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Leadership, Motivation, And Work Environment As Predictors Of Employee Performance At An Indonesian Poultry Firm

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Abstract

This study examines the relationships between leadership, work motivation, the work environment and employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki, an Indonesian poultry enterprise. The analysis uses an archival questionnaire dataset comprising all 30 employees and a regression output documented in 2019; the questionnaire invitation is dated June 2018, and the precise fieldwork dates remain unverified. The reported multiple regression indicates positive conditional associations for leadership ($B = 0.106$, $p = 0.019$), work motivation ($B = 0.337$, $p < 0.001$) and the work environment ($B = 0.538$, $p < 0.001$). The joint model is statistically significant, $F(3, 26) = 124.016$, $p < 0.001$ ($R^2 = 0.935$). Construct-specific Cronbach's alpha coefficients recalculated from the archived responses range from 0.753 to 0.945. The leadership association becomes non-significant in an exploratory sensitivity analysis excluding one highly influential observation. The findings provide context-specific historical evidence rather than causal estimates. The small, single-firm sample, overlapping item-response patterns and uncertain fieldwork dates restrict generalisation. Further multi-firm research should use documented measurement procedures and independently recorded performance outcomes.

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Keywords: leadership; work motivation; work environment; employee performance; poultry enterprise.

INTRODUCTION

Employee performance is an operational concern in labour-intensive production settings, where coordination, task completion, and everyday working conditions affect operational continuity. In poultry operations, even small firms depend on reliable employees to carry out feeding, maintenance, record-keeping, and related tasks. The original 2019 study at PT Prima Rezeki described missed deadlines, late attendance, inadequate equipment handling, and difficulties completing assigned tasks as managerial concerns. These observations provide the case-specific background to the research; they are not independent measures of employee performance.

The leadership–performance relationship has been discussed across organisational settings, yet findings vary by leadership style and context. A systematic review by Bonini et al. (2024) addresses leadership and adaptive performance, whereas Pizzolitto et al. (2023) identify mixed evidence for authoritarian leadership. More recent studies examine emotional, differential and transformational leadership in distinct contexts (S.-T. Chen & Haga, 2022; Wan et al., 2022; Zhang, 2026). Together, these studies highlight the importance of distinguishing leadership constructs rather than assuming that all leadership measures have equivalent associations with performance.

Motivation is another prominent performance-related factor. A longitudinal meta-analysis by Wang et al. (2024) reported a positive association between earlier work motivation and subsequent job performance, while a meta-analysis by Chen et al. (2023) examined the mechanisms underlying pay-for-performance arrangements. However, such evidence does not permit causal interpretation of any one-time organisational survey. Working conditions also warrant attention: Oyedeji et al. (2025) review research on physical work environments, and Zhenjing et al. (2022) examine performance-related mediating pathways.

Comparison with empirical studies is particularly important because their findings are not uniformly consistent. Abidin and Budiono (2023) reported a non-significant partial association for motivation in an agribusiness-related company, while Palit and Wahyuningtyas (2025) reported a non-significant association for leadership in a public agency. Lumantow et al. (2024) similarly reported a non-significant association for the work environment. By contrast, Patanduk et al.

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(2025), Sianturi and Indiyati (2025), and Safari and Wahyudi (2023) examined models incorporating leadership, motivation, and the work environment in other organisations.

This paper reports the 2019 cross-sectional evidence from PT Prima Rezeki and interprets its findings in the light of subsequently published research. Its contribution is therefore contextual and comparative: it presents evidence from one Indonesian poultry enterprise and compares the pattern of associations across its three predictors with findings from other organisational settings. The analysis explicitly identifies the survey as historical and makes no claim to have collected new data or re-estimated the regression model. The research objective is to assess the statistical associations of leadership, work motivation and the work environment with employee performance, both separately and jointly.

The original investigation was conducted in the working environment of a single livestock-production company. The managerial observations concerned late attendance, poor care of equipment, unfinished tasks, and inconsistent fulfilment of job responsibilities. These reports provide context for the research question but were not available as separately analysed administrative records. Consequently, they should not be interpreted as evidence of a change in employee performance over time. The empirical performance outcome in this article is the survey measure described by the original authors.

It is important to distinguish the evidence collected in 2019 from the literature used to interpret it in the present manuscript. Studies published between 2021 and 2026 are used here for retrospective comparison and to identify how the findings might be interpreted today; they were not available when the original survey was conducted. The analysis, variables, sample and numerical outputs remain those reported in the source manuscript.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Leadership and employee performance. Leadership may shape task direction, communication, and work coordination. Bonini et al. (2024) present a systematic review of the relationship between leadership and adaptive performance, an outcome related to but distinct from routine task performance. Pizzolitto et al. (2023) demonstrate why leadership styles should be differentiated rather than assumed to be uniformly beneficial. Wan et al. (2022) study emotional leadership, Chen and Haga (2022) examine differential leadership, and Zhang (2026) considers affective commitment as a mediating mechanism. Yu and Jang (2024) study

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transformational leadership in teachers; their educational setting provides a useful conceptual comparison but is not directly equivalent to poultry production.

Evidence from Indonesian organisations is mixed. Zainal and Budiono (2025) report relationships among leadership, motivation, work environment and performance in a ministry; Musdalifa et al. (2025) study motivational mediation in a private firm; Nurfaisah et al. (2023) report non-significant results for leadership styles within a public works setting. Palit and Wahyuningtyas (2025) also report a non-significant partial association for leadership. These differences support examining the leadership–performance relationship in the specific organisational context rather than presuming a uniform association. H1: Leadership is positively associated with employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki.

Work motivation and employee performance. Motivation may shape the intensity, persistence, and direction of work-related effort. Wang et al. (2024) use cross-lagged evidence to examine temporal ordering, while Chen et al. (2023) evaluate pay-for-performance pathways. Tjahyana and Yuliadi (2023), Rahmadhon et al. (2024), and Iis et al. (2024) evaluate motivation in organisational performance models that differ in their control variables, mediators, and sectoral contexts. Dafazario (2025) studies motivation in relation to job satisfaction, not employee performance; it therefore informs an adjacent construct rather than providing direct evidence for H2.

Other empirical findings are less consistent. Abidin and Budiono (2023) report a non-significant partial association for motivation in their regression model, whereas Lumantow et al. (2024) document a significant positive association for motivation. The differences suggest that estimated relationships may vary by organisational context and model specification. H2: Work motivation is positively associated with employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki.

Work environment and employee performance. The work environment includes the conditions in which employees carry out their tasks, although physical and psychosocial dimensions must not be conflated. Oyedeji et al. (2025) focus on the physical work environment; Zhenjing et al. (2022) examine a model involving multiple mediators; Nusraningrum et al. (2024) study green work environments and engagement in a Jakarta logistics setting. Silalahi and Hermiati (2023) examine non-physical working conditions and the mediating role of job satisfaction. Haryono et al. (2026) evaluate the work environment alongside other organisational factors in a forestry enterprise.

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Results from other sectors are similarly mixed. Dewi et al. (2024) and Harianto et al. (2025) report positive associations between working conditions and performance in hospitality settings, whereas Lumantow et al. (2024) report no significant partial association in a pawnshop setting. Anggara et al. (2025) report a negative work-environment coefficient in a restaurant-sector business, Karen Chicken Yogyakarta; that organisation is not a layer-poultry farm. Hutapea and Assa (2025) examine motivation as a moderator of the relationships between leadership, the work environment, and performance, which differs from treating motivation as a direct independent predictor. H3: The work environment is positively associated with employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki.

Integrated model and production context. Asdar et al. (2025) study three related predictors among employees of an agricultural quarantine centre, and Alisah and Hasan (2024) examine working conditions and motivation among agricultural training personnel. Wicaksono et al. (2023) examine motivation, compensation, work environment, job satisfaction and harvest-worker performance in an oil-palm enterprise, providing an agribusiness comparison with a different model specification. Affandi and Azizah (2025) provide the closest available comparison in a similar production setting: their study examines 20 employees at a laying-hen farm, although its independent variables concern discipline, loyalty and work ability rather than the three predictors of the present study. These studies underscore the need for caution when generalising findings across industries. H4: Leadership, work motivation and the work environment are jointly associated with employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki.

Although the variables are frequently analysed together, the partial hypotheses should be distinguished from the joint F test. The first three hypotheses concern estimated partial relationships after accounting for the other variables in the regression; the fourth concerns the null hypothesis that all three coefficients are jointly zero. Rejecting a joint null hypothesis does not independently demonstrate a causal effect or imply that the predictors are equally important in substantive terms.

RESEARCH METHOD

The original work, documented in 2019, describes a quantitative, cross-sectional survey at PT Prima Rezeki, an Indonesian poultry company. The authors reported a census (saturated sampling) of all 30 employees in the stated study population (n = 30). Data were collected using a five-point Likert-type questionnaire, with five reported indicators for each of the four

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constructs: leadership (X1), work motivation (X2), work environment (X3), and employee performance (Y). The original questionnaire is now available alongside the 30-response tabulation; the sources and adaptation of the measures still require author verification.

The original analysis was performed with IBM SPSS version 24 and reported corrected item–total correlations, reliability-related statistics, multicollinearity diagnostics, visual residual diagnostics, multiple linear regression, partial t tests, an omnibus F test, and coefficients of determination. The original 30-response tabulation and printed SPSS output are now available. Descriptive statistics were verified against the archived tabulation and SPSS output. Construct-level reliability and an exploratory influence sensitivity test were independently recalculated from those archival responses, while the original full-sample regression estimates remain the primary results.

The inferential model is $Y = \beta0 + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \beta3X3 + \varepsilon$. Given the cross-sectional design, the coefficients are interpreted as conditional associations rather than experimental effects. The publication status of the original 2019 work, institutional permissions, respondent consent, and any ethics review must be confirmed by the authors before submission. The current files do not establish those details. The questionnaire cover letter bears the date June 2018, whereas the surviving SPSS output documents processing in 2019. Accordingly, the exact survey administration period is not assumed to be 2019. No new respondents were recruited for this retrospective analysis. Data checks compared the 30 response rows, original composite totals and reproduced regression output. These checks identified three pairs with identical responses for all 30 cases (X1.1–X1.2, X2.1–X2.2 and X3.1–Y1.1), which warrant source-data verification rather than automatic alteration.

Setting and Measurement

The population identified in the 2019 source comprised employees of PT Prima Rezeki, a company operating in the poultry sector. The authors used saturated sampling and included all 30 members of that population. This provides complete coverage of the stated company-level population, but it does not establish representativeness across poultry enterprises or across later years. The research used a five-category questionnaire response format, reproduced in Table 1. The manuscript supplies five item codes for each of the four study variables, yielding 20 reported item codes in total.

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Table 1. Five-point questionnaire response scale in the archival study

Response category	Original code	Numeric score
Strongly disagree	STS	1
Disagree	TS	2
Somewhat agree / less agree	KS	3
Agree	S	4
Strongly agree	SS	5

Source: Research data processed (2019)

According to the original instrument summary, X1 is leadership, X2 is work motivation, X3 is the work environment and Y is employee performance. The original questionnaire now documents the five statements for each variable; composite scores are the sums of the five corresponding Likert items. The source and adaptation of the items, and construct-level reliability, still require separate verification. No additional indicators or approval details are inferred.

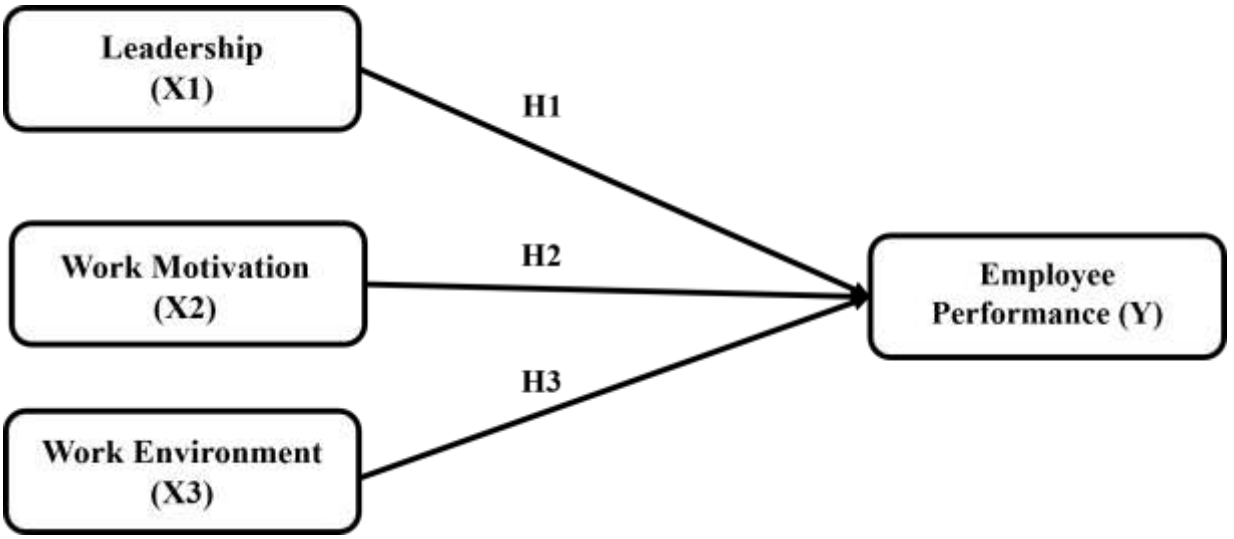


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the original four hypotheses

Analysis and Reporting

The 2019 manuscript describes corrected item–total correlation checks, alpha-related reliability tables, collinearity assessment using tolerance and variance inflation factors (VIF), graphical assessments of residuals, and ordinary least squares multiple regression. Separate

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partial t tests evaluated H1–H3, and an omnibus F test evaluated H4. The model specification was $Y = \beta0 + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \beta3X3 + \varepsilon$. The original inferential values are retained from the printed 2019 SPSS output; the descriptive statistics are verified against the 30-response tabulation and SPSS frequencies. The supplementary reliability analysis used the five archived item responses within each construct and the conventional Cronbach's alpha formula, with sample variances. The original SPSS reliability table analysed all 20 items together ($\alpha = 0.941$); its corrected item–total correlations and "alpha if item deleted" values therefore relate to the pooled item set. For influence analysis, Cook's distance was examined from the original regression, and the same OLS model was refitted without the single most influential observation solely as a diagnostic sensitivity check. All 30 observations remain in the primary results.

Several original reporting issues are handled transparently. Where the source narrative conflicts with the printed SPSS coefficient table, the table is used as the reporting reference; the two SPSS diagnostic plots are reproduced from the source; the original pooled 20-item statistics are retained in a clearly labelled table, while construct-specific internal consistency is reported separately from the archived responses. The printed SPSS value Sig. = 0.000 is reported in the text as $p < 0.001$ because it is a rounded software output rather than a probability of exactly zero. The original alpha-if-item-deleted values are historical pooled-scale output, not construct-level alpha estimates.

RESULTS

The original research involved 30 employees and employed a five-point questionnaire scale. The archived 30-response tabulation and original SPSS output now allow verified descriptive reporting at both the composite-score and item levels. The following tables present those descriptive statistics alongside the original measurement and regression results.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were examined to summarise the distribution of responses across the four study variables. Table 2 presents the observed minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations for leadership, work motivation, work environment, and employee performance, based on sums of five 1–5 Likert items per construct (theoretical range 5–25) for 30 respondents. Sample standard deviations are reported.

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Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the four construct composite scores (n = 30)

Construct	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Leadership (X1)	30	10	25	18.10	4.029
Work motivation (X2)	30	11	25	18.67	3.325
Work environment (X3)	30	13	24	18.33	3.133
Employee performance (Y)	30	13	24	19.30	2.938

Source: Research data processed (2019)

As shown in Table 2, employee performance recorded the highest mean composite score (19.30), followed by work motivation (18.67), work environment (18.33), and leadership (18.10). The standard deviations ranged from 2.938 to 4.029, indicating variation in respondents' composite scores. To provide a more detailed description of the responses, Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for all 20 questionnaire items.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for all 20 questionnaire items (n = 30)

Construct	Item	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Leadership	X1.1	30	2	5	3.57	0.935
Leadership	X1.2	30	2	5	3.57	0.935
Leadership	X1.3	30	2	5	3.60	0.932
Leadership	X1.4	30	2	5	3.67	0.844
Leadership	X1.5	30	2	5	3.70	0.794
Motivation	X2.1	30	1	5	3.47	0.937
Motivation	X2.2	30	1	5	3.47	0.937
Motivation	X2.3	30	2	5	3.73	0.785
Motivation	X2.4	30	2	5	3.93	0.785
Motivation	X2.5	30	3	5	4.07	0.640
Work environment	X3.1	30	3	5	4.23	0.626
Work environment	X3.2	30	2	5	3.17	0.986
Work environment	X3.3	30	2	5	3.50	0.861

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Construct	Item	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Work environment	X3.4	30	2	5	3.53	1.074
Work environment	X3.5	30	2	5	3.90	0.803
Performance	Y1.1	30	3	5	4.23	0.626
Performance	Y1.2	30	2	5	3.53	0.819
Performance	Y1.3	30	2	5	3.63	0.765
Performance	Y1.4	30	2	5	3.87	0.776
Performance	Y1.5	30	3	5	4.03	0.669

Source: Research data processed (2019)

Table 3 shows that all 20 questionnaire items were completed by 30 respondents. The highest item means were recorded for X3.1 and Y1.1 (4.23 each), while X3.2 had the lowest mean (3.17). The minimum and maximum are observed item responses, not the theoretical scale limits. These figures are descriptive and should not be interpreted as evidence of construct validity. The subsequent section presents the item validity and reported reliability results in Table 4.

Item Validity and Reported Reliability

Table 4 reproduces the archived SPSS item–total statistics for all 20 questionnaire items analysed as a single pooled scale (overall Cronbach's α = 0.941). Its corrected item–total correlations and item-deleted alpha coefficients are reported exactly as printed. The historical "Valid" and "Reliable" labels are retained solely to document the original classifications; they do not demonstrate construct-specific validity or reliability. Separate alpha estimates for leadership, motivation, work environment and performance are therefore reported in Table 5.

Table 4. Original 20-item pooled-scale item–total statistics and historical classifications

Construct	Indicator	Pooled item–total r	Original validity label	Alpha if item deleted	Original reliability label
Leadership (X1)	X1.1	0.637	Valid	0.939	Reliable
Leadership (X1)	X1.2	0.637	Valid	0.939	Reliable

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Construct	Indicator	Pooled item–total r	Original validity label	Alpha if item deleted	Original reliability label
Leadership (X1)	X1.3	0.638	Valid	0.939	Reliable
Leadership (X1)	X1.4	0.624	Valid	0.939	Reliable
Leadership (X1)	X1.5	0.696	Valid	0.938	Reliable
Motivation (X2)	X2.1	0.547	Valid	0.940	Reliable
Motivation (X2)	X2.2	0.547	Valid	0.940	Reliable
Motivation (X2)	X2.3	0.828	Valid	0.936	Reliable
Motivation (X2)	X2.4	0.822	Valid	0.936	Reliable
Motivation (X2)	X2.5	0.720	Valid	0.938	Reliable
Work env. (X3)	X3.1	0.391	Valid	0.942	Reliable
Work env. (X3)	X3.2	0.464	Valid	0.942	Reliable
Work env. (X3)	X3.3	0.713	Valid	0.937	Reliable
Work env. (X3)	X3.4	0.638	Valid	0.939	Reliable
Work env. (X3)	X3.5	0.579	Valid	0.940	Reliable
Performance (Y)	Y1.1	0.391	Valid	0.942	Reliable
Performance (Y)	Y1.2	0.863	Valid	0.935	Reliable
Performance (Y)	Y1.3	0.842	Valid	0.935	Reliable
Performance (Y)	Y1.4	0.824	Valid	0.936	Reliable
Performance (Y)	Y1.5	0.720	Valid	0.938	Reliable

Source: Research data processed (2019)

In the original pooled 20-item reliability procedure, corrected item–total correlations ranged from 0.624 to 0.696 for leadership (alpha if item deleted: 0.938–0.939), 0.547 to 0.828 for work motivation (0.936–0.940), 0.391 to 0.713 for the work environment (0.937–0.942), and 0.391 to 0.863 for employee performance (0.935–0.942). All exceeded the original 0.30 item-screening threshold, but the pooled-scale values neither validate the individual constructs nor establish their separate reliabilities. The construct-specific alpha estimates recalculated from the archived data are presented in Table 5.

The recovered questionnaire now makes an item-content review possible, but the measurement model has not been independently assessed for dimensionality or discriminant

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validity. The pooled 20-item correlations in the original report cannot substitute for such construct-level checks.

Table 5. Recalculated Cronbach's alpha for the four five-item constructs (n = 30)

Construct	Items	Cronbach's α
Leadership (X1)	5	0.945
Work motivation (X2)	5	0.866
Work environment (X3)	5	0.753
Employee performance (Y)	5	0.859

Source: Research data processed (2019)

Table 5 shows construct-specific alpha values of 0.945, 0.866, 0.753 and 0.859 for X1, X2, X3 and Y, respectively. All exceed 0.70, suggesting acceptable internal consistency under a conventional criterion. These results are newly recalculated estimates rather than four separate alpha coefficients from the original SPSS printout. Identical response patterns for several item pairs, including X3.1 and Y1.1 across constructs, warrant further verification and caution against treating internal consistency as proof of construct validity.

Collinearity and Residual Checks

The source regression reports tolerance values of 0.734, 0.438 and 0.488 and VIF values of 1.362, 2.285 and 2.049 for leadership, motivation and work environment, respectively (Table 6). The diagnostics are retained alongside the zero-order, partial and part correlations printed in the source. Under the original authors' threshold of VIF < 10, these figures do not indicate severe multicollinearity. They do not, however, exclude model misspecification or potential common-method effects.

Table 6. Correlation and multicollinearity diagnostics from the original coefficient output

Predictor	Zero-order r	Partial r	Part r	Tolerance	VIF
Leadership (X1)	0.580	0.439	0.125	0.734	1.362
Motivation (X2)	0.865	0.703	0.252	0.438	2.285
Work environment (X3)	0.907	0.843	0.401	0.488	2.049

Source: Research data processed (2019)

The original residual scatterplot is reproduced as Figure 2. The points are dispersed above and below the reference level without an obvious systematic pattern in the reproduced plot.

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Nevertheless, the chart alone cannot establish homoscedasticity: a formal heteroskedasticity test was not included in the original report; a visual scatterplot alone remains inconclusive. This manuscript therefore reports the original authors' visual diagnostic without treating it as conclusive statistical evidence.

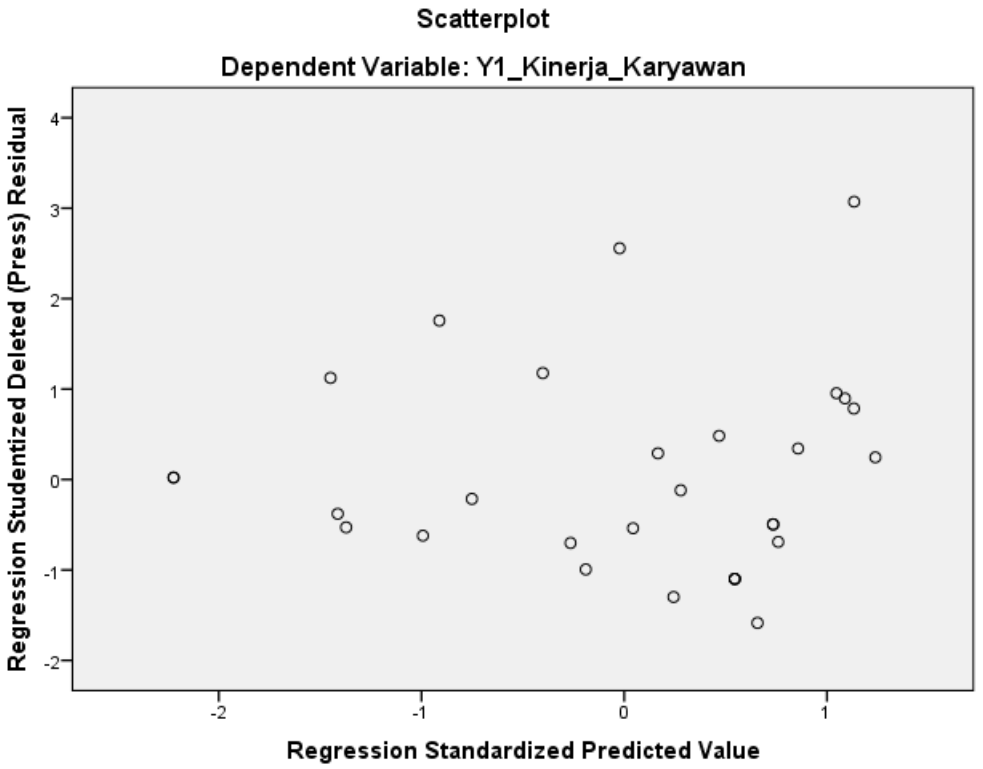


Figure 2. Original SPSS residual scatterplot for heteroskedasticity assessment
Source: Research data processed (2019)

The normal probability plot is reproduced in Figure 3. The plotted residual probabilities are broadly aligned with the reference diagonal, although deviations are visible in the middle portion. This visual pattern is only an informal diagnostic and cannot establish that residuals follow a normal distribution. The recovered tabulation permits additional model checks, but no separate formal normality test is presented in the historical output.

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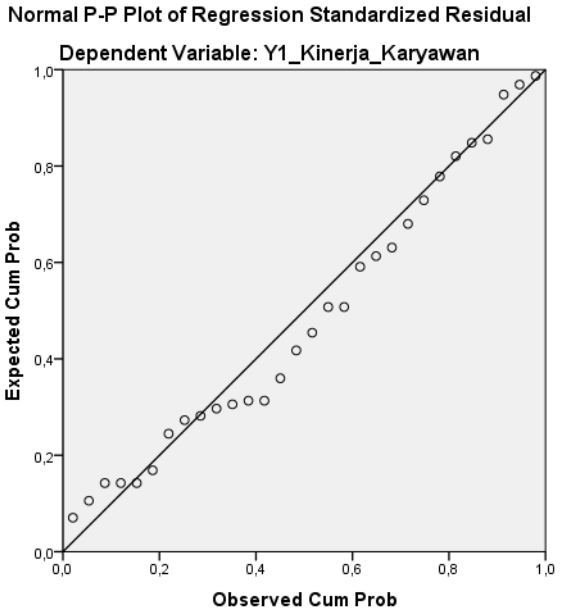


Figure 3. Original normal P–P plot of regression-standardised residuals
Source: Research data processed (2019)

Regression and Partial Tests

Table 7 presents the complete regression coefficient output, including the intercept, standard errors, standardised coefficients, and reported t statistics. The fitted unstandardised equation is Y = 1.220 + 0.106X1 + 0.337X2 + 0.538X3. In this equation, a one-unit difference in a predictor corresponds to a difference of B units in the predicted survey-based outcome, holding the other included predictors constant. This is not a causal intervention estimate.

Table 7. Complete coefficient estimates from the 2019 multiple linear regression

Term	B	Std. error	Standardised β	t	Sig.
Intercept	1.220	0.957	—	1.275	0.213
Leadership (X1)	0.106	0.043	0.146	2.492	0.019
Motivation (X2)	0.337	0.067	0.382	5.037	< 0.001
Work environment (X3)	0.538	0.067	0.574	7.996	< 0.001

Source: Research data processed (2019)

Leadership has B = 0.106 (standardised β = 0.146, t = 2.492, p = 0.019); motivation has B = 0.337 (β = 0.382, t = 5.037, p < 0.001); and the work environment has B = 0.538 (β = 0.574, t =

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7.996, p < 0.001). The reported partial tests support all three directional hypotheses at the 5% significance level within the study sample. Because the measures are not expressed as percentages, the B coefficients cannot be interpreted as percentage changes.

Table 8. Partial t tests and original hypothesis decisions

Original hypothesis	Reported t	Reported p	Decision at 0.05
H1: Leadership → performance	2.492	0.019	Supported
H2: Motivation → performance	5.037	< 0.001	Supported
H3: Work environment → performance	7.996	< 0.001	Supported

Source: Research data processed (2019)

The original influence diagnostics report a maximum Cook's distance of 1.860. The re-estimated regression excluding that single highest-influence observation, solely as a sensitivity test, is summarised in Table 9. The full n = 30 model remains the primary analysis; no observation has been removed from it.

Table 9. Exploratory sensitivity of OLS estimates to the most influential observation

Model	N	Leadership B (p)	Motivation B (p)	Environment B (p)	R^2
Original full sample	30	0.106 (0.019)	0.337 (< 0.001)	0.538 (< 0.001)	0.935
Without highest-Cook's-D case	29	0.045 (0.291)	0.483 (< 0.001)	0.400 (< 0.001)	0.948

Source: Research data processed (2019)

The leadership coefficient decreases from 0.106 (p = 0.019) to 0.045 (p = 0.291) after excluding this case, whereas motivation and work environment remain positive and statistically significant. This illustrates sensitivity of the leadership finding to a single observation, not evidence that the response is erroneous or should be deleted. The original 30-participant estimates remain unchanged throughout the manuscript.

Simultaneous Regression Test and Model Fit

The original omnibus ANOVA appears in Table 10 with a regression sum of squares of 233.951, a residual sum of squares of 16.349, and a total sum of squares of 250.300. The

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numerator and denominator degrees of freedom are 3 and 26, respectively, consistent with a 30-participant regression including three predictors and an intercept. The reported joint test is F(3, 26) = 124.016, p < 0.001. Under the model assumptions, the result rejects the joint null hypothesis that all three slope coefficients are zero; it does not establish causation.

Table 10. Original analysis-of-variance output for the simultaneous F test

Component	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	233.951	3	77.984	124.016	< 0.001
Residual	16.349	26	0.629	—	—
Total	250.300	29	—	—	—

Source: Research data processed (2019)

Table 11 preserves all model summary statistics. R = 0.967, R^2 = 0.935, adjusted R^2 = 0.927 and the standard error of the estimate is 0.793. R^2 expresses the proportion of in-sample variance accounted for by the fitted regression model and does not represent the proportion of performance causally attributable to these predictors. Adjusted R^2 accounts for model size; neither measure establishes out-of-sample predictive performance.

Table 11. Complete determination coefficient/model summary

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of estimate
0.967	0.935	0.927	0.793

Source: Research data processed (2019)

The original questionnaire, 30-response tabulation and printed SPSS tables allow direct verification of the descriptive data and recalculation of internal consistency and influence diagnostics. The historical n = 30 regression remains the reported primary estimate; date of questionnaire administration, underlying source-record integrity, institutional permissions and any original ethics arrangements require author confirmation.

DISCUSSION

The 2019 findings are interpreted as conditional associations estimated from a single cross-sectional survey of 30 employees, rather than as causal effects of managerial interventions. The interpretation distinguishes three quantities: unstandardised regression coefficients (B), which describe predicted differences in the outcome score for a one-unit difference in a predictor, holding other included predictors constant; standardised coefficients (β), which permit comparisons of relative associations within the fitted model; and statistical tests, which quantify

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evidence against the specified null hypotheses. These distinctions matter because a large coefficient does not by itself prove managerial effectiveness, and a statistically significant association does not establish its causal direction.

The original study reports three statistically significant partial tests and a statistically significant joint model. The original questionnaire items and individual response records have now been supplied for verification. Consequently, the following interpretation distinguishes directly reported statistical evidence from plausible theoretical mechanisms and proposed managerial actions. Studies published after 2019 are used for retrospective comparison and contemporary discussion; they are not presented as literature that informed the original data collection.

Leadership and Employee Performance

The partial regression results show a positive conditional association between leadership and employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki. The unstandardised coefficient was B = 0.106 (SE = 0.043), with a standardised coefficient of β = 0.146, t = 2.492 and p = 0.019. Thus, holding the reported motivation and work-environment scores constant, a leadership score one unit higher was associated with a predicted performance score 0.106 units higher in the fitted model. The test result supports the leadership hypothesis at the 0.05 significance level within this sample. It does not mean that performance increased by 10.6%, nor does it demonstrate that a management intervention would produce an improvement of exactly 0.106 units.

Theoretically, leadership can help coordinate activities by clarifying tasks, communicating expectations and providing direction towards shared goals. These mechanisms are plausible in a small production enterprise where delays, unclear task responsibilities and inconsistent handling of equipment can interrupt routine work. The 2019 field narrative describes such concerns, but those descriptions are contextual observations rather than separately verified behavioural outcomes. Bonini et al. (2024) synthesise evidence linking leadership styles to adaptive performance, while Pizzolitto et al. (2023) show that the implications of directive and authoritarian leadership differ across settings. These studies offer plausible explanations for why leadership behaviour may matter. However, adaptive performance and individual leadership styles should not be equated with the broad leadership and performance measures reported for PT Prima Rezeki.

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The positive association for leadership is consistent with Abidin and Budiono (2023), who reported a significant leadership-style association with employee performance in an agribusiness-related enterprise. It contrasts with Nurfaisah et al. (2023), who found non-significant associations for transformational and transactional leadership in a public agency, and with Palit and Wahyuningtyas (2025), who reported a non-significant leadership path in a social-service organisation. Asdar et al. (2025) likewise reported a positive but non-significant leadership path in an agricultural quarantine agency. These contrasts should not be reduced to a claim that the poultry industry is inherently different; the studies vary in sample size, sector, operationalisation of leadership and analytical models. The available evidence does not establish why the findings differ.

A practical implication is the value of reviewing the clarity and consistency of supervisory communication, job assignment and feedback rather than to prescribe a particular leadership style as proven effective. The smaller standardised coefficient (β = 0.146), relative to the coefficients for motivation and the work environment in this model, argues against presenting leadership as the dominant factor. The leadership analysis contributes a historical firm-level observation that leadership retains a positive association after the two other surveyed factors are controlled for, but the finding needs confirmation with well-documented leadership measures and performance indicators that do not rely solely on questionnaires completed by the same respondents. A post hoc influence check adds an important qualification: the leadership coefficient is no longer statistically significant in the exploratory 29-case model after excluding the highest-Cook's-distance observation (p = 0.291). The full-sample finding remains accurately reported, but its statistical significance is not robust to this single-case diagnostic. No case was removed from the principal analysis, and the sensitivity result does not identify an invalid response.

Work Motivation and Employee Performance

Work motivation showed a positive partial association with employee performance. The original regression reports B = 0.337 (SE = 0.067), β = 0.382, t = 5.037 and p < 0.001. Holding leadership and work-environment scores constant, a one-unit difference in the measured motivation score corresponded to a 0.337-unit difference in predicted performance in the original sample. The finding supports the motivation hypothesis. The standardised estimate was larger than the leadership estimate but smaller than the work-environment estimate. This

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comparison is specific to the fitted model and does not establish a causal ranking or the financial returns from alternative management interventions.

One plausible explanation is that employees who sustain effort and persist with assigned tasks may also report higher performance. Wang et al. (2024), in their meta-analysis of cross-lagged studies, discuss motivation and subsequent job performance alongside self-determination-based explanations. Chen et al. (2023) examine pay-for-performance and motivational processes using a different body of evidence. These theories help interpret a positive motivation–performance association, and the original questionnaire now identifies the five motivation items, covering incentives, social protection, workplace relationships, bonuses and opportunities for initiative. The broad five-item index does not, however, establish a validated distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation or isolate any psychological mechanism.

For empirical comparison, Lumantow et al. (2024) found a significant motivation association in a pawnshop setting, and Palit and Wahyuningtyas (2025) reported a significant motivation path in a public organisation. By contrast, Abidin and Budiono (2023) found that motivation was not individually significant once other predictors entered the model at PT Mitratani Dua Tujuh. Asdar et al. (2025) also reported a non-significant motivation path, while Wicaksono et al. (2023) examined direct and indirect associations involving motivation, the work environment and harvest-worker performance through job satisfaction in a different agribusiness model. Thus, the motivation finding at Prima Rezeki adds to a mixed literature: a positive association in this regression does not imply the same magnitude or statistical significance in every context across agribusiness and service organisations.

The original authors recommended recognition and financial bonuses to address employee motivation. These proposals may warrant consideration, but the study did not test payment structures or bonus interventions. A more evidence-informed approach would be to review the fairness and clarity of task-related recognition, feedback and expectations, then evaluate any changes against independently tracked outcomes such as task completion and quality. The motivation analysis shows that the reported motivation score remains positively associated with performance after controlling for leadership and environment in this historical small-firm survey. Future research should use an explicit, validated motivation scale to allow competing motivational mechanisms to be tested rather than assumed.

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Work Environment and Employee Performance

The work environment had the largest reported standardised coefficient among the three reported predictors: B = 0.538 (SE = 0.067), β = 0.574, t = 7.996 and p < 0.001. Conditional on leadership and motivation scores, a work-environment score one unit higher was associated with a predicted employee-performance score 0.538 units higher. This finding supports the work-environment hypothesis within the fitted sample. The size of B does not mean that workplace improvements caused a 53.8% increase in performance; a unit in a survey-based predictor is not a percentage, and the study did not randomly assign workplace conditions.

Several plausible mechanisms are discussed in the literature on working conditions. Oyedeji et al. (2025) distinguish dimensions of the physical work environment, including ambience, spatial configuration and aesthetics, and relate these dimensions to organisational and task outcomes. Zhenjing et al. (2022) use a social-exchange-informed model in which supportive workplace conditions are associated with employee performance through commitment and achievement striving. These perspectives inform the interpretation but do not establish that the same mechanisms operated in the present survey. The original PT Prima Rezeki narrative discusses cleanliness, lighting, tools, the working atmosphere and interpersonal relations, and the now-available items X3.1–X3.5 address supervisory recognition, teamwork, communication, safety and lighting. These dimensions should not be treated as identical to the physical or psychosocial constructs used in the cited studies.

Several empirical studies report results consistent with the positive association: Abidin and Budiono (2023) reported a significant work-environment effect in their multivariable model; Asdar et al. (2025) found a positive and statistically significant work-environment path in an agricultural quarantine agency; and Dewi et al. (2024) reported a significant work-environment association in a resort hotel. However, Lumantow et al. (2024) did not find a significant partial work-environment relationship, and Anggara et al. (2025), in a restaurant-sector business, reported a contrasting negative coefficient. These comparisons suggest that favourable working conditions may be associated with performance, although the relationship is not uniform across settings. Differences in job demands, questionnaire coverage and study design are possible explanations, but these explanations were not tested in the PT Prima Rezeki study.

For a labour-intensive enterprise, the result supports considering a diagnostic review of workspace layout, maintenance, equipment availability, lighting, cleanliness and coworker coordination. The historical field observations make such an audit contextually relevant, but no

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specific facility upgrade or interpersonal programme was evaluated. The work-environment analysis contributes the observation that its standardised coefficient is larger than the coefficients for the other two predictors within this small, single-enterprise regression. This finding can inform hypotheses for future multisite poultry-industry studies, especially those that separate physical, safety and psychosocial environment dimensions and assess actual work performance independently.

Simultaneous Association with Employee Performance

The simultaneous hypothesis addresses the regression model as a whole and should be distinguished from the three partial t tests. The original ANOVA table reports regression sum of squares = 233.951, residual sum of squares = 16.349, $F(3, 26) = 124.016$ and $p < 0.001$. With 30 participants and three predictors, these degrees of freedom are consistent with an intercept-containing multiple regression. The joint F test rejects the null hypothesis that all three slope coefficients are zero simultaneously. Thus, the reported leadership, motivation and work-environment scores jointly explain a statistically significant proportion of variation in the employee-performance score in the fitted 2019 model, supporting the simultaneous hypothesis. A significant F test does not establish the significance of each individual coefficient; that assessment requires the partial t tests reported separately.

The model-fit statistics provide additional context: $R = 0.967$, $R^2 = 0.935$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.927$ and standard error of the estimate = 0.793. The unadjusted R^2 indicates that the fitted three-predictor regression accounted for 93.5% of the observed variation in performance scores within this dataset. The adjusted R^2 of 92.7% adjusts for sample size and the number of predictors. It is inaccurate to say that the three variables caused 92.7% of performance, or that the remaining 7.3% can be attributed definitively to other causal factors. These percentages represent distinct statistical measures; neither quantifies a causal contribution to performance.

The combined pattern supports a multifactorial interpretation of employee performance. The estimated standardised coefficients rank the work environment ($\beta = 0.574$), motivation ($\beta = 0.382$) and leadership ($\beta = 0.146$) within the reported specification, but their ranking is sensitive to measurement, model choice and correlation among predictors. The joint result is not evidence of a statistical interaction, synergy or mediation: no interaction term or indirect pathway was estimated. The reported VIFs (1.362, 2.285 and 2.049) do not suggest severe linear multicollinearity under the original study's threshold, yet a single questionnaire and small sample

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can still introduce correlated measurement error and unstable fitted performance. In particular, the unusually high R^2 calls for examination of questionnaire content, response data and external predictive validity before any strong generalisation. Measurement checks further qualify the large in-sample R^2. The 2019 reliability procedure pooled all 20 items, while construct-specific coefficients were recalculated separately for this revision. Exact matching response vectors for X3.1 and Y1.1, although their questionnaire statements address different concepts, merit comparison with original input sheets. Their presence may be relevant to common-method and construct-overlap concerns but does not independently establish an error or intentional duplication.

The integrated result can be compared with research using related sets of organisational predictors. Abidin and Budiono (2023) reported a significant simultaneous relationship in their model of leadership, discipline, environment and motivation at an agribusiness enterprise, even though motivation was not significant as an individual predictor. Dewi et al. (2024) also reported a simultaneous relationship for environment and motivation in hospitality, although that model used only two of the three current predictors. Asdar et al. (2025) assessed related pathways in an agricultural public agency using PLS-SEM and obtained differing significance patterns at the individual-path level. These studies are consistent with examining employee performance using multiple predictors, but they are not direct statistical replications of the Prima Rezeki F statistic, because variables, measurement frameworks and estimation methods differ.

For management, the simultaneous finding argues for considering supervisory practices, employee motivation and working conditions together rather than treating a single high coefficient as a predetermined intervention strategy. An integrated assessment could combine work-schedule records, task-allocation procedures, equipment checks, and employee feedback, followed by prospective monitoring of attendance, output and quality measures. These are proposed management responses, not actions whose effectiveness was established by the 2019 regression. The contextual contribution of the simultaneous analysis is to preserve and explain the complete three-predictor model reported in 2019 in a small poultry enterprise, while highlighting that its unusually strong in-sample fit requires independent confirmation.

Theoretical and Contextual Contribution

The study makes a contextual and comparative contribution rather than proposing a new theory. First, it documents joint and partial associations among three established human-

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resource predictors within a small poultry-production enterprise, a setting less frequently represented in the cited literature. Second, comparison with subsequent studies highlights differences in statistical significance across sectors: leadership and motivation are not uniformly significant in contemporary studies, while work-environment findings also vary. Third, the synthesis underscores the importance of defining and measuring constructs consistently: general performance cannot be treated as synonymous with adaptive performance, and workplace conditions cannot be assumed to represent identical physical and psychosocial dimensions across investigations. The original study did not test these proposed theoretical mechanisms separately.

Managerial Implications

At PT Prima Rezeki, an appropriate next step would be a review of existing practices rather than an immediate reallocation of resources based solely on β coefficients. For leadership, managers could review task delegation and communication practices; for motivation, they could assess the clarity of expectations and fairness of employee recognition; and for the work environment, they could inspect lighting, equipment condition, cleanliness, ergonomic constraints and teamwork arrangements. The observations recorded in 2019 provide reasons to investigate these issues but do not identify which intervention would be most effective.

Any organisational initiative should be accompanied by prospective, independently recorded performance indicators, such as attendance, output quality, timely task completion, and appropriate equipment handling. These records could help distinguish self-reported performance from observable outcomes and track changes over time. The historical evidence offers a starting point for problem diagnosis, not a proven causal ranking of interventions. For vocational and professional practice, these findings can inform workplace-learning questions about clear task instruction, feedback, safe use of production equipment and job-related skills development in small poultry firms. However, no training or learning outcome was measured in the original survey, so these are proposed applications rather than tested educational effects.

Limitations and Future Research

The analysis relies on an archival, cross-sectional survey of 30 employees in one firm. The questionnaire cover letter is dated June 2018, and the original SPSS output documents analysis in 2019; exact administration dates could not be confirmed. Although construct-specific alpha estimates were recalculated from the recovered tabulation, the original reliability procedure

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pooled all 20 items, and questionnaire content and measurement structure have not undergone independent validation. Three item pairs share identical response patterns, including a cross-construct pair (X3.1 and Y1.1), requiring source verification. The regression exhibits a highly influential observation (maximum Cook's D = 1.860), and the leadership coefficient loses conventional statistical significance in a one-case exclusion sensitivity check. These concerns, potential common-method bias, high in-sample fit and lack of independent performance records limit causal claims, generalisability and interpretation of the original p values.

Future research should first authenticate the archived questionnaire and response tabulation, document the original fieldwork period and investigate the matched item patterns and influential observation. Further studies should employ validated construct-specific measures, distinguish task from adaptive and contextual performance and use objective or supervisor-rated outcomes. Larger, multisite longitudinal samples could establish whether the present associations extend to other poultry enterprises and whether professional-development interventions produce measurable improvements. The present evidence remains historical and no undocumented ethics approval is claimed.

CONCLUSION

This study examined the relationships between leadership, work motivation, the work environment, and employee performance at PT Prima Rezeki, an Indonesian poultry enterprise. In the reported regression model, each of the three organisational factors was positively associated with employee performance after adjustment for the other predictors. The work environment showed the strongest relative association, followed by motivation and leadership, although the leadership finding was sensitive to an influential observation. Together, these findings suggest that routine working conditions, employee motivation, and supervisory practices should be considered jointly when examining performance in a small production enterprise.

The study contributes contextual evidence from a relatively underexamined poultry-enterprise setting and compares that evidence with later studies reporting both consistent and contrasting associations across sectors. For managers, the findings point to the value of reviewing workplace facilities, task communication, employee recognition, and operational procedures together, while evaluating any subsequent improvements using independently recorded performance indicators. Interpretation is limited by the single-organisation, cross-sectional design and measurement-overlap concerns, an influential observation and the uncertain

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fieldwork dates. Causal conclusions and broad generalisations are therefore unwarranted. Future studies should employ documented, validated instruments; objective or supervisor-rated performance measures; and larger, longitudinal samples across poultry enterprises to test the robustness and practical relevance of these relationships.

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