

2021

Transformational Leadership Behavior and Job Satisfaction Among Virginia Small Businesses

Abdulrahman Al-Ahmadi
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Abdulrahman Al-ahmadi

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Karina Kasztelnik, Committee Chairperson, Management Faculty
Dr. Maja Zelihic, Committee Member, Management Faculty
Dr. Javier Fadul, University Reviewer, Management Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

Transformational Leadership Behavior and Job Satisfaction

Among Virginia Small Businesses

by

Abdulrahman Al-ahmadi

MPhil, Walden University, 2019

MA, Virginia International University, 2016

BS, Lebanese International University, 2014

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

Walden University

August 2021

Abstract

Research has shown that the leadership of a business can significantly impact employee performance, with dissatisfied employees performing at a lower level, potentially causing disruption and costs to the business. Several studies have documented the importance of small businesses to the economy in the United States, with small businesses constituting over half of all jobs. This correlational quantitative research study aimed to explore the relationship between the transformational leadership style of the managers of Virginia small businesses and job satisfaction and job performance. The theoretical frameworks used were self-determination theory and transformational leadership. This research examined how transformational leadership was demonstrated by managers in dealing with employees, as measured by the Transformational Leadership Scale, and what the employee satisfaction level was when managers demonstrated transformational skills, as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. A correlation coefficient was used to determine if a relationship existed. The sample of 84 participants was obtained from a directory of small businesses in Virginia. The findings demonstrate a positive correlation between a positive environment and employee performance. The results of this study demonstrated how using a transformational leadership style affects employee satisfaction and performance and how these findings might relate to improving small business management and outcomes. The findings may improve understanding of job satisfaction and performance related to transformational leadership and bring about positive social change for employers.

Transformational Leadership Behavior and Job Satisfaction
Among Virginia Small Businesses

by

Abdulrahman Al-ahmadi

MPhil, Walden University, 2019

MA, Virginia International University, 2016

BS, Lebanese International University, 2014

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Management

Walden University

August 2021

Dedication

This study is dedicated to the people who have helped me the most throughout my life; I would not be where I am today without the help and support of these people. I would like to dedicate this to my mom, dad, and wife for their great support. Through it all, they stuck by my side, supported my decisions, and did everything they could to make it possible for me to succeed and to help me with any issues I had, even if it meant fleshing out ideas to my wife in the wee hours of the morning instead of sleeping. I put my heart and soul into this work and did so with these special people in mind. I hope the work appropriately honors their sacrifices and helps better the world, which is also why I want people to know that this work is dedicated to them. I can only hope to emulate my family and one day do the same in providing the level of support and love that I received for this entire endeavor, regardless of how inconvenient it was at times for my family.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the help and support of my chair and committee member. I am very thankful for their help in supporting and pushing me in my academics and this specific research paper. Taking on this big of a task was not easy and would not have been possible without the guidance and advice of my chair and committee member throughout my academic career and throughout the course of putting together this research. It is easy to get lost in all of the work and studying of academia, and while that certainly happened to an extent, my chair and committee member helped me to always remember my sense of purpose and direction. Without their help, it would not have been possible to have kept the level of focus and thinking necessary to compile this entire research paper, which I hope will be a nice culmination of the work I have done throughout my academic career so far. I always had many questions for my chair and committee member, and while eagerness is good, I worried I was overwhelming. While they helped me make sure to establish a good work-life balance, they gave me the confidence I needed to know that my excitement and desire to learn more were good and should be encouraged. I am thankful for their patience and persistence with me and my goals, and for that and so much more, all of this research is dedicated to them and their help that will propel me forward in life.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background of the Study	2
Problem Statement.....	6
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions and Hypotheses	9
Theoretical Foundation	11
Nature of the Study	13
Definitions.....	14
Assumptions.....	15
Scope and Delimitations	16
Limitations	17
Significance of the Study	18
Significance to Theory	18
Significance to Practice.....	19
Significance to Social Change	20
Summary and Transition.....	21
Chapter 2: Literature Review	23
Literature Search Strategy.....	24
Theoretical Foundation	26

Self-Determination Theory	26
Transformational Leadership	29
Literature Review.....	30
Transformational Versus Transactional Leadership	31
The Full-Range Model of Leadership.....	32
Idealized Influence.....	35
Inspirational Motivation.....	35
Intellectual Stimulation.....	36
Individualized Consideration	36
Self-Determination Theory	40
Employee Job Satisfaction.....	41
Constructs of Interest	44
Research Methodology	45
Covariate Variables.....	47
Strengths and Weakness of Prior Research	47
Mixed Findings	48
What Remains to Be Studied	48
Review and Synthesis	52
Summary and Conclusions	55
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	57
Research Design and Rationale	57
Methodology.....	58

Population	59
Sampling and Sampling Procedures	59
Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data).....	60
Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs	61
Transformational Leadership Scale	61
Long-Form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	62
Operationalization.....	63
Data Analysis Plan	65
Threats to Validity	68
External Validity.....	68
Internal Validity	69
Construct Validity.....	69
Ethical Procedures	70
Summary	71
Chapter 4: Results	72
Pilot Study.....	72
Data Collection	74
Study Results	74
Descriptive Statistics: Job Satisfaction	74
Pearson Correlation Analysis: Job Satisfaction	76
Spearman Correlation Analysis: Job Satisfaction.....	90
Spearman Correlation Analysis 2: Job Satisfaction.....	103

Descriptive Statistics: Job Performance.....	117
Pearson Correlation Analysis: Job Performance.....	119
Spearman Correlation Analysis: Job Performance	130
Spearman Correlation Analysis 2: Job Performance	141
Summary.....	153
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	155
Interpretation of Findings	155
Limitations of the Study.....	156
Recommendations.....	157
Implications.....	158
Conclusions.....	159
References.....	161
Appendix A: G-Power Calculation.....	172
Appendix B: Transformational Leadership Scale.....	173
Appendix C: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire—Permission.....	174
Appendix D: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.....	175
Appendix E: Figures From Pearson Correlation.....	177
Appendix F: Figures From Spearman Correlation.....	185
Appendix G: Figures From Pearson Correlation	193
Appendix H: Figures From Spearman Correlation.....	199

List of Tables

Table 1. Summary Statistics Table for Interval and Ratio Variables	76
Table 2. Pearson Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19	89
Table 3. Spearman Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19	102
Table 4. Spearman Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS9, JS18, JS19, JS7, JS4, JS1, and JS3	116
Table 5. Summary Statistics Table for Interval and Ratio Variables	118
Table 6. Pearson Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16	129
Table 7. Spearman Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16	140
Table 8. Spearman Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP6, JP12, JP15, JP10, JP13, and JP16	152

List of Figures

Figure E1. Scatterplots Between Variables JS11-JS8, JS14-JS8, and JS18-JS8 With Regression Line	177
Figure E2. Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS8, JS3-JS8, and JS1-JS8 With Regression Line	177
Figure E3. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS8, JS7-JS8, and JS19-JS8 With Regression Line	178
Figure E4. Scatterplots Between Variables J14-JS11, JS18-JS11, and JS9-JS11 With Regression Line	178
Figure E5. Scatterplots Between Variables JS3-JS11, JS1-JS11, and JS4-JS11 With Regression Line	179
Figure E6. Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS11, JS19-JS11, and JS18-JS14 With Regression Line	179
Figure E7. Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS14, JS3-JS14, and JS1-JS14 With Regression Line	180
Figure E8. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS14, JS7-JS14, and JS19-JS14 With Regression Line	180
Figure E9. Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS18, JS3-JS18, and JS1-JS18 With Regression Line	181
Figure E10. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS18, JS7-JS18, and JS19-JS18 With Regression Line	181

Figure E11. Scatterplots Between Variables JS3-JS9, JS1-JS9, and JS4-JS9 With Regression Line	182
Figure E12. Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS9, JS19-JS9, and JS1-JS3 With Regression Line	182
Figure E13. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS3, JS7-JS3, and JS19-JS3 With Regression Line	183
Figure E14. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS1, JS7-JS1, and JS19-JS1 With Regression Line	183
Figure E15. Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS4, JS19-JS4, and JS19-JS7 With Regression Line	184
Figure F1. Scatterplots Between Variables JS11-JS8, JS14-JS8, and JS9-JS8 With Regression Line	185
Figure F2. Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS8, JS19-JS8, and JS7-JS8 With Regression Line	185
Figure F3. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS8, JS1-JS8, and JS3-JS8 With Regression Line	186
Figure F4. Scatterplots Between Variables JS14-JS11, JS9-JS11, and JS-18-JS11 With Regression Line	186
Figure F5. Scatterplots Between Variables JS19-JS11, JS7-JS11, and JS4-JS11 With Regression Line	187
Figure F6. Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS11, JS3-JS11, and JS9-JS14 With Regression Line	187

Figure F7. Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS14, JS19-JS14, and JS7-JS14 With Regression Line	188
Figure F8. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS14, JS1-JS14, and JS3-JS14 With Regression Line	188
Figure F9. Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS9, JS19-JS9, and JS7-JS9 With Regression Line	189
Figure F10. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS9, JS1-JS9, and JS3-JS9 With Regression Line	189
Figure F11. Scatterplots Between Variables JS19-JS18, JS7-JS18, and JS4-JS18 With Regression Line	190
Figure F12. Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS18, JS3-JS18, and JS7-JS19 With Regression Line	190
Figure F13. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS19, JS1-JS19, and JS3-JS19 With Regression Line	191
Figure F14. Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS7, JS1-JS7, and JS3-JS7 With Regression Line	191
Figure F15. Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS4, JS3-JS4, and JS3-JS1 With Regression Line	192
Figure G1. Scatterplots Between Variables JP5-JP2, JP17-JP2, and JP15-JP2 With Regression Line	193
Figure G2. Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP2, JP6-JP2, and JP10-JP2 With Regression Line	193

Figure G3. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP2, JP16-JP2, and JP17-JP5 With Regression Line	194
Figure G4. Scatterplots Between Variables JP15-JP5, JP12-JP5, and JP6-JP5 With Regression Line	194
Figure G5. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP5, JP13-JP5, and JP16-JP5 With Regression Line	195
Figure G6. Scatterplots Between Variables JP15-JP17, JP12-JP17, and JP6-JP17 With Regression Line	195
Figure G7. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP17, JP13-JP17, and JP16-JP17 With Regression Line	196
Figure G8. Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP15, JP6-JP15, and JP10-JP15 With Regression Line	196
Figure G9. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP15, JP16-JP15, and JP6-JP12 With Regression Line	197
Figure G10. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP12, JP3-JP12, and JP16-JP12 With Regression Line	197
Figure G11. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP6, JP13-JP6, and JP16-JP6 With Regression Line	198
Figure G12. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP10, JP16-JP10, and JP16-JP13 With Regression Line	198
Figure H1. Scatterplots Between Variables JP5-JP2, JP17-JP2, and JP6-JP2 With Regression Line	199

Figure H2. Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP2, JP15-JP2, and JP10-JP2 With Regression Line	199
Figure H3. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP2, JP16-JP2, JP17-JP5 With Regression Line	200
Figure H4. Scatterplots Between Variables JP6-JP5, JP12-JP5, and JP15-JP5 With Regression Line	200
Figure H5. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP5, JP13-JP5, and JP16-JP5 With Regression Line	201
Figure H6. Scatterplots Between Variables JP6-JP17, JP12-JP17, and JP15-JP17 With Regression Line	201
Figure H7. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP17, JP13-JP17, and JP16-JP17 With Regression Line	202
Figure H8. Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP6, JP15-JP6, and JP10-JP6 With Regression Line	202
Figure H9. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP6, JP16-JP6, and JP15-JP12 With Regression Line	203
Figure H10. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP12, JP13-JP12, and JP16-JP12 With Regression Line	203
Figure H11. Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP15, JP13-JP15, and JP16-JP15 With Regression Line	204
Figure H12. Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP10, JP16-JP10, and JP16-JP13 With Regression Line	204

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

This research adds to the body of knowledge regarding how a transformational leadership style can lead to improved employee satisfaction. Prior research has shown that a transformational leadership style can increase employee satisfaction, but few studies on this leadership style have focused specifically on small businesses, despite their significant contributions to the U.S. economy (Dilger, 2019). This study focused on examining the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia.

Small businesses face challenges that include employee acquisition and retention (Morelix, 2018). Given that the transformational leadership style has been shown to improve employee satisfaction, there is value in assessing its usefulness in small businesses. This study quantifies the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction and may provide business leaders with tools for success. The questions that must be answered are what transformational leadership styles are observed in leaders of small businesses in Virginia and how satisfied their employees are. It is hypothesized that employees who are managed by transformational leaders will report higher job satisfaction. Self-determination theory (SDT) and transformational leadership were the theoretical frameworks used for this research (Deci et al., 2017; Fernet et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2000). This was a correlational quantitative study addressing the relationship between transformational leadership style as defined by Bass (1990) and employee satisfaction.

The assumptions, scope, and delimitations of this study are also covered in this chapter. The limitations and challenges of this study included resources, time, and sample

selection. The results of this study may be significant and valuable for business leaders and their teams of employees.

Background of the Study

Several databases, including Business Source Complete, Business Source Elite, EBSCO Databases, MainFile, ProQuest, Walden University databases, and Google Scholar, were used for this research exploration. Search terms included *small business*, *transformational leadership*, *leadership styles*, *managers*, *management styles*, *employee satisfaction*, and various combinations of these terms. When searching for scholarly research, limiters were selected for scholarly papers only, and for this section, when there were sufficient results, the period searched was limited to the past 5 years.

Morelix (2018) reported that small businesses are currently facing two challenges, namely employee retention and hiring new employees, with four out of 10 small businesses having at least one unfilled opening, which was the highest percentage for this number in the past decade. Fulmer and Ostroff (2017), Para-González et al. (2018), and Yalabik et al. (2017) agreed that the research presents a clear relationship between job satisfaction, leadership style, and intention to quit, making it imperative to study whether the application of a transformational leadership style can lead to increased job satisfaction within the small business context.

Employee satisfaction has been a topic of interest for scientists for many years and has roots in multiple psychological theories that served as a basis for understanding job satisfaction. Early theories on what motivates human behavior include Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of five human needs, which includes physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Later, Locke (1969) offered what has become the widely accepted

view of job satisfaction, describing it in terms of the relationship between the needs and expectations of employees regarding their job and what can be achieved or attained from the job. More recently, Yalabik et al. (2017) outlined how job satisfaction encompasses multiple aspects of the work situation, including satisfaction with the work being performed, operating conditions, and the level of workload, among other things, noting that it can also be described as a mental construct that is an emotional state regarding “what an employee perceives, feels and thinks about his/her job” (p. 249). Research has shown that the levels of trust that employees have in top leaders and managers have hit an all-time low recently, leading to a need for more research into how to increase trust between leadership and employees (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). When employees trust leadership, this can contribute many benefits to a business, such as an increased focus on being productive at work, commitment to the organization, intent to stay with the organization, and increased profitability. Ling et al. (2016) pointed out that leadership traits and attributes trickle down to frontline staff, which impacts the experience that customers enjoy with customer-facing employees. Martinaityte et al. (2019) posited that, when employees’ needs are not satisfied, this failure leads to diminished motivation, as suggested by SDT (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The primary focus of their research was factors related to motivation, including basic psychological needs as well as autonomous or intrinsic motivation, which relies on internal motivators that result in employee engagement, while controlled motivation is coerced through rewards and punishment, both of which are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2 (Deci et al., 2017).

Fernet et al. (2015) explained that transformational leadership has been associated with other motivational outcomes among employees, including autonomous motivation,

empowerment, and self-concordance. Choi et al. (2016), explained that transformational leadership consists of several different elements, including individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspiration, and visionary leadership. Aga et al. (2016), Cheng et al. (2016), and Choi et al. (Choi et al., 2016) cite multiple studies that established a strong relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Many of the studies were conducted in the nursing profession, limiting their usefulness to other industries. More research is also needed to gain a better understanding of how transformational leadership is related to project success, social identity, and teamwork (Aga et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2016).

Early research on motivational factors that can explain behavior was studied and discussed by Deci (1971), who described autonomous motivators, which result from a genuine internal desire to perform a task, and controlled motivators, which include external forces such as money. Later research found positive correlations between teachers who favored autonomy and rewarded students with information led to the students being intrinsically motivated (Deci et al., 1981). It was Bass (1990) who first presented the idea of transformational leadership, which was based on earlier concepts of what causes people to be motivated. Transformational leadership has continued to hold value in many fields and encompasses four aspects of leadership style, which are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Cheng et al. (2016) applied the concepts of transformational leadership to the field of nursing, which is notoriously stressful and prone to burnout and turnover, and found that nurses using a transformational approach to

leadership created an organizational culture that led to high job satisfaction as well as increased quality of patient care.

Research into transformational leadership in small businesses has value for contributing to current knowledge in several ways. Small businesses differ from large businesses in terms of management, with small business owners acting as managers, or owner-managers, while large business owners seek out managers rather than taking that role on themselves (Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). Wang and Poutziouris (2010) also explain that owner-managers are highly involved in the daily functioning of small businesses, influencing and controlling most of the business functions directly, making their leadership style a critical component to examine to increase the understanding of successful business management. In these ways, small businesses offer unique opportunities for exploring the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. Small businesses are also known for their innovation, job creation, and financial growth, yet some suffer from serious issues with inexperienced owner-managers, lack of resources, and competition that can hinder their chances of success significantly. The small businesses that struggle or are faced with closure represent an important part of the economy that cannot be overlooked. Recent researchers have reiterated the crucial role that small businesses play in terms of economic growth, job creation, social development, innovation, and creativity (H. S. Ng et al., 2016). According to H. S. Ng et al., small businesses are also vital in utilizing entrepreneurial skills garnered, such as transformational leadership, from small business owner-managers to improve large business outcomes also. Investment in small business leadership development has become a major ingredient for both developed and developing countries

when creating policies. However, despite their value in the economy, many small businesses struggle due to multiple factors including unskilled or incompetent leaders and owners, challenges related to technical expertise, and funding issues including increased business costs that can be exacerbated by poorly performing owners or managers, who in turn may negatively affect employees. In fact, in developed countries, small businesses contribute 40% to 60% of the gross domestic product (GDP) and 67% of employment. According to the US Small Business Administration Office of Advocacy (SBA, 2018), there are 30.2 million small businesses, which constitute 99.9% of all businesses in the United States, and 58.9 million, or 47%, of U.S. employees work at small businesses. In the current study, I sought to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction to gain valuable information on how these challenges might be resolved. The results of this study may be significant and valuable for small business leaders in Virginia and their team of employees.

Problem Statement

While some small businesses are examples of success, around 55% stop trading after only five years of operations, and more than 80% stop operating after 10 years (Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). This is a significant number of small businesses that ultimately close. Wang and Poutziouris (2010) also stress that research in the small business sector is lacking despite an increasing need for improving the effectiveness of management to improve business outcomes. These findings show the importance of bridging this gap in knowledge and creating new approaches to business management.

Recent researchers have reiterated the crucial role that small businesses play in terms of economic growth, job creation, social development, innovation, and creativity

(H. S. Ng et al., 2016). According to H. S. Ng et al. (2016), small businesses are also vital in utilizing entrepreneurial skills garnered, such as transformational leadership, from small business owner-managers to improve large business outcomes. Investment in small business leadership development has become a major ingredient in policy creation for both developed and developing countries. However, despite the value of small businesses in the economy, many still struggle due to multiple factors, such as leaders and owners who are unskilled or incompetent, challenges related to technical expertise, and funding issues including increased business costs, which can be exacerbated by poorly performing owners or managers, who in turn may have a negative effect on employees.

In fact, in developed countries, small businesses contribute 40% to 60% of the gross domestic product (GDP) and 67% of employment (H. S. Ng et al., 2016). According to the SBA (2018), there are 30.2 million small businesses, which constitute 99.9% of all businesses in the United States, and 58.9 million, or 47%, of U.S. employees work at small businesses. As Dilger (2019) noted, small businesses contribute significantly to the economy, yet as Wang and Poutziouris (2010) point out, they are overlooked in much of the research. However, despite their value in the economy, many still struggle due to multiple factors including leaders and owners who are unskilled or incompetent, challenges related to technical expertise, and funding issues including increased business costs that can be exacerbated by poorly performing owners or managers, who in turn may have a negative effect on employees (H. S. Ng et al., 2016). The general problem is that transformational leadership is still in need of further research because of the somewhat limited nature of previous investigations, especially regarding attempts to identify a clear relationship between transformational leadership style and

employee performance in every context, with particular attention to how employee dissatisfaction results in a lack of motivation that typically negatively impacts job performance, can disrupt business, and causes considerable costs (Goodwin et al., 2011; L. T. Ng, 2014; Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). The specific problem is that small business managers in Virginia need to have a better understanding of the relationship that exists between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction and job performance to promote practices that lead to improved employee satisfaction and business outcomes.

Small businesses are responsible for the creation of many jobs. Despite their importance to the economy, many face major challenges, some that are too great to overcome. While it is evident that small businesses are very important to the economy, few studies have considered how transformational leadership and employee satisfaction are related in that setting. The knowledge gained from this study will be helpful for small businesses whose leaders want to increase employee satisfaction and job performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this correlational quantitative study was to determine what degree of relationship exists between transformational leadership style in managers of small businesses in Virginia and employee satisfaction to provide a basis for determining how managers impact employee satisfaction and job performance. While this relationship had been supported in prior research on large-scale business entities, little was known about whether, and to what degree, this relationship exists in small business settings as well. The findings of this research may aid in improving business outcomes for small businesses, which are a vital part of the U.S. economy. The findings may afford valuable insight for managers seeking ways to accomplish this by increasing employee satisfaction

and job performance using the transformational leadership traits and skills that produce these results. The Transformational Leadership Scale designed by Ismail et al. (2010) was used to measure the independent variable (IV), transformational leadership style.

Transformational leaders exhibit characteristics such as individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. The dependent variable (DV) of employee satisfaction will be measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ assesses employee satisfaction in terms of factors including ability utilization, achievement, compensation, creativity, independence, and supervision.

Small businesses rely on studies that can help them find ways to improve. This study will use questionnaires that have been shown to have reliability and validity to measure transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. The scales that were used were the Transformational Leadership Scale and the MSQ. The results obtained from this research will be useful for leaders within small businesses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Two correlational research questions were examined in this study. The first one, which measured the IV of transformational leadership style, was the following:

RQ1: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased employee satisfaction?

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant results for any characteristics of the transformational leadership style demonstrated by managers

of Virginia small businesses that lead to increased employee satisfaction.

*H*₁: There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through attributes that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased employee satisfaction.

*H*₂: There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through behaviors that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased employee satisfaction.

The second research question, which addressed the DV of employee satisfaction, was as follows:

RQ2: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance?

*H*₀₁: There are no statistically significant results for any characteristics of the transformational leadership style demonstrated by managers of Virginia small businesses that lead to increased job performance.

*H*₁: There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through attributes that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance.

*H*₂: There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through behaviors that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance.

By measuring transformational leadership style using a scale by Ismail et al. (2010) and employee satisfaction MSQ in small businesses in Virginia, it may be possible to see if a relationship exists between them and to what degree. Leadership style was determined through self-report by leaders using 10 items. Employee satisfaction will be measured based on multiple attributes such as achievement and using abilities and skills.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework upon which this study was constructed was SDT (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000), which is identified in the literature as one of the most effective theoretical frameworks for investigations of psychological needs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). SDT and transformational leadership are two important theories that served as the backbone of this research. Kanat-Maymon et al. (2020) proposed the integration of the two theories into a single theory. Just as transformational leadership is categorized into several dimensions, SDT is also a multidimensional concept that includes three categories: autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and amotivation. Autonomous motivation is characterized by an individual's self-motivation and free will. Autonomous motivation, as described in SDT, shares many characteristics with intrinsic motivation, as described in transformational leadership theory, with both referring to an inner motivation that leads individuals to take an action (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020; Mathieu et al., 2020). Controlled motivation shares similarities with extrinsic

motivation, in that both are guided by pressure-based, or external, factors that create motivation. Amotivation (i.e., failure to motivate) is similar to the laissez-faire leadership style seen in leaders who take a very passive, hands-off approach with the absence of intentions, which leads to inaction. Although research by Kanat-Maymon et al. was focused on how these motivational factors can result in leaders who exhibit different leadership styles, I was interested in this research in how the skills of transformational leaders relate to employee satisfaction.

This information may inform future leaders of small businesses on the desired leadership style for achieving company goals. This study also addressed transformational leadership, which mediates job demands and resources using both autonomous motivations as well as controlled motivation to reduce psychological strain and improve job attitudes and performance (Fernet et al., 2015). The use of SDT was preferred in this research because it established three collective human needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Personal growth and peak performance are only possible, according to SDT, if the three universal human needs are fulfilled. In the context of this study, leaders are critical influencers determining whether employees' psychological needs are met, and what type of leadership is practiced plays a vital role in this process (Deci et al., 2017). By incorporating SDT with transformational leadership theory, this study suggests a correlation between employee attitudes and feelings as specifically outlined in the research questions and transformational leadership. This study may contribute to filling a gap in the literature, with Wang and Poutziouris (2010) describing current knowledge of this complex topic as immature and confusing, by empirically investigating managers' assessments of their level of performance or comfort with transformational leadership as

applied in small businesses by examining the connection between managers' adoption of transformational leadership and potential benefits to employee job performance.

Nature of the Study

This correlational quantitative study will examine the effect of the predictor variable, transformational leadership style, on the criterion variable, employee satisfaction, as listed in the research questions and measured through the use of surveys. This will provide a numeric measurement of the strength of relationships between each of the variables. Specifically, idealized influence attributed (IIA), idealized influence behavioral (IIB), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration were all components that collectively measured the IV of transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership style will be measured using an online survey that asked managers about the nature of their leadership skills (Ismail et al., 2010). The DV was employee satisfaction, which refers to satisfaction with different aspects of the job, such as ability utilization, creativity, and supervision. Employee satisfaction will be measured using the MSQ, an online 20 scale survey with 100 questions about respondents' job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). Both scales have been shown to have validity as measurement tools (Ismail et al., 2010; Weiss et al., 1967).

This research will also measure several covariates, including employee performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. The Employee Job Performance (EJP) scale, a 13-item questionnaire that assesses job time, job quality, and job quantity, will be administered to quantify employee job performance (Na-Nan et al., 2018).

Definitions

The IV in this research was the transformational leadership style, which encompassed four characteristics. Charismatic leadership, which was further broken down into IIA and IIB, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The DVs were employee satisfaction, employee performance, turnover rate, and workplace environment.

Self-determination theory (SDT): A theory of human motivation that, when applied in the workplace, explains that employees' performance and well-being are driven by the motivating factors present (Deci et al., 2017).

Transformational leadership: Described by Bass (1990) and frequently used in current research, transformational leadership refers to "superior leadership performance" through the use of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence attributed (IIA): This is one of two components of charisma that refers to leaders who attract followers who admire, respect, and strive to emulate them (Vale, 2019).

Idealized influence behavioral (IIB): This is another component of charisma that refers to leaders who earn followers by prioritizing the needs of others over their own and emphasizing the importance of working together toward a common goal (Vale, 2019).

Inspirational motivation: A term used for leaders who can inspire and motivate others to do well while also building teamwork (Vale, 2019).

Intellectual stimulation: Leaders who promote intellectual stimulation encourage followers to be creative, innovative problem solvers (Vale, 2019).

Individualized consideration: By shifting focus to others—employees, in this case—leaders can mentor individuals to help them to grow and reach their fullest potential (Vale, 2019).

Employee satisfaction: Employee satisfaction can be based on several factors, including achievement, using skills and abilities, recognition, and working conditions (Weiss et al., 1967).

Employee performance: Employee performance can be measured in terms of job time, job quality, and job quantity (Na-Nan et al., 2018).

Employee turnover rate: Although there is no single, agreed-upon method for calculating the turnover rate, a commonly used equation is the number of employees departing in any given month, divided by the number of employees, times 100 (Dessler, 2017).

Assumptions

One aspect of the study that was an assumption was that participants would respond to questionnaires with honesty and without bias, as is the case any time that questionnaires are used, rather than responding with what the participants thought that I wanted, which is referred to as *response bias* (H. S. Ng et al., 2016). Managers could have misreported their transformational leadership style when self-reporting their behaviors. The second assumption was that the measurement instruments, the Transformational Leadership Scale by Ismail et al. (2010) and the MSQ, were both appropriate scales for this research and its questions (Weiss et al., 1967). Fortunately, both of these instruments are reliable and valid scales for measuring transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction, respectively (Ismail et al., 2010; Weiss et al.,

1967). The third assumption was that the responses to the surveys were representative of all small businesses in Virginia. Although the Small Business Supplier Diversity Agency provides an online directory of businesses that are certified by the Commonwealth of Virginia, there may have been businesses that did not receive certification and therefore were not part of this research.

Scope and Delimitations

The focus of this research was surveying managers of small businesses in Virginia. While other researchers have focused on larger businesses, this study will focus on small businesses. This focus on small businesses is beneficial due to their importance in a highly competitive U.S. economy. With the significance of small businesses in the economy, this study may prove valuable for answering the question about how transformational leadership style relates to employee satisfaction in the small business sector. This research will not include all small businesses in Virginia but instead will only include those that are listed in the Virginia Department of Small Business and Supplier Diversity (SBSD, n.d.) agency directory. In addition, individuals who had been employed at their current job for less than 6 months will not be included in the analysis. Internal validity extended to the boundaries of this study, though results may be indicative of a need for additional research in small businesses in other states to determine if a similar relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction exists. The external validity of this study will be ensured by randomly selecting participants from the population of certified small businesses. In addition, although this study cannot be generalized to all small businesses in the United States, it provides scientists and small

business leaders in Virginia with critical information for utilizing transformational leadership skills to enhance employee satisfaction and performance.

Limitations

This study faced several limitations and challenges that must be considered. Time and resource restraints prevented this study from including a wide sample of small businesses in the United States, which was the reason for the limitation to Virginia businesses only. This narrow scope of small businesses inhibited the generalizability of this research. The population for this study was leaders and managers of small businesses in Virginia. However, due to limitations on resources and time, the sample selected for this study will be a small convenience sample, with a sample size of 84 as determined by using a two-tailed bivariate correlation in G*Power with an alpha of 0.05, a power of 0.80, and an effect size of $\rho = 0.30$. As such, the sample may not necessarily be representative of all businesses, employees, or managers in the United States or even all of Virginia. These factors limited the generalizability of these findings to other states and countries. Another limitation was the use of a correlational research design, which will not be able to determine a definitive cause-and-effect relationship between the two, as correlation does not equal causation, preventing this research from being able to make a solid conclusion on whether transformational leadership style increases employee satisfaction and job performance.

An inherent weakness in the use of a convenience sample is selection bias on the part of companies that are asked to participate in research. Because of the limited resources that small businesses have, many may choose not to participate because they do not want their managers' attention deflected from the work that they have to do for the

company. Some business owners may fear that the information that will be collected could somehow be used against them in some way. Other managers may not want their leadership style to be scrutinized in the way that it was in this study. Concerns about confidentiality and privacy were addressed by a clear statement that participation was voluntary and that all data collected would be confidential, meaning that there would be no way to connect the responses of the managers back to a specific company.

Significance of the Study

Significance to Theory

The importance of this study for advancing theory is the contribution that it makes by expanding the literature and current knowledge of transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction, which may benefit from further empirical investigation (Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). Although prior research has shown that this relationship exists in large industries such as nursing, little focus has been placed on transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction in small businesses as the current study did (Choi et al., 2016). Managers' adoption of transformational leadership will be measured against employee satisfaction, which can offer benefits to employee job performance. The results of this study may be valuable in adding to the body of knowledge, which is lacking much information on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, with an emphasis on small businesses in Virginia. This may serve to increase scientific knowledge, inform managers and leaders on effective leadership skills, improve small business outcomes, and aid the state of Virginia and the U.S. economy.

Significance to Practice

The current study is significant for advancing practices in small businesses in Virginia to improve business outcomes. This is important because businesses with a workforce that is disengaged may face disruption and increased costs due to nonproductive employees through higher turnover rates and costs for retraining, lower productivity, and even poor psychological well-being and physical health (Yalabik et al., 2017). Research has shown that employees' dissatisfaction with the leadership of their company results in dissatisfaction and lack of motivation that typically negatively impacts job performance, which can disrupt business and cause considerable costs (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Pittino et al., 2016; Yalabik et al., 2017). Considering that small businesses (those with under 500 employees) are responsible for 52.7% of all jobs, with 30.7% of all employees in the United States working for businesses between 20-499 employees, this is a critical component of the economy that cannot be ignored (Dilger, 2019). Most existing literature indicates a connection between transformational leadership style and employee attitudes and performance (Aga et al., 2016; Bass, 1998; Cheng et al., 2016). However, Wang and Poutziouris (2010) observed that research on the management of small and medium-sized enterprises is inadequate and requires further investigation. This research on transformational leadership and employee satisfaction offers a new perspective by examining this relationship in the small business sector of Virginia, whereas much of the existing research focuses on large businesses such as hospitals, often in regions outside of the United States. The results of this research may serve to inform small business managers in Virginia on how to enhance employee performance using a transformational leadership style to excel in business.

Significance to Social Change

Transformational leaders inspire followers to accept and support the organization's vision while providing the direction required to attain established goals, often using individualized support (Podsakoff et al., 1996). A transformational leader also elicits feelings of trust and respect, which encourages followers to accomplish more than they would in different circumstances. The current study was worth pursuing so that leaders could be informed on the best practices for positive interactions with employees that lead to better outcomes. This process typically involves followers changing existing attitudes and beliefs to accomplish a greater good than mere satisfaction with personal job performance. There is value in learning more about how transformational leaders help to create positive attitudes among employees that lead to increased job satisfaction and performance so that both individuals and businesses can experience positive outcomes. Transformational leaders provide a set of values and standards adopted by followers allowing individuals to become more well-rounded and concerned with organizational goals (Aga et al., 2016; Choi et al., 2016; Vatankhah et al., 2017). The results of this study may help small businesses in the United States to make more informed decisions that will improve their chances of success. This research may have value beyond its current scope of small businesses in Virginia and may also serve as a starting point for other researchers who want to learn more about transformational leadership and employee satisfaction in small businesses in other regions of the United States and other countries as well. Ultimately, this process creates positive change on many levels that followers also apply in their personal lives as they more clearly identify the significance of larger system functioning as opposed to individual attainment.

Summary and Transition

In Chapter 1, prior research regarding leadership style, employee satisfaction, and performance was briefly discussed. The need for research on transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia was introduced. The background of the study offered more details regarding how existing studies were found, including the databases that were utilized, the search terms that were used, and major findings on the topic of transformational leadership and employee satisfaction by previous researchers. The general problem is that previous findings indicate that employee dissatisfaction can result in disruptions in business and added costs, but more data are necessary for learning about small businesses managers in Virginia in relation to the transformational leadership style, employee satisfaction, and job performance to promote positive business outcomes (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Pittino et al., 2016; Yalabik et al., 2017). The purpose of the study was to determine what relationship exists between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction to aid in positive small business outcomes. Research questions and hypotheses and theoretical foundations were also presented. The goal of this correlational quantitative study, which was to analyze the effect of the predictor variable, transformational leadership style, on the criterion variable, employee satisfaction, was discussed. Definitions of the variables and the theories supporting this research were outlined. Comments on assumptions, scope, and delimitations, or validity of the research design, as well as limitations, were also included in Chapter 1. Lastly, the significance of the study was discussed in terms of advancing theory in small businesses in Virginia on transformational leadership style,

advancing leadership practices, and positive social change for leaders and the employees who look to them for guidance.

In Chapter 2, I will explain in more detail the strategy for obtaining reputable scientific sources and the theoretical foundations that served as a basis for the current study. I will then present a review of the literature, followed by conclusions on the findings of prior research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In a competitive global economy, businesses function optimally. Given that dissatisfied employees can cause a business to suffer additional costs and interruptions, it is beneficial to increase knowledge on how transformational leadership style has a positive effect on employee satisfaction and job, and how this theory applies to small business managers in Virginia (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Pittino et al., 2016; Yalabik et al., 2017). Past researchers have indicated that knowledge is lacking in the area of transformational leadership style in small businesses, despite their considerable contributions to the economy (Dilger, 2019; Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). This correlational quantitative study determined the degree to which a relationship exists between transformational leadership style in managers of small businesses in Virginia and employee satisfaction.

This chapter outlines the literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, and literature review, as well as how these elements came together for this research. The section addressing the literature search strategy outlines key contributors, including Bass (1990), whose definition of transformational leadership is widely accepted in research, and SDT, as outlined by Deci et al. (2017). The origins of transformational leadership and SDT are covered in more depth in the section on the study's theoretical framework (Bass, 1990; Deci et al., 2017). The literature review includes a discussion on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction (Choi et al., 2016; Vale, 2019).

Literature Search Strategy

The references for this research were obtained through literature searches that were conducted from August 9, 2019 to February 2, 2020. Several databases and search engines were accessed to find information about transformational leadership, SDT, and employee satisfaction. These sources included Annual Reviews, Business Source Complete, Business Source Elite, EBSCO Databases, JSTOR, MainFile, Newspaper Source Plus, ProQuest, PubMed, PsycNET, ResearchGate, ScienceDirect, Semantic Scholar, Taylor & Francis Online, the Walden University databases, and Google Scholar. Google Scholar was the primary source for articles.

Bernard M. Bass (1990) is a leadership expert who is credited with introducing the idea of transformational leadership as a better alternative to management than the traditionally used transactional leadership. According to Bass, humans have historically used transactions to motivate others to act, but the methods used years ago involved using legitimate power and coercion. More recently, researchers have found that transformational leadership is a much more effective method for leaders to use for achieving goals in the workplace than transactional leadership. He and various other researchers saw the need to better understand transformational leadership in the workplace. Businesses that are facing challenges due to poor management risk losing productivity and money. Small businesses are of particular interest due to the existence of limited data regarding how transformational leadership plays a role in employee satisfaction and, in turn, can result in improved business outcomes.

The extensive list of search terms included *small business*, *Virginia business*, *small businesses in Virginia directory*, *transformational leadership*, *leadership styles*,

transformational leadership, self-determination theory, self-determination theory Deci and Ryan, free transformational leadership assessment, leadership behavior inventory, multidimensional measure for leadership, managers, management styles, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ, free scale similar to Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, free MLQ assessment, employee satisfaction, transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, general satisfaction questionnaire, general satisfaction scale, employee job satisfaction questionnaire, employee performance, employee performance metrics, employee performance questionnaire, employee turnover rate, workplace assessment, assessing workplace environment, and many combinations of these terms.

The current study explored the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, which has value to business leaders and has been shown to exist across many disciplines. This research may further knowledge on transformational leadership with an emphasis on a relatively understudied aspect of this relationship, small businesses in Virginia. Past studies on transformational leadership and its role in improving employee satisfaction have provided useful information for defining constructs, identifying gaps in knowledge, and planning the current research.

The scope of the literature review includes scholarly articles that were selected for recency of no more than 5 years old, when possible. However, some seminal articles on SDT and transformational leadership were included due to their importance for establishing early concepts of theories that served as the basis for this research. Some references were also found by reviewing the references within other works. Most of the references used in this literature review were peer-reviewed literature from scientific journals.

Theoretical Foundation

Self-Determination Theory

SDT was the primary theoretical foundation for this research (Deci et al., 2017; Fernet et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The origin of SDT dates back to early research by Deci (1971) that explored how external rewards such as money and verbal reinforcement can influence intrinsic motivation when completing an activity. Motivational factors are the basis for SDT, of which there are various types, each with “functionally different catalyzers, concomitants, and consequences” (Deci et al., 2017, p. 20). SDT explains what causes people to behave in the way that they do. Understanding motivation is also quite helpful in the workplace. SDT has been successfully merged with the full-range model of leadership (FRML) and applied to distributive and procedural justice, with findings supporting that individuals who exhibit characteristics of transformational leadership instill a sense of trust in their subordinates (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Research by Ismail et al. (2010) also found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction using a self-developed, free-to-use transformational leadership questionnaire based on the well-known but cost-prohibitive MLQ.

SDT was first studied by Deci et al. (1989), who were tasked with helping a Fortune 500 company that was facing challenges that were lowering profitability to make changes to interpersonal conduct throughout the organization. In this project, three questionnaires were administered: the Problems at Work questionnaire, the Work Climate Survey, and the Employee Attitude Survey. Many attributes that were of interest to SDT and measured by these questionnaires are the same as those measured by the MSQ,

including work atmosphere and working conditions, advancement, satisfaction with work in terms of personal autonomy, trust in and quality of the supervisor, compensation, feedback and recognition, security, and variety (Deci et al., 1989; Weiss et al., 1967). These commonalities between SDT and employee satisfaction help to explain how they are related to each other and this research.

Numerous researchers have set out to study SDT and its role in motivating employees to complete work-related tasks. Deci et al. (2017) also posited that motivation for job activities can affect employee performance and well-being. SDT has been applied to many industries, including healthcare and education. Earlier theorists on human motivation agreed that motivation plays a role in work performance, with intrinsic motivation as the primary focus (Deci & Ryan, 1980a). Such theories included Piaget's cognitive development theory in 1952, Maslow's humanistic psychology in 1954, Atkinson's expectancy theory in 1964, and social motivation theories (Deci & Ryan, 1980b). In 1981, Deci et al. explained that, according to cognitive evaluation theory, there are two types of motivation: (a) autonomous motivation, which is often intrinsic motivation, and (b) controlling motivation. Their research also found that intrinsic motivation had a positive impact on behavior while controlling motivation had a negative impact. When individuals are intrinsically motivated, they are engaged in an activity that they are performing willingly and by their own choice (Deci et al., 2017). These individuals are acting based on intrinsic motivation—that is, their motivation is a product of internal desires.

Controlled motivation, or extrinsic motivation, is characterized by using contingent rewards to motivate employees and has been shown to have negative

consequences for overall employee job performance and work engagement (Deci et al., 2017). Contingent rewards differ from internally motivated rewards in fundamental ways. Self-interest is the foundation of contingent rewards (Barnett, 2017). Employees who are motivated by contingent rewards are performing job tasks to attain a reward of some sort. A contingent reward is a product of an agreement between a leader and an employee where the leader offers a reward, the cost of the work, in exchange for successful completion of work tasks by the employee. While contingent rewards do still motivate employees, the driving forces to do so are quite different. Leaders who use contingent rewards to motivate employees often use punishment as a response to subpar performance. While this may aid in motivating employees to complete tasks, it does not necessarily create positive employee attitudes toward work. In these ways, transactional motivation and contingent rewards differ significantly from the tactics of transformational leaders who use rewards that are internal and more personally rewarding. Fortunately, transactional leaders are also well versed in what the business needs and are willing to communicate these needs clearly and effectively so that employees have a solid understanding of their responsibilities within the company. Transactional leadership style still holds some value when trying to explain employee satisfaction, such as pay, and these factors must still be considered because they, too, affect employee satisfaction, but the focus is shifting toward transformational leadership due to its effectiveness in the workplace. Although transactional leadership was not a primary focus of this research, it is an integral part of the FRML that is valuable for understanding the similarities and differences between it and transformational leadership, and the relationship that each has with employee satisfaction. Both leadership styles

promote employee performance, but I was more interested in this research in the benefits of leading with a transformational style and how it may improve employee satisfaction and, in turn, help to achieve business goals.

Unlike intrinsic motivation, where employees are motivated more naturally, employees who are being motivated through extrinsic means are compelled by external demands that they are not in control of (Groen et al., 2017). Individuals who are motivated by extrinsic factors are accomplishing tasks to receive an external reward, such as a bonus. Using extrinsic rewards to motivate employees may reduce their autonomous motivation because they may feel inadequate for the job at hand, as indicated by the need for the reward. While monetary and other extrinsic rewards may act as motivation, their value has taken a secondary role in maintaining employee satisfaction.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was another important part of the theoretical foundation for this research. Transformational leadership is certainly not a new concept, having first been introduced by Burns in 1978 (Rudd et al., 2009). Burns's ideas helped to pave the way for leadership changes, including those involving how people view and define leadership. Some experts consider transformational leadership to be the highest form of evolution in terms of leadership, and it has been the subject of many research projects, with increasing interest in the second half of the 1990s (Ghasabeh et al., 2015). As competition continues to fuel the economy, this trend in popularity will likely continue, especially in light of the significant findings in research regarding transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction. The knowledge gained from this research may serve as the groundwork for small businesses in Virginia to succeed by

implementing transformational leadership styles into everyday practices that may improve employee satisfaction and performance and lead to positive business outcomes.

Literature Review

Small businesses are currently struggling with several challenging issues. Two major complaints, as reported by human resource professionals, are maintaining employee engagement and cultivating leaders in preparation for the future of a business (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2017). This has left nearly half of small businesses with an open position that has not been filled (Morelix, 2018). Research has repeatedly shown that a relationship exists between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction and intention to quit, which shows the importance of understanding this regarding small businesses (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Para-González et al., 2018; Yalabik et al., 2017). The rationale for variable selection in this research arose in part from the challenges that businesses face today, with small businesses comprising a significant segment of the economy (Dilger, 2019). To remain relevant in a quickly changing world, business owners and managers need to approach employee satisfaction as a crucial part of business.

There is also an issue with a gap in the existing body of knowledge. Researchers have described a lack of research on the use of transformational leadership styles in small businesses (Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). This problem is also evident when attempting to find any evidence of prior research on this through a scholarly search. Although several studies place priority on transformational leadership style within the context of large industries, I was interested in the current study in this relationship within the context of small businesses in Virginia. The results of this study could have serious implications for

small business managers in Virginia who want to implement changes that improve employee satisfaction and job performance through the use of a transformational leadership style.

Transformational Versus Transactional Leadership

Some of the earliest discussions of theories on leadership by Bass (1990, 1998) include the argument that there is no single style of leadership to use and that leaders can exhibit characteristics that are both transactional and transformational when leading employees (Barnett, 2017). While this may be true, the transformational leadership style has shown value over other styles of leadership. The transformational leadership style helps managers form positive relationships built on trust with their employees by showing empathy for them while being considerate and supportive (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). This in turn creates intrinsic motivation for employees. Transactional leadership, on the other hand, involves an exchange of rewards or punishment in exchange for productivity and loyalty between the manager and employees, in an attempt to motivate employees to perform specific tasks in a certain way (Saleem, 2015). Transactional leaders are less appealing and engaging for employees, often prioritizing personal agendas over those of others, and this style of leadership has even been shown to have a negative association with job satisfaction, often focusing on mistakes and amount of work achieved, or ignoring employees until a problem arises. It has also been found that transactional leaders are associated with more employees leaving the business than are transformational leaders. The transactional leadership style utilizes extrinsic forces, rewards, and punishment to create motivation in employees.

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is a critical part of leadership style in business today. When compared with transactional leadership, the transformational leadership style has become a commonly used, effective method for successfully managing employees. Transformational leaders can foster trusting relationships with employees, which can lead to increased employee satisfaction and positive results for the company, whereas businesses that have transactional leaders have had challenges in terms of improvement (SHRM, 2017). While the value of transactional leadership cannot be disregarded, transformational leadership continues to surpass other leadership styles concerning employee satisfaction and performance.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles are both relevant to the topic of employee satisfaction for different reasons. Traditionally, transactional leadership has been the method of motivating employees through external rewards and punishment that leads people to act. Transformational leadership is guided by the collective knowledge provided by earlier scientists who led the way toward understanding human behavior, formulated a framework for understanding the concept, and applied it to principles of business. Transformational and transactional leadership are part of the FRML.

The Full-Range Model of Leadership

Transformational leadership is part of a larger model of leadership. The FMRL, as developed and outlined by Bass and Avolio (1990), includes three constructs: (a) transformational leadership, (b) transactional leadership, (c) and laissez-faire leadership (Mathieu et al., 2014). Bass and Avolio (2000) also developed the MLQ to assess leadership style using these three constructs. Transformational and transactional

leadership have previously been treated as if they were a single entity when discussing theories of motivation, but each has different motivational factors.

The third type of leadership in the Full-Range Model of Leadership is laissez-faire leadership. After researching this topic, it became apparent that perhaps it is the least effective method of leadership in this model. Leaders who exhibit laissez-faire leadership style take a very passive role as managers and are often taking a hands-off approach (Mathieu et al., 2014). These leaders are rarely present and will sometimes avoid taking any action to intervene. Laissez-faire leaders may also take their time when making decisions, may not give employees any feedback, and may also neglect to offer rewards for their job performance. This type of leader also fails to take actions that would help to increase employee motivation, often without recognizing the efforts of employees. The laissez-faire leadership style results in decreased employee job satisfaction and decreased satisfaction with the leadership. This style of leadership does not appear to be particularly helpful and may be detrimental to the success of a business.

Management-by-exception is another approach to leadership in the workplace. Management-by-exception is categorized along with the laissez-faire leadership style (Barnett, 2017). Management-by-exception is further subdivided into two parts: active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception. Active management-by-exception is a type of leadership characterized by an involved leader. These leaders actively monitor employee performance, anticipating potential problems and intervening when necessary in the event of an actual issue. Management-by-exception requires leaders who are willing to take an active role in ensuring that employees are performing well.

Passive management by exception does not take the same approach to problems. These leaders are reactive rather than proactive. They do not actively monitor employee performance and will only intervene when problems arise (Barnett, 2017). This type of leadership is often plagued by negativity, giving employees negative feedback, correcting them, criticizing their mistakes, and administering punishment. These leaders lack the qualities of transformational leadership that motivate employees using intrinsic rewards. Passive management by exception used to be considered a form of transactional leadership initially, but it was later recategorized as passive-avoidant, a dimension of laissez-faire. While all types of leadership roles may have the same overarching goals of task completion, each style varies significantly based on the behaviors exhibited by leaders and the response they get from employees in terms of performance and attitude towards work.

This study will examine transformational leadership in depth. Transformational leadership is significant to the current study because it has been shown to promote higher levels of employee satisfaction and job performance (Mujkić et al., 2014). Recent research has also shown that employees who perceive their managers or leaders as transformational will demonstrate higher job satisfaction (Luturlean et al., 2019). As these results suggest, businesses that employ or train new transformational leaders would certainly benefit from having this type of leadership in their organization.

There are four dimensions to the transformational leadership model: (a) idealized influence; (b) inspirational motivation; (c) intellectual stimulation; and (d) individualized consideration (Barnett, 2017). Each dimension of the transformational leadership model

covers a different set of different yet related skills, characteristics, and features that are expected from transformational leaders.

Idealized Influence

The perception of leaders within an organization can influence the behavior of employees. Idealized influence refers to how leaders are perceived regarding features of charisma and confidence, consistency, consideration of other's needs first, and demonstration of high ethical standards and ideals (Barnett, 2017). These leaders can earn the trust of employees and create practical goals for them. The concept of idealized influence can be further broken down into two dimensions: (a) idealized influence behavioral (IIB); and (b) idealized influence attributed (IIA). IIA can be described as "how the leader is perceived by their followers," while IIB describes leader behavior (Barnett, 2017, p. 55). It should be noted that some theorists view idealized influence as a single construct, while others divide it into two separate dimensions as was done here.

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is another important part of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders can inspire and motivate employees to perform at their best (Barnett, 2017). Transformational leaders use inspirational motivation to encourage enthusiasm and confidence in one's abilities (Barnett, 2017). Inspirational motivation also helps to promote dedication to the organization by example. Creating an open line of communication on expectations, which is in direct contrast with the laissez-faire leadership style, is a priority for transformational leaders. These leaders also take care to ensure that employees are involved in working toward achieving the company vision. This can help the employee to have a sense of ownership with their work when their

efforts are aiding this goal. Leaders who can inspire their employees will see improvements in their satisfaction, dedication, and performance.

Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is another important component of transformational leadership. Leaders that exhibit intellectual stimulation can help employees to be critical thinkers that can formulate ideas and find creative solutions to problems (Barnett, 2017). Leaders could accomplish this by giving employees problem-solving activities to complete and by avoiding negative responses to contributions that are of opposing opinions. By stimulating employees intellectually, they are likely to contribute new ideas to the company without fear of negative consequences and are instead rewarded for providing thoughtful suggestions.

Individualized Consideration

Leaders who exhibit individualized consideration for others in the workplace are appreciated and sought out for their guidance. The concept of individualized consideration refers to nurturing leaders who exhibit behaviors such as encouraging others and making others feel distinguished (Barnett, 2017). In doing so, these leaders often find themselves in roles such as advisors and teachers. Leaders who display individualized consideration will demonstrate activities that include “teaching, mentoring, reinforcement, active listening, and offering emotional and social benefaction to the follower” (Barnett, 2017, p. 55). These leaders aim to support their employees for the employees to reach their greatest potential. Activities such as these help the leader to attract followers in the workplace. Interestingly, these four dimensions of transformational leadership have different effects on leader performance, with idealized

influence having the weakest influence on leader performance, and inspirational motivation having the strongest influence (Deinert et al., 2015). It would be valuable to examine inspirational motivation further to maximize its potential in business.

Transformational leadership plays a significant role in the business environment. Naeem and Khanzada (2017) found a significant and positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. They also found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and project success. Research has also indicated that a positive relationship between job satisfaction and project success exists. These results are significant for businesses that are having problems with successful project completion. Bycio et al (1995) explain that their research found transformational leadership to be a factor that plays a significant role in affective commitment, which can reduce the chances of an employee leaving the company. This suggests that transformational leaders can potentially bring significant value to businesses through greater employee retention, which can reduce training costs, and less time lost on project involvement due to a revolving door of employees. Research also suggests that transformational leaders can pass their sense of moral obligation on to their employees. This essentially suggests that, by being morally obligated to an organization, leaders can invoke employees to respond to their work with a similar sense of moral obligation. It has also been determined that when employees feel a sense of ownership regarding their work, they will be more likely to perform and learn better (Deci et al., 2017). These are important connections that cannot be ignored by businesses that want to succeed in remaining competitive.

Each style of leadership has its strengths and weaknesses. Transformational leadership style differs from other styles due to its nature of making immediate economic and social changes to address internal problems while maintaining stability, appearance, and function that lead to the attainment of goals (Mujkić et al., 2014). Transformational leaders exhibit several traits that help them to create positive relationships with employees. For instance, research has shown that transformational leaders show empathy for their employees (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Transformational leaders are also considerate and supportive of their employees (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Transformational leaders can look beyond their personal needs and goals to consider the needs of their employees.

Transformational leadership has an impact on multiple facets of employee attitudes toward work. In addition to finding a relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, other research has found that some components of transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction can also improve employees' organizational commitment (Malik et al., 2017). Transformational leadership has also been shown to have a major positive impact on psychological empowerment and employee work attitudes (Lan & Chong, 2015). Scientists have also found that transformational leadership can help leaders to foster an emotional connection with employees, which can help to increase organizational commitment (Top et al., 2014). Transformational leadership can also aid in employee creativity (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Transformational leadership has also been shown to have a positive impact on leader performance (Deinert et al, 2015). The laissez-faire leadership style, or management-by-exception, is a very hands-off approach that has little impact on intent to leave, while transformational leadership showed modest decreases in the intent to leave (Bycio et al.,

1995). This shows how significant transformational leadership is for successful businesses and why the current research is also very important, as it will shed some light on this relationship in small businesses, specifically those in Virginia.

The value of transformational leadership in the workplace has been shown repeatedly in previous research, across various industries and countries. The nursing field has been the subject of many studies on the positive outcomes of transformational leadership on employee satisfaction, but it has also been demonstrated in other fields such as education (Kouni et al., 2018). Transformational leadership can impact the school environment in positive ways, leading to desirable results for both job satisfaction as well as student performance and progress. The results of this study show that the transformational leadership style can be useful in different scenarios.

Research has shown that numerous factors can contribute to employee satisfaction and performance. The top five determinants as indicated by 65% of employees in a study by the SHRM (2017) found that the most important contributor to job satisfaction was treating all employees, no matter their position within the company, with respect. Compensation and pay, as well as trust between employees and leaders, both closely followed with 61% of employees. Finally, 56% of employees reported that being able to use their skills and abilities when doing their job was very important. With two of these factors relating to transformational leadership, employee trust for managers, and the ability to utilize skills in the workplace, this lends support for the need for additional research in this area.

The FRML is useful for understanding the three leadership styles concerning each other. Transformational leadership has been emerging as an effective style of

management over transactional leadership, which still motivates employees to perform work duties, but to a lesser extent. Laissez-faire leadership falls behind in effectiveness since these leaders often intervene only when necessary such as when a problem arises. Transformational leadership is the focus of this research due to its increasing role in employee satisfaction and potential benefits to business entities. Another important theory of motivation is self-determination theory (SDT).

Self-Determination Theory

SDT is a method of understanding and describing human motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1980a). SDT is a macro theory that suggests that there are two types of motivations for behavior: (a) intrinsic and (b) extrinsic. Intrinsically motivated behaviors, also referred to as self-determined behaviors, involve making a conscious decision that fulfills a need. Extrinsically motivated, or automated, behaviors do not involve a conscious decision but instead are carried out without much thought or consideration. The primary difference between intrinsic and extrinsic factors as motivating behaviors is that the former is a self-determined behavior involving a conscious decision while the latter is not. Intrinsically motivated employees strive to do their best for internal reasons because they are personally invested in the work that they do. Employees who are motivated by extrinsic factors are still motivated to do their work but are not invested in the same way, completing tasks to gain an external reward. Without a reward, the task is essentially meaningless.

In addition to healthcare and education, SDT has also been applied to various industries including sports, psychotherapy, parenting, and virtual reality (VR; Deci et al., 2017). SDT has also been shown to be successful in the area of work motivation and

management. It is for these reasons that SDT is the basis for this research. Prior research on SDT has shown that there are different types of motivation for job-related activities that affect employee performance and well-being. SDT places importance on the different types of motivation as well as each having different outcomes. It would be beneficial for managers to incorporate SDT into their management protocol to foster employee job satisfaction and performance.

Self-determination theory (SDT) is based on the same basic concepts as FRML, with shared motivating factors including autonomous motivation (transformational leadership), controlled motivation (transactional leadership), and amotivation (laissez-faire leadership). This connected set of theories have been used together in research on perceptions of justice. Many prior studies have gotten similar results that show support for transformational leadership style and SDT leading to increased employee satisfaction.

Employee Job Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is another important aspect of this research that must be considered, with a focus on transformational leadership in SDT and their role in maintaining employee satisfaction. Prior research shows that job satisfaction has a positive impact on the Loyalty of an employee (Onsardi et al., 2017). It shows how important it is for businesses to prioritize employee job satisfaction to retain employees for longer, potentially eliminating the extra costs associated with training and hiring new employees.

A significant amount of research has been conducted on employee job satisfaction. Early research about job satisfaction was discussed by Edwin A. Locke (1968) when he described human motivation. Locke explains that conscious ideas are the

regulators of human actions. This theory aligns well with intrinsic motivation which suggests that behaviors are guided by well-thought-out and purposeful thoughts that lead to a conscious decision to perform a task. Locke explained that goals and intentions are moderated by the effects of incentives that are presented in exchange for the performance of the task. This has been repeatedly shown in research with similar findings regarding the type of rewards given playing a role in the level of employee performance. Similarly, Locke also found that monetary rewards, limitations on time, and knowledge of the results of their work did not play a role in performance without also being accompanied by goals and intentions that influence their behavior as well. These results suggest the importance of internal motivation in influencing behavior. A few other points of interest were findings that concluded that employee job performance is improved in terms of output when the task is challenging, especially with particularly challenging tasks. These conclusions demonstrate the need for personally rewarding work that challenges them to perform at their best.

The ideas surrounding job performance, job satisfaction, and what motivates individuals were covered in further detail in subsequent journal articles. Locke (1970) went on to explain that when an employee is satisfying a need to maintain their values, job performance, and job satisfaction increase according to the degree to which they are satisfying this need. Once again, a relationship between internal motivation, in this case, personal values about work, and outcomes of job performance on job satisfaction.

Prior research on transformational versus transactional leadership has shown that both types of leaders can influence employee behavior and therefore both have value, but transformational leadership has become the subject of numerous studies regarding its

value in the workplace. Transformational and transactional leadership are both parts of the Full-Range Model of Leadership, along with laissez-faire leadership. This research is interested in learning more about the transformational leadership portion of the model which includes idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. SDT is another important theory that is closely tied to employee job satisfaction because both are interested in the factors that play a role in job performance. Transformational leadership has been repeatedly linked to employee satisfaction, but little is known about this relationship in small businesses. This study will help to advance knowledge on what transformational leadership skills are most closely related to employee satisfaction in small businesses so that new strategies can be developed that lead to more successful business management.

Personal values about work can include task-related values such as task activity and task success and achievement (Locke, 1970). Task activity refers to tasks that individuals find enjoyable simply due to being engaged in an interesting activity, without requiring proficiency, success or extrinsic rewards to motivate them. These tasks are completed as self-serving actions. Task success and achievement, on the other hand, describes an individual's natural desire to become proficient in a task. This might include attaining a standard such as the quantity of output, the quality of output, rate of improvement, and project completion time. Another example would be finding a solution to a specific problem. Finally, reaching a measurable goal would be an example of task success and achievement, with success in reaching a goal being considered to be a pleasurable experience, whereas failing to succeed is considered an unpleasurable

experience. While these statements may seem like obvious assumptions regarding motivation, these are the building blocks for numerous future studies on the topic.

Constructs of Interest

There are several constructs of interest in this research including employee performance and employee turnover rate. There are various scales for measuring employee performance, but this study will be measuring employee performance in terms of job time, quality, and quantity as defined by Na-Nan et al. (2018). Na-Nan et al. also designed a scale for measuring employee performance according to these terms. It is this employee performance scale that will be used in the current study.

Employee turnover rate is another constructive interest for this research. Although there is no single, agreed-upon method for calculating the turnover rate, a commonly used equation is the number of employees leaving during a month divided by the number of employees, multiplied by 100 (Dessler, 2017). Sun and Wang (2016), refer to employee turnover simply as an employee leaving a business. They also explain that there are two types of turnover: (a) voluntary and (b) involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover occurs when the employee decides to leave the company whereas involuntary turnover occurs when the employer chooses to remove, or terminate, their relationship with the employee. The study is more concerned with voluntary turnover and the reasons for employee departure from the business. Voluntary turnover can be further broken down into three categories: (a) push-to-leave, (b) pull-to-leave, and (c) pull-to-stay. Push-to-leave describes an employee's intent to leave, while pull-to-leave refers to the challenges, whether perceived or real, associated with taking action on leaving, and pull-to-stay refers to factors that persuade employees to stay with the company. In addition to

studying employee turnover, this study is also interested in turnover intention. For example, according to Sun and Wang the turnover intention would be measured using a statement such as “I wouldn't want to work in any other office,” which is then reverse coded. Employee performance and employee turnover rate are important to the current research since leadership style can affect these aspects and due to their overall potential impact on business. Since transformational leadership can be related to both constructs, they are also of interest to this research.

Research Methodology

The chosen methodology for this research was influenced by prior research methods on this topic. This research will use utilize a cross-sectional study using structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, the predictor variable, and employee satisfaction, the criterion variable (Boamah et al., 2018; Lan & Chong, 2015; Malik et al., 2017). These variables will be measured using questionnaires sent to the managers and employees of small businesses in Virginia.

Transformational leadership has been the subject of many prior studies and, in many cases, it was measured using a questionnaire such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) designed by Avolio and Bass (Choi et al., 2016). Despite the popularity of the MLQ, it is cost-prohibitive for some researchers. It is for this reason that this study will use the Transformational Leadership Scale designed by Ismail et al. (2010). The 10-question Transformational Leadership Scale uses a 7-item Likert scale that ranges from one, which means strongly disagree to seven, which means strongly agree, to assess aspects of transformational leadership style in the workplace. To

standardize the results, this Likert scale will be recorded to be a 5-item scale. Assessment of the validity and reliability of the Transformational Leadership Scale was conducted and confirmed using exploratory factor analysis, Pearson correlation analysis, and descriptive statistics. This questionnaire will be sent to the management of small companies located in Virginia.

To measure employee job satisfaction, this research will use the long version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), a 20-scale survey with 100 questions that are rated using a 5-item Likert scale (Weiss et al., 1967). The long form of the MSQ was assessed using Hoyt's analysis of variance and found that it has sufficient internal consistency reliabilities. Some scales on the MSQ include ability utilization, creativity, independence, recognition, and working conditions. The long version was selected as it was recommended by its authors due to the additional information that is obtained for very little extra time in comparison to the short version. Although there is no specific time limit for the MSQ, it is recommended that respondents do not linger on answering, but instead move through the questionnaire at a steady pace. Use of this scale no longer requires a purchase to use since it is now publicly available for free under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-Commercial 4.0 International License. This self-administered questionnaire will be sent to the employees of small companies located in Virginia.

In consideration of the possible variation of results, this research will ask some additional questions about participants. This study will ask a few questions regarding control variables. According to a prior study, motivation and leadership are related to the gender and organizational tenure of leaders and employees, indicating a need to include them as control variables (Kanat-Maymon et al., 2020). Other demographic information

will be collected including gender, age, and position within the company. By collecting this information, this research can exclude respondents that do not match the criteria and look for unexpected relationships.

Covariate Variables

There are several covariate variables of interest in the current research. These include employee performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. Employee job performance will be assessed using the EJP scale, a 13-item questionnaire that uses a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, to measure job time, job quality, and job quantity (Na-Nan et al., 2018). The EJP scale was found to have met requirements for validity, internal consistency, and reliability after being reviewed by a panel of experts.

Respondents will be given the option to have questionnaires administered using one of two options: (a) an online questionnaire using Survey Monkey or (b) a paper and pencil questionnaire. As recommended by prior researchers, non-responders to the questionnaire will receive a reminder three weeks after the initial questionnaire is sent or administered, with a follow-up survey reminder four weeks later, at which time a second copy of the survey will be delivered as well (Boamah et al., 2018). Incomplete or blank questionnaires will be excluded from the study. Data will be analyzed using G*Power.

Strengths and Weakness of Prior Research

Some of the weaknesses in previous research are that the results were based on very specific populations outside the United States. For instance, multiple scholarly articles were focused on transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, but the research took place in locations such as Greece, Malaysia, India, China, and Canada

(Choi et al., 2016; Jyoti & Dev, 2015; Kouni et al., 2018). More research is needed, not only within the United States but with small businesses in particular.

Mixed Findings

Despite many previous studies finding a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction, a few have had different results. Some research found that transactional leadership, rather than transformational leadership, was rated as the highest perceived leadership style, with laissez-faire leadership trailing behind in third (Barnett, 2017). Their research also found that there were differences in how frequently respondents perceived each style of leadership, with all three appearing at a similar frequency, indicating that they were all used by leadership. These results are in contrast with the majority of research that agrees that transformational leadership style has a positive influence on employee satisfaction.

There are additional factors that must be considered when researching the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. Some of these moderator variables include situational factors such as work environment, job requirements, time allotted for tasks, and organizational structure (Deinert et al, 2015).

What Remains to Be Studied

Many facets of transformational leadership remain to be studied. For instance, scientists could search for an explanation on the mixed findings of prior research on transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction to see why in many cases, transformational leadership style is preferred, but in a few, transactional leadership is preferred. There is also a need for more exploration of the various factors that can influence employee satisfaction. While a significant relationship has been found between

transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction, there are several other components of employee satisfaction that can be studied in the future. These same aspects may have an interactive effect on transformational leadership research that must be considered. Caution must be taken when conducting research, to avoid confounds, and when interpreting results, to ensure that it is transformational leadership that is causing the change in employee satisfaction, versus other possibilities.

Another interesting finding of prior research is concerning specific personality traits that are associated with leader performance. Researchers found evidence to support connections between specific personality traits and leader performance. They explain that the Big Five personality traits, openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism, have an indirect effect on leader performance (Deinert et al, 2015). This effect occurred by way of all four dimensions of transformational leadership. While neuroticism negatively influenced leader performance, extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness had a significantly positive effect on leader performance. Furthermore, by using a meta-analysis, they found that different combinations of personality traits had a positive effect on three of the four dimensions of transformational leadership, except for idealized influence. Future research on leadership would be wise to include a much closer look at the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and transformational leadership.

Deci et al. (2017) reviewed the current state of research regarding self-determination theory (SDT) rather than conducting an experimental research project. It contains valuable information about SDT from years of prior research on the subject by two of the authors, Deci & Ryan. Their synopsis of the research includes a discussion on

SDT in the workplace and defines the types of motivation that lead to actions such as autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Also discussed are the three basic psychological needs which are competence, autonomy, and relatedness that play a role in creating greater motivation, performance, and wellness of employees.

Research conducted by Ismail et al. (2010) was focused on transformational and transactional leadership and how those leadership styles affect procedural and distributive justice, as well as trust in leadership. Ismail et al. used the existing literature to create a conceptual framework and scale for their research. They also created the Transformational Leadership Scale that will be used in this study also.

The research by Ismail et al. (2010) was beneficial for its contribution to theory by showing that implementing a transformational leadership style can increase the perceptions of followers in terms of procedural justice. When tested for validity and reliability, the Transformational Leadership Scale surpassed the accepted standard, making it a trusted measurement tool. Their research also has value for leaders in other organizations that want to improve procedures for employee recruitment and management. Limitations of their research were similar to the current study since both used a cross-sectional design and both must consider the potential for response bias due to using self-report.

The goal of the research conducted by Kanat-Maymon et al. (2020) was to make a contribution to the existing body of knowledge on leadership and what contributes to motivation through the merging of two theories, SDT and the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) which have many overlapping concepts, into a single theory that is a framework for exploring work motivation and leadership.

The findings of research conducted by Kanat-Maymon et al. (2020) are important for establishing a link between supervisors' work motivation, which can influence their leadership style, and therefore, subordinates' motivation also. Their results may also aid in guiding future decisions by individuals who are responsible for the recruitment, training, and development of personnel. Weaknesses of their research include the inherent limitations of a cross-sectional design and the fact that their research focused more on the leader's perspectives than employees.

The article by Deci et al. (2017) was different from most of the sources because rather than conducting new research, they instead reviewed and summarized the existing body of knowledge on SDT. This was valuable for attaining a better understanding of the theory and how it relates to transformational leadership in many of the basic concepts that they share. Considering that Deci and Ryan are the original researchers at the forefront of SDT research. Extensive research was conducted by Ismail et al. (2010) on transformational leadership. Although their focus was on its relationship with the perception of justice, it also showed a positive relationship with trust, a factor that is important for employee satisfaction and performance as well. A cross-sectional design was used in their research as well as many others and served as a guide for the current study. Ismail et al. are also credited with the creation of the Transformational Leadership Scale that will be used in this research due to its proven validity and reliability. Kanat-Maymon et al. (2020) also used a cross-sectional design for their research, in which they merge two theories of motivation, SDT and FRLT, to create a new framework for understanding transformational leadership style and its role in business processes. This prior research is invaluable for scientists moving forward who wish to study this

relationship. It serves as a basis for education on the topic and provides useful tools for future researchers to conduct their research.

Review and Synthesis

To answer the research questions, a review and synthesis of prior research were crucial. There were two primary goals of the current research. The first was to determine what characteristics of transformational leadership are demonstrated by managers of Virginia small businesses. The second was to determine what the satisfaction level was as reported by employees of small businesses in Virginia who have a manager that demonstrates transformational skills.

Two concepts serve as the theoretical foundation for the current research. These are self-determination theory, the fundamental concept which outlines human motivations, and transformational leadership, which describes the style of leading that has been shown to have a positive relationship with employee satisfaction (Deci et al., 2017). Transformational leadership style originated with Burns in 1978, when he first coined the term, while SDT was introduced in 1985 by Deci and Ryan (Deci et al., 2017; Rudd et al., 2009). By increasing knowledge on the function of SDT in connection with transformational leadership styles, business managers can create an atmosphere that leads to increased employee satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. As businesses face issues with employee engagement and creating future leaders, as reported by human resources (HR) professionals, businesses must know how to overcome these challenges (SHRM, 2017). Despite the value of this knowledge in the business world, there is still a significant amount of research that could be done on this topic.

There are several reasons for assessing the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction in small businesses. Researchers have found positive connections between transformational leadership style and creating trusting, considerate, and supportive relationships with employees (Saleem, 2015). While managers who exhibit transformational leadership create intrinsic motivation for employees through their behaviors and actions, transactional leadership relies on the exchange of rewards or punishment for productivity and loyalty. Both methods attempt to motivate employees but their methods for accomplishing this goal remain quite different. Gaining a better understanding of what motivates employees is key in creating an understanding, efficient, effective workplace environment.

Transformational leadership is a component of Avolio and Bass's Full-Range Model of leadership, which also includes transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership (Mathieu et al., 2014). The transformational leadership style is a four-dimensional model that includes idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Barnett, 2017). Transformational leaders exhibit numerous qualities in these areas that can positively impact employee satisfaction through inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and consideration of others.

Transformational leaders are well suited for acting as advisors, teachers, and mentors because they are active listeners that offer emotional and social support. These leaders are advocates for their employees as they strive to improve, which can help to retain current employees and attract new employees. Transformational leaders have been shown to improve employee job satisfaction, project success, organizational commitment, and loyalty (Malik et al., 2017; Naeem & Khanzada, 2017; Onsardi et al., 2017).

The benefits of using a transformational leadership style are not limited to a particular region or industry, but there have been repeated examples of transformational leadership creating positive results in the workplace (Kouni et al., 2018). SDT is another important theory related to employee satisfaction as it explains the motivators, which can be either intrinsic and extrinsic, lead an individual to complete a task (Deci & Ryan, 1980a). The current study will explore transformational leadership and its role in employee satisfaction, with SDT as a basis for understanding human motivation.

This research is utilizing several questionnaires to measure the IV and DV, including the Transformational Leadership Scale, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), an employee job performance scale, and by assessing voluntary employee turnover (Ismail et al., 2010; Na-Nan et al., 2018; Sun & Wang, 2016; Weiss et al., 1967). Reviewing prior literature helped to inform the current study on the best methods for conducting this type of research, which will use a cross-sectional design, with structural equation modeling (SEM) to study the relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction (Boamah et al., 2018; Lan & Chong, 2015; Malik et al., 2017). The covariate variables are employee performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. Based on support from prior research, the current study will attempt to improve response rates by offering choices on how the questionnaires are administered and by sending reminders. The literature review did reveal some contradictory results regarding which style of leadership was most frequently perceived in the workplace (Barnett, 2017). There is still plenty to learn about the different types of leaders there are and the role that each play in the workplace.

Summary and Conclusions

Employee job satisfaction has been studied for many years as scientists have looked for the answers on how to maximize business potential. Researchers have found strong evidence across various studies that support the idea that transformational leadership is a significant contributor to employee satisfaction.

The review of existing literature showed that transformational leadership has a positive relationship with employee satisfaction and that it warrants additional research in the future to expand upon our knowledge of its influence. Although both play a role in motivating subordinates and are integral to the FRML, transformational and transactional leadership are very different in their mechanisms for enacting employees to complete work tasks. The FRML is the model of transformational and transactional leadership, as well as the laissez-faire leadership style.

SDT is also relevant to the current study because it aligns with FRML very well, with the two complimenting each other so well that they have been combined into a single model in prior research. SDT and transformational leadership are both focused on internal and external motivating factors that play a role in employee job satisfaction. Both theoretical models also describe a third facet of the model that explains a type of leadership that distances themselves from their employees, essentially creating little to no motivation for employees, unless problems surface. Employee satisfaction is a crucial part of business management because it can have far-reaching consequences.

There is a growing need for research on transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. Businesses that employ or train leaders to display behaviors of transformational leadership that has been shown to improve employee satisfaction,

invoking them to take actions that lead to positive outcomes. The importance of this relationship has been supported across numerous studies that show that businesses that are struggling might avoid decreased productivity and increased costs through transformational leadership. The significance of the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction in business management has been repeatedly replicated in research over the years across many industries and regions of the world. Despite significant research on the topic, a lack of information on transformational style and its role in employee satisfaction in small businesses still exists. This study will help to fill the gap in research by evaluating the connection between transformational style and employee satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia. This will offer insight into whether the previously discovered relationship can be applied to the small business setting as well. In the future, researchers should explore this relationship in small businesses in states other than Virginia to see if the results are similar.

In the next chapter, the details of this research will be outlined in more detail including details on the variables that will be studied, methodology, resource constraints, and the plan for data analysis as informed by prior research. The methodology will include information about the population, the sample and procedures for obtaining them, details of the pilot study, and recruitment methods. There will also be a detailed discussion on the instrumentation used as well as the operationalization of constructs. There will be an assessment of potential threats to internal, external, and construct validity. Finally, the ethical procedures that will be in place will be covered.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The goal of this research was to learn more about the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction using a correlational quantitative study that will serve to inform managers of small businesses in Virginia on techniques that can lead to improved business outcomes through employee satisfaction and therefore improved performance. The Transformational Leadership Scale will be used to assess managers' leadership style and the MSQ will measure employee satisfaction (Ismail et al., 2010; Weiss et al., 1967).

In this chapter, the correlational quantitative research design and the rationale for examining the transformational leadership style in small businesses in Virginia are explained. The relationship between the predictor variable, transformational leadership style, and the criterion variable, employee satisfaction, was examined. There were several covariates, including employee job performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. The population for this study will be small businesses in Virginia, and the sample will be obtained from the Small Business Supplier Diversity Agency directory, which included email addresses that the survey will be sent to. The leadership questionnaire and the MSQ are explored in detail. Data analysis and validity are also covered.

Research Design and Rationale

This research will explore the relationship between transformational leadership, the predictor variable, and employee satisfaction, the criterion variable. These will be measured by the Transformational Leadership Scale and the MSQ, respectively (Ismail et.al., 2010; Weiss et al., 1967).

Some covariates should be considered in this research, including employee performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. The EJP scale will measure employee job performance in terms of job time, job quality, and job quantity (Na-Nan et al., 2018).

Experimental methods were selected based on the source of data and by using methods employed by past researchers to inform the decision-making process. This correlational quantitative study will use a cross-sectional design and structural equation modeling to learn more about the variables (Boamah et al., 2018; Lan & Chong, 2015; Malik et al., 2017). This method will help to answer questions concerning what characteristics of transformational leadership managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate and what the satisfaction level of employees of small businesses in Virginia who have a manager who demonstrates transformational skills is.

The decision to use SEM came from a similar study conducted on transformational leadership and its role in the workplace environment (Vatankhah et al., 2017). Vatankhah et al. (2017) also used descriptive statistics, such as mean and standard deviation, and inferential statistics such as Pearson correlation coefficients to analyze the data.

Methodology

For this research, two questionnaires will be administered. The Transformational Leadership Scale will ask managers to rate themselves in terms of agreement with statements about their leadership style on a Likert scale from 1 to 7. The MSQ will ask employees to rate their agreement on 100 statements using a Likert scale from 1 to 5 regarding their feelings toward their work to measure employee satisfaction. Results of

the MSQ then provided raw scores, which were converted into percentages according to norms for each profession, as per the creator of the scale (Weiss et al., 1967). The Transformational Leadership Scale will be scored by using Pearson correlation analysis and descriptive statistics as per the creators' example (Ismail et al., 2010).

Population

The population for this study was leaders and managers of small businesses in Virginia. Using G*Power, the sample size of this study was estimated to be 84 using a two-tailed bivariate correlation with an alpha of 0.05, a power of 0.80, and an effect size of $\rho = 0.30$.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Convenience sampling will be used for this research. The reason for this sampling technique was that using members of this population was convenient and reduced the costs of the research. The process of data collection should be relatively fast with the use of online tools. The resources needed for this research will be provided by the Commonwealth of Virginia through an online directory of certified businesses that were part of the Small Business Supplier Diversity Agency. This directory includes details about small businesses in Virginia, including type of industry, mailing address, and email address. Online surveys will be created with SurveyMonkey and sent via email. Instructions will be included to have the transformational leadership survey directed to managers of the company and the MSQ directed at employees working under each of the managers. Two separate links will be included, one for each questionnaire.

Due to the nature of this research and its constraints, conventional convenience sampling, a type of nonprobability sampling, will be used with a sample size of 84.

Conventional convenience samples are also referred to as heterogeneous convenience samples due to their diversity in sociodemographic factors (Jager et al., 2017). There will be no limitations on participation due to sociodemographic background. For this study, I was interested in obtaining information about transformational skills in managers and employee satisfaction regardless of socioeconomic status.

The sample size of this study was estimated to be 84 using a two-tailed bivariate correlation with an alpha of 0.05, a power of 0.80, and an effect size of $\rho = 0.30$. This sample was calculated using G*Power, free statistical analysis software available from Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

Recruitment for this research will be accomplished through email. Each business in the Small Business Supplier Diversity Agency entry has an email address listed, and this will serve as a point of contact for reaching participants. Each email will include detailed instructions for the recipient to direct the survey to the participants, the company's managers, and employees. Recipients were asked to distribute the survey to the company's longest-employed manager and the employees whom they managed.

The demographic information that was collected included gender, date of birth, race, education level, current job title, current job category, a brief current job description, length of service in years and months, occupation (usual job/career line), and length of occupation.

Participants were presented with the informed consent form before the questionnaire began. Using SurveyMonkey's built-in logic, participants who agreed to

continue with participation were forwarded to the first question in the survey, while those who chose not to proceed with participation were not be presented with the survey.

Questions will be presented to participants online using SurveyMonkey. In the transformational leadership survey, there will be 10 questions presented one at a time that managers will rate from 1 to 7 based on their agreement to each item. Employees will complete the MSQ, a 100-question survey, presented 20 at a time, rating each item on a 5-point scale based on each statement regarding their work. When participants finished the study, they were presented with a general debriefing of the study, in which I thanked participants for offering their time, offered another summary of the research and its goals, reiterated confidentiality, and provided contact information for follow-up questions and to learn about the research results. No follow-up procedures were necessary for this research.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Transformational Leadership Scale

The Transformational Leadership Scale was created and published by Ismail et al. (2010). The Transformational Leadership Scale was specifically designed to measure transformational leadership style to learn more about its role in the workplace (Ismail et al., 2010). Although Ismail's research focused on the relationship between transformational leadership and its role in procedural justice, trust in leaders, and distributive justice, the only DV from Ismail's research that the current research was concerned with was trust in leaders. This research is awaiting permission from the developer to use the instrument.

Ismail et al. (2010) used exploratory factor analysis to determine whether the scale was valid and reliable. To further assess the validity and reliability of the scale, a pilot study with feedback from participants was used. In addition, Ismail et al. used back translation to improve the validity and reliability of the scale.

Factor analysis showed that the items on their scale were within the acceptable standard for validity and that the reliability of the items exceeded the acceptable standard according to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's test of sphericity, showing that this scale was confirmed to be a valid and reliable method for measuring transformational leadership style (Ismail et al., 2010).

Ismail et al. (2010) conducted their study with a population of 2,660 employees who had worked at a firm in East Malaysia, Malaysia. Their sampling size was determined using quota sampling.

Long-Form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Long-Form MSQ was developed by Weiss et al. (1967) at the University of Minnesota. The MSQ was used in the current study due to its value as a measurement of employee satisfaction. Initially, the MSQ was copyrighted by the Industrial Relations Center at the University of Minnesota and required permission to use (Weiss et al., 1967). Vocational Psychology Research (VPR) no longer sells the MSQ, but it is now available under a Creative Commons Attribution—Noncommercial 4.0 International License. Use under this license is free and no longer requires written permission (University of Minnesota, 2021).

The Long-Form MSQ was found to have internal consistency reliability (Weiss et al., 1967). Although there was variation across groups in the reliability coefficients of the

different scales, the MSQ scales are still reliable according to Hoyt reliability coefficients, which were .80 or higher for 83% of the scales. This shows the value of this scale for measuring employee satisfaction, the DV.

Evidence for this instrument's construct validity came from its source material, the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Weiss et al., 1967). Other studies have also found that the MSQ is valid and reliable as an instrument for measuring employee satisfaction in terms of intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors using confirmatory factor analysis (Yildirim et al., 2017).

Purohit et al. (2016) confirmed their hypothesis regarding the reliability and validity of the MSQ for measuring job satisfaction. The researchers also found that the MSQ has a high level of internal consistency using the Spearman-Brown coefficient and Guttman split-half coefficient. The sample for this research consisted of 465 frontline retail employees.

Operationalization

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership refers to a relational contract, as opposed to transactional leadership, which refers to an economical contract (Ismail et al., 2010). This is due to the concern that transformational leaders have for each employee as well as their contribution to the greater good of the company, whereas transactional leaders use monetary or other forms of exchange with the employee to encourage increased performance. Fischer (2016) describes transformational leadership as being part of a continuum, where it falls in the middle, with highly avoidant leaders on one end and highly transformational leaders on the other end. Transformational leaders can be

described as charismatic, visionary, loyal, participative, authentic, genuine, trustworthy, reliable, and believable individuals who improve job satisfaction through the empowerment of employees.

Employee Satisfaction

Weiss et al. (1967) explained that factors including achievement, using skills and abilities, recognition, and working conditions all play a role in employee satisfaction. Kawiana et al. (2018) outlined that employee satisfaction was influenced by five satisfaction models that include fulfillment of needs, incompatibility, achievement of values, equities, and components of character/genericity. The final model, components of character, take into consideration the fact that individual personalities also must be factored into employee satisfaction.

Transformational leadership style will be measured using the Transformational Leadership Scale created by Ismail et al. (2010). This questionnaire uses a 10-item scale completed by managers who rate each item from 1 to 7, with 1 indicating *strongly disagree/dissatisfied* and 7 indicating *strongly agree/satisfied*. The Long-Form MSQ will be used to measure employee satisfaction. This questionnaire consists of 100 items that employees rate on a 5-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1, indicating *very dissatisfied*, to 5, indicating *very satisfied* (Weiss et al., 1967).

The score for the Transformational Leadership Scale is calculated using Pearson correlation analysis and descriptive statistics (Ismail et al., 2010). For the MSQ, scores will be calculated by summing the values, or weights, and converting raw scores into percentiles according to norm groups (Weiss et al., 1967).

Data Analysis Plan

Analyses were conducted using G*Power 3.1 which is free for use by the public as per the Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf website, from which it can be downloaded. The units of analysis for this research were managers and employees, both of which were from small businesses in Virginia. In quantitative research, a descriptive statistical analysis involving measures such as mean, median, mode, standard deviation, range, frequency, and percentage can be used to identify outliers (Vatankhah et al., 2017). A Pearson correlation analysis will be used to assess the data. This relied on the assumptions that both variables were continuous intervals; that data were normally distributed on a bell curve, which would be analyzed using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality; that there would be no significant outliers; and that a scatterplot of the data would show linear results and homoscedasticity, which could be measured using Bartlett's test.

The following data analysis procedures will be conducted:

1. Data will be downloaded from SurveyMonkey's secure website.
2. Data will be cleaned before analysis.
3. Descriptive statistical analysis will be performed on demographic variables.
4. Descriptive statistical analysis will be performed on each of the variables.
5. Assumption testing will be conducted for each of the statistical analyses, including the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality and Bartlett's test of homoscedasticity.
6. Pearson correlation analysis will be performed on Research Question 1.

7. Multiple Pearson correlation analyses will be performed on research question two.

If the assumption of linearity was incorrect, then Spearman's correlation analysis would be used. If the other assumptions were also not met, then nonparametric statistical analysis would be used.

Incomplete questionnaires will be removed from the study. Results from respondents who had been employed at their current job for less than 6 months were also removed before analysis and destroyed.

Before performing any statistical analysis on the data, I screened the submissions for missing information. Questionnaires that were returned but not completed were removed from the data pool. Removed surveys were destroyed immediately.

Participants will receive the appropriate link from the HR personnel in their company. The individual who distributed the surveys had no information about who chose to respond or how each participant responded.

The collected data will include demographic information about participants and their responses to the questions in numerical format. Demographic information will include gender, date of birth, race, education level, current job title, current job category, a brief current job description, length of service in years and months, occupation (usual job/career line), and length of occupation.

As data were gathered, they were securely stored on SurveyMonkey's hardware. The information collected was only available to the owner of the survey, ensuring that no one else could view the data. Any reproduction of these data would be for research purposes only, such as for data analysis, and would be protected by rigorous standards for

protecting the data, including password protection. Surveys that were deemed ineligible due to missing information were destroyed. In addition, respondents working at their current position for less than 6 months had their data removed from the research.

There were two research questions. The first was the following: What characteristics of transformational leadership do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate?

The null hypothesis is that, based on the MLQ, there are no statistically significant results for any characteristics of transformational leadership demonstrated by managers of Virginia small businesses. An alternative hypothesis is that, based on the MLQ, there are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through attributes that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate. A second alternative hypothesis is that, based on the MLQ, there are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through behaviors that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate.

The second research question, which measured the DV of employee satisfaction, was the following: What is the satisfaction level as reported by employees of small businesses in Virginia who have a manager that demonstrates transformational skills?

The null hypothesis is, based on the MSQ, there are no statistically significant results in the satisfaction level as reported by employees of small businesses in Virginia who have a manager that demonstrates transformational skills. An alternative hypothesis is, based on the MSQ, there are statistically significant results in the satisfaction level as reported by employees of small businesses in Virginia who have a manager that demonstrates transformational skills.

This correlational research was designed to establish the degree of relationship that exists between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. The data in this research will be analyzed using descriptive statistics, tests of assumptions, and Pearson correlations.

There are several covariates in this research including employee performance, employee turnover rate, and workplace environment. Employee performance will be measured in terms of measuring the job time, quality, and quantity using the EJP scale, employee turnover rate is calculated using a simple equation of the number of employees divided by the number of exiting employees over a given period, and workplace environment, which is concerned with noise, temperature, workplace design, and color scheme, as well as interior decorations such as plants that add to the pleasing aesthetics (Hafeez et al., 2019; Na-Nan et al., 2018).

Results will be interpreted using statistical analysis of survey results. Key parameter estimates will be determined by randomly sampling the population and calculating the mean. The resulting figure will be used to create a confidence interval.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

Population validity is a concern in this research due to the limited population that the sample will come from, small businesses in Virginia. While the focus on small businesses is intentional, limiting the population to Virginia is a factor of time and resource constraints. This may limit the generalizability of the results.

Internal Validity

To improve the content validity of their scale, Ismail et al. (2010) conducted in-depth interviews with managers and employees who were experienced to gain a better understanding of their variables, including transformational leadership style. This helped to ensure that the content and format of their survey were appropriate for obtaining meaningful results.

Construct Validity

The construct of transformational leadership has been repeatedly shown to be valid. Many researchers have used the same concepts since Bass first introduced the idea. Han et al., (2016) conducted an assessment using Cronbach's alpha on transformational leadership and its four sub-constructs which include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The construct validity of transformational leadership and its sub-dimensions was confirmed with a score of 0.96 (Han et al., 2016). Construct validity for the Transformational Leadership Scale used in this research was confirmed using Pearson correlation analysis and descriptive statistics (Ismail et al., 2010).

Employee satisfaction is a multifaceted construct that describes how individuals perceive their job. Numerous constructs are each included as separate scales in the MSQ. These include ability utilization, achievement, authority, independence, recognition, and supervision, just to name a few (Weiss et al., 1967).

Ethical Procedures

All participants will be presented with informed consent which allows them to agree to participate and continue to the survey or not. This document was adapted from Walden University's sample consent form for adults.

Research approval will be confirmed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) after receipt of the application and supporting documents such as the informed consent form. Without having direct access to the managers and employees of each company, the HR department, or whatever role is attached to the email addresses, will be distributing the surveys. This creates some concern regarding the confidentiality of the participants. This also raises the concern of participants experiencing undue influence and manipulation. This occurs when someone in a position of authority is the recruiter and uses their authority and power to influence participants (University of Waterloo, n.d.). While this is referring to an educational setting, similar relationships exist between high-ranking members of a business and the employees that they manage. To address this issue, the instructions will direct the recipient of the initial email to distribute the survey to all managers and employees, thereby removing the decision from the equation. Participants can choose not to participate at all, or they may leave the research at any time without repercussions.

Data will be kept confidential. Systems are in place at SurveyMonkey to protect data through constant monitoring, cameras, restricted access, logs, and secure housing of SurveyMonkey systems (SurveyMonkey, n.d.).

Summary

This research is using a correlational research design to examine the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee satisfaction, as well as employee performance, turnover rate, and workplace environment. Participants will consist of managers and employees of small businesses in Virginia who will be invited to take part in the corresponding questionnaire and the data obtained will run through statistical analysis. The constructs for this research are transformational leadership, which is measured by the Transformational Leadership Scale, and employee satisfaction, which is being measured by the MSQ. Statistical analysis of responses to survey questions will include Pearson correlation analysis and descriptive statistics. In Chapter 4, more details of the research process will be outlined and completed. This includes discussion on the process of data collection results of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this correlational quantitative study was to determine what degree of relationship exists between transformational leadership style (as defined by characteristics such as individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation) in managers of small businesses in Virginia and job satisfaction (as defined by ability utilization, achievement, compensation, creativity, independence, and supervision) to provide a basis for determining how managers' transformational leadership style impacts job satisfaction and job performance. The research questions and hypotheses were created to determine what degree of relationship exists between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction.

Pilot Study

The first research question, which addressed the IV of transformational leadership, and the associated hypotheses were as follows:

RQ1: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction?

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant results for any characteristics of the transformational leadership style demonstrated by managers of Virginia small businesses that lead to increased job satisfaction.

H_1 : There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through attributes that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction.

H_2 : There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through behaviors that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction.

The second research question, which addressed the DV of job satisfaction, and the associated hypotheses were as follows:

RQ2: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance?

H_{01} : There are no statistically significant results for any characteristics of the transformational leadership style demonstrated by managers of Virginia small businesses that lead to increased job performance.

H_1 : There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through attributes that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance.

H_2 : There are statistically significant results for characteristics of idealized influence through behaviors that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance.

The remainder of Chapter 4 describes methods of data collection and the results of this research.

Data Collection

This study was approved by the IRB (Number 03-26-21-0710094) on March 29, 2021. Data for this research were collected from March 30, 2021, through April 19, 2021. Participants were recruited using the Virginia SBSB directory. Invitations to the survey, which were on the SurveyMonkey platform, were sent to the email addresses of small businesses obtained from the SBSB. Over 14,000 invitations were sent via email to small businesses in Virginia and resulted in 282 respondents. After removing incomplete cases, the sample size for the study was $N = 166$. Probability sampling was used to obtain participants for the study by recruiting small business owners, managers, and employees from Virginia's SBSB.

Study Results

Descriptive Statistics: Job Satisfaction

Introduction

Summary statistics were calculated for JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, JS19, and JS9.

Summary Statistics

The observations for JS8 had an average of 8.95 ($SD = 0.98$, $SE_M = 0.08$, Min = 8.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = 1.00, Kurtosis = 0.87). The observations for JS11 had an average of 8.69 ($SD = 1.37$, $SE_M = 0.11$, Min = 0.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = -2.50, Kurtosis = 18.40). The observations for JS14 had an average of 9.15 ($SD = 1.58$, $SE_M = 0.12$, Min = 0.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = -1.89, Kurtosis = 11.85). The observations for JS18 had an average of 9.06 ($SD = 1.62$, $SE_M = 0.13$, Min = 0.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = -2.87, Kurtosis = 15.50). The observations for JS3 had an average of 8.78

($SD = 0.91$, $SE_M = 0.07$, $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 1.18$, $Kurtosis = 1.10$).

The observations for JS1 had an average of 8.69 ($SD = 0.80$, $SE_M = 0.06$, $Min = 8.00$,

$Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 1.26$, $Kurtosis = 1.81$). The observations for JS4 had an

average of 9.00 ($SD = 0.95$, $SE_M = 0.07$, $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 0.64$,

$Kurtosis = -0.15$). The observations for JS7 had an average of 8.80 ($SD = 0.93$, $SE_M =$

0.07 , $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 0.99$, $Kurtosis = 0.46$). The observations for

JS19 had an average of 8.76 ($SD = 1.55$, $SE_M = 0.12$, $Min = 0.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness$

$= -2.91$, $Kurtosis = 16.62$). The observations for JS9 had an average of 8.84 ($SD = 0.87$,

$SE_M = 0.07$, $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 0.81$, $Kurtosis = 0.20$). When the

skewness is greater than 2 in absolute value, the variable is considered to be

asymmetrical about its mean. When the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3, then the

variable's distribution is markedly different from a normal distribution in its tendency to

produce outliers (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The summary statistics can be found in

Table 1.

Table 1

Summary Statistics Table for Interval and Ratio Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>SE_M</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
JS8	8.95	0.98	166	0.08	8.00	12.00	1.00	0.87
JS11	8.69	1.37	166	0.11	0.00	12.00	-2.50	18.40
JS14	9.15	1.58	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-1.89	11.85
JS18	9.06	1.62	166	0.13	0.00	12.00	-2.87	15.50
JS3	8.78	0.91	166	0.07	8.00	12.00	1.18	1.10
JS1	8.69	0.80	166	0.06	8.00	12.00	1.26	1.81
JS4	9.00	0.95	166	0.07	8.00	12.00	0.64	-0.15
JS7	8.80	0.93	166	0.07	8.00	12.00	0.99	0.46
JS19	8.76	1.55	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-2.91	16.62
JS9	8.84	0.87	166	0.07	8.00	12.00	0.81	0.20

Note. '-' indicates that the statistic is undefined due to constant data or insufficient sample size.

Pearson Correlation Analysis: Job Satisfaction

Introduction

A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Assumptions

The Assumptions for Computing Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation. The assumptions and requirements for computing Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation are explained in this section. Normality means that the data sets to be correlated should approximate the normal distribution. In such normally distributed data, most data points

tend to hover close to the mean. Homoscedastic comes from the Greek prefix *hom*, along with the Greek word *skedastikos*, which means “able to disperse.” Homoscedasticity means “equal variances.” It means that the size of the error term is the same for all values of the IV. If the error term, or the variance, is smaller for a particular range of values of the IV and larger for another range of values, then there is a violation of homoscedasticity. It is quite easy to check for homoscedasticity visually, by looking at a scatter plot. If the points lie equally on both sides of the line of best fit, then the data are homoscedastic. Linearity simply means that the data follow a linear relationship. Again, this can be examined by looking at a scatter plot. If the data points have a straight line (and not a curve) relationship, then the data satisfy the linearity assumption.

Continuous variables are those that can take any value within an interval. Ratio variables are also continuous variables. To compute Pearson’s coefficient of correlation, both data sets must contain continuous variables. If even one of the data sets is ordinal, then Spearman’s coefficient of rank correlation would be a more appropriate measure. Paired observations mean that every data point must be in pairs. That is, for every observation of the IV, there must be a corresponding observation of the DV. It is not possible to compute the correlation coefficient if one data set has 12 observations and the other has 10 observations. No outliers must be present in the data. While statistically there is no harm if the data contain outliers, they can significantly skew the correlation coefficient and make it inaccurate. When does a data point become an outlier? In general, a data point that is beyond +3.29 or -3.29 standard deviations away is considered to be an outlier. Outliers are easy to spot visually from the scatter plot. To verify most of these

assumptions, a scatter plot is invaluable. That is why we suggest that a scatter plot should be created first, before computing the correlation coefficient.

Linearity. A Pearson correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables is linear (Conover & Iman, 1981). This assumption is violated if there is curvature among the points on the scatterplot between any pair of variables. Figures E1-E15 in Appendix E present the scatterplots of the correlations with regression lines added to assist the interpretation. The data that follow and the assumptions made above show that there is a valid reason for the usage of this correlation in this instance for the study. It fits the definition of correlation, it stands to reason as a correlation, and much further study is needed to determine causality.

Results

Results of the Pearson correlation analysis on job satisfaction (JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19), showing positive coefficients, indicate that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job satisfaction variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in all of these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. As shown in Figure E1, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11; $r_p = 0.30$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.15, 0.43]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11) was

0.30, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS11) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_p = 0.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_p = 0.31, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.17, 0.44]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.31, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E2, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_p = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_p = 0.41, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.53]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.41, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8)

and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.30, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.16, 0.43]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.30, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E3, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.41, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.53]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.41, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21, 0.48]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.35, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E4, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_p = 0.71, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.62, 0.78]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.71, indicating a large effect size. This correlation

indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_p = 0.65, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.55, 0.73]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.65, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_p = 0.38, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.25, 0.51]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E5, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_p = 0.38, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.24, 0.50]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.39, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.25, 0.51]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.39, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational

leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.41, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.27, 0.53]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.41, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E6, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.32, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.17, 0.45]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.32, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.72, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.63, 0.78]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.72, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_p = 0.65, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.55, 0.73]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.65, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E7, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_p = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.27, 0.52]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and

job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_p = 0.41, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.53]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.41, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E8, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.33, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.19, 0.46]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.33, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to

increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.66, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.57, 0.74]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.66, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E9, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_p = 0.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21, 0.47]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.35, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_p = 0.30, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.15, 0.43]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.30, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.34, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.19, 0.47]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.34, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E10, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.27, 0.52]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and

job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.33, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.19, 0.46]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.33, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.84, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.79, 0.88]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.84, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E11, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_p = 0.37, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.23, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.37, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9)

and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E12, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.56, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.44, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.56, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.25, 0.51]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_p = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.47, 0.67]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E13, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation

indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.48]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E14, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_p = 0.50, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.50, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.26, 0.52]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21, 0.48]$). The correlation

coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.35, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure E15, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_p = 0.43, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.30, 0.55]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.43, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.43, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.30, 0.55]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.43, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_p = 0.30, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.16, 0.44]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.30, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS7) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. Table 2 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 2

Pearson Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19

Combination	r_p	95% CI	p
JS8-JS11	0.30	[0.15, 0.43]	< .001
JS8-JS14	0.44	[0.31, 0.56]	< .001
JS8-JS18	0.31	[0.17, 0.44]	< .001
JS8-JS9	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001
JS8-JS3	0.41	[0.28, 0.53]	< .001
JS8-JS1	0.30	[0.16, 0.43]	< .001
JS8-JS4	0.49	[0.36, 0.60]	< .001
JS8-JS7	0.41	[0.28, 0.53]	< .001
JS8-JS19	0.35	[0.21, 0.48]	< .001
JS11-JS14	0.71	[0.62, 0.78]	< .001
JS11-JS18	0.65	[0.55, 0.73]	< .001
JS11-JS9	0.38	[0.25, 0.51]	< .001
JS11-JS3	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JS11-JS1	0.39	[0.25, 0.51]	< .001
JS11-JS4	0.41	[0.27, 0.53]	< .001
JS11-JS7	0.32	[0.17, 0.45]	< .001
JS11-JS19	0.72	[0.63, 0.78]	< .001
JS14-JS18	0.65	[0.55, 0.73]	< .001
JS14-JS9	0.40	[0.27, 0.52]	< .001
JS14-JS3	0.41	[0.28, 0.53]	< .001
JS14-JS1	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS14-JS4	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001
JS14-JS7	0.33	[0.19, 0.46]	< .001
JS14-JS19	0.66	[0.57, 0.74]	< .001
JS18-JS9	0.35	[0.21, 0.47]	< .001
JS18-JS3	0.30	[0.15, 0.43]	< .001
JS18-JS1	0.34	[0.19, 0.47]	< .001
JS18-JS4	0.40	[0.27, 0.52]	< .001
JS18-JS7	0.33	[0.19, 0.46]	< .001
JS18-JS19	0.84	[0.79, 0.88]	< .001
JS9-JS3	0.37	[0.23, 0.49]	< .001

Combination	r_p	95% CI	p
JS9-JS1	0.45	[0.32, 0.57]	< .001
JS9-JS4	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS9-JS7	0.56	[0.44, 0.65]	< .001
JS9-JS19	0.38	[0.25, 0.51]	< .001
JS3-JS1	0.58	[0.47, 0.67]	< .001
JS3-JS4	0.49	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS3-JS7	0.36	[0.22, 0.48]	< .001
JS3-JS19	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS1-JS4	0.50	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS1-JS7	0.40	[0.26, 0.52]	< .001
JS1-JS19	0.35	[0.21, 0.48]	< .001
JS4-JS7	0.43	[0.30, 0.55]	< .001
JS4-JS19	0.43	[0.30, 0.55]	< .001
JS7-JS19	0.30	[0.16, 0.44]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Spearman Correlation Analysis: Job Satisfaction

Introduction

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Spearman Ranked Order Correlation Analysis

Despite the analysis mentioned earlier, before conducting the planned Spearman ranked Order Correlation analysis, the researcher checked the following assumptions:

- data are not normally distributed
- have outliers

- one or both of the variables are ordinal

The researcher checked if the normality was violated under the Pearson correlation. The tests of normality using Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wild methods show the lack of normality. All outliers were identified on the scatterplot charts. Two variables are ordinal (Likert Scale) or Scale (Interval or Ratio). One variable is monotonically (Scatter Plots) related to another variable. As X variable increases, the Y variable either never decreases or never increases. In conclusion, the results of the assumption checks showed violations of normality and outliers.

Results

The Spearman correlation analysis on job satisfaction (JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19), showing positive coefficients, indicates that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job satisfaction variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in all of these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.29, 0.54]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS11) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed

between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_s = 0.57, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.66]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.57, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.36, indicating a

moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.53$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.41, 0.63]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.46$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.33, 0.57]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.51$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.38, 0.61]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_s = 0.47$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.34, 0.58]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational

leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.43, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.29, 0.54]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.43, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.62]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.57]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.54]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job

satisfaction (JS4) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.65, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.55, 0.73]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.65, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.62]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14)

and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.54, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.42, 0.64]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.54, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.54, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.42, 0.64]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.54, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that

as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.54]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and JS1 was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.61, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.50, 0.70]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.61, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation

was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.67]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.50, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.38, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.50, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction

(JS7) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS3) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS3) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.33, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4)

and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS7) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. Table 3 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 3

Spearman Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS18, JS9, JS3, JS1, JS4, JS7, and JS19

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JS8-JS11	0.42	[0.29, 0.54]	< .001
JS8-JS14	0.57	[0.46, 0.66]	< .001
JS8-JS18	0.44	[0.31, 0.56]	< .001
JS8-JS9	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS8-JS3	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JS8-JS1	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS8-JS4	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS8-JS7	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JS8-JS19	0.51	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JS11-JS14	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS11-JS18	0.43	[0.29, 0.54]	< .001
JS11-JS9	0.51	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS11-JS3	0.45	[0.32, 0.57]	< .001
JS11-JS1	0.42	[0.28, 0.54]	< .001
JS11-JS4	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS11-JS7	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS11-JS19	0.65	[0.55, 0.73]	< .001
JS14-JS18	0.52	[0.40, 0.62]	< .001
JS14-JS9	0.52	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS14-JS3	0.49	[0.36, 0.60]	< .001
JS14-JS1	0.46	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS14-JS4	0.54	[0.42, 0.64]	< .001
JS14-JS7	0.45	[0.32, 0.57]	< .001
JS14-JS19	0.54	[0.42, 0.64]	< .001
JS18-JS9	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS18-JS3	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS18-JS1	0.42	[0.28, 0.54]	< .001
JS18-JS4	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS18-JS7	0.49	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS18-JS19	0.61	[0.50, 0.70]	< .001
JS9-JS3	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JS9-JS1	0.51	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS9-JS4	0.52	[0.40, 0.62]	< .001
JS9-JS7	0.58	[0.46, 0.67]	< .001
JS9-JS19	0.50	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JS3-JS1	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JS3-JS4	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS3-JS7	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001
JS3-JS19	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS1-JS4	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS1-JS7	0.45	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JS1-JS19	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS4-JS7	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JS4-JS19	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JS7-JS19	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Spearman Correlation Analysis 2: Job Satisfaction

Introduction

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS9, JS18, JS19, JS7, JS4, JS1, and JS3. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Assumptions

Spearman Rank-Order Correlation. The Spearman correlation evaluates the monotonic relationship between two continuous or ordinal variables. In a monotonic relationship, the variables tend to change together, but not necessarily at a constant rate. The Spearman correlation coefficient is based on the ranked values for each variable

rather than the raw data. Spearman correlation is often used to evaluate relationships involving ordinal variables. For example, you might use a Spearman correlation to evaluate whether the order in which employees complete a test exercise is related to the number of months they have been employed. It is always a good idea to examine the relationship between variables with a scatterplot. Correlation coefficients only measure linear (Pearson) or monotonic (Spearman) relationships. Other relationships are possible.

Assumptions

Random samples

Independent observations

Monotonic Relationship. A Spearman correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables does not change direction (Conover & Iman, 1981). This assumption is violated if the points on the scatterplot between any pair of variables appear to shift from a positive to negative or negative to a positive relationship. Figures F1-F15 in Appendix F present the scatterplots of the correlations. A regression line has been added to assist the interpretation.

Results

A second Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among job satisfaction variables JS8, JS11, JS14, JS9, JS18, JS19, JS7, JS4, JS1, and JS3, showing positive coefficients, indicates that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job satisfaction variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job satisfaction in small businesses in Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership

and job satisfaction in all of these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. As shown in Figure F1, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.29, 0.54]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS11) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS11) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_s = 0.57, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.66]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.57, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F2, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation

indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.38, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.33, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F3, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation

coefficient between transformational leadership (JS8) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS8) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F4, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.34, 0.58]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS14) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS14) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.39, 0.62]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.43, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.29, 0.54]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.43, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F5, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.65, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.55, 0.73]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.65, indicating a large effect size. This correlation

indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F6, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.54]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS11) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS11) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational

leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS9) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.62]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS9) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS9) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F7, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.54, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.42, 0.64]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.54, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F8, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.54, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.42, 0.64]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and

job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.54, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS14) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS14) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F9, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS18) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS18) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS18) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.50, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.38, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.50, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A

significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.67]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F10, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.62]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS9) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS9) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F11, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS19) ($r_s = 0.61, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.50, 0.70]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18)

and job satisfaction (JS19) was 0.61, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS19) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F12, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.54]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS18) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS18) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to

increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS7) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS7) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS19) increases, job satisfaction (JS7) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F13, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS19) and

job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS19) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS19) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to

increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.53, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.41, 0.63]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS19) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.53, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS19) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F14, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS4) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI }$

[0.35, 0.59]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS4) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS7) increases, job satisfaction (JS4) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.33, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS7) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.45, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.32, 0.56]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS7) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.45, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS7) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure F15, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS1) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS1) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS1) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS4) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS4) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. A

significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS3) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JS1) and job satisfaction (JS3) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JS1) increases, job satisfaction (JS3) tends to increase. Table 4 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 4

Spearman Correlation Results Among JS8, JS11, JS14, JS9, JS18, JS19, JS7, JS4, JS1, and JS3

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JS8-JS11	0.42	[0.29, 0.54]	< .001
JS8-JS14	0.57	[0.46, 0.66]	< .001
JS8-JS9	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS8-JS18	0.44	[0.31, 0.56]	< .001
JS8-JS19	0.51	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JS8-JS7	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JS8-JS4	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS8-JS1	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS8-JS3	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JS11-JS14	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS11-JS9	0.51	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS11-JS18	0.43	[0.29, 0.54]	< .001
JS11-JS19	0.65	[0.55, 0.73]	< .001
JS11-JS7	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS11-JS4	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS11-JS1	0.42	[0.28, 0.54]	< .001
JS11-JS3	0.45	[0.32, 0.57]	< .001
JS14-JS9	0.52	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS14-JS18	0.52	[0.40, 0.62]	< .001
JS14-JS19	0.54	[0.42, 0.64]	< .001
JS14-JS7	0.45	[0.32, 0.57]	< .001
JS14-JS4	0.54	[0.42, 0.64]	< .001
JS14-JS1	0.46	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS14-JS3	0.49	[0.36, 0.60]	< .001
JS9-JS18	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JS9-JS19	0.50	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JS9-JS7	0.58	[0.46, 0.67]	< .001
JS9-JS4	0.52	[0.40, 0.62]	< .001
JS9-JS1	0.51	[0.39, 0.62]	< .001
JS9-JS3	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001
JS18-JS19	0.61	[0.50, 0.70]	< .001

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JS18-JS7	0.49	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS18-JS4	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS18-JS1	0.42	[0.28, 0.54]	< .001
JS18-JS3	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JS19-JS7	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS19-JS4	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JS19-JS1	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS19-JS3	0.53	[0.41, 0.63]	< .001
JS7-JS4	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JS7-JS1	0.45	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JS7-JS3	0.45	[0.32, 0.56]	< .001
JS4-JS1	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JS4-JS3	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JS1-JS3	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Descriptive Statistics: Job Performance

Introduction

Summary statistics were calculated for JP5, JP2, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16.

Summary Statistics

The observations for JP5 had an average of 9.13 ($SD = 1.17$, $SE_M = 0.09$, Min = 8.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = 0.87, Kurtosis = -0.03). The observations for JP2 had an average of 8.84 ($SD = 0.91$, $SE_M = 0.07$, Min = 8.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = 1.15, Kurtosis = 1.34). The observations for JP17 had an average of 8.70 ($SD = 1.51$, $SE_M = 0.12$, Min = 0.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = -3.17, Kurtosis = 18.01). The observations for JP15 had an average of 8.75 ($SD = 1.51$, $SE_M = 0.12$, Min = 0.00, Max = 12.00, Skewness = -3.17, Kurtosis = 18.15). The observations for JP12 had an average of 8.98

($SD = 1.45$, $SE_M = 0.11$, $Min = 0.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = -2.42$, $Kurtosis = 16.05$).

The observations for JP6 had an average of 9.04 ($SD = 1.09$, $SE_M = 0.08$, $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 0.93$, $Kurtosis = 0.15$). The observations for JP10 had an average of 9.33 ($SD = 1.07$, $SE_M = 0.08$, $Min = 8.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = 0.36$, $Kurtosis = -0.35$). The observations for JP13 had an average of 9.11 ($SD = 1.56$, $SE_M = 0.12$, $Min = 0.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = -1.96$, $Kurtosis = 12.27$). The observations for JP16 had an average of 8.71 ($SD = 1.49$, $SE_M = 0.12$, $Min = 0.00$, $Max = 12.00$, $Skewness = -3.29$, $Kurtosis = 19.05$). When the skewness is greater than 2 in absolute value, the variable is considered to be asymmetrical about its mean. When the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3, then the variable's distribution is markedly different from a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The summary statistics can be found in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary Statistics Table for Interval and Ratio Variables

Variable	M	SD	n	SE_M	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
JP5	9.13	1.17	166	0.09	8.00	12.00	0.87	-0.03
JP2	8.84	0.91	166	0.07	8.00	12.00	1.15	1.34
JP17	8.70	1.51	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-3.17	18.01
JP15	8.75	1.51	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-3.17	18.15
JP12	8.98	1.45	166	0.11	0.00	12.00	-2.42	16.05
JP6	9.04	1.09	166	0.08	8.00	12.00	0.93	0.15
JP10	9.33	1.07	166	0.08	8.00	12.00	0.36	-0.35
JP13	9.11	1.56	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-1.96	12.27
JP16	8.71	1.49	166	0.12	0.00	12.00	-3.29	19.05

Note. '-' indicates that the statistic is undefined due to constant data or insufficient sample size.

Pearson Correlation Analysis: Job Performance

Introduction

A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Assumptions

Assumptions for Computing Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation. The assumptions and requirements for computing Karl Pearson's Coefficient of Assumptions are:

1. Linearity simply means that the data follow a linear relationship. Again, this can be examined by looking at a scatter plot. If the data points have a straight line (and not a curve) relationship, then the data satisfy the linearity assumption.
2. Continuous variables are those that can take any value within an interval. Ratio variables are also continuous variables. To compute Karl Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation, both data sets must contain continuous variables. If even one of the data sets is ordinal, then Spearman's Coefficient of Rank Correlation would be a more appropriate measure.
3. Paired observations mean that every data point must be in pairs. That is, for every observation of the IV, there must be a corresponding observation of the

DV. We cannot compute the correlation coefficient if one data set has 12 observations and the other has 10 observations.

4. No outliers must be present in the data. While statistically there is no harm if the data contains outliers, they can significantly skew the correlation coefficient and make it inaccurate. When does a data point become an outlier? In general, a data point that is beyond +3.29 or -3.29 standard deviations away is an outlier. Outliers are easy to spot visually from the scatter plot. To verify most of these assumptions, a scatter plot is invaluable. That is why, we suggest that a scatter plot should be created first, before computing the correlation coefficient.

Linearity. A Pearson correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables is linear (Conover & Iman, 1981). This assumption is violated if there is curvature among the points on the scatterplot between any pair of variables. Figures G1-G12 in Appendix G present the scatterplots of the correlations. A regression line has been added to assist the interpretation.

Results

A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted among job performance variables JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16, showing positive coefficients, indicates that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job performance variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job performance in small businesses in Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and job performance in all these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) ($r_p = 0.27, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.12, 0.41]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) was 0.27, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP5) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) ($r_p = 0.19, p = .014, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.04, 0.33]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) was 0.19, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) ($r_p = 0.29, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.14, 0.42]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) was 0.29, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.20, p = .009, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.05, 0.34]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) was 0.20, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) ($r_p = 0.32, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.17, 0.45]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) was 0.32, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP17) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) ($r_p = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) ($r_p = 0.41, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.53]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) was 0.41, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) ($r_p = 0.75, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.68, 0.81]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) was 0.75, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.47, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.39, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.25, 0.51]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) was 0.39, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21, 0.48]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) was 0.35, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) ($r_p = 0.76, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.69, 0.82]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) was 0.76, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP12) ($r_p = 0.70, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.61, 0.77]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP12) was 0.70, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that

as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) ($r_p = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.50]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.18, p = .021, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.03, 0.32]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) was 0.18, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.63, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.53, 0.71]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) was 0.63, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.84, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.79, 0.88]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) was 0.84, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP12) ($r_p = 0.71, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.62, 0.77]$). The

correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP12) was 0.71, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP6) ($r_p = 0.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21, 0.48]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP6) was 0.35, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.33, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.19, 0.46]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) was 0.33, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.63, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.53, 0.71]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) was 0.63, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.86, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.81, 0.89]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance

(JP16) was 0.86, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP6) ($r_p = 0.50, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.38, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP6) was 0.50, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.51]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP10) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.74, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.66, 0.80]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP13) was 0.74, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.76, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.68, 0.81]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) was 0.76, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP10) ($r_p = 0.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31, 0.56]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP10) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.42, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.28, 0.54]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) was 0.42, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.39, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.26, 0.51]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) was 0.39, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) ($r_p = 0.29, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.14, 0.42]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) was 0.29, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.30, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.16, 0.43]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) was 0.30, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) ($r_p = 0.65, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.55, 0.73]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) was 0.65, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP13) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. No other significant correlations were found. Table 6 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 6

Pearson Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16

Combination	r_p	95% CI	p
JP2-JP5	0.27	[0.12, 0.41]	< .001
JP2-JP17	0.08	[-0.08, 0.23]	.335
JP2-JP15	0.15	[-0.00, 0.30]	.053
JP2-JP12	0.19	[0.04, 0.33]	.014
JP2-JP6	0.29	[0.14, 0.42]	< .001
JP2-JP10	0.20	[0.05, 0.34]	.009
JP2-JP13	0.09	[-0.06, 0.24]	.248
JP2-JP16	0.09	[-0.06, 0.24]	.225
JP5-JP17	0.32	[0.17, 0.45]	< .001
JP5-JP15	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JP5-JP12	0.41	[0.28, 0.53]	< .001
JP5-JP6	0.75	[0.68, 0.81]	< .001
JP5-JP10	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JP5-JP13	0.39	[0.25, 0.51]	< .001
JP5-JP16	0.35	[0.21, 0.48]	< .001
JP17-JP15	0.76	[0.69, 0.82]	< .001
JP17-JP12	0.70	[0.61, 0.77]	< .001
JP17-JP6	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JP17-JP10	0.18	[0.03, 0.32]	.021
JP17-JP13	0.63	[0.53, 0.71]	< .001
JP17-JP16	0.84	[0.79, 0.88]	< .001
JP15-JP12	0.71	[0.62, 0.77]	< .001
JP15-JP6	0.35	[0.21, 0.48]	< .001
JP15-JP10	0.33	[0.19, 0.46]	< .001
JP15-JP13	0.63	[0.53, 0.71]	< .001
JP15-JP16	0.86	[0.81, 0.89]	< .001
JP12-JP6	0.50	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JP12-JP10	0.38	[0.24, 0.51]	< .001
JP12-JP13	0.74	[0.66, 0.80]	< .001
JP12-JP16	0.76	[0.68, 0.81]	< .001
JP6-JP10	0.44	[0.31, 0.56]	< .001

Combination	r_p	95% CI	p
JP6-JP13	0.42	[0.28, 0.54]	< .001
JP6-JP16	0.39	[0.26, 0.51]	< .001
JP10-JP13	0.29	[0.14, 0.42]	< .001
JP10-JP16	0.30	[0.16, 0.43]	< .001
JP13-JP16	0.65	[0.55, 0.73]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Spearman Correlation Analysis: Job Performance

Introduction

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Spearman Ranked Order Correlation Analysis

Despite the analysis mentioned earlier, before conducting the planned Spearman ranked Order Correlation analysis, the researcher checked the following assumptions such as

- data are not normally distributed
- have outliers
- one or both of the variables are ordinal

The researcher checked if the normality was violated under the Pearson correlation. The tests of normality using Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wild methods show the lack of normality. All outliers were identified on the scatterplot charts. Two variables are ordinal (Likert Scale) or Scale (Interval or Ratio). One variable is

monotonically (Scatter Plots) related to another variable. As X variable increases, the Y variable either never decreases or never increases. In conclusion, the results of the assumption checks showed violations of normality and outliers.

Results

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) was 0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP5) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP17) ($r_s = 0.28, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.13, 0.41]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP17) was 0.28, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP17) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.50]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP15) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.50]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.27, 0.52]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.26, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.11, 0.39]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) was 0.26, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.23, p = .003, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.08, 0.37]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP13) was 0.23, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.34, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.19, 0.47]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job

performance (JP16) was 0.34, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP17) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.67]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.69, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.60, 0.76]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) was 0.69, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A

significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31, 0.55]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.60, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.50, 0.69]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job

performance (JP12) was 0.60, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.44, 0.65]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.28, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.14, 0.42]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) was 0.28, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.37, 0.60]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.47, 0.68]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.62, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.52, 0.70]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP12) was 0.62, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.36, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP6) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.34, 0.58]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.64, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.54, 0.72]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP16) was 0.64, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.63, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.53, 0.71]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP6) was 0.63, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, JP6 tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and JP10 ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.33, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and JP10 was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, JP10 tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and JP13 ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.43, 0.65]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP13) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.71, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.62, 0.78]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) was 0.71, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership

(JP6) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.33, 0.57]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP10) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.38, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.59, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.48, 0.68]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP16) was 0.59, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.31, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.17, 0.45]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) was 0.31, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.26, 0.52]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates

that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.56, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.45, 0.66]$).

The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) was 0.56, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP13) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

Table 7 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 7

Spearman Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JP2-JP5	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JP2-JP17	0.28	[0.13, 0.41]	< .001
JP2-JP15	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JP2-JP12	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JP2-JP6	0.40	[0.27, 0.52]	< .001
JP2-JP10	0.26	[0.11, 0.39]	< .001
JP2-JP13	0.23	[0.08, 0.37]	.003
JP2-JP16	0.34	[0.19, 0.47]	< .001
JP5-JP17	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JP5-JP15	0.51	[0.39, 0.61]	< .001
JP5-JP12	0.58	[0.46, 0.67]	< .001
JP5-JP6	0.69	[0.60, 0.76]	< .001
JP5-JP10	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JP5-JP13	0.52	[0.40, 0.63]	< .001
JP5-JP16	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JP17-JP15	0.44	[0.31, 0.55]	< .001
JP17-JP12	0.60	[0.50, 0.69]	< .001
JP17-JP6	0.55	[0.44, 0.65]	< .001
JP17-JP10	0.28	[0.14, 0.42]	< .001
JP17-JP13	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JP17-JP16	0.58	[0.47, 0.68]	< .001
JP15-JP12	0.62	[0.52, 0.70]	< .001
JP15-JP6	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JP15-JP10	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JP15-JP13	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JP15-JP16	0.64	[0.54, 0.72]	< .001
JP12-JP6	0.63	[0.53, 0.71]	< .001
JP12-JP10	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JP12-JP13	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JP12-JP16	0.71	[0.62, 0.78]	< .001
JP6-JP10	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JP6-JP13	0.51	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JP6-JP16	0.59	[0.48, 0.68]	< .001
JP10-JP13	0.31	[0.17, 0.45]	< .001
JP10-JP16	0.40	[0.26, 0.52]	< .001
JP13-JP16	0.56	[0.45, 0.66]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Spearman Correlation Analysis 2: Job Performance

Introduction

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP6, JP12, JP15, JP10, JP13, and JP16. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, where coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small effect size, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate effect size, and coefficients above .50 indicate a large effect size (Cohen-Schotanus & Van der Vleuten, 2010).

Assumptions

Spearman Rank-Order Correlation. The Spearman correlation evaluates the monotonic relationship between two continuous or ordinal variables. In a monotonic relationship, the variables tend to change together, but not necessarily at a constant rate. The Spearman correlation coefficient is based on the ranked values for each variable rather than the raw data. Spearman correlation is often used to evaluate relationships involving ordinal variables. For example, you might use a Spearman correlation to evaluate whether the order in which employees complete a test exercise is related to the number of months they have been employed. It is always a good idea to examine the relationship between variables with a scatterplot. Correlation coefficients only measure linear (Pearson) or monotonic (Spearman) relationships. Other relationships are possible.

Assumptions

- a) Random samples
- b) Independent observations

Monotonic Relationship. A Spearman correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables does not change direction (Conover & Iman, 1981). This assumption is violated if the points on the scatterplot between any pair of variables appear to shift from a positive to negative or negative to a positive relationship. Figures H43-H54 in Appendix H present the scatterplots of the correlations. A regression line has been added to assist the interpretation.

Results

A second Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among job performance variables JP2, JP5, JP17, JP6, JP12, JP15, JP10, JP13, and JP16, showing positive coefficients, which indicates that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job performance variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job performance in small businesses in Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and job performance in all these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The result of the correlations was examined using Holm corrections to adjust for multiple comparisons based on an alpha value of 0.05. As shown in Figure H1, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) ($r_s = 0.36, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.22, 0.49]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP5) was

0.36, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP5) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP17) ($r_s = 0.28, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.13, 0.41]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP17) was 0.28, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP17) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.40, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.27, 0.52]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP6) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H2, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.50]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP12) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.38, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.24, 0.50]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP15) was 0.38, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between

transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.26, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.11, 0.39]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP10) was 0.26, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H3, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.23, p = .003, 95\%$ CI [0.08, 0.37]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP13) was 0.23, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.34, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.19, 0.47]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP2) and job performance (JP16) was 0.34, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP2) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.35, 0.59]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP17) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP17) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H4, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.69, p < .001, 95\%$ CI

[0.60, 0.76]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP6) was 0.69, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.46, 0.67]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP12) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.39, 0.61]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP15) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H5, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.35, 0.59]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP10) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.52, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.40, 0.63]$). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP13) was 0.52, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP13)

tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.43, 0.65]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP5) and job performance (JP16) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP5) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H6, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.44, 0.65]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP6) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP6) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.60, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.50, 0.69]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP12) was 0.60, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.44, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.31, 0.55]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP15) was 0.44, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H7, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.28, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.14, 0.42]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP10) was 0.28, indicating a small effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.49, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.37, 0.60]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP13) was 0.49, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.58, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.47, 0.68]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP17) and job performance (JP16) was 0.58, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP17) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H8, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP12) ($r_s = 0.63, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.53, 0.71]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP12) was 0.63, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP12) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.48, p < .001, 95\%$

CI [0.36, 0.59]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP15) was 0.48, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.33, 0.57]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP10) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H9, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.51, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.38, 0.61]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP13) was 0.51, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.59, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.48, 0.68]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP6) and job performance (JP16) was 0.59, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP6) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP15) ($r_s = 0.62, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.52, 0.70]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP15) was 0.62, indicating a large effect size. This correlation

indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP15) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H10, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.46, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.33, 0.57]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP10) was 0.46, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP10) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.55, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.43, 0.65]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP13) was 0.55, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.71, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.62, 0.78]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP12) and job performance (JP16) was 0.71, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP12) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H11, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.34, 0.58]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP10) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP10)

tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.47, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.34, 0.58]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP13) was 0.47, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.64, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.54, 0.72]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP15) and job performance (JP16) was 0.64, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP15) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase.

As shown in Figure H12, a significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) ($r_s = 0.31, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.17, 0.45]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP13) was 0.31, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP13) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.40, p < .001, 95\%$ CI [0.26, 0.52]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP10) and job performance (JP16) was 0.40, indicating a moderate effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP10) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. A significant positive correlation was observed between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) ($r_s = 0.56, p < .001, 95\%$

CI [0.45, 0.66]). The correlation coefficient between transformational leadership (JP13) and job performance (JP16) was 0.56, indicating a large effect size. This correlation indicates that as transformational leadership (JP13) increases, job performance (JP16) tends to increase. Table 8 presents the results of the correlations.

Table 8

Spearman Correlation Results Among JP2, JP5, JP17, JP6, JP12, JP15, JP10, JP13, and JP16

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JP2-JP5	0.36	[0.22, 0.49]	< .001
JP2-JP17	0.28	[0.13, 0.41]	< .001
JP2-JP6	0.40	[0.27, 0.52]	< .001
JP2-JP12	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JP2-JP15	0.38	[0.24, 0.50]	< .001
JP2-JP10	0.26	[0.11, 0.39]	< .001
JP2-JP13	0.23	[0.08, 0.37]	.003
JP2-JP16	0.34	[0.19, 0.47]	< .001
JP5-JP17	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JP5-JP6	0.69	[0.60, 0.76]	< .001
JP5-JP12	0.58	[0.46, 0.67]	< .001
JP5-JP15	0.51	[0.39, 0.61]	< .001
JP5-JP10	0.48	[0.35, 0.59]	< .001
JP5-JP13	0.52	[0.40, 0.63]	< .001
JP5-JP16	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JP17-JP6	0.55	[0.44, 0.65]	< .001
JP17-JP12	0.60	[0.50, 0.69]	< .001
JP17-JP15	0.44	[0.31, 0.55]	< .001
JP17-JP10	0.28	[0.14, 0.42]	< .001
JP17-JP13	0.49	[0.37, 0.60]	< .001
JP17-JP16	0.58	[0.47, 0.68]	< .001
JP6-JP12	0.63	[0.53, 0.71]	< .001
JP6-JP15	0.48	[0.36, 0.59]	< .001
JP6-JP10	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JP6-JP13	0.51	[0.38, 0.61]	< .001
JP6-JP16	0.59	[0.48, 0.68]	< .001
JP12-JP15	0.62	[0.52, 0.70]	< .001
JP12-JP10	0.46	[0.33, 0.57]	< .001
JP12-JP13	0.55	[0.43, 0.65]	< .001
JP12-JP16	0.71	[0.62, 0.78]	< .001
JP15-JP10	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001

Combination	r_s	95% CI	p
JP15-JP13	0.47	[0.34, 0.58]	< .001
JP15-JP16	0.64	[0.54, 0.72]	< .001
JP10-JP13	0.31	[0.17, 0.45]	< .001
JP10-JP16	0.40	[0.26, 0.52]	< .001
JP13-JP16	0.56	[0.45, 0.66]	< .001

Note. $n = 166$. Holm corrections are used to adjust p -values.

Summary

The first research question in this study was: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction? The findings of this research showed that there are statistically significant results between transformational leadership styles that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction.

The second research question in this study was: What characteristics of transformational leadership style do managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance? The findings of this research showed that there are statistically significant results between transformational leadership styles that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance.

The results of this research show that transformational leadership style plays a significant role in job satisfaction and job performance. While this research is valuable in providing support for the positive relationship that exists between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction and performance, improvements can be made to increase understanding. Chapter 5 will discuss the findings and conclusions of this

research. Recommendations for improvements that could be made to this study as well as future research suggestions.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Through this correlational quantitative study, I sought to learn about the relationship between transformational leadership style in managers of small businesses in Virginia and job satisfaction. The results of this research may increase understanding of how managers impact job satisfaction and job performance. To accomplish this, the effect of the predictor variable, transformational leadership style, on the criterion variable, job satisfaction, was examined by administering surveys to small businesses in Virginia. My hope is that this research will improve business outcomes for small businesses, an important aspect of the U.S. economy, and may aid managers in increasing job satisfaction and job performance using transformational leadership skills.

The findings showed statistically significant results between transformational leadership styles that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job satisfaction. The findings of this research also showed statistically significant results between transformational leadership styles that managers of Virginia small businesses demonstrate that lead to increased job performance. These results were seen in both the Pearson and Spearman correlations that were performed.

Interpretation of Findings

A Spearman correlation analysis was conducted among job performance variables JP2, JP5, JP17, JP15, JP12, JP6, JP10, JP13, and JP16, showing positive coefficients, indicating that when the value of the transformational leadership variable increases, the value of the job performance variable also tends to increase. In other words, transformational leadership has an impact on job performance in small businesses in

Virginia. There was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and job performance in all these analyses. The in-depth results of this correlation follow.

The results of this research confirmed the idea that job satisfaction and performance can be influenced by the transformational leadership style that managers demonstrate. As transformational leadership increases, so do job satisfaction and performance. This study helps to increase knowledge on this relationship with a particular focus on small businesses, which is an important but not yet well-understood area that deserves attention (Wang & Poutziouris, 2010). The current study helps to identify transformational leadership skills that can help small businesses avoid common issues that can result in increased business costs and decreased employee well-being (Ng et al., 2016). By utilizing a transformational leadership style, businesses can instead decrease costs and increase employee well-being, including job satisfaction and performance.

This research supports early theories on human behavior that suggested that internal rewards or goals guide behavior and motivate individuals (Locke, 1968). In the current research, transformational leadership is the factor that leads employees to be more satisfied with their jobs and therefore perform better. This research supports SDT by empirically demonstrating that internal motivation, a key factor that leads to taking an action, plays a significant role in how employees approach their work.

Limitations of the Study

This research had some limitations and challenges that limited generalizability, trustworthiness, validity, and reliability. In terms of generalizability, this research took place using participants from small businesses in Virginia, but it may still be limited due

to the scope of the database. Limited time and resources meant that the sample size included small businesses in Virginia only, though the number of participants was double what was initially anticipated. This research used a small convenience sample that may not be representative of all businesses, employees, or managers in the United States or Virginia, limiting generalizability.

The research design was valuable for establishing the existence of a correlation between the variables. Using a correlational research design indicated that there is a positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction; however, correlation does not equal causation, so a definitive cause cannot be established.

Recommendations

Increased time and resources would help to expand upon the current research. This would allow a longer period for recruitment to increase the participant pool and therefore increase the sample size. Additional resources might also make it possible to offer an incentive to participants for their time. This research was limited to small businesses in Virginia; widening the research to include small businesses in the United States could extend the generalizability and scope of the research. A different approach to the research design might be able to provide more detailed information about how the transformational leadership style affects job performance and satisfaction.

This research consistently showed that there is a positive correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and performance, with several having strong positive correlations. This supports the notion that the transformational leadership style is an important aspect of the business environment because it can affect employee performance and well-being (Deci et al., 2017). It could be valuable to examine whether

differences in this relationship exist between small, medium, and large businesses, not only in Virginia but countrywide also.

While this research was conducted in the business setting, it would be valuable to examine this relationship in other situations where managerial and leadership skills are needed. Current theories of behavior suggest that industries such as healthcare and education might benefit from transformational leadership skills being used by leaders within organizations (Deci et al., 2017). This and future research on transformational leadership style can improve outcomes in business and other organizations.

Implications

This research has the potential to have benefits and to promote social change in business environments. Understanding and utilizing transformational leadership skills may create positive social change on several levels, including for individuals and the businesses that they work for. Business owners and managers who adopt a transformational leadership style to motivate their employees are likely to see improved job satisfaction and job performance. This may lead to improved business outcomes for owners and managers while increasing the satisfaction and performance of employees.

The implications for the methodological approach of this research are that the scales used are appropriate for measuring transformational leadership style and job satisfaction. The method used to find participants was sufficient for sampling from a pool of small business owners in Virginia, the expansion of the population to include small business owners that are not registered in Virginia's SBSD.

The theoretical implications of this research are overwhelmingly in support of a positive correlation between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction. These

results indicate that small businesses, just like large businesses, have employees who are more likely to experience increased job satisfaction when the business owners or managers utilize a transformational leadership style.

Results of this study have implications in small business settings, for business owners and managers as well as their employees. Practice recommendations include conducting research that is more inclusive of all small businesses in Virginia regardless of SBSD status. It might be useful to find a standard method of connecting with small business owners to reach a larger audience, which could then be used in other states as well. Future research that examines this relationship in other settings, such as different states or industries, could help shed light on other factors that might influence the relationship.

Conclusions

The goal of this study was to learn about the relationship that exists between transformational leadership style in managers of small businesses in Virginia and job satisfaction and job performance to provide a basis for determining how managers impact job satisfaction and performance. This research found a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction and performance, confirming the findings of similar research on the topic. It showed that there can be something to believing more in somebody and exerting that confidence in a way that rubs off on the other person too. These findings could help to improve teamwork and leadership in the workplace while making sure that employees also have dignity. The data and methods used to analyze the data showed clear correlations that suggest the benefits of transformational leadership and warrant further research to learn more and find out just

how much of a direct effect there is, or whether there is correlation without causation.

This research shows promise of significant value to small businesses in Virginia.

Extending this research beyond the state of Virginia and in different industries could lead to significant, positive societal change. While there are some cultural and political differences among the different states, it stands to reason that these concepts would mostly apply across the board. Even in the most conservative and pro-business-above-all-else areas, people should still acknowledge that these ideas are an extension of President Ronald Reagan's suggestion that employees should be able to have a stake in the company so that they have more dignity and more motivation. It only makes sense that workers would do better when they are properly encouraged and when they are properly corrected when they do something wrong, but without causing discouragement or demoralization. At a time when technology and cutbacks continue putting more pressure on employees while wages remain fairly flat, anything that could help improve the workplace experience and workplace productivity should be considered.

References

- Aga, D. A., Noorderhaven, N., & Vallejo, B. (2016). Transformational leadership and project success: The mediating role of team-building. *International Journal of Project Management*, *34*(5), 806–818.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.02.012>
- Barnett, D. (2017). Leadership and job satisfaction: Adjunct faculty at a for-profit university. *International Journal of Psychology and Educational Studies*, *4*(3), 53–63. <https://doi.org/10.17220/ijpes.2017.03.006>
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, *18*(3), 19–31. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(90\)90061-s](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-s)
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military and educational impact*. Lawrence Earlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *MLQ: multifactor leadership questionnaire: Technical report, leader form, rater and scoring key for MLQ (Form 5x-short)*. Mind Garden.
- Boamah, S. A., Laschinger, H. K. S., Wong, C., & Clarke, S. (2018). Effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and patient safety outcomes. *Nursing Outlook*, *66*(2), 180–189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.outlook.2017.10.004>
- Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of*

Applied Psychology, 80(4), 468–478. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.4.468>

Cheng, C., Bartram, T., Karimi, L., & Leggat, S. (2016). Transformational leadership and social identity as predictors of team climate, perceived quality of care, burnout and turnover intention among nurses. *Personnel Review*, 45(6), 1200–1216. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-05-2015-0118>

Choi, S. L., Goh, C. F., Adam, M. B. H., & Tan, O. K. (2016). Transformational leadership, empowerment, and job satisfaction: The mediating role of employee empowerment. *Human Resources for Health*, 14(1), Article 73. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12960-016-0171-2>

Cohen-Schotanus, J., & Van der Vleuten, C. P. M. (2010). A standard setting method with the best performing students as point of reference: Practical and affordable. *Medical Teacher*, 32(2), 154–160. <https://doi.org/10.3109/01421590903196979>

Conover, W. J., & Iman, R. L. (1981). Rank transformations as a bridge between parametric and nonparametric statistics. *The American Statistician*, 35(3), 124–129. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.1981.10479327>

Deci, E. L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 18(1), 105–115. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0030644>

Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4), 580–590. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.4.580>

Deci, E. L., Nezlek, J., & Sheinman, L. (1981). Characteristics of the rewarder and intrinsic motivation of the reward. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,

40(1), 1–10.

- Deci, E. L., Olafsen, A. H., & Ryan, R. (2017). Self-determination theory in work organizations: The state of a science. *The Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 19–43.
<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113108>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1980a). Self-determination theory: When mind mediates behavior. *The Journal of Mind and Behavior*, 1(1), 33–43.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/43852807>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1980b). The empirical exploration of intrinsic motivational processes. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 13, 39–80.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60130-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60130-6)
- Deinert, A., Homan, A. C., Boerc, D., Voelpel, S. C., & Gutermanna, D. (2015). Transformational leadership sub-dimensions and their link to leaders' personality and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(6), 1095–1120.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.08.001>
- Dessler, G. (2017). *Human resource management*. The Open University of Hong Kong.
- Dilger, R. J. (2019). Small business administration and job creation. In *Small business and jobs: Research and analysis in brief*. Congressional Research Service.
- Fernet, C., Trépanier, S. G., Austin, S., Gagné, M., & Forest, J. (2015). Transformational leadership and optimal functioning at work: On the mediating role of employees' perceived job characteristics and motivation. *Work Stress*, 29(1), 11–31.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2014.1003998>
- Fischer, S. A. (2016). Transformational leadership in nursing: A concept analysis.

Journal of Advanced Nursing, 72(11), 2644–2653.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.13049>

Fulmer, C. A., & Ostroff, C. (2017). Trust in direct leaders and top leaders: A trickle-up model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(4), 648–657.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000189>

Ghasabeh, M. S., Soosay, C., & Reaiche, C. (2015). The emerging role of transformational leadership. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 49(6), 459–467.

<https://doi.org/10.1353/jda.2015.0090>

Goodwin, V. L., Whittington, J. L., Murray, B., & Nichols, T. (2011). Moderator or mediator? Examining the role of trust in the transformational leadership paradigm. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 23(4), 409–425.

Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). Different fits satisfy different needs:

Linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 465–477.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014068>

Groen, B. A. C., Wouters, M. J. F., & Wilderom, C. P. M. (2017). Employee participation, performance metrics, and job performance: A survey study based on self-determination theory. *Management Accounting Research*, 36, 51–66.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mar.2016.10.001>

Hafeez, I., Yingjun, Z., Hafeez, S., Mansoor, R., & Rehman, K. U. (2019). Impact of workplace environment on employee performance: Mediating role of employee health. *Business, Management and Education*, 17(2), 173–193.

Han, S. H., Seo, G., Yoon, S. W., & Yoon, D. (2016). Transformational leadership and

knowledge sharing. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 28(3), 130–149.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/jwl-09-2015-0066>

Ismail, A., Mohamad, M. H., Mohamed, H. A., Rafiuddin, N. M., & Zhen., K. W. P.

(2010). Transformational and transactional leadership styles as a predictor of individual outcomes. *Theoretical and Applied Economics Volume XVII*, 6(547), 89–104.

Jager, J., Putnick, D. L., & Bornstein, M. H. (2017). More than just convenient: The scientific merits of homogeneous convenience samples. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 82(2), 13–30.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/mono.12296>

Jyoti, J., & Dev, M. (2015). The impact of transformational leadership on employee creativity: the role of learning orientation. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 9(1), 78–98. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jabs-03-2014-0022>

Kanat-Maymon, Y., Elimelech, M., & Roth, G. (2020). Work motivations as antecedents and outcomes of leadership: integrating self-determination theory and the full range leadership theory. *European Management Journal*.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2020.01.003>

Kawiana, I. G. P., Dewi, L. K. C., Martini, L. K. B., & Suardana, I. B. R. (2018). The influence of organizational culture, employee satisfaction, personality, and organizational commitment towards employee performance. *International Research Journal of Management, IT and Social Sciences*, 5(3), 35–45.

Kouni, Z., Koutsoukos, M., & Panta, D. (2018). Transformational leadership and job satisfaction: The case of secondary education teachers in Greece. *Journal of*

Education and Training Studies, 6(10), 158.

<https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v6i10.3451>

Lan, X. M., & Chong, W. Y. (2015). The mediating role of psychological empowerment between transformational leadership and employee work attitudes. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172, 184–191.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.353>

Ling, Q., Lin, M., & Wu, X. (2016). The trickle-down effect of servant leadership on frontline employee service behaviors and performance: A multilevel study of Chinese hotels. *Tourism Management*, 52, 341–368.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.07.008>

Locke, E. A. (1968). Toward a theory of task motivation and incentives. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 3(2), 157–189. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(68\)90004-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(68)90004-4)

Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4(4), 309–339. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(69\)90013-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(69)90013-0)

Locke, E. A. (1970). Job satisfaction and job performance: A theoretical analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 5(5), 484–500.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(70\)90036-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(70)90036-x)

Luturlean, B. S., Prasetio, A. P., & Saragih, R. (2019). Increasing employee's job satisfaction through the implementation of transformational leadership and work stress level management. *Journal of Management and Marketing Review*, 4(3), 209–217. [https://doi.org/10.35609/jmmr.2019.4.3\(6\)](https://doi.org/10.35609/jmmr.2019.4.3(6))

Malik, W. U., Javed, M., & Hassan, S. T. (2017). Influence of transformational

leadership components on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences (PJCSS), 11(1), 147–166.

Martinaityte, I., Sacramento, C., & Aryee, S. (2019). Delighting the customer: Creativity-oriented high-performance work systems, frontline employee creative performance, and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Management*, 45(2), 728–751.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316672532>

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 728–751. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346>

Mathieu, J. E., Luciano, M. M., D’Innocenzo, L., Klock, E. A., & LePine, J. A. (2020).

The development and construct validity of a team processes survey measure.

Organizational Research Methods, 23(3), 399–431.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428119840801>

Morelix, A. (2018, December 20). The biggest reason the U.S. needs small businesses to thrive has nothing to do with taxes or the economy. *Inc.*

<https://www.inc.com/arnobio-morelix/inc-entrepreneurship-index-2018-q3.html>

Mujkić, A., Šehić, D., Rahimić, Z., & Jusić, J. (2014). Corporate psychopathy and the full-range leadership model. *Economics*, 259–270.

<https://hrcak.srce.hr/file/196121>

Na-Nan, K., Chaiprasit, K., & Pukkeeree, P. (2018). Factor analysis-validated

comprehensive employee job performance scale. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 35(10), 2436–2449. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijqrm-06-2017-0117>

Naeem, S., & Khanzada, B. (2017). Impact of transformational leadership in attainment

- of project success: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 8(9), 168–177.
- Ng, H. S., Kee, D. M. H., & Ramayah, T. (2016). The role of transformational leadership, entrepreneurial competence and technical competence on enterprise success of owner-managed SMEs. *Journal of General Management*, 42(1), 23–43.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/030630701604200103>
- Ng, L. T. (2014). The positive influence of transformational leadership in good corporate governance. *Asia Pacific Business & Economics Perspectives*, 2(1), 12–38.
- Onsardi, A., Asmawi, M., & Abdullah, T. (2017). The effect of compensation, empowerment, and job satisfaction on employee loyalty. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Management (IJSRM)*, 5(12), 7590–7599.
<https://doi.org/10.18535/ijssrm/v5i12.03>
- Para-González, L., Jiménez-Jiménez, D., & Martínez-Lorente, A. R. (2018). Exploring the mediating effects between transformational leadership and organizational performance. *Employee Relations*, 40(2), 412–432. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-10-2016-0190>
- Pittino, D., Visintin, F., Lenger, T., & Sternad, D. (2016). Are high performance work practices really necessary in family SMEs? An analysis of the impact on employee retention. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 7(2), 75–89.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfbs.2016.04.002>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of*

Management, 22, 258–298.

- Purohit, H., Yadav, A., & Goyal, S. (2016). Validation of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire: A study of front-line retail employees. *SSRN*.
<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2864211>
- Rudd, H., Kent, T., Blair, C. A., & Schuele, U. (2009). Leader behavior inventory: a test of measure equivalence in Germany and the United States. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(1), 22–36.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68–78. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-0066X.55.1.68>
- Saleem, H. (2015). The impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction and mediating role of perceived organizational politics. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172(27), 563–569. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.403>
- Sun, R., & Wang, W. (2016). Transformational leadership, employee turnover intention, and actual voluntary turnover in public organizations. *Public Management Review*, 19(8), 1124–1141. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2016.1257063>
- The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). (2017). *Employee job satisfaction and engagement: The doors of opportunity are open*.
<https://www.shrm.org/hr-today/trends-and-forecasting/research-and-surveys/Documents/2017-Employee-Job-Satisfaction-and-Engagement-Executive-Summary.pdf>
- Top, M., Akdere, M., & Tarcan, M. (2014). Examining transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational trust in Turkish

hospitals: Public servants versus private sector employees. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(9), 1259–1282.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.939987>

U.S. Small Business Administration Office of Advocacy. (2018). *United States small business profile*. <https://www.sba.gov/sites/default/files/advocacy/2018-Small-Business-Profiles-US.pdf>

University of Minnesota. (2021). *(MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*.

<https://vpr.psych.umn.edu/msq-minnesota-satisfaction-questionnaire>

University of Waterloo. (n.d.). *Conducting research in classes or with students as participants*. <https://uwaterloo.ca/research/office-research-ethics/research-human-participants/pre-submission-and-training/human-research-guidelines-and-policies-alphabetical-list/conducting-research-classes-or-students-participants#ethical-issues>

Valdiserri, G. A., & Wilson, J. L. (2010). The study of leadership in small business organizations: Impact on profitability and organizational success. *The Entrepreneurial Executive*, 15, 47.

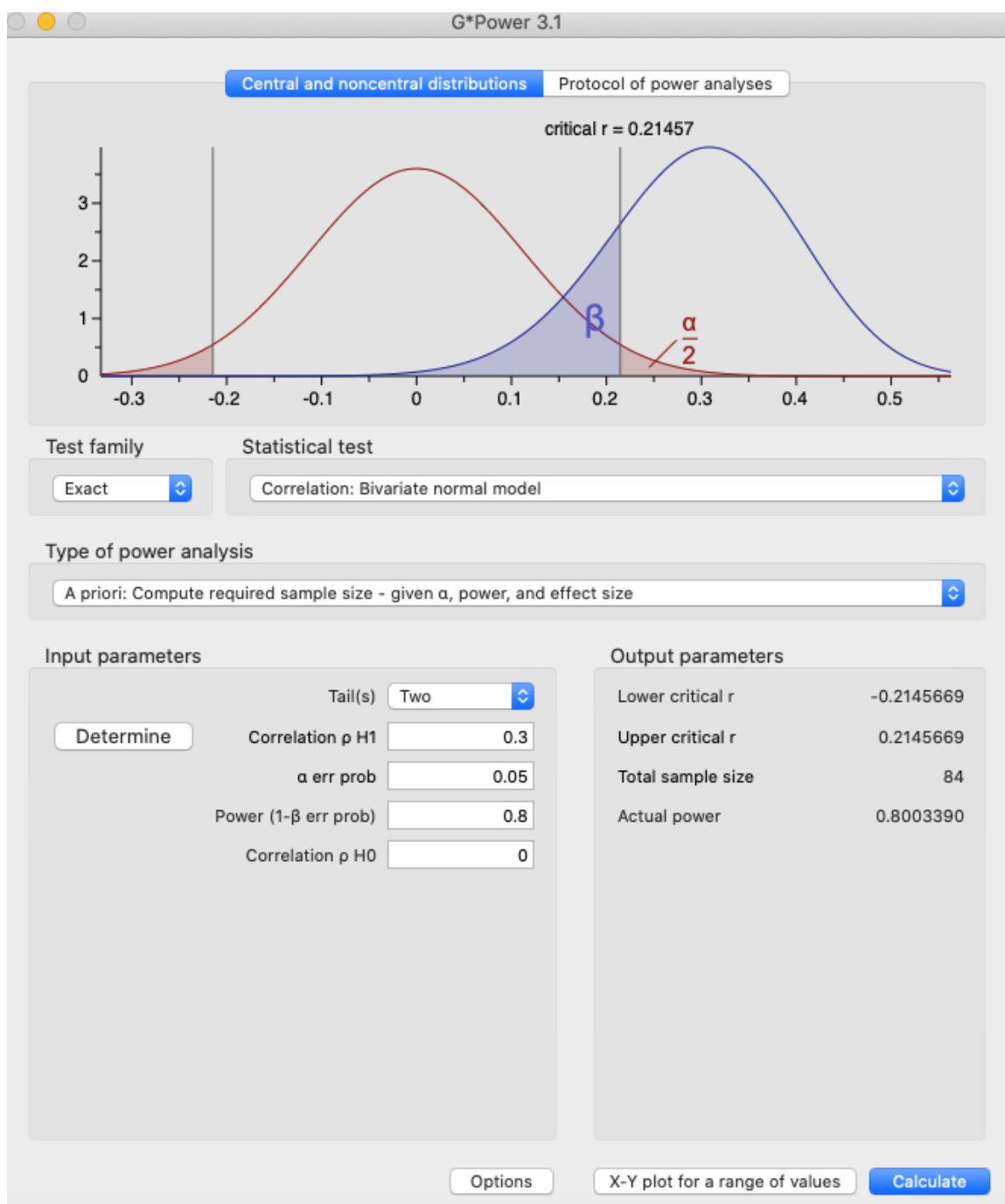
Vale, J. M. (2019). *Transformational leadership in the association of related churches: a cross-sectional examination of ministry students at southeastern university regional campuses [Unpublished doctoral dissertation] [Southeastern University]*.

<https://firescholars.seu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1033&context=coe>

Vatankhah, S., Alirezaei, S., Khosravizadeh, O., Mirbahaeddin, S. E., Alikhani, M., & Alipanah, M. (2017). Role of transformational leadership on employee

- productivity in teaching hospitals: Using structural equation modeling. *Electronic Physician*, 9(8), 4978–4984. <https://doi.org/10.19082/4978>
- Virginia Department of Small Business and Supplier Diversity (SBSD). (n.d.). *Directory listing*. <https://directory.sbsd.virginia.gov/#/>
- Wang, Y., & Poutziouris, P. (2010). Leadership styles, management systems, and growth: Empirical evidence from UK owner-managed SMEs. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 18(3), 331–354. <https://doi.org/10.1142/S0218495810000604>
- Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation*, 22, 120.
http://vpr.psych.umn.edu/sites/vpr.dl.umn.edu/files/monograph_xxii_-_manual_for_the_mn_satisfaction_questionnaire.pdf
- Westfall, P. H., & Henning, K. S. S. (2013). *Texts in statistical science: Understanding advanced statistical methods*. Taylor & Francis.
- Yalabik, Z. Y., Rayton, B. A., & Rapti, A. (2017). Facets of job satisfaction and work engagement. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 5(3), 248–265.
- Yildirim, S., Acaray, A., & Aydin, K. (2017). Exploring the impact of marketing culture on job satisfaction. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, 13(2), 151–162. <https://doi.org/10.1108/wjemsd-01-2017-0001>

Appendix A: G-Power Calculation



Appendix B: Transformational Leadership Scale

1. Instills pride in me
2. Spends time teaching and coaching
3. Considers moral and ethical consequences
4. Views me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations
5. Listens to my concerns
6. Encourages me to perform
7. Increases my motivation
8. Encourages me to think more creatively
9. Sets challenging standards
10. Gets me to rethink never-questioned ideas

Appendix C: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire—Permission

The screenshot shows an email interface with a navigation bar at the top containing 'Junk', 'Move to', and 'Categorize' options. The email title is 'request of permission'. The thread includes a forwarded message from Tuesday, 3/31/2020 at 4:07 PM, and two subsequent messages. The first message, dated Thursday, 3/26/2020 at 10:15 AM, contains the text: 'No problem to use the scale. Hope you success in your research. Thanks'. The second message, dated Tuesday, 3/24/2020 at 3:06 PM, contains the text: 'My name is Abdulrahman Alahmadi and I am a Ph.D. student at Walden University. I am conducting research on Transformational Leadership. I have read your research and I am fascinated by your greater work. Will you please give me your permission to use your transformational leadership scale in my research paper. Thank you'. A sidebar on the left shows a list of emails, with the current one highlighted in blue and labeled 'Inbox'.

e Junk Move to Categorize ...

Filter **request of permission**

You forwarded this message on Tue 3/31/2020 4:07 PM

mission 4/17/2020
: you will achieve ...

Thu 3/26/2020 10:15 AM ...

No problem to use the scale.
Hope you success in your research.
Thanks

Tue 3/24/2020 3:06 PM ...

My name is Abdulrahman Alahmadi and I am a Ph.D. student at Walden University. I am conducting research on Transformational Leadership. I have read your research and I am fascinated by your greater work. Will you please give me your permission to use your transformational leadership scale in my research paper.
Thank you

Appendix D: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Confidential

Your answers to the questions and all other information you give us will be held in strictest confidence.

Name _____ Today's Date _____ 19____
Please Print

1. Check one: Male Female

2. When were you born? _____ 19____

3. Circle the number of years of schooling you completed:

4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Grade School					High School				College				Graduate or Professional School			

4. What is your present job called? _____

5. What do you do on your present job? _____

6. How long have you been on your present job? _____ years _____ months

7. What would you call your **occupation**, your usual line of work? _____

8. How long have you been in this line of work? _____ years _____ months

minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell **how you feel about your present job**, what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with.

On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people **like and dislike about their jobs**.

On the following pages you will find statements about your **present job**.

- Read each statement carefully.
- Decide **how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job** described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

- if you feel that your job gives you **more than you expected**, check the box under **“Very Sat.”** (Very Satisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **what you expected**, check the box under **“Sat.”** (Satisfied);
- if you **cannot make up your mind** whether or not the job gives you what you expected, check the box under **“N”** (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied);
- If you feel that your job gives you **less than you expected**, check the box under **“Dissat.”** (Dissatisfied);
- if you feel that your job gives you **much less than you expected**, check the box under **“Very Dissat.”** (Very Dissatisfied).

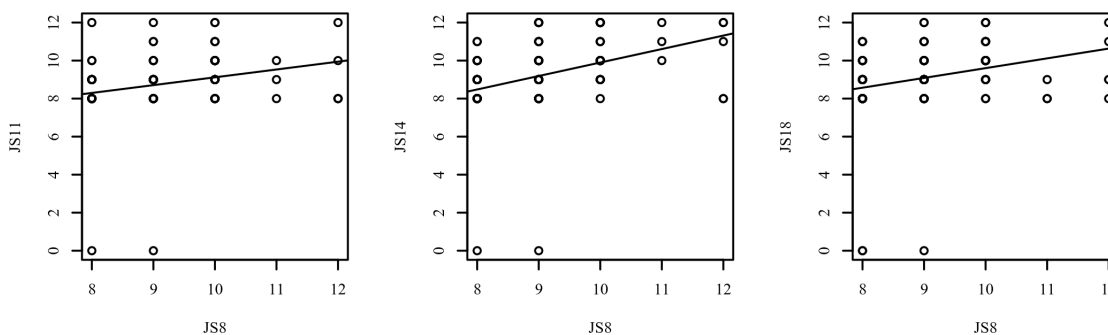
- Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding **how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job**.
- Do this for **all** statements. Please answer **every** item.

Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your **present job**.

Appendix E: Figures From Pearson Correlation

Figure E1

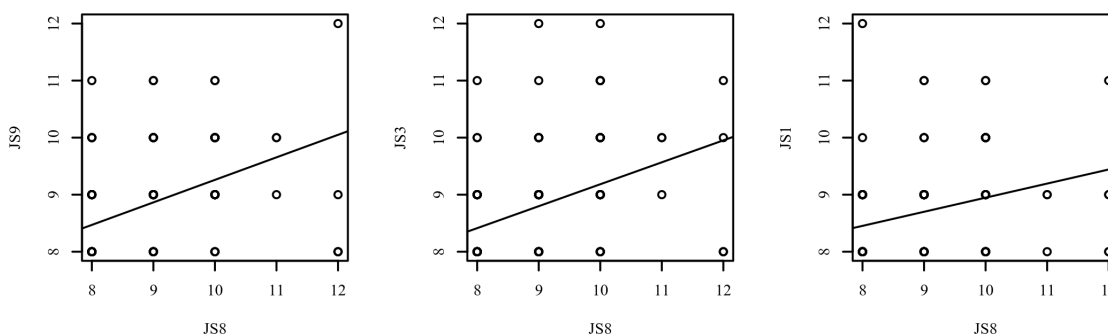
Scatterplots Between Variables JS11-JS8, JS14-JS8, and JS18-JS8 With Regression Line



JS8 = Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides For Steady Employment
 JS11 = Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14 = Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job
 JS18 = Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

Figure E2

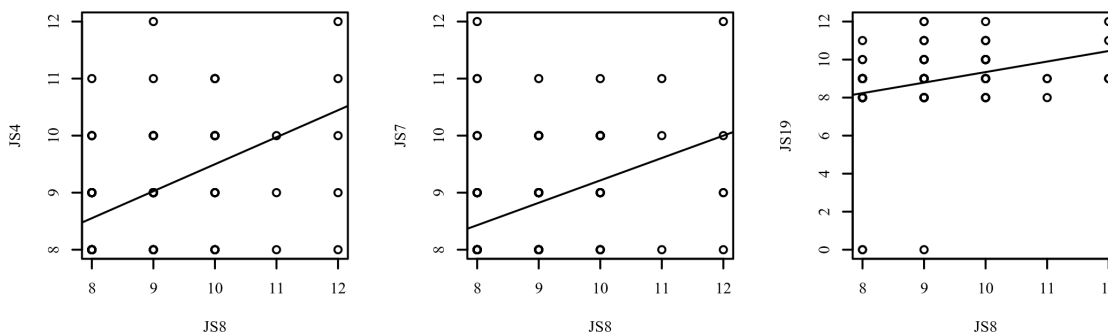
Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS8, JS3-JS8, and JS1-JS8 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS8=Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides for Steady Employment
 JS9=Job Satisfaction –The Chance to Do Things for Other People

Figure E3

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS8, JS7-JS8, and JS19-JS8 With Regression Line

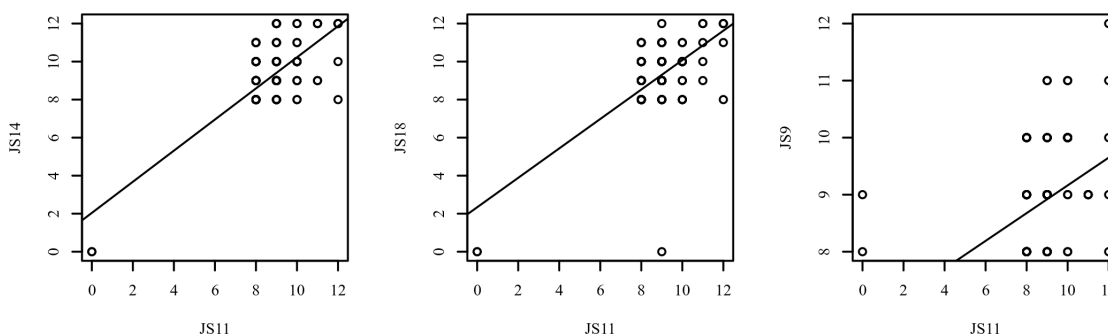


JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS8=Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides for Steady Employment
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E4

Scatterplots Between Variables J14-JS11, JS18-JS11, and JS9-JS11 With Regression Line

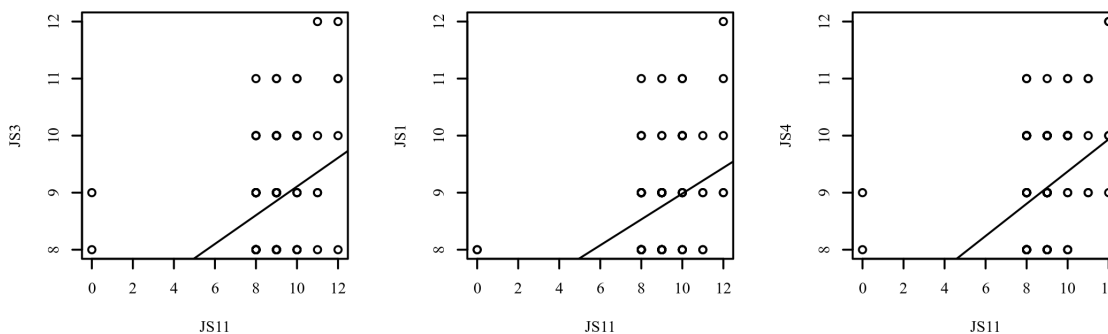
Line



JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS11=Job Satisfaction –The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

Figure E5

Scatterplots Between Variables JS3-JS11, JS1-JS11, and JS4-JS11 With Regression Line

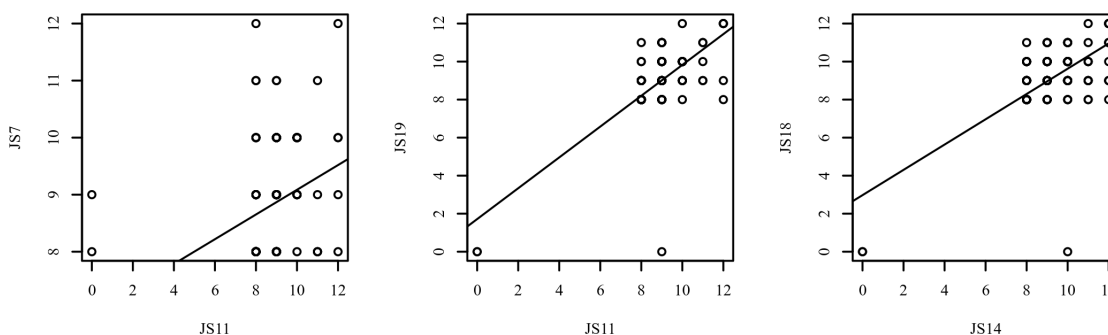


JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS11=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities

Figure E6

Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS11, JS19-JS11, and JS18-JS14 With Regression Line

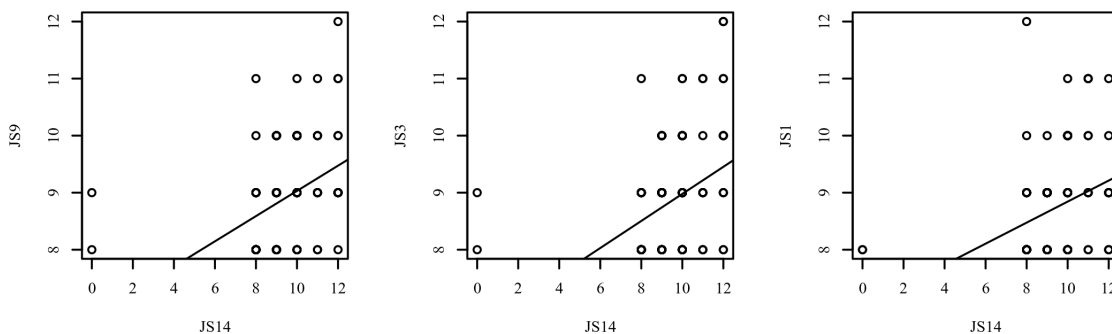
Line



JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS11=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E7

Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS14, JS3-JS14, and JS1-JS14 With Regression Line

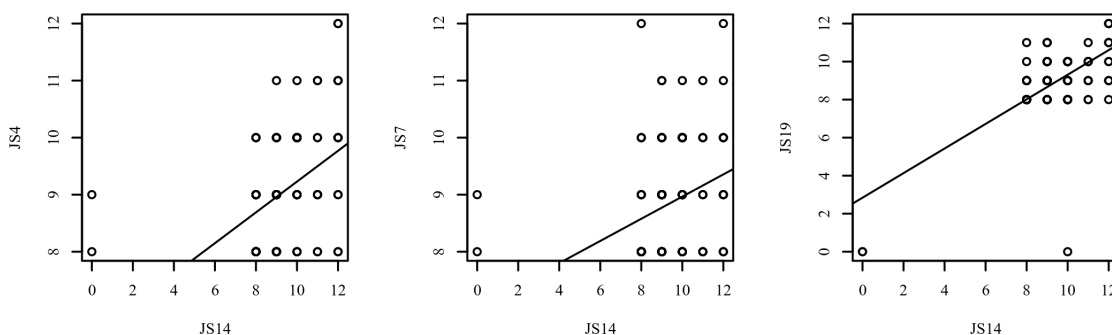


JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job

Figure E8

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS14, JS7-JS14, and JS19-JS14 With Regression Line

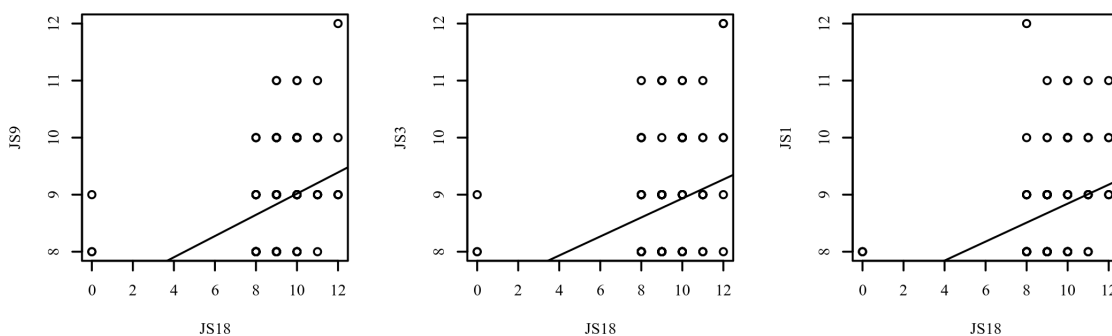
Line



JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E9

Scatterplots Between Variables JS9-JS18, JS3-JS18, and JS1-JS18 With Regression Line

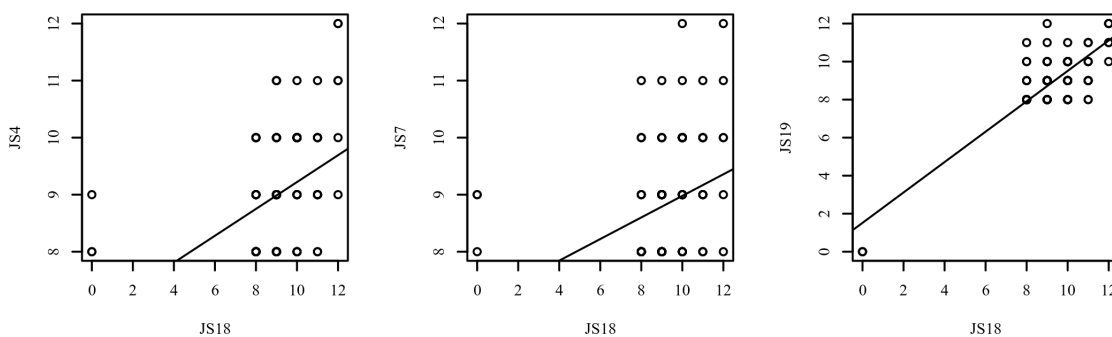


JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

Figure E10

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS18, JS7-JS18, and JS19-JS18 With Regression Line

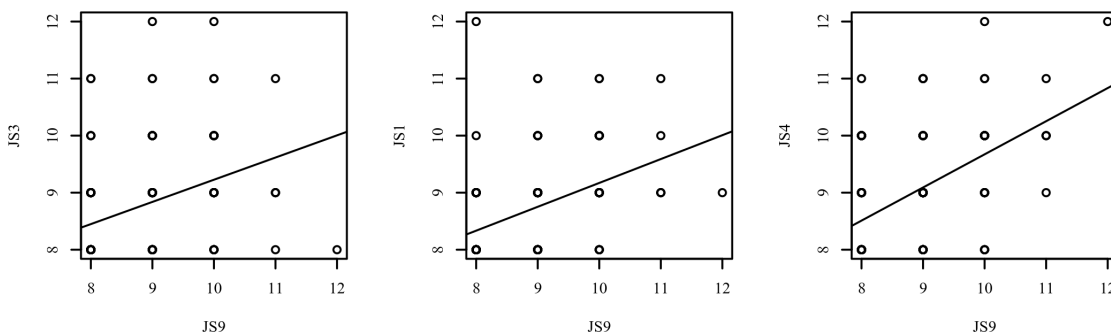
Line



JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E11

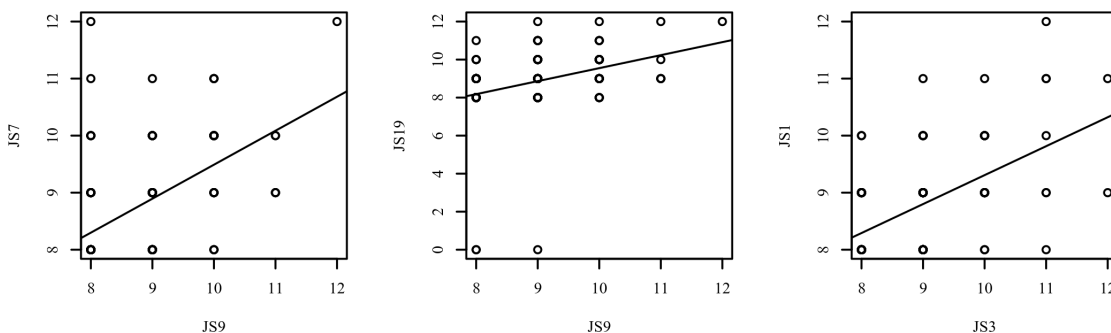
Scatterplots Between Variables JS3-JS9, JS1-JS9, and JS4-JS9 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People

Figure E12

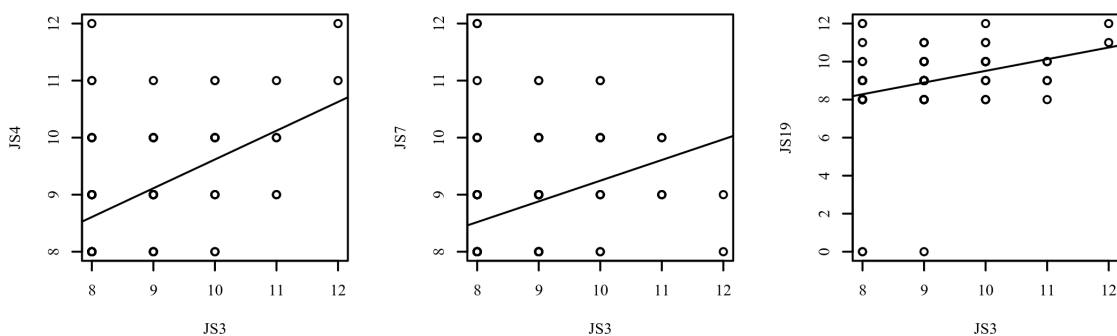
Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS9, JS19-JS9, and JS1-JS3 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E13

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS3, JS7-JS3, and JS19-JS3 With Regression Line



JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time

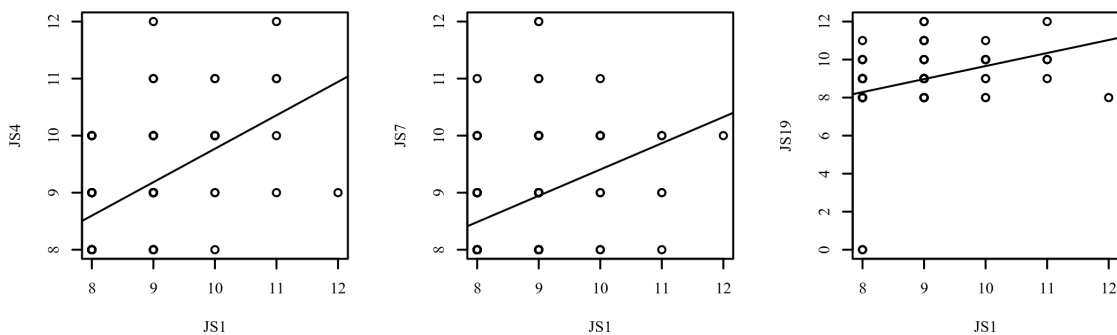
JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community

JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E14

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS1, JS7-JS1, and JS19-JS1 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time

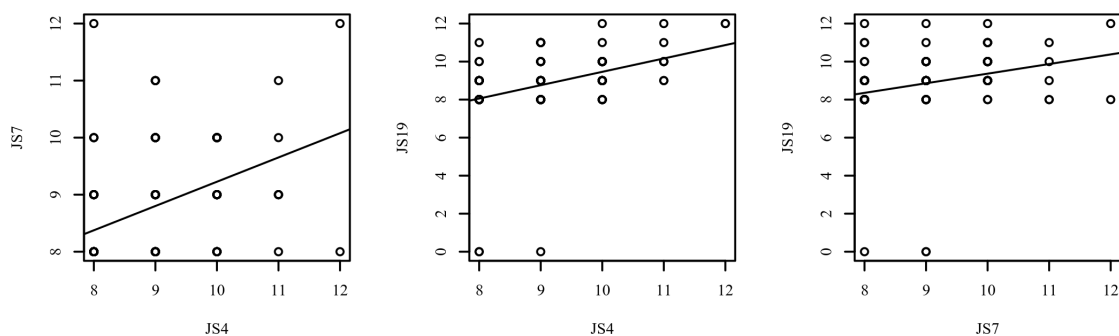
JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community

JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure E15

Scatterplots Between Variables JS7-JS4, JS19-JS4, and JS19-JS7 With Regression Line



JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community

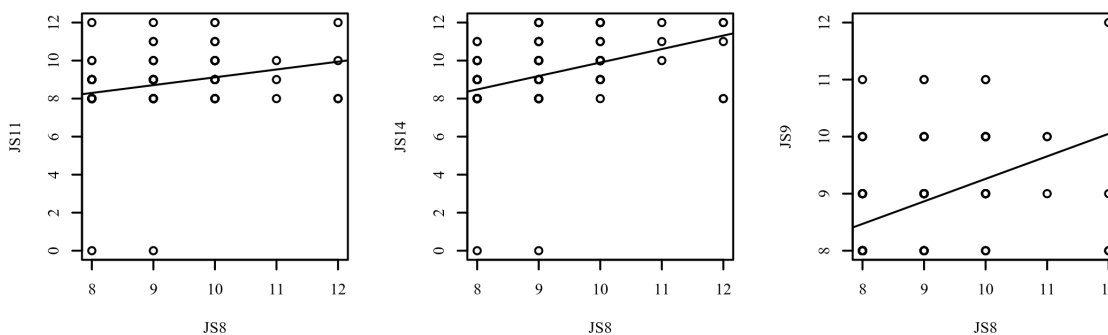
JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Appendix F: Figures From Spearman Correlation

Figure F1

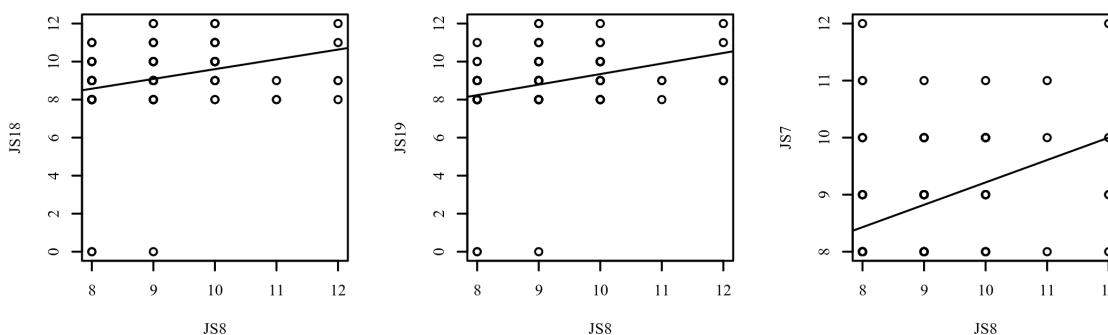
Scatterplots Between Variables JS11-JS8, JS14-JS8, and JS9-JS8 With Regression Line



JS8=Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides for Steady Employment
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS11=Job Satisfaction –The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job

Figure F2

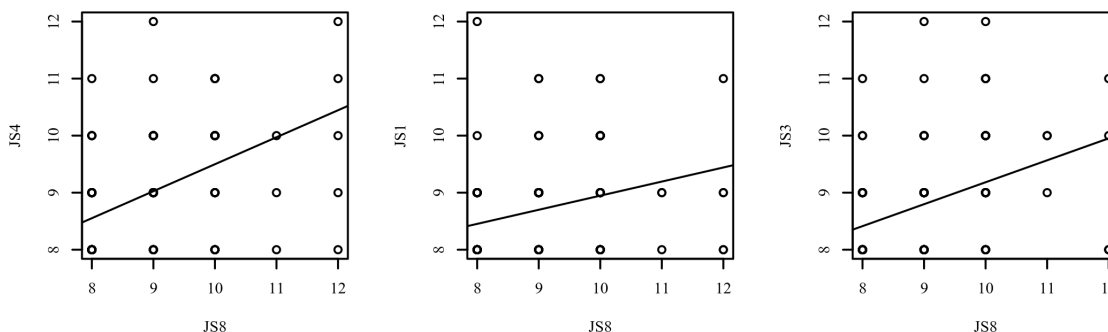
Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS8, JS19-JS8, and JS7-JS8 With Regression Line



JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don't Go Against My Conscience
 JS8=Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides for Steady Employment
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F3

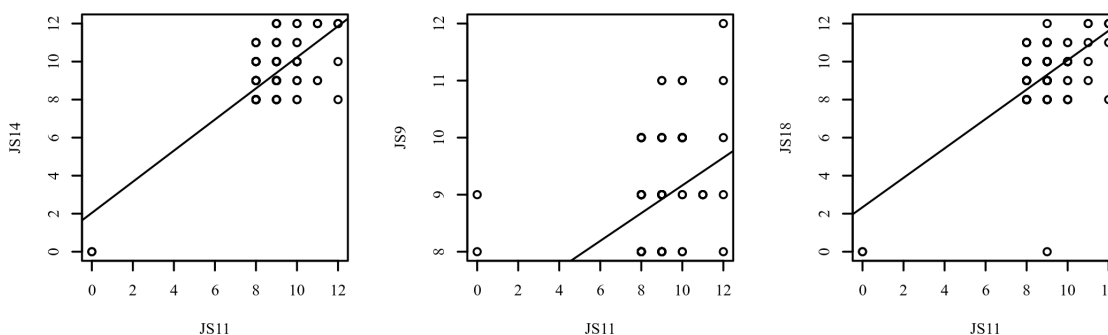
Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS8, JS1-JS8, and JS3-JS8 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS8=Job Satisfaction – The Way My Job Provides for Steady Employment

Figure F4

Scatterplots Between Variables JS14-JS11, JS9-JS11, and JS-18-JS11 With Regression Line

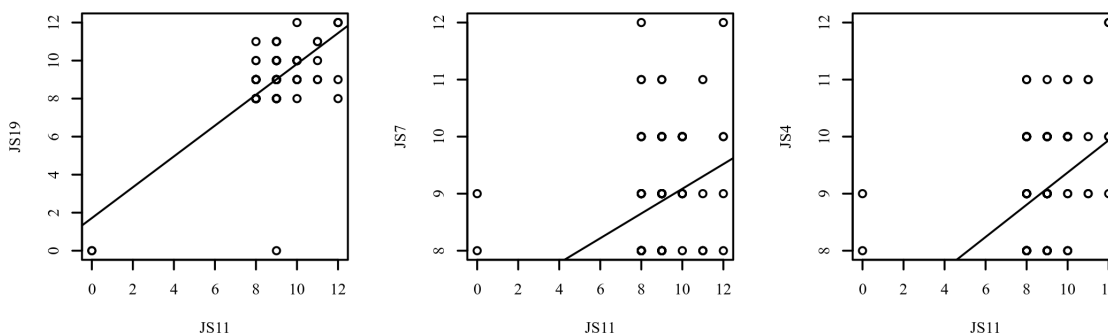


JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS11=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

Figure F5

Scatterplots Between Variables JS19-JS11, JS7-JS11, and JS4-JS11 With Regression

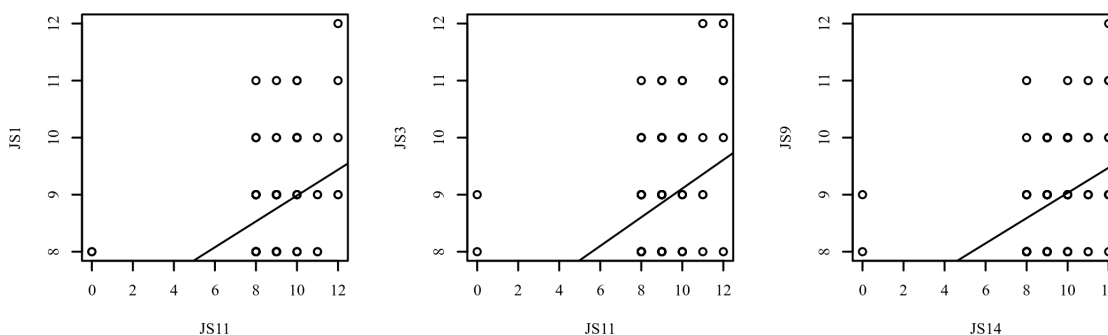
Line



JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS11=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F6

Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS11, JS3-JS11, and JS9-JS14 With Regression Line

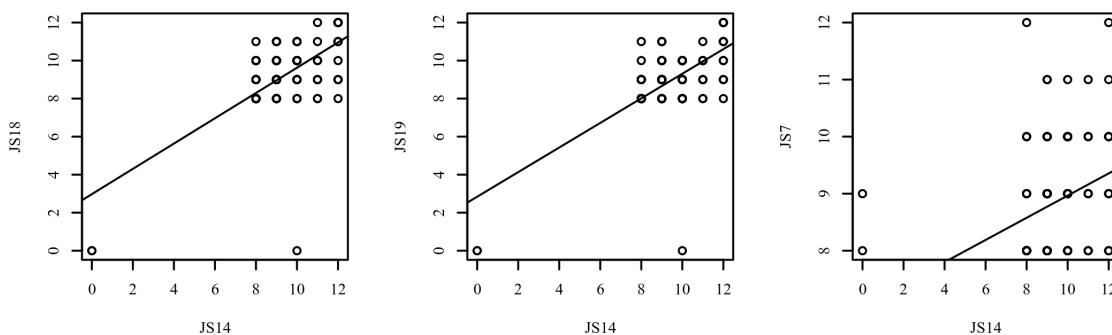


JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS11=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Something That Makes Use of My Abilities
 JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job

Figure F7

Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS14, JS19-JS14, and JS7-JS14 With Regression

Line



JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

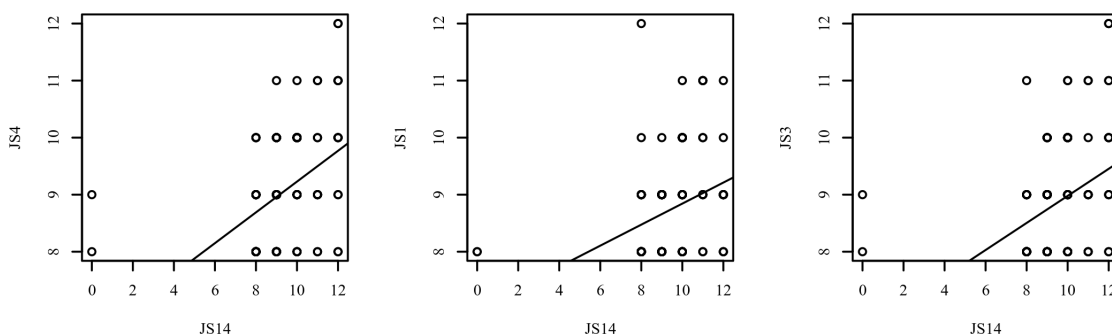
JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job

JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F8

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS14, JS1-JS14, and JS3-JS14 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time

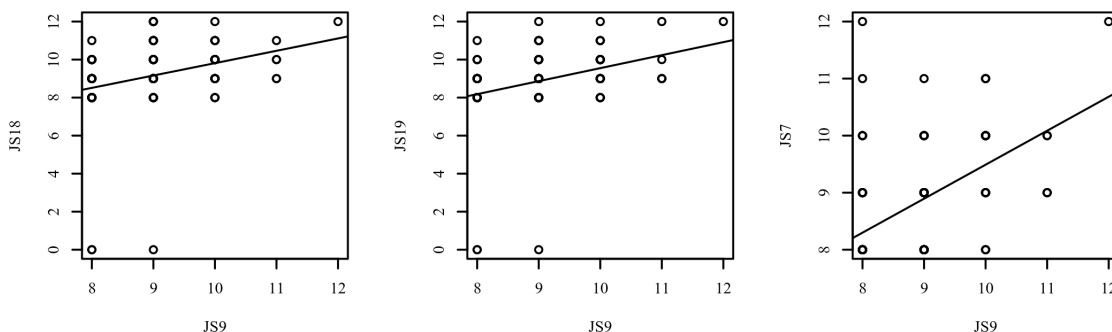
JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time

JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community

JS14=Job Satisfaction – The Chance for Advancement on This Job

Figure F9

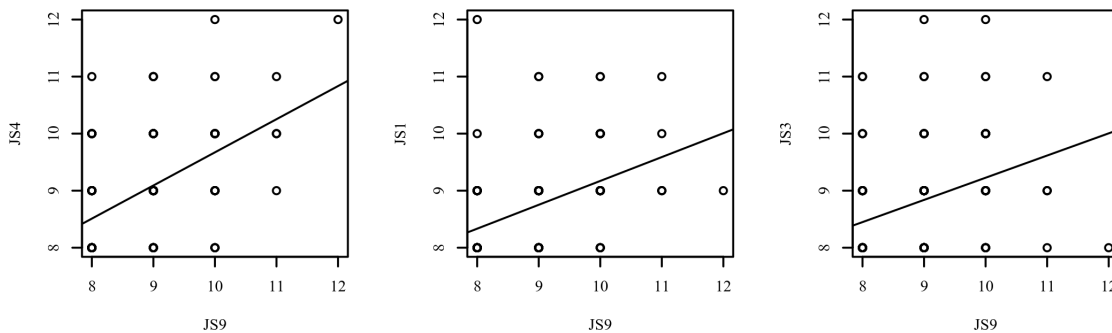
Scatterplots Between Variables JS18-JS9, JS19-JS9, and JS7-JS9 With Regression Line



JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People
 JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F10

Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS9, JS1-JS9, and JS3-JS9 With Regression Line

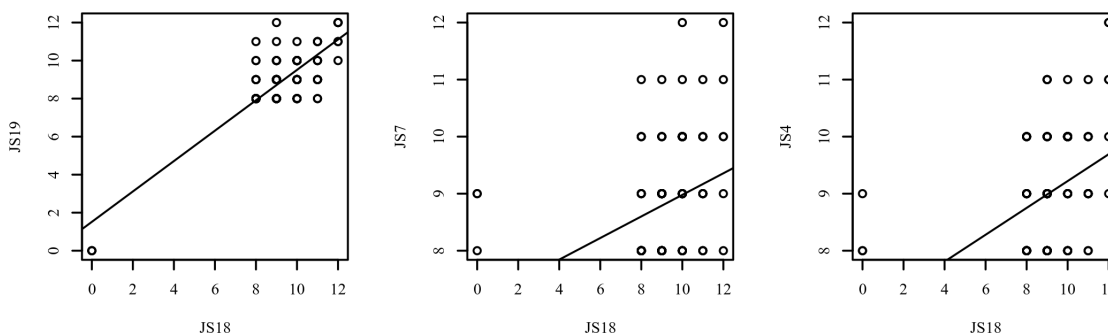


JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS9=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Things for Other People

Figure F11

Scatterplots Between Variables JS19-JS18, JS7-JS18, and JS4-JS18 With Regression

Line



JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community

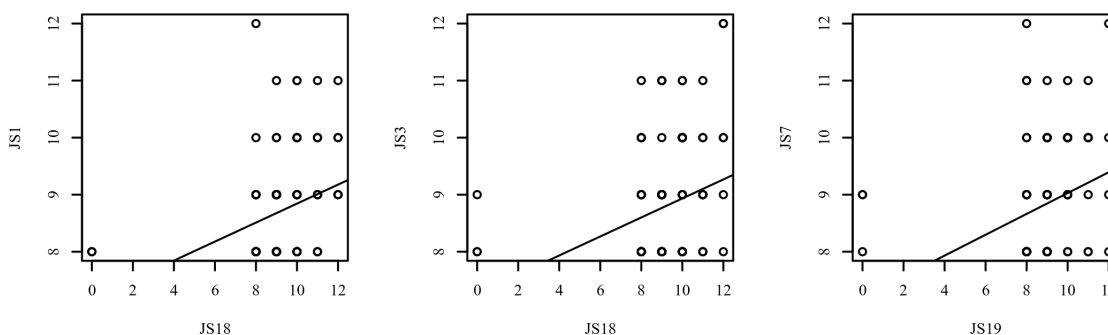
JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F12

Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS18, JS3-JS18, and JS7-JS19 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time

JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time

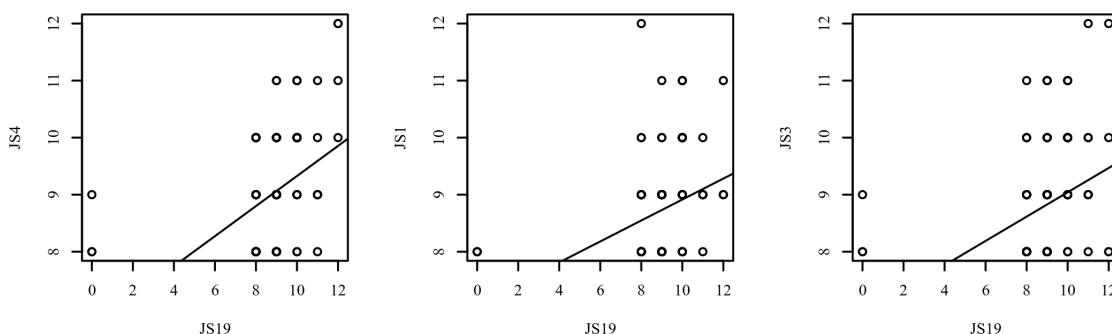
JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

JS18=Job Satisfaction – The Praise I Get for Doing a Good Job

JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F13

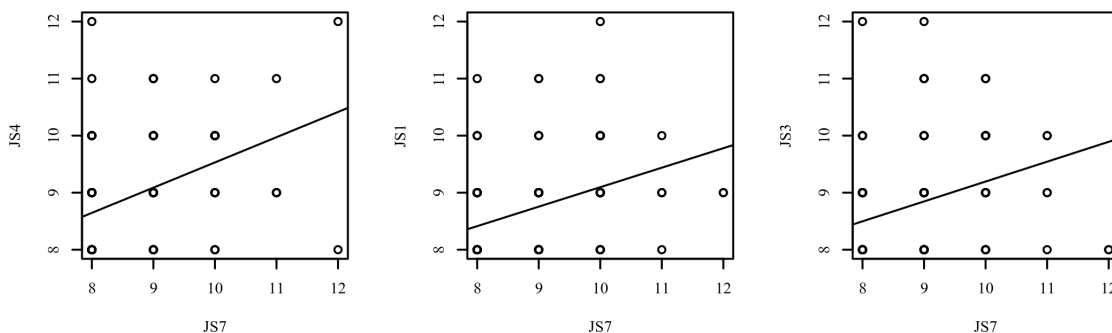
Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS19, JS1-JS19, and JS3-JS19 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS19=Job Satisfaction – The Feeling of Accomplishment I Get from the Job

Figure F14

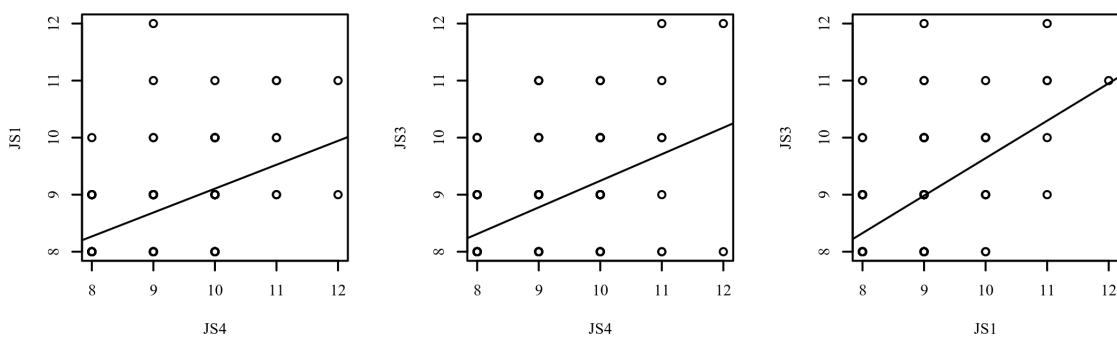
Scatterplots Between Variables JS4-JS7, JS1-JS7, and JS3-JS7 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time
 JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time
 JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to be “Somebody” in the Community
 JS7=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Do Things That Don’t Go Against My Conscience

Figure F15

Scatterplots Between Variables JS1-JS4, JS3-JS4, and JS3-JS1 With Regression Line



JS1=Job Satisfaction – Being Able to Keep Busy All the Time

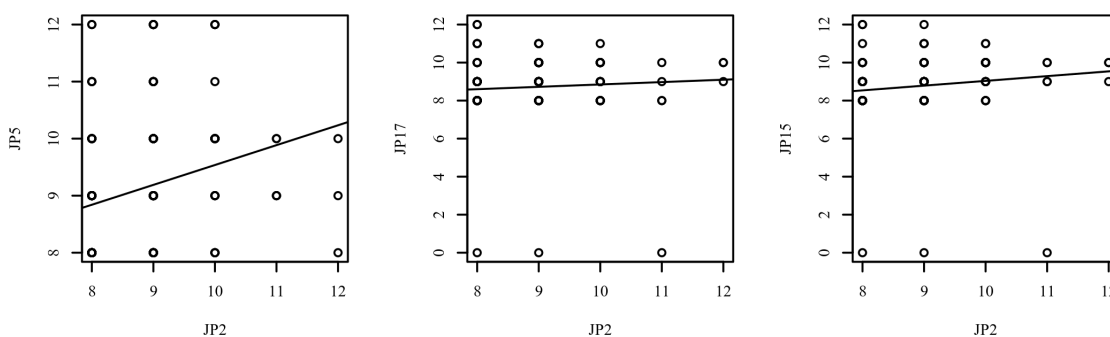
JS3=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Do Different Things from Time to Time

JS4=Job Satisfaction – The Chance to Be “Somebody” in the Community

Appendix G: Figures From Pearson Correlation

Figure G1

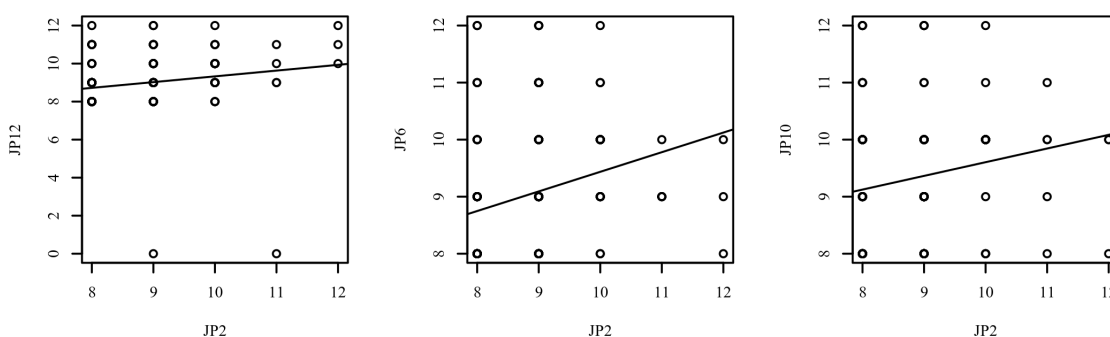
Scatterplots Between Variables JP5-JP2, JP17-JP2, and JP15-JP2 With Regression Line



JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure G2

Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP2, JP6-JP2, and JP10-JP2 With Regression Line

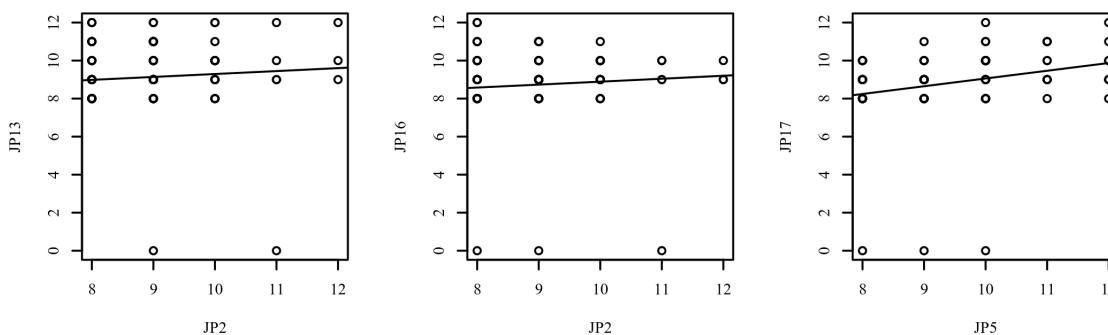


JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice

Figure G3

Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP2, JP16-JP2, and JP17-JP5 With Regression

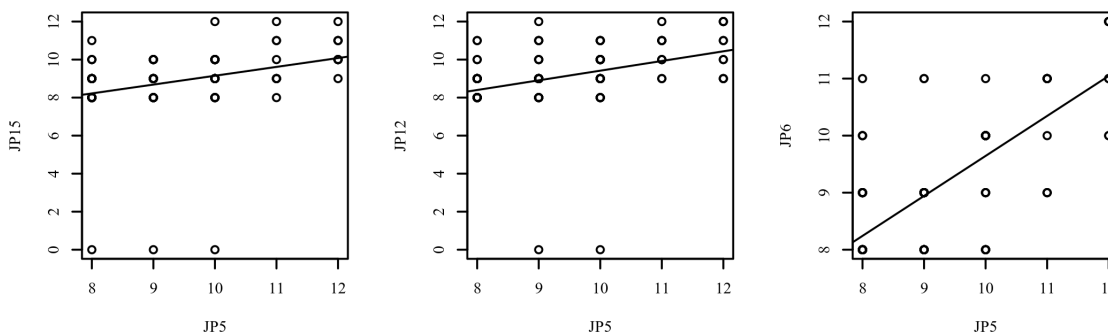
Line



JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure G4

Scatterplots Between Variables JP15-JP5, JP12-JP5, and JP6-JP5 With Regression Line

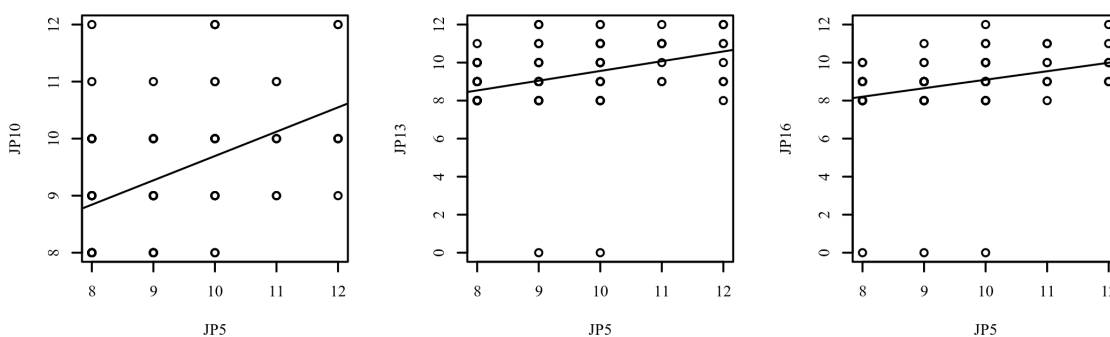


JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

Figure G5

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP5, JP13-JP5, and JP16-JP5 With Regression

Line



JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers

JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do

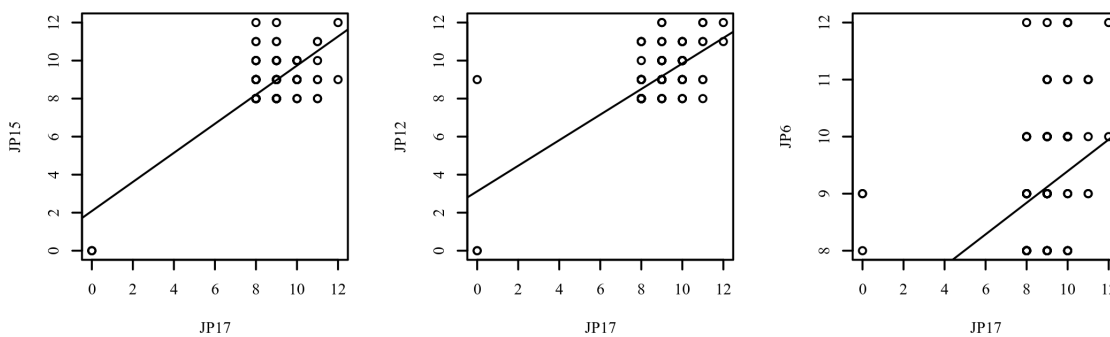
JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do

JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure G6

Scatterplots Between Variables JP15-JP17, JP12-JP17, and JP6-JP17 With Regression

Line



JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions

JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice

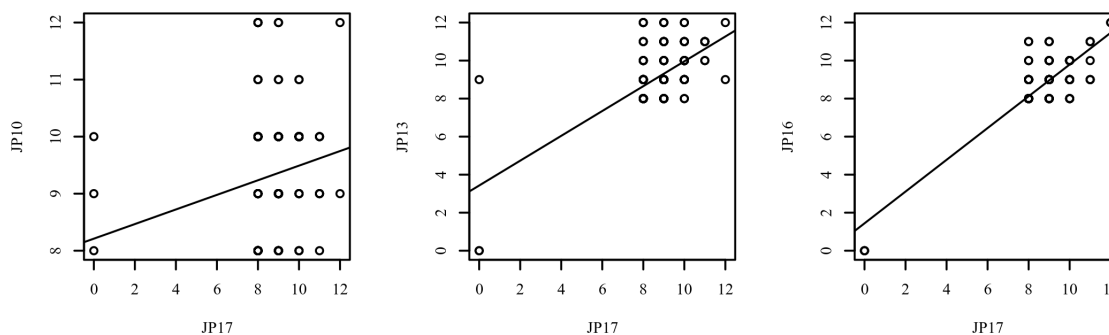
JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure G7

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP17, JP13-JP17, and JP16-JP17 With Regression

Line

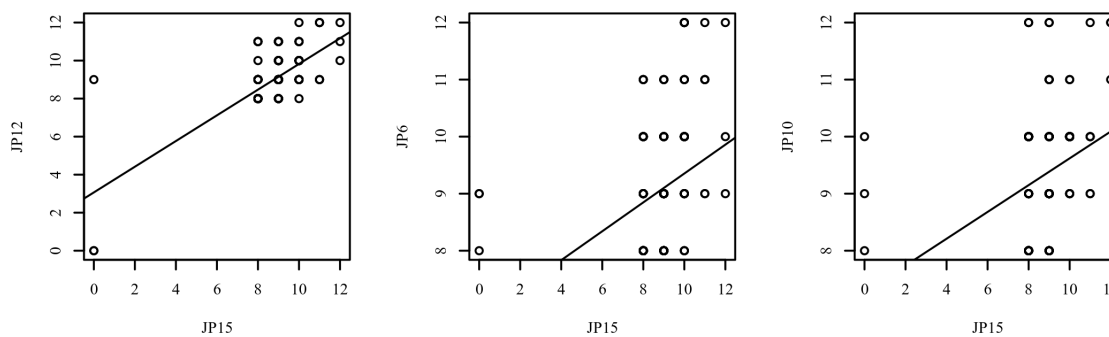


JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure G8

Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP15, JP6-JP15, and JP10-JP15 With Regression

Line

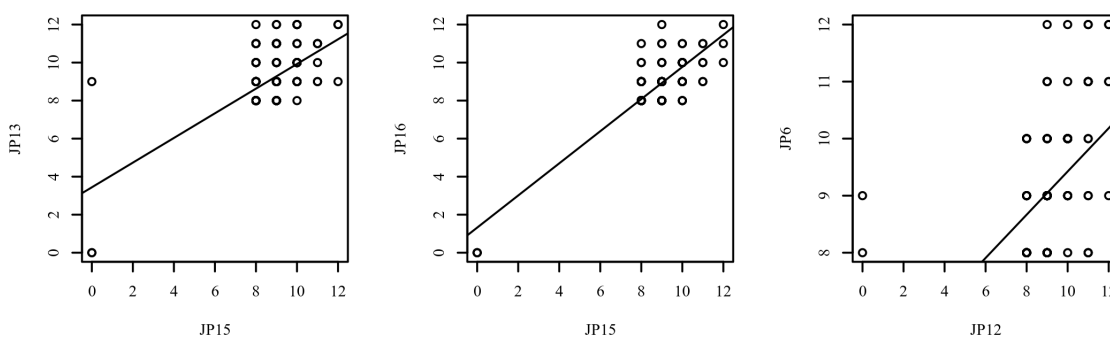


JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

Figure G9

Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP15, JP16-JP15, and JP6-JP12 With Regression

Line

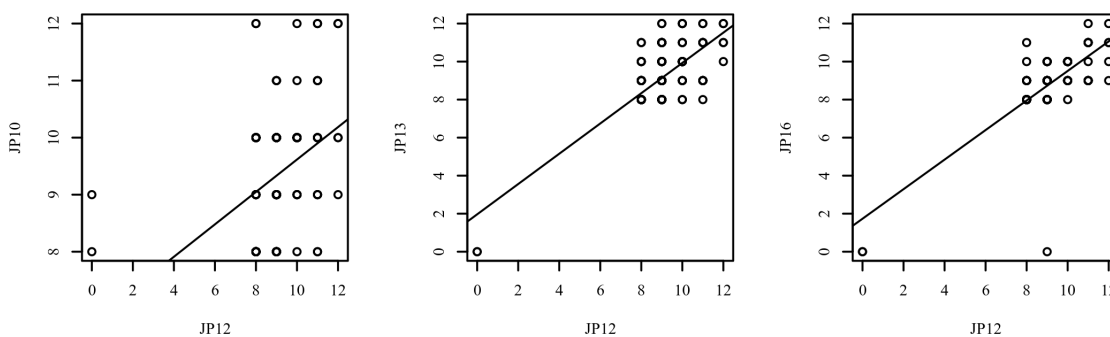


JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure G10

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP12, JP3-JP12, and JP16-JP12 With Regression

Line

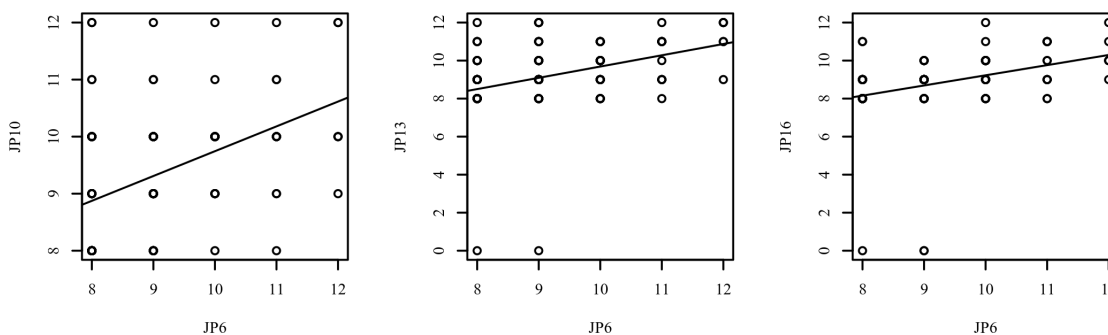


JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure G11

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP6, JP13-JP6, and JP16-JP6 With Regression

Line



JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions

JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do

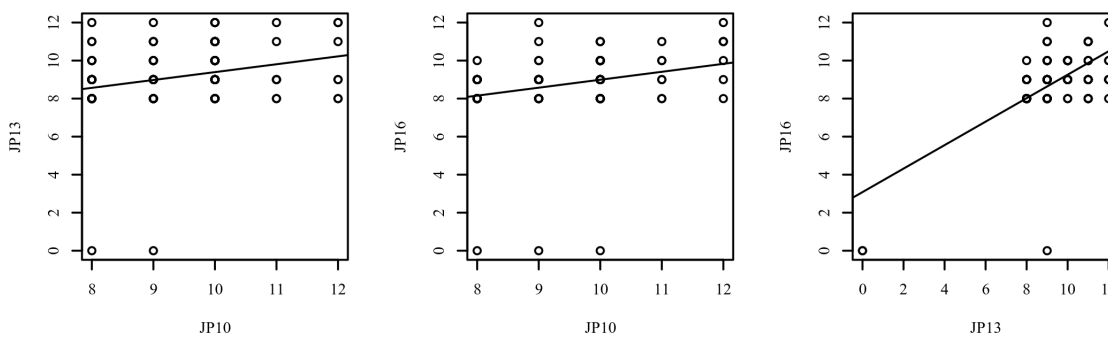
JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do

JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure G12

Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP10, JP16-JP10, and JP16-JP13 With Regression

Line



JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do

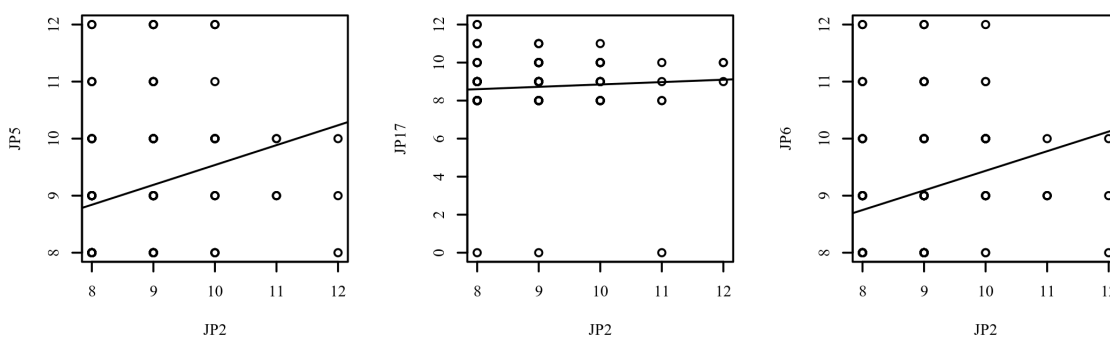
JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do

JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Appendix H: Figures From Spearman Correlation

Figure H1

Scatterplots Between Variables JP5-JP2, JP17-JP2, and JP6-JP2 With Regression Line

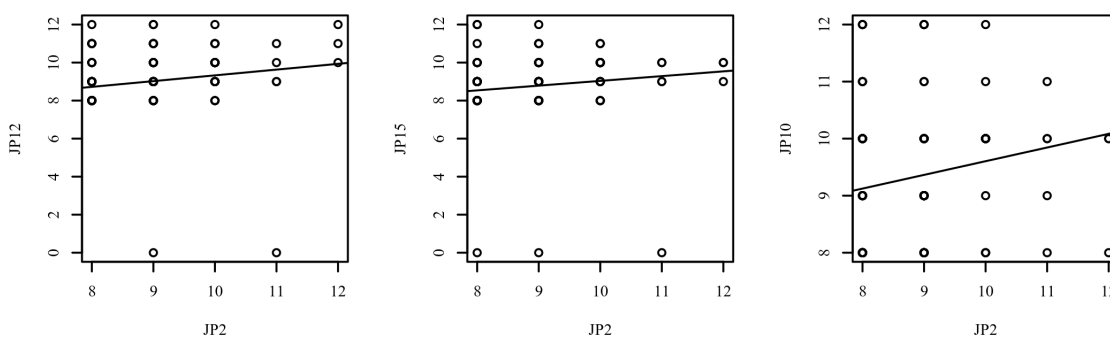


JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure H2

Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP2, JP15-JP2, and JP10-JP2 With Regression Line

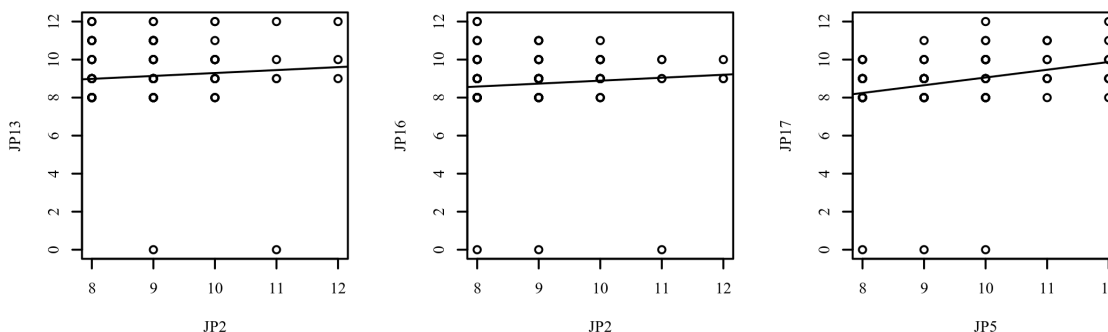
Line



JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

Figure H3

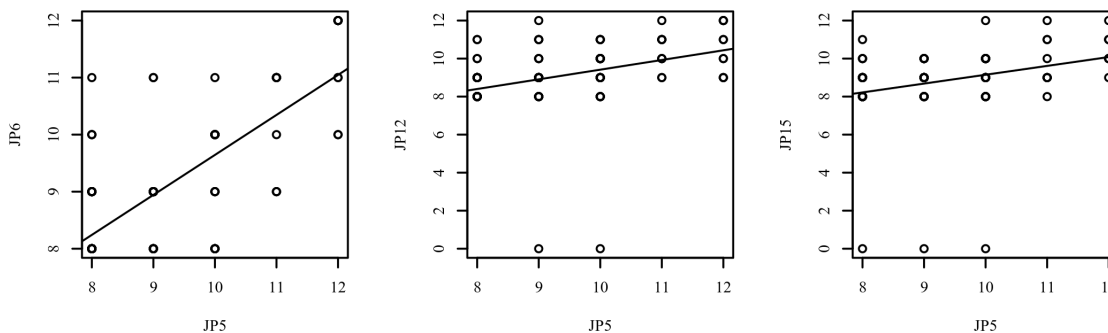
Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP2, JP16-JP2, JP17-JP5 With Regression Line



JP2=Job Performance – The Chance to Work Alone on the Job
 JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure H4

Scatterplots Between Variables JP6-JP5, JP12-JP5, and JP15-JP5 With Regression Line

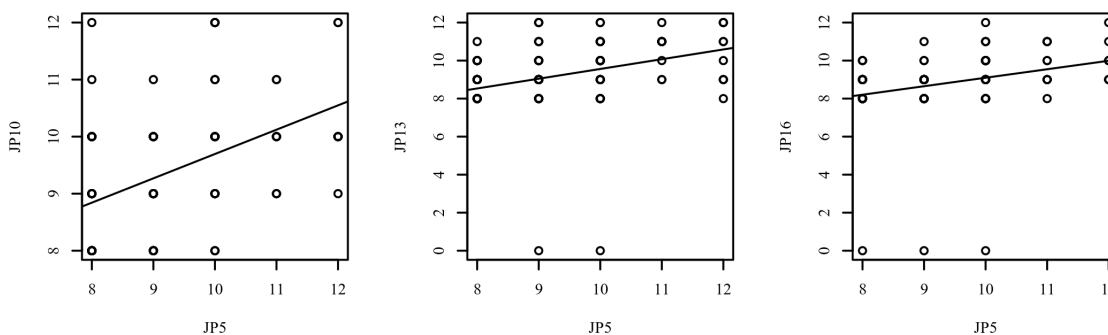


JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers
 JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

Figure H5

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP5, JP13-JP5, and JP16-JP5 With Regression

Line



JP5=Job Performance – The Way My Boss Handles His/Her Workers

JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do

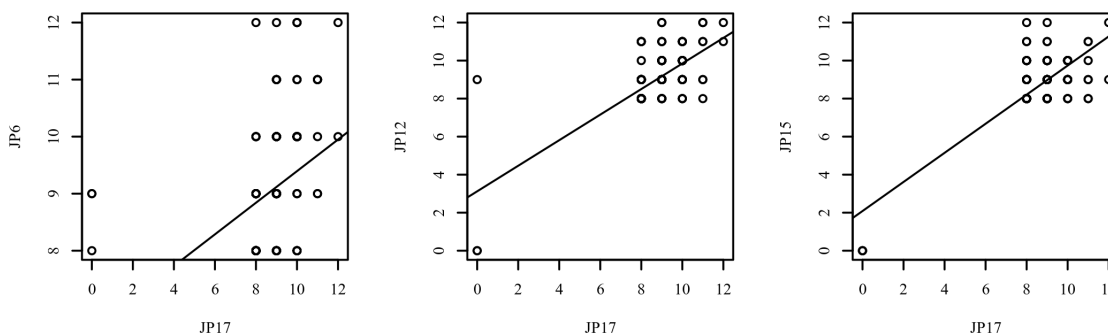
JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do

JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure H6

Scatterplots Between Variables JP6-JP17, JP12-JP17, and JP15-JP17 With Regression

Line



JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions

JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice

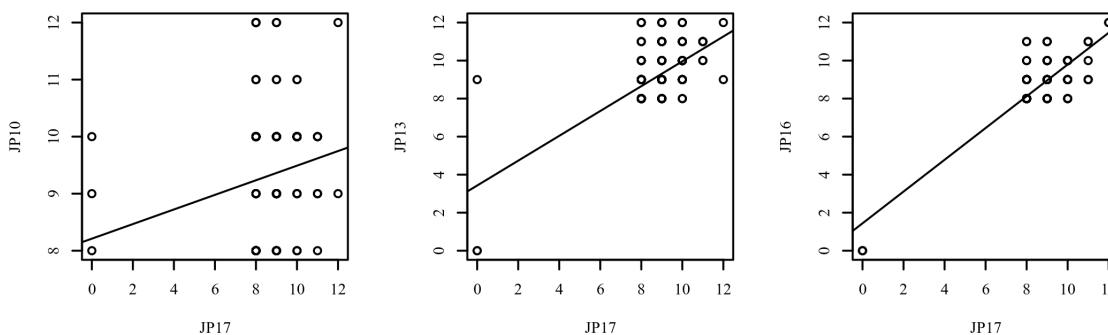
JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure H7

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP17, JP13-JP17, and JP16-JP17 With Regression

Line

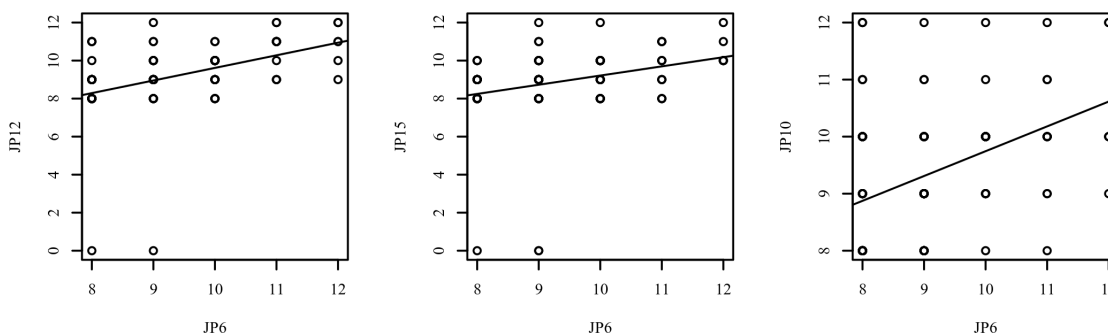


JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions
 JP17=Job Performance – The Way My Co-Workers Get Along with Each Other

Figure H8

Scatterplots Between Variables JP12-JP6, JP15-JP6, and JP10-JP6 With Regression

Line

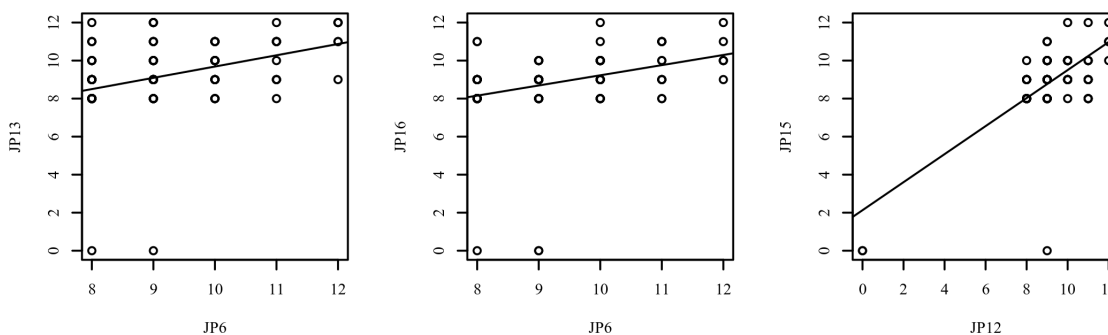


JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job

Figure H9

Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP6, JP16-JP6, and JP15-JP12 With Regression

Line

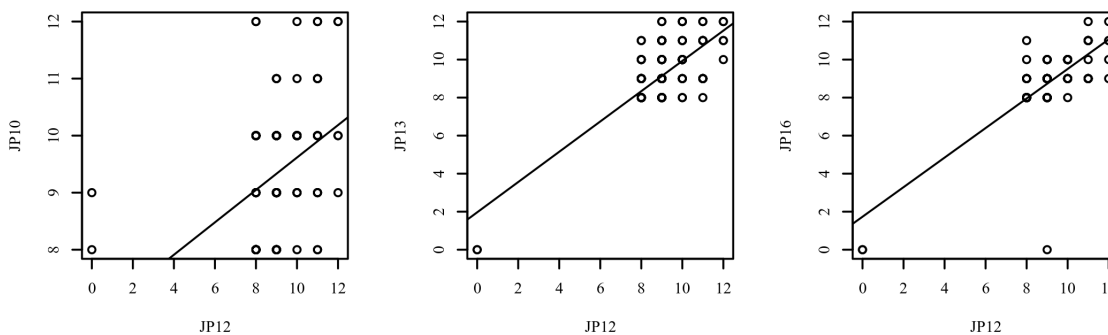


JP6=Job Performance – The Competence of My Supervisor in Making Decisions
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure H10

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP12, JP13-JP12, and JP16-JP12 With Regression

Line

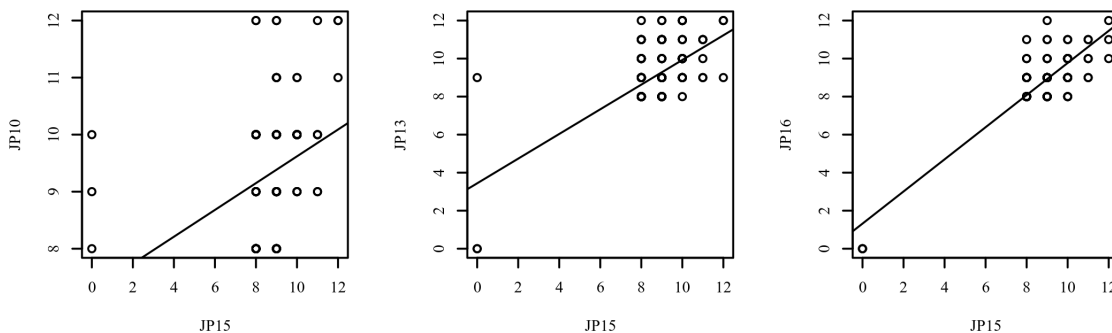


JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP12=Job Performance – The Way Company Policies are Put into Practice
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure H11

Scatterplots Between Variables JP10-JP15, JP13-JP15, and JP16-JP15 With Regression

Line

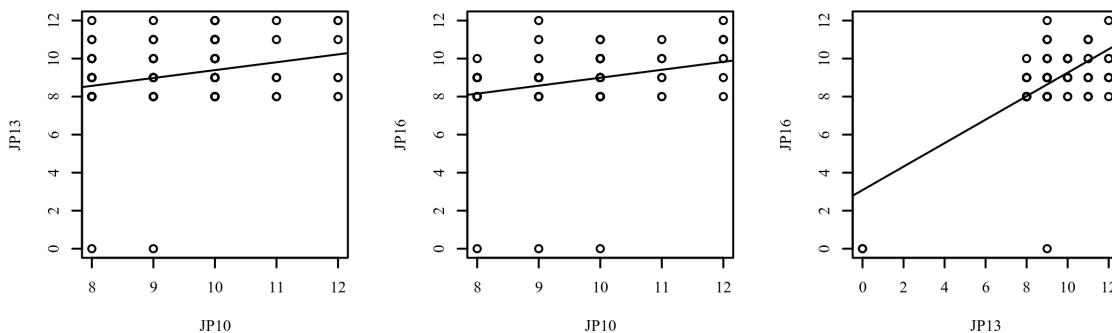


JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP15=Job Performance – The Chance to Try My Own Methods of Doing the Job
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions

Figure H12

Scatterplots Between Variables JP13-JP10, JP16-JP10, and JP16-JP13 With Regression

Line



JP10=Job Performance – The Chance to Tell People What to Do
 JP13=Job Performance – My Pay and the Amount of Work That I Do
 JP16=Job Performance – The Working Conditions