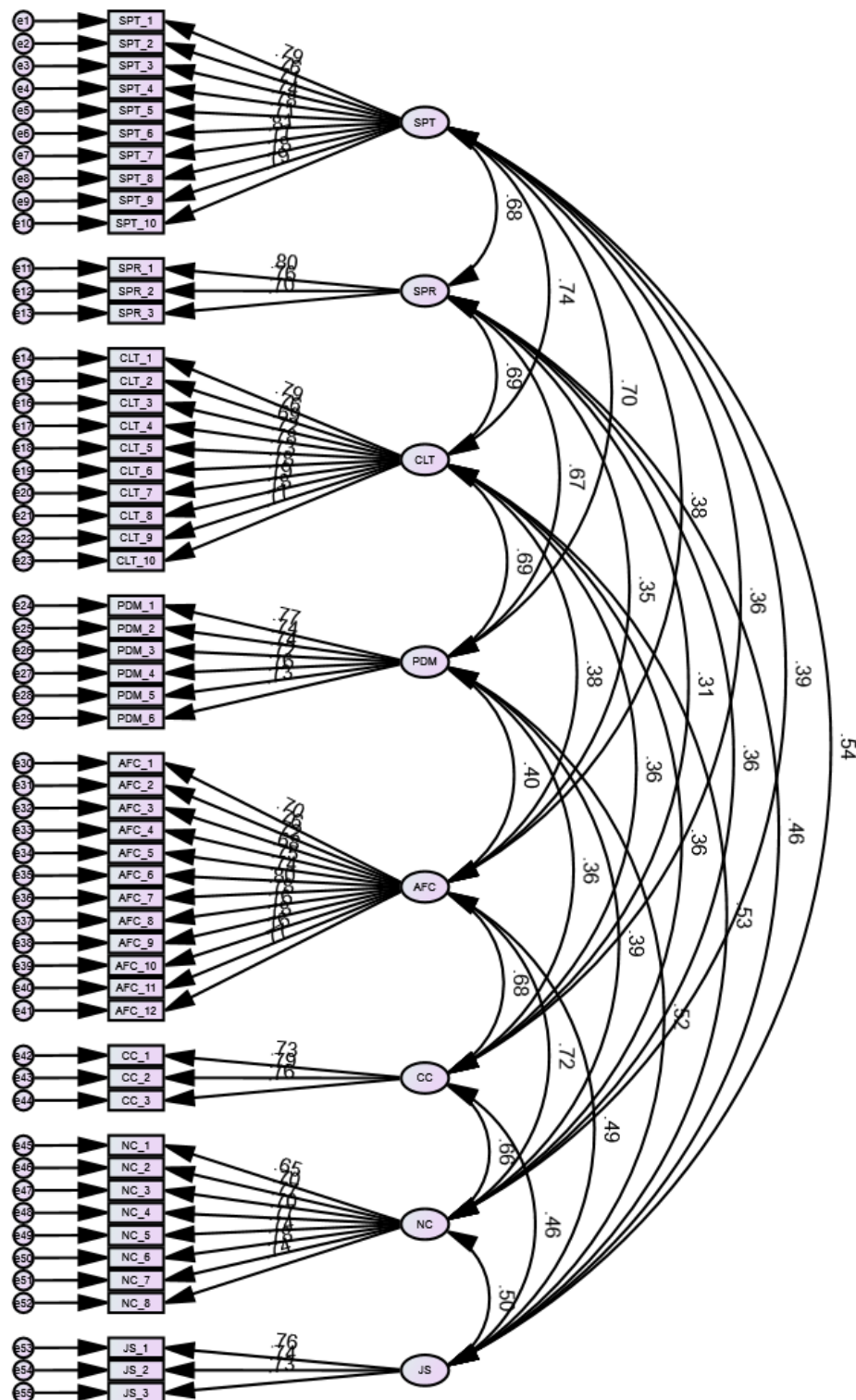


Figure 1

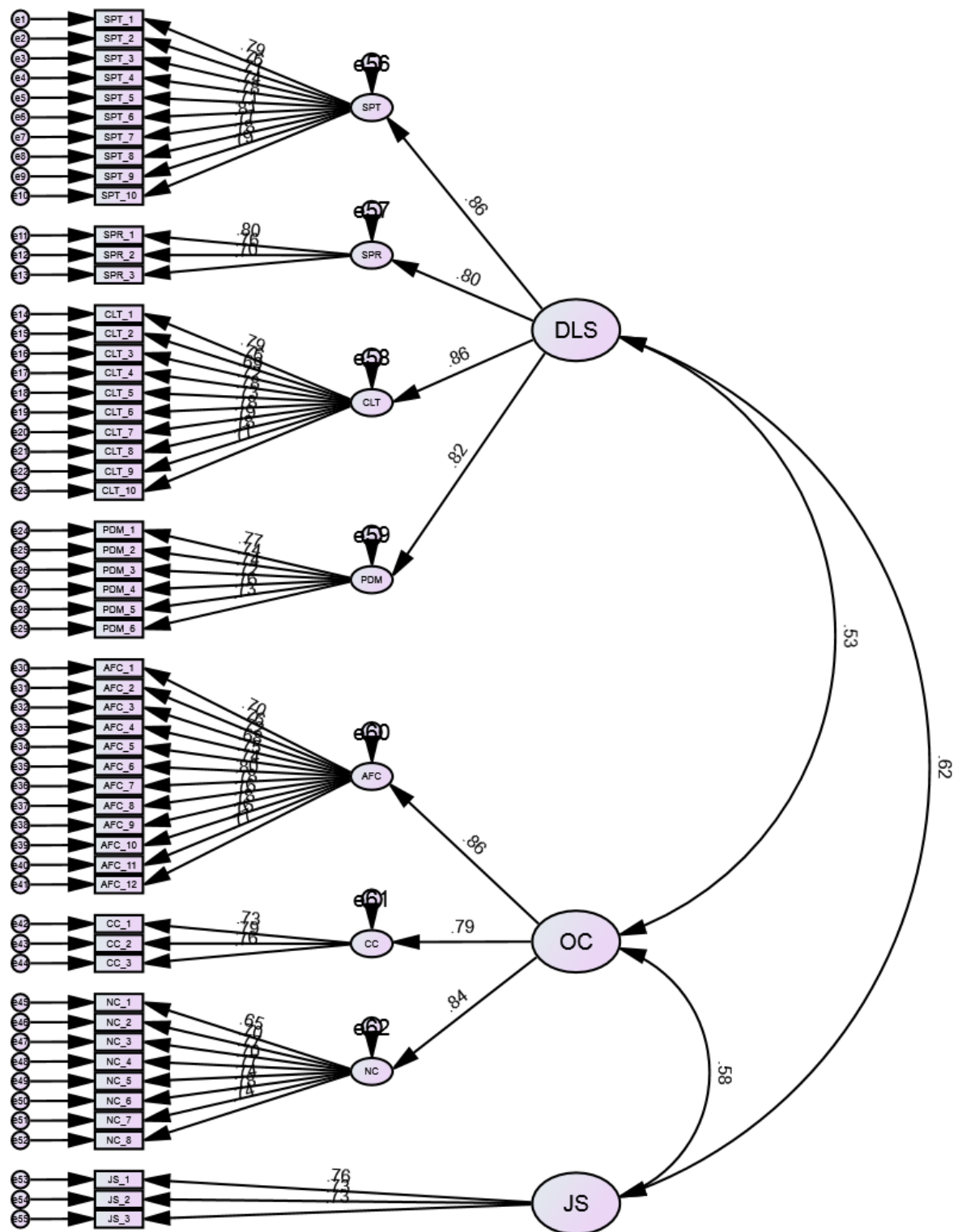
Graphical Representation of assessment of measurement model (OC)



Graphical Representation of assessment of measurement model (Zero Order Model)



Graphical representation of assessment of measurement model (Full Model)



4.5 Hypotheses testing

The hypothesis testing was done by using IBM Amos 27. The bootstrap procedure was applied to obtain the hypothesis results with recommended 5,000 samples. In the H1 hypothesis, the relationship between DLS and Job satisfaction was accepted (Beta = 0.425, $t = 12.142$). H2 and H3 have also confirmed the significant effect between DLS \rightarrow OC, and OC \rightarrow JS (Beta = 0.387, $t = 9.439$, Beta = 0.367, $t = 11.834$, respectively). H4 and H4a are rejected, whereas H5 and H5a are accepted.

Table 4: Hypotheses testing Direct & Indirect Effect

Hypothesis	Direct Relationships	Std. Beta	Std. Error	T Values	P Values
H1	DLS → JS	0.425	0.035	12.142	***
H2	DLS → OC	0.387	0.041	9.439	***
H3	OC → JS	0.367	0.031	11.834	***
H3a	DLS → OC → JS	0.142	0.019	7.474	***
H4	Age → JS	-0.074	0.057	-1.298	NS
H4a	Age → OC	0.078	0.062	1.258	NS
H5	Experience → JS	0.165	0.064	2.578	**
H5a	Experience → OC	0.259	0.072	3.597	***

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant

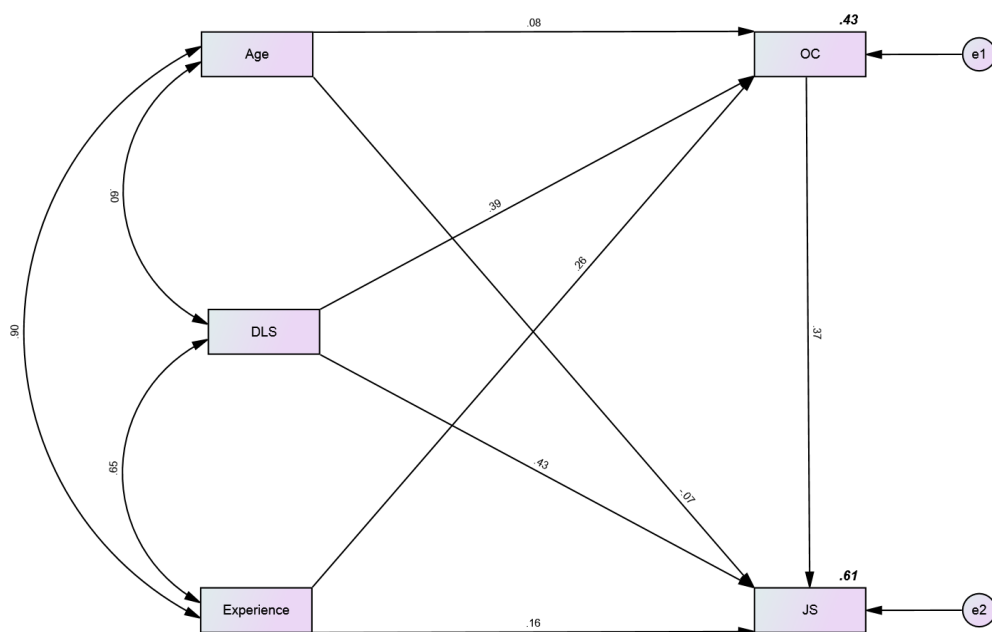
Table 4: Indirect Effect

In H3a, the mediation effect between DLS → OC → JS is also recognized (Beta = 0.142, t = 7.474).

Hypothesis	Direct Relationships	Std. Beta	Std. Error	T Values	P Values
H3a	DLS → OC → JS	0.142	0.019	7.474	***

*Indicates significant paths: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, NS = not significant

Graphical Representation of structural model



4.6 Quality criteria

4.5.1 R²

The R square indicates the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (job satisfaction) that is explained by the variance in the independent variable (organizational commitment) (Hair et al., 2010). The result of R2 in Table 5 shows some or partial variance in teachers' job satisfaction is explained by their level of organizational commitment.

Table 5 R² Values

Latent variables	R ²
OC	0.430
JS	0.610

5. DISCUSSION

Distributed leadership has gained tremendous popularity in the education sector, primarily in secondary schools in European and Anglo-American countries (Hulpia, H. et al. 2009b; Harris, 2011; D Jambo and L Hongde 2020). There are limited empirical findings on the impact of distributed leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction at schools (Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Rosseel, Y. 2009, p. 23; Harris, 2013). This shortage is more severe in low-income countries as most of the studies about the relationship between distributed leadership and school outcomes have been conducted in high-income countries (D Jambo and L Hongde 2020). In order to fill this gap, the current study investigated the influences of school principals distributed leadership style on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the least developed and low-income country, Afghanistan. This is the first study conducted on the impact of distributed leadership on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction in private schools in Afghanistan.

The analysis result of the current study supported H1 ($\beta = 0.425$, $p = 0.00$) and H2 ($\beta = 0.387$, $p = 0.00$), indicating that distributed Leadership significantly predicts teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in private schools in Afghanistan. It confirmed the findings of the early studies (Hulpia et al. 2009b; Sun A., & Xia, J. 2018; Samancioglu, M., Baglibel, M., & Erwin, B. J. 2020). Since distributed leadership is more participative and democratic, it facilitates collective interaction and shared governance in private schools in Afghanistan. According to (S. Jones & M. Harvey 2017, p. 128), by distributing leadership organization will gain sustainable outcomes as members of the organization will show more commitment to acting the decision they made collectively.

The result of the analysis also supported H3 ($\beta = 0.367$, $p = 0.00$), indicating that organizational commitment predicts teachers' job satisfaction in private schools in Afghanistan. The results supported the early findings (Vandenberghe & Lance, 1992; Shore, 1989). Teachers' commitment level to their schools influences their level of job satisfaction with their schools. Teachers will adjust their job satisfaction levels based on the commitment they have to their schools. The result also supported H3a (Beta = 0.142, $t = 7.474$), indicating that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between principals' distributed leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction in private schools in Afghanistan. Accordingly, Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Rosseel, Y. (2009) depicted that some aspects of distributed leadership, such as leadership support and cohesion of the leadership team, directly affected organizational commitment and had indirect impacts on teachers' satisfaction, mediated by organizational Commitment at Belgian schools (p. 24).

In addition, this study's result indicated no significant association between teachers' age and their level of commitment and job satisfaction at private schools in Afghanistan. The current findings rejected the early findings (Paul & Phua, 2011; DEMİRTAŞ, Z. 2015). However, it confirmed the findings from (ÇAĞRI SAN, B., & TOK, T. N. 2017; Devaney & Chen, 2003). Moreover, the findings of the current research study indicated a significant association between teachers' level of experience and their level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It confirmed the early findings of (Eleswed, M., & Mohammed F. 2013; Malik, 2011). The findings suggest that as the teachers of private schools in Afghanistan gain more experience, they become more committed to their school and more satisfied with their jobs. It rejects the early findings from (Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Rosseel Y. 2009). They claimed the negative relationship between teachers' experience level and organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in Belgian schools.

6. CONCLUSION

The current study findings indicated that the distribution of leadership in private secondary schools in Afghanistan significantly enhanced teachers' level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It indicated that principals' distributed leadership style had direct and indirect positive influences on teachers' job satisfaction and that organizational commitment mediated the impact of principals distributed leadership on teachers' job satisfaction.

The current study has certain limitations that suggest further investigation in this area. First of all, the study sample is limited to Kabul, the capital city of Afghanistan. A future research study should include schools from other cities and provinces of Afghanistan. Being the capital city, Kabul is more open to internationalization, and there are so many international schools, such as Afghan Turk School, Kardan International School, and Kabul International Schools. Most of the principals and teaching staff of these international schools are foreigners. The leadership trends and culture of these international schools could influence the distribution of leadership and its impact on organizational commitment and job satisfaction of the overall private schools of Kabul city.

Second, the sample of the current study doesn't include schools from the public sector. A future research study should include schools from the public sector because there are more public schools than private schools and the number of teachers and students in the public schools are also more than that of private school. Besides, public schools are more under the influence of the Afghan national culture as their administrative and teaching staff are mostly Afghan nationals.

Third, the study design is not experimental; therefore, it can't claim the causality between the study variables. Future research studies could apply experimental design to indicate how much of teachers' level of commitment and satisfaction is caused by a change in the level of distributed leadership.

Fourth, the future study should include environmental variables such as school image, growth stage, and size to examine their impacts on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Last, the methodology for the current study is quantitative. Future research studies should add some qualitative procedures such as interviews to gain a deeper insight into distributed leadership and its impacts on teachers' level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the private schools of Afghanistan.

In spite of its limitation, the finding of the current study has impactful theoretical implications for the literature about distributed leadership and school effectiveness. Since distributed leadership is going through the development process and there is a lack of empirical studies, the finding of the current study will add to the pool of the research studies in progress about distributed leadership and school effectiveness.

The current study examines the impact of school principals' distributed leadership style on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. There are few studies that investigated the association between these variables (Hickey, N., Flaherty, A., & Mannix McNamara, P. 2022). particularly no or very little work is done on the indirect impact of distributed leadership on teacher satisfaction and the mediating role of organizational commitment.

Another unique theoretical contribution of the current study is in terms of its research setting. The majority of the studies on the impacts of distributed leadership and school outcomes have been conducted in Anglo-American and Western countries (Tian, M., Risku, M., & Collin, K. 2016, p. 158). Accordingly, D Jambo and L Hongde (2020) maintained that most of the studies about distributed leadership and school effectiveness had been conducted in high-income countries. However, the current study examines the principals' distributed leadership style and its influences on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction in private schools in a low-income and underdeveloped country, Afghanistan.

The current study also has important practical implications for school leaders and practitioners. The findings of the current study suggest that to enhance teachers' level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in private schools in Afghanistan, school principals must distribute leadership in their schools. In addition, school principal has an important role in the application of distributed leadership; hence it is important that be well aware of their role in building and enhancing the capacity of the school.

Distributed leadership endorses a fundamental change in schools' principles and understanding of leadership. School principals should not only be experts in school administration but also be able to shift and disseminate leadership function and authority throughout the organization. They are required to reposition their roles from exclusive leadership to the one that supports and facilitates collaborative engagement of others in the leadership practice.

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