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## Job Satisfaction as a Mediator Between Leadership, Organizational Learning, and Work Outcomes

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### **Abstract**

*This study investigates the influence of transformational leadership and organizational learning on employee performance, with job satisfaction examined as a mediating variable. The research aims to better understand how leadership behavior and learning culture interact to shape employee outcomes within multinational organizations. Data were collected through self-administered online Forms from 142 employees working in multinational companies across various sectors. The data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to test the direct and indirect relationships among the constructs. The results indicate that both transformational leadership and organizational learning have significant positive effects on job satisfaction and employee performance. However, job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and performance, while it serves as a mediator between organizational learning and performance. These findings highlight the nuanced interaction between leadership style, learning orientation, and employee outcomes. The study underscores the importance of cultivating a learning-oriented organizational culture that enhances employee satisfaction and drives superior performance. By fostering transformational leadership practices and continuous learning, multinational organizations can sustain long-term competitiveness and improve workforce engagement. This research contributes theoretical insights and practical implications for leadership development and organizational learning strategies in global business contexts.*

*Keywords: Work Performance, Job Satisfaction, Transformational Leadership, Organizational Learning*

### **1. Introduction**

The concept of a leader's ability to influence subordinates toward achieving higher levels of performance has long been a central theme in transformational leadership theory (Siangchokyo et al., 2020). In today's rapidly changing business environment, organizations increasingly require transformational leadership. This leadership style has consistently been linked to employee attitudes and behaviors, and its four dimensions serve as antecedents in shaping a structurally positive work environment (Gebreheat et al., 2023). Amid the evolving demands of the business world in terms of employee behavior and characteristics, companies are seeking deeper insights into how both potential and current employees can contribute meaningfully to organizational success. Given this pressing need, this study aims to analyze the impact of transformational leadership and organizational learning on employee work performance.

Prior research demonstrates that leaders who exhibit transformational qualities can enhance individual performance within organizations (Jiatong et al., 2022). Furthermore, organizational learning has been found to significantly improve job performance (Latifah et al., 2023). To enrich the analysis, this study incorporates job satisfaction as a mediating variable in the relationship between both transformational leadership and organizational learning with employee work performance. Job satisfaction is understood as the result of employees' perceptions of how well their job fulfills their values and needs (Latifah et al., 2023). It reflects employee's emotional responses to their roles, influencing both their attitudes and behaviors at work. Higher levels of job satisfaction are theorized to lead to improved performance, as satisfaction impacts achievement indirectly through motivation and effort (Siangchokyo et al., 2020).

Based on this theoretical framework, the objective of this study is to examine the direct influence of transformational leadership and organizational learning on employee work performance. Thus, determining

whether job satisfaction mediates the effects of these two factors on performance. This research focuses on employees at a multinational company in Indonesia. Previous studies conducted in the port and agriculture sectors suggest that transformational leadership and organizational learning positively affect performance, and those studies recommend further investigation across different sectors and organizational cultures (Jiatong et al., 2022; Latifah et al., 2023).

## 1.1. Literature Review

### 1.1.1. Transformational Leadership

According to Bass (1998), transformational leadership is characterized by leaders who demonstrate confidence, conviction, power, and ethical or moral orientation, and who use these qualities to shift personal interests toward higher collective goals (Antonakis & House, 2002). Such leaders also articulate a compelling vision that inspires and motivates followers to pursue desired objectives (Antonakis & House, 2002). They challenge the status quo and underlying assumptions, encourage followers to think critically, and remain open to new and creative solutions to problems (Antonakis & House, 2002). In addition, they act as mentors or coaches by providing emotional support and personal attention to followers (Antonakis & House, 2002). Through these leadership behaviors, transformational leaders engage their followers to achieve meaningful outcomes (Burns, 1978). However, pursuing ambitious and holistic goals can involve high risks, making unexpected failures possible and creating insecurity among followers. This insecurity may reduce their willingness to strive toward collective goals unless leaders foster a safe and supportive environment (Kahn, 1990), where followers can express themselves without fear of negative consequences. By giving personal attention, understanding individual needs, and offering emotional support during times of frustration, leaders enhance followers' sense of safety and comfort in completing tasks.

Naeem and Khanzada (2018) explored the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance in Pakistan's healthcare sector. Their findings indicated that transformational leadership plays a vital role in enhancing performance, as its quality motivates and influences employees to perform at higher levels. Similarly, Jiatong et al. (2023) emphasized that transformational leadership effectively boosts employee performance. Dvir et al. (2002) reviewed three studies on this relationship and concluded that there is consistent evidence supporting the positive impact of transformational leadership on work performance. Based on this theoretical foundation, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1a: Transformational leadership has a significant effect on work performance.

### 1.1.2. Organizational Learning

Organizational learning is defined as a process through which organizations generate, transfer, and integrate knowledge and skills through interactions in business processes (Tohidi, Seyedaliakbar, & Mandegari, 2012). It is described as a process of developing, storing, and transferring knowledge within the organization. This includes adapting models, rules, and procedures to maintain or improve employee performance (Chiva & Alegre, 2008).

Templeton, Lewis, & Snyder (2002) highlight that the aim of organizational learning is to adjust organizational processes through targeted activities. It is especially vital for organizations operating in dynamic environments, allowing them to respond more swiftly to unexpected conditions than their competitors (Garvin et al., 2008). As a process of gaining new perspectives, organizational learning is a crucial source of new organizational knowledge (Cheng, Niu, & Niu, 2014; Latifah et al., 2023).

Rose et al. (2011), in a study involving administrative and diplomatic staff across 28 locations in Kuala Lumpur and Putrajaya, found a positive relationship between organizational learning and work performance. Participation in organizational learning activities enhances managers' knowledge, skills, and productivity, leading to better performance. These findings align with Latifah et al.'s (2023) study and support the assertion by Gonzales (2001) that such learning improves behavioral performance, workplace efficiency, and alignment with organizational vision and mission. Based on this foundation, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1b: Organizational learning has a significant effect on work performance.

### 1.1.3. Job Satisfaction

Organizational learning is defined as a process through which organizations generate, transfer, and integrate knowledge and skills through interactions in business processes (Tohidi, Seyedaliakbar, & Mandegari, 2012). It is described as a process of developing, storing, and transferring knowledge within the organization. This includes adapting models, rules, and procedures to maintain or improve employee performance (Chiva & Alegre, 2008).

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman introduced the distinction between satisfaction and dissatisfaction in 1959 (Kurniawati, Putra, & Amerta, 2021). It was showing two sets of drivers: motivator factors and hygiene factors. According to their theory, satisfaction and dissatisfaction stem from different causes. Motivator factors such as recognition, achievement, and responsibility are intrinsic and contribute to job satisfaction. In contrast, hygiene factors as salary, supervision, company policies, work conditions, security, and interpersonal relations are extrinsic and contribute to job dissatisfaction when unmet (Robbins, 1996; Simanjuntak 2011).

In this study, job satisfaction is measured using items adapted from Brayfield & Rothe (1951), whose scale has been widely used and validated in previous research (Jiatong et al., 2023). Understanding employees' job satisfaction levels is essential, as satisfaction is closely linked to job performance, commitment, and employee retention (Boamah et al., 2018; Hendri, 2019; Paracha et al., 2012). Almutairi (2016) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job performance, which was closely associated with job satisfaction. Mangkunegara and Miftahuddin (2016) reported that transformational leadership significantly and positively influences job performance either partially or entirely. Wu and Chen (2014) emphasized that organizations that implement positive learning and development programs tend to exhibit higher job satisfaction, productivity, and profitability. Rose et al. (2011) confirmed that organizational learning has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction. Tohidi (2012) further supported this by demonstrating that job satisfaction significantly enhances job performance. Other studies, such as Wu and Chen (2014) also Hendri (2019), also validated that job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on performance, particularly in port-related industries. Based on these insights, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2: Transformational leadership has a significant effect on job satisfaction.

H3: Organizational learning has a significant effect on job satisfaction.

H4: Job satisfaction has a significant effect on work performance.

### 1.1.4. The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction

Prior Research by Jiatong et al. (2023) in China's hospitality industry found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. Paracha et al. (2012) argued that job satisfaction plays a crucial mediating role, enabling transformational leadership to enhance employee performance through increased satisfaction. Latifah et al. (2023), in a study on a state-owned agricultural company, discovered that organizational learning partially mediates the improvement in individual performance through job satisfaction. Similarly, Kurniawati, Putra, and Amerta (2021) found that in sashimi restaurant in Bali, a learning-oriented organization positively affects both satisfaction and performance, with job satisfaction serving as a mediator between organizational learning and individual work performance. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work performance.

H6: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational learning and work performance.

### 1.1.5. Perceived Individual Work Performance

According to Williams & Anderson (1991), individual work performance refers to a pattern of behaviors recognized by the organization's compensation systems and specified in job descriptions. Achi et al. (2025) define it as the overall output of individuals within the organization, which significantly affects organizational performance. Performance is generally categorized into two types: task performance and contextual performance. Task performance focuses on how employees carry out their core responsibilities, which can vary by role. Contextual performance, on the other hand, pertains to behaviors that support the organizational environment beyond specific job tasks (Naeem & Khanzada, 2018; Eliana et al., 2019). Contextual performance is also often associated with Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) or extra-role performance. This study specifically examines task performance as it relates to how individuals execute their main job responsibilities. Task performance is also referred to as job performance or employee performance. Pawirosumarto et al. (2017) emphasized that it encompasses the ability of employees to fulfill assigned responsibilities. A visual representation

of the research model is provided in Figure 1. This study adopts the term job performance and builds on existing frameworks using self-reported measures to assess individual performance.

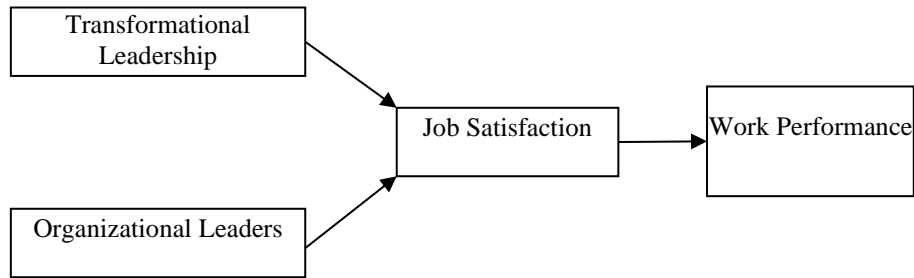


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

## 2. Research Methods

This study employed a quantitative research design, utilizing both primary and secondary data. Primary data were obtained through survey responses, while secondary data were gathered from literature reviews, including books, journals, articles, and other scholarly sources. The data analysis included validity and reliability testing, descriptive statistical analysis, and hypothesis testing using multiple linear regression with the assistance of SPSS software. To examine the relationships between variables, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied.

The sampling technique used in this study was non-probability sampling, specifically purposive sampling. This method was chosen because not all individuals in the population met the specific criteria relevant to the study's objectives. The target respondents were employees who had worked for at least one year in a company and who reported to a direct supervisor. According to Hair et al. (2019), when the population size is unknown, the minimum recommended sample size for SEM is five times the number of indicators. As the questionnaire in this study contained 27 core items, a minimum of 135 responses was required. A total of 142 valid responses were ultimately collected.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections: (1) researcher profile, including an introduction and a statement of anonymity and data confidentiality; (2) screening questions to ensure respondent eligibility; (3) demographic questions such as age, gender, education level, and years of service; and (4) core items related to the study variables. Each latent variable was measured using established and validated scales from previous research.

Transformational leadership was measured using the scale developed by Bass (1998), which includes four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. An example item is "My direct supervisor helps others develop themselves." Organizational learning was assessed using the scale from Tohidi et al. (2012), which consists of five items, including "We openly interact with others for the purpose of developing the company." Job satisfaction was measured using Brayfield & Rothe's (1951) instrument, which comprises four items, such as "I like my job more than most people." Work performance, as the dependent variable, was measured using the scale by Williams & Anderson (1991), which includes seven items. One example is, "I engage in activities that directly influence performance evaluation." All items had been previously validated in the literature. Their standardized loading factor (SLF) values exceeded 0.50, confirming good construct validity. Additionally, construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values ranged from 0.60 to 0.90, meeting acceptable thresholds for reliability.

The study employed a 7-point Likert scale for all survey items, with responses ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 7 ("Strongly Agree"). This format is considered optimal for questionnaires as it provides adequate variability and response sensitivity (Finstad, 2010). Data were analyzed using LISREL 8.80 software. SEM was used to assess model fit, validity, reliability, and the significance of path relationships. The mediation analysis was conducted using the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) to determine the statistical significance of indirect effects. To calculate the Sobel statistic, an interactive calculator was used to input unstandardized path coefficients and standard errors, following the procedure outlined (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2012).

## 3. Results and Discussions

The initial phase of data analysis involved conducting a pretest to evaluate the validity and reliability of all indicators before proceeding to the main analysis. This was carried out using SPSS software with data obtained from 30 early respondents. Factor analysis was conducted to assess validity using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)

measure, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity, and Component Matrix values. According to Malhotra (2011), satisfactory validity is indicated by KMO values equal to or greater than 0.5, Bartlett’s Test significance values of 0.05 or less, and component matrix loadings of at least 0.5. Reliability was evaluated through Cronbach’s alpha, with a threshold of 0.6. The results showed that all variables achieved KMO values ranging from 0.661 to 0.822, component matrix loadings above 0.5, and Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.708 and 0.930. These findings confirmed that all indicators and variables used in the pre-test phase had strong validity and reliability and could be advanced to the main analysis

### 3.1. Respondent profile

From the 142 respondents who completed the online questionnaire distributed via Google Forms, most had between 1 and 10 years of work experience (67.5%). The age distribution showed that the largest proportion of respondents (56.7%) were between 21 and 30 years old. The majority of respondents had completed an undergraduate degree (77.3%), and 89.4% were employed in the Greater Jakarta (Jabodetabek) area. In terms of industry, most respondents were working in the manufacturing and trade sectors (52.3%), followed by public services (27.9%) and investment (10%), with the remainder distributed across other sectors.

### 3.2. Main-Test

The main data analysis utilized the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method on 142 complete responses. The first stage of SEM analysis involved evaluating the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model, which included assessing model fit indices, indicator validity through standardized loading factors, and construct reliability via composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE). Following Wijanto (2015), a model is considered a good fit if it satisfies at least three or four GOF indices. As shown in Table 1, most GOF criteria meet the minimum thresholds, including Chi-Square/df, RMSEA, RFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI, and IFI, although p-value, GFI, and AGFI fell short. Despite this, the model still qualifies as a good fit overall.

Table 1. Goodness-of-Fit Results

GOF Criteria	Minimum Value	GOF 1	GOF 2	Strustural Model	Status
Chi square/ (df)	≤ 2,0	609,82/311 = 1.96	484,93/249 = 1.95	609,82/311 = 1,96	Fit
Sig. probability	≥ 0,05	0,000	0,000	0,000	Not Fit
GFI	≥ 0,90	0,76	0,78	0,76	Not Fit
RMSEA	≤ 0,08	0,08	0,08	0,08	Fit
AGFI	≥ 0,90	0,71	0,72	0,71	Not Fit
RFI	≥ 0,90	0,94	0,95	0,94	Fit
CFI	≥ 0,95	0,97	0,98	0,97	Fit
NFI	≥ 0,90	0,95	0,95	0,95	Fit
NNFI	≥ 0,90	0,97	0,97	0,97	Fit
IFI	≥ 0,90	0,97	0,98	0,97	Fit

Source: Lisrel 8.80 Output (2023)

### 3.3. Validity and Reliability Result

Once the measurement model shows an acceptable fit, it indicates that the estimated population covariance matrix accurately reflects the sample covariance matrix, with no significant differences between them. The next step is to evaluate the validity and reliability of the research data. Following Wijanto (2015), variables are deemed valid if their Standardized Loading Factor (SLF) is at least 0.5 and their t-value exceeds 1.96. Reliability assessment, performed through Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), relies on Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values. A construct is considered reliable if it achieves a CR of 0.70 or higher and an AVE of 0.50 or higher (Wijanto, 2015).

All observed variables related to the latent constructs of transformational leadership, organizational learning, job satisfaction, and work performance exhibit SLF values above 0.5 and t-values above 1.96, confirming their validity based on these criteria. Reliability tests further confirm that each variable meets the minimum CR threshold (transformational leadership = 0.965; organizational learning = 0.865; job satisfaction = 0.921; work performance = 0.927). AVE values also meet the recommended standards (transformational leadership = 0.715; organizational learning = 0.563; job satisfaction = 0.746; work performance = 0.648). The AVE values above 0.5 indicate good convergent validity as outlined by Wijanto (2015). Together, the CR values exceeding 0.70 along with AVE values

above 0.50 demonstrate that the data is reliable. In conclusion, the constructs used in this study have been confirmed as both valid and reliable.

### 3.4. Structural Model

The subsequent step following the evaluation of the measurement model is the examination of the structural model to determine the overall causal relationships between endogenous and exogenous latent variables. The goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model are presented in Table 1. According to Hair Jr. et al. (2019), a minimum t-value of  $\geq 1.96$  (two-tailed) or  $\geq 1.645$  (one-tailed) is required to establish the significance of direct causal relationships between variables. Indirect causal relationships (mediation) within this study were assessed using the Sobel test. When significance is observed in both direct and indirect causal relationships, the previously proposed hypotheses are considered not to be rejected, thus aligning with the research objectives. The data output generated by Lisrel 8.80 software for the structural model is provided in Figure 2.

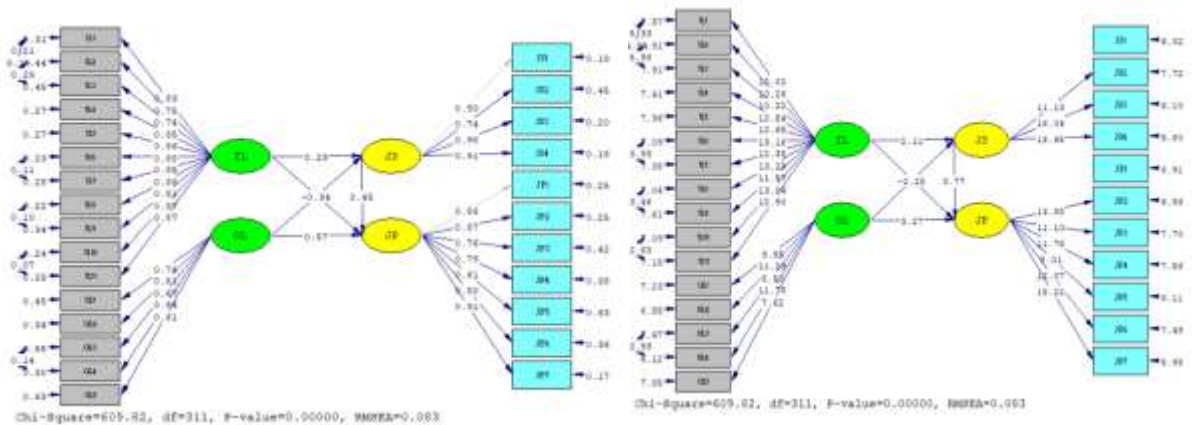


Figure 2. SLF and t-values structural model output

Moreover, on the endogenous latent variable, work performance (Y), it was found that nearly all observed indicators (JP2-JP7) exhibited t-values exceeding 1.96. However, the indicator JP1 demonstrated a t-value below the threshold of 1.96 and was therefore excluded as a significant observed variable for work performance. Similarly, within the mediating latent variable, job satisfaction (M), indicator JS1 yielded a t-value below 1.96, rendering it insignificant. Consequently, six indicators were accepted as significant for the work performance variable, while only three indicators achieved significance for job satisfaction. For the exogenous latent variables, transformational leadership and organizational learning, all indicators were found to have t-values above 1.96 within the structural model analysis, thereby confirming their significance and eligibility for inclusion in subsequent causal relationship testing.

### 3.5. Findings of the Direct Causal Effect Hypothesis Test

The hypothesis testing for direct causal relationships in the current study is presented for the initial five hypotheses, namely H1a through H4, as shown in Table 2. Based on the path coefficient results within the structural model, hypothesis 1a (H1a) exhibited a t-value of -2.25, which is less than the critical t-table value of -1.96, indicating a significant negative causal relationship. All other direct causal path coefficients demonstrated t-values greater than the t-table value of 1.96, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis (H0). This confirms the significance of all positive direct causal effects examined (H1b through H4).

Table 2. Results of Structural Model Testing

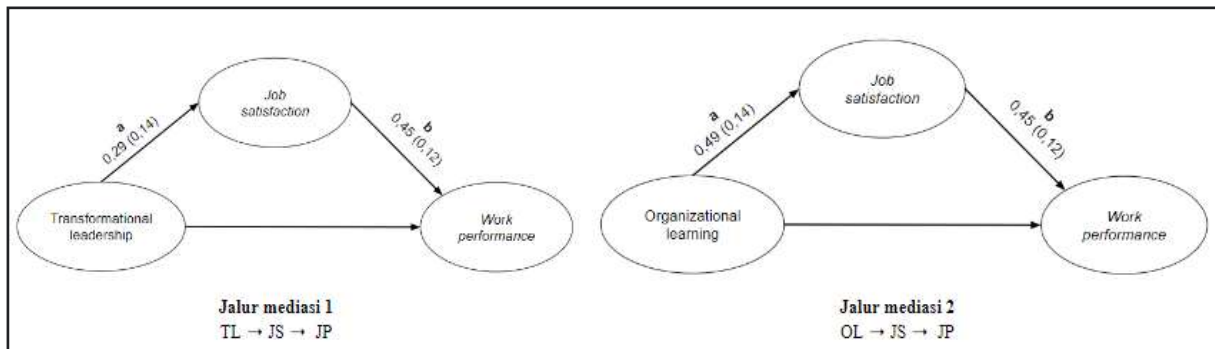
Hypothesis	Path	S. Errors	SLF	t-value	t-table	Status
H1a	TL → JP	0,15	-0,34	-2,25		Significant (Direct causal effect)
H1b	OL → JP	0,17	0,57	3,27		
H2	TL → JS	0,14	0,29	2,11	$t\text{-value} \geq 1,96 / \leq -1,96$	
H3	OL → JS	0,14	0,49	3,43		
H4	JS → JP	0,12	0,45	3,77		

Source: Lisrel 8.80 output (2023)

### 3.6. Mediation Testing

An examination of indirect relationships (mediation) was conducted in the current study, as proposed through hypothesis 5 (H5) and hypothesis 6 (H6). Hypothesis 5 aimed to investigate whether an indirect effect (mediation) of job satisfaction exists on the influence of transformational leadership on work performance. Hypothesis 6 tested whether an indirect effect (mediation) of job satisfaction is present on the influence of organizational learning on work performance. Mediation testing was performed using the Sobel test and an interactive calculator (see Figure 2). This method was employed to examine the unstandardized coefficients of path a and path b, followed by the standard error, to determine the presence of indirect effects (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2012). The mediation path model for this study is illustrated in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3. Indirect effect (mediation)



Source: Sobel output (2023)

As seen in the mediation path 1, testing was conducted in accordance with hypothesis 5, which proposed the mediation of job satisfaction in the relationship between transformational leadership and work performance. The results of the mediation effect test are presented in Table 3, based on the Sobel test. The indirect effect of job satisfaction on the causal relationship between transformational leadership and work performance showed a Sobel test statistic of 1.813, which, at a 5% two-tailed significance level, is still below the critical value of 1.96. The p-value for the two-tailed probability was 0.0698, indicating a probability greater than 0.05. Statistically, this supports the acceptance of the null hypothesis (H0) and leads to the rejection of hypothesis 5 (H5). This result implies that no indirect effect (mediation) of job satisfaction was found in the influence of transformational leadership on work performance.

The subsequent mediation path 2 corresponding to hypothesis 6 (H6) tested the indirect effect of job satisfaction on the influence of organizational learning on work performance. Mediation effect test results, as shown in Table 2, revealed a Sobel test statistic of 2.559 and a p-value of 0.0105, which at the 5% two-tailed significance level fulfills the criterion of significance, with the test statistic exceeding 1.96 and the p-value being  $\leq 0.05$ . Statistically, this supports the rejection of the null hypothesis (H0) and the acceptance of hypothesis 6 (H6). The mediation test result indicates that a significant indirect effect (mediation) of job satisfaction exists in the relationship between organizational learning and work performance.

Table 2. Sobel test result

Hypothesis	Mediating path	Sobel test statistic	Two-tail probability (p-value)	Comparison in sig 5%	Status
H5	TL → JS → JP	1.81319267	0.06980211	sobel test > 1,96 p-value ≤ 0,05	Significant (Direct causal effect)
H6	OL → JS → JP	2.55869344	0.01050663		

Source: Sobel's calculator output (2023)

### 3.7. Discussion

The first hypothesis proposed that transformational leadership significantly affects work performance. However, the structural model yielded a negative and statistically significant result ( $t = -2.27$ ), suggesting that transformational leadership, in this context, decreases employee performance. This is an unexpected finding, as most literature typically supports a positive relationship (Mondiani, 2012). This discrepancy may be explained by other influential factors. Arifin et al. (2022) showed that no significant impact of transformational leadership on employee performance, likely due to employees being mature, independent, and less influenced by leadership styles. A recent study in Lebanon during crisis-affected periods also found no statistically significant effect of transformational leadership on teachers' performance (Achi et al., 2025).

Conversely, the second hypothesis (H1b) confirmed that organizational learning positively and significantly influences work performance ( $t = 3.27$ ). This aligns with findings by Rose et al. (2009), who emphasized that structured learning processes can enhance employee capabilities and organizational effectiveness. Chiva et al. (2014) similarly describe organizational learning as a dynamic process involving knowledge development, retention, and application. The third hypothesis established that transformational leadership significantly influences job satisfaction ( $t = 2.11$ ). This supports earlier research by Almutairi (2016) and Mangkunegara & Miftahuddin (2016), both of whom reported positive correlations between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction.

The fourth hypothesis confirmed that organizational learning significantly influences job satisfaction ( $t = 3.43$ ). Hendri (2019) identified organizational learning as a critical determinant of both employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. Siswanto and Yuliana (2022) also demonstrated that when employees perceive learning as meaningful and relevant to their tasks, job satisfaction increases.

The fifth hypothesis (H5) proposed that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and work performance. However, the Sobel test produced a statistic of 1.813 ( $p = 0.0698$ ), indicating that the mediating effect was not statistically significant. This implies that while transformational leadership may influence satisfaction, it does not necessarily translate into better performance unless job satisfaction is significantly high. The present study found that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance. This result is supported by previous research which indicates that other psychological and relational mechanisms may serve as stronger mediators. For example, intrinsic motivation has been shown to mediate the influence of transformational leadership on work performance, whereas job satisfaction does not play this role (Eliyana, Ma'arif, & Muzakki, 2019). Similarly, trust and team cohesiveness were identified as mediators between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, suggesting that satisfaction itself may not bridge leadership behaviors to performance outcomes (Khattak, Zolin, & Muhammad, 2020). At the team level, transformational leadership has also been linked directly to performance, with trust acting as a partial mediator, while job satisfaction was not found to mediate the relationship (Braun et al., 2013). Collectively, these findings suggest that transformational leadership may enhance performance either directly or through alternative mediators such as intrinsic motivation, trust, or team cohesion, rather than through job satisfaction.

Finally, the sixth hypothesis (H6) confirmed that job satisfaction significantly mediates the effect of organizational learning on work performance (Sobel test = 2.559;  $p = 0.0105$ ). This result supports the view that employees who experience a continuous learning culture tend to feel more satisfied and, as a result, perform better. This is consistent with findings from previous research (Wang, 2007; Rose et al., 2011; Islam et al., 2021; Latifah et al., 2023).

Several implications can be applied by managers and leaders within organizations. First, it is indicated by the results of this study that various factors in the work environment should be considered by organizational leaders to appropriately implement their respective leadership styles. This is deemed necessary to minimize the decline in employee work performance. Additionally, the proper leadership style can be a contributing factor to increased employee job satisfaction. Besides leadership style and various factors present in the work environment, organizational learning processes (such as knowledge sharing, hands-on experience, and employee development processes) are identified as factors that can enhance job satisfaction as well as employee work performance. Therefore, it is expected that managers and leaders within organizations are capable of creating and maintaining a work environment rich in learning processes for both themselves and their employees so that job satisfaction levels and employee work performance can be improved.

#### 4. Conclusion

This study examined the effects of transformational leadership and organizational learning on work performance and job satisfaction, including the role of job satisfaction as a mediator. The findings show that transformational leadership had a negative effect on employee performance. This result is different from many previous studies and suggests that leadership style may not always improve performance if employees are independent or less influenced by leaders. However, transformational leadership was found to improve job satisfaction, which means it still plays an important role in shaping positive employee attitudes. The study also found that organizational learning has a strong and positive effect on both job satisfaction and work performance. In addition, job satisfaction was confirmed to mediate the relationship between organizational learning and performance. This shows that when employees experience continuous learning opportunities, they feel more satisfied and this leads to higher performance. On the other hand, job satisfaction did not mediate the link between transformational leadership and performance, which suggests that other factors such as trust, motivation, or teamwork may explain this relationship better. Overall, these findings show that leadership and learning processes influence employees in different ways. For managers and leaders, the results highlight the need to choose leadership styles carefully and to focus on creating a workplace that supports learning and development. Building a strong learning culture can increase both employee satisfaction and performance, which is important for long-term organizational success. Several limitations are presented in this study. The first limitation concerns the sampling method. Due to the use of a cross-sectional sampling method in this study, there is a tendency that the resulting data may not be optimal. Therefore, it is recommended for future research agendas that a longitudinal sampling method be employed in order to obtain data of higher quality and clarity. The next limitation pertains to the type of industry selected as a criterion for data collection. In this study, a general industry type or company classification was chosen rather than a specific one. This approach was taken to save time and to broaden the pool of respondents. For future research agendas, it is advised that a more specific industry or company type be selected. This is intended to obtain more homogeneous data, considering that company culture and work culture vary across different industries or company types. Thus, specifying the industry of the respondents would yield more uniform and relevant insights. Lastly, this study employs a quantitative research design; hence, the data obtained and generated may lack depth. For future research, it is suggested other methods, such as qualitative research, be conducted to produce findings that are more detailed, comprehensive, and in-depth compared to this study.

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