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The Mediating Role of Change Management Between Technology Readiness and Job Performance

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Abstract

This research investigates the interaction between technology readiness, change management, and job performance. The effects of technology readiness on change management and job performance, while on the other hand, the mediation impact of change management on job performance has been explored. A self-report questionnaire was distributed to obtain a representative sample, yielding 409 complete responses. All questions were mandatory to prevent missing data. The survey began with demographic items (age, gender, education, years spent in the organization tenure, and work experience), followed by validated scales: Technology readiness (optimism and innovativeness), Change management (leadership support and participation/communication), Job performance (perceived organizational support and work-life conflict).

A Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) approach was selected for its unique advantages in testing complex theoretical relationships. Despite excellent model fit (CFI=0.98, RMSEA=0.03), the results revealed theoretically significant null findings: technology readiness showed no significant direct effect on change management (β=0.12, p=.08) or job performance (β=0.09, p=.15), and change management did not mediate job performance (β=0.14, p=.11). These results suggest that the widely accepted link between technology readiness and change management desire may be more context-dependent than previous research indicates. While models like the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) posit direct relationships

between these constructs, the findings imply that in organizational settings where change is mandated rather than voluntary, individual readiness may become less influential. These insights suggest organizations should focus more on structural implementation factors than individual preparation when mandating technological changes, offering a new perspective for both research and practice in organizational change management.

Keywords: Change Management, Technology Readiness, Job Performance

Introduction

The competitive advantage quickly changes because of the external environment, particularly technology, requiring the best response of the organization that needs to implement the change management (Vlasenko et al., 2019). According to Levy (1986), change management includes a substantial shift in fundamental features of a company. Change management is a regular concern in modern organizations in order to optimize innovations and adjust to new situations, and management is an essential aspect in driving the change management process. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) argued that the effect of change management is experienced by employees. Therefore, the change management process describes an employee's perception of the degree to which change management has included adjustments and improvements to a company's frameworks and procedures.

Change management traditionally occurred in sequence from top management to junior employees (Edmonstone, 1995). Change management can have a potential impact on an employee, department, or company level (Gareis, 2010) as well as competencies, behaviors, procedures, duties, leadership, culture, and functional metrics. According to the change management approach, it is vital to differentiate between the impact of change management and the functions that are performed by the organization's management during the progression of change management. Therefore, by analyzing the impact level of the company's change management, the company gains benefits from changing management processes. Thus, when change management is implemented more effectively, expenditure is reduced, and a more competitive advantage is achieved.

Change management denotes a change or reorganization of a firm's current resources (Bucciarelli, 2015). The adaptability to change is one of the critical aspects of an organization's effectiveness (Brisson-Banks, 2010). According to Nortier (1995), it may appear unusual that most organizations are advised they should change how they think as well as how they work. The recognition of the need for change is the starting point for the whole change management process (Brisson-Banks, 2010).

Change management is defined as the process through which companies change from their present situation to the desired one in order to enhance their efficiency (Errida et al., 2018). Change management can also be defined as gradual or radical on a scale of result or nature, and leads to four main forms: adaptation, reorganization, development, and redevelopment. In addition, change management can either be predictive or reactionary (Bucciarelli, 2015). To begin the process of adopting and executing any type of change, a detailed evaluation of the present situation is required as well as the contribution of high-performing employees in order to ensure that the change process happens successfully, accurately, and quickly (Brisson-Banks, 2010).

This study's findings reveal that the relationships between job performance, change management, and technology readiness are more context-dependent than traditionally assumed. While models like the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) posit direct relationships between these constructs, the findings imply that in organizational settings where change is mandated rather than voluntary, individual readiness may become less influential. The results suggest that in mandated organizational changes, individual readiness may play a limited role. Furthermore, the lack of a significant link between change management and job performance underscores the critical role of implementation quality. The findings advocate for contingency-based frameworks that account for contextual and organizational moderators and highlight the limited predictive value of traditional demographic variables, urging more nuanced models that integrate psychological and structural factors.

Literature Review

Change Management

Change management is considered as an interaction of two types of implementations: direct implementation and organizational impact on the implementation (Vlasenko et al., 2019). Furthermore, there are soft changes and hard changes, where soft change often interacts with a firm's culture, methods and procedures, and management, while hard change interacts with technical aspects of information that are easy to quantify (Bucciarelli, 2015). According to Errida et al. (2018), change management can be intentional as well as planned. According to Parry et al. (2014), there are two types of change management: procedural and narrative. The procedural type outlines the processes to be performed while leading and implementing the change. A narrative type attempts to identify and define the aspects that contribute to the success of the change management processes. Finding the best combination of management and type of change management process while

keeping the organization in mind is what makes change management effective. This method of change management is based on six fundamental assumptions (Edmonstone, 1995); first, workplace behavior issues are a result of employees' abilities, skills, and mindsets. Second, this behavior can be conducted through identifying and modifying. As a result, the employees have to focus on change initiatives. Third, the substance of attitude should be the major concern of change management, while the actual behavior should be a secondary concern. Fourth, changing formal processes and procedures has a significant impact on employees' behavior. Sixth, implementing change management initiatives will change the firm.

According to Al-Omari and Al-Omari (2006), companies trust that their employees will behave as expected in a socially responsible manner. Therefore, trust minimizes the social complexity caused by employees being independent, whose behavior cannot be controlled or predicted. Therefore, it has been considered that the best practice of change management is through socially constructed tactics in which employees are motivated to reconsider their beliefs and work behavior, alter them, and thus adjust them at work (Edmonstone, 1995). Burnes (2004) described Kurt Lewin's model as the three-step model, which was established in 1947 and is mentioned in Lewin's Field Theory in Social Science. This approach divides change management into three stages: Unfreezing, Changing, and Refreezing. The unfreezing entails changing the current stable equilibrium that underpins current actions and attitudes. This procedure must include the inherited risks that change poses to employees as well as the necessity to inspire those impacted to achieve a normal balance through accepting the change. The unfreezing procedure is the time necessary to plan for change management, to help employees accept the impending change management, and to decompose the current system discovered through an assessment before the awareness that change was essential. Employees might have to discover new methods to do their duties after the change management is implemented. When employees accept these new methods of change, they can readily assist and amend the change. Change management entails creating new behaviors in response to the new knowledge. When this happens, trust in the firm grows, and a renewed feeling of optimism. At this time, the refreezing process should begin in order to help all employees feel acknowledged for their contribution to the change's success. The refreezing solidifies the change by instilling the new behavior in the minds of the employees influenced.

The change management performance concentrates on the change management procedures in relation to the goals and main objectives, such as completion date, budget, resource usage, and communication efficiency. The company ensures that production and management efforts maintain a smooth

stream of processes (Vlasenko et al., 2019). Planned change management can be seen as a process comprised of a sequence of predetermined actions and procedures. Employees' perception of planning and preparation prior to the change management implementation is classified as planned change management (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Change management becomes more predictable when attempts are made according to plan and employees with information on the starting and duration of the change management. Furthermore, when change management planning is done before change implementation, the surprise of a change event is expected to be reduced. According to Bucciarelli (2015), change management impacts are generated by a plan which can be organizational, operational, or influenced by an external event, implying the change or realignment of few or a firm's resources. The most popular procedures that lead to successful change management are the evolution of work environment, development of vision and strategy, proper communication, and planning (Errida et al., 2018) as well as encouraging change, defining goals and objectives of the change, gaining organizational support, managing the change, and maintaining the progress.

Management tries to create a good first impression and is obligated to implement change appropriately (Brisson-Banks, 2010). Management that operates under an unanticipated change can generate significant challenges with employees (Brisson-Banks, 2010). Therefore, the change management process is difficult and time-consuming; thus, effective planning may improve the process (Brisson-Banks, 2010). Management addresses the issue of how most employees dislike change, but since the change is unavoidable, employees will adopt the change over time with the correct staff in management. The measurable processes of change management that lead to short-term and long-term positive firm goals are called advantages. Advantages are generally divided into two types based on the objective of the management change: a financial advantage that aims to enhance the company's financial performance and a non-financial advantage that might enhance profit margins, lower expenses, expand competitive advantage, and enhance quality (Errida et al., 2018). Jayashree and Hussain (2011) argued that the absence of performance measures of change management processes can prohibit firms from achieving their planned goals and objectives because of improper identification of upcoming problems and thus increasing the possibility of failure in the change management process. The difficulty of measuring performance efficiency derives from the fact that a contemporary organization is a complex interrelationship of tangible and intangible aspects that are managed by employees to produce a product or service (Vlasenko et al., 2019).

The company's objective measures illustrate the effect of the change management processes in comparison to the targeted goals and objectives. According to Vlasenko et al. (2019), the appropriate implementation of change management is only feasible with good management of employees. They also noted that the change management is expensive because it impacts the development of the end product and service, whose quality defines the company's profit margin. Therefore, change management should be measured against the expenditure involved. Errida et al. (2018) argued that the other three measures that are used to measure the success of change management are: company performance, employee performance, and change management performance. The measure of the company's performance evaluates the success of the anticipated objectives of the change management. The measure of employee performance reveals how employees are developing through the change management processes. The measure of change management performance emphasizes the efficiency and influence of the change management initiatives.

Beer et al. (1990) explored change management in twelve organizations and determined that it may fail unless everyone participates. According to Beer et al. (1990), successful organizational change management begins at the bottom using informal initiatives to fix change management issues. They highlighted how top management may be dedicated to change and should create a sufficient environment to change at the bottom level rather than imposing changes from the top. They realized that all departments and management should be participating, or the entire change process would fail. Change management failure may be caused by a variety of factors, including inadequate training, incompetent leadership, a shortage of commitment, improper planning, insufficient resources and competencies, inefficient communication, opposition, and the absence of acceptable performance measures (Ján and Veronika, 2017). Therefore, measuring and tracking the change management process will enable it to meet planned goals and produce the intended objectives.

Leadership is the most important aspect in coordinating the framework of a company and standards that serve as the foundation for the activities inside and outside the company (Al-Omari and Al-Omari, 2006). Modern leadership thinks that job satisfaction is the outcome of logical, strong, and motivated leadership (Platis et al., 2015). According to (Ghazali et al. 2008), change management leadership, common interest, proper communication, and organizational support can be considered as antecedents to commitment to change. Brisson-Banks (2010) showed how leadership tries to impose change management by simply dictating it and, thus, how change planning models are merely a part of the change process, which may lead to modification to fit with a specific firm.

Kotter (2007) revealed that the most frequent problem leaders make when attempting to change firms is to take it forward without instilling a strong feeling of concern in colleagues and employees. According to Kotter (2007), leaders who effectively change firms achieve eight elements well. First, create a feeling of urgency through investigating the actual, potential catastrophes and opportunities. Second, forming a steering team of leadership and management who will collaborate with the other employees and change management implementers. Third, creating goals and objectives as well as pa lan in order to guide the change management process. Fourth, consistently communicate the change goals and objectives using all available channels. Fifth, motivate and operate in accordance with these goals and objectives through overcoming any obstacles and fostering innovation. Sixth, achieve quick wins and provide an incentive for employees who lead the change. Seventh, creating novel changes and sustaining successes through supporting and encouraging employees and making changes in processes and procedures believable. Eighth, formalize the new processes and procedures, enhance leadership, and improve management effectiveness.

Bucciarelli (2015) argued the eight phases that began with the assessment of change failure and developed a type of positive perspective to turn negatives into positives that may potentially lead to successful change management. According to Bucciarelli (2015), the eight-phase method is debatable. It is extremely managerial, regarded as overly analytical, and possibly too idealistic, and the eight-phase overemphasizes leadership as being the most essential aspect of the organizational change without considering the financial aspects, opponents, and other aspects that affect the organization. Al-Baradie (2014) demonstrated that the leadership of change management motivates employees to supersede their performance to a higher level through changing their behaviors and attitudes through five leadership practices. These practices can be explained through questioning the work procedures, motivating common goals and objectives, encouraging employees to respond, guiding the change, and employees' rewards. The leadership of change management, according to Bommer et al. (2005), can properly lower negativity about change management. Thus, leadership should make every effort to fully engage employees in accomplishing the organization's goals and objectives. Motivating common goals and objectives denotes the leadership to promote the development of innovative and potential goals and objectives and ask the employees to support these goals and objectives through promoting teamwork and offering them decision-making chances. Leadership provides organizational cohesiveness in terms of its objectives, strategy, and internal culture. Therefore, guiding the change suggests that leadership explains their beliefs and concepts in order to align employees' behavior with these beliefs and concepts.

Furthermore, employees' attitudinal inclinations and assessments of the work environment impact on their evaluation of the company's activities which in turn affect their job performance and satisfaction. Employees' perspectives and behaviors in a company are determined by their comprehension of the changing circumstances and the effect of the changes on them (Lau and Woodman, 1995). Employees are the basis for every organization. Their full participation will allow expertise and skills to be utilized for the success of the organization. Education, training, and the development of opportunities for employees are all important considerations. Since companies are human institutions that operate by procedures and processes, the success of any change management endeavor is dependent on the employees who are responsible for implementing the change. Questioning the work procedures is seen as focusing on discovering new methods to assist the company and its employees to evolve, develop, progress, innovate and take risks, and desire to learn from failures.

The success of the change management is influenced by the company's activities and employees' characteristics and behavior. Therefore, employees are expected to keep a favorable job attitude and higher commitment and productivity through acquiring new skills and practices. In addition, employees are expected to respond positively to positive consideration from their company under the mutual exchange (Eisenberger et al., 1997). According to Judge et al. (1999), positive self-concept and adaptability are linked to more positive evaluations of the effectiveness of the change management as well as confidence in their abilities to lead the change endeavor. On the other hand, employees may find change management to be stressful (Herscovitch and Meyer 2002) because employees try to understand their changing surroundings and define how it will affect their everyday lives and livelihood (Fisher and Howell 2004; Bartunek et al. 2006). As a result, the presence of work overload may function as a signal that the business is unable to meet the requirements of its employees. Rousseau (1990) noted that employees may think that they and their company had mutual commitments that went beyond obligations.

Employees essentially own the implementation of change, and their perspectives and personal variations are playing a significant part in changing management processes. An adaptable employee enables the company to meet change goals and aims, adjust, and respond to innovations. As a result, employers respect employees who can adopt the change and take advantage of improving their professions and skills (Ngo and Loi 2008). Information on change, self-efficacy in dealing with the change, and involvement in the change management processes are the three factors that predict the employees' responsiveness to the change management (Wanberg and Banas, 2000). Miller et al. (1994) defined employees' responsiveness to

change management as an essential, preliminary prerequisite for effective change management and as readiness to promote the change favorable behavior about the probable implications of the change. Higher responsiveness to change management is essential for successful change management (Armenakis et al., 1993) and shows higher collaboration and may prevent resistance to change in terms of arguing and animosity, willful output limitation, and refusal to cooperate with the leadership of change management (Miller et al., 1994).

According to Caldwell et al. (2004), when employees believe that the change is being implemented properly and equitably, their response to the change and the company is more acceptable. This acceptance is intended to be a result of leadership's ability and willingness to implement processes, offer proper facts, actively engage employees in the change processes, and provide resources to achieve successful change management. According to Wanberg and Banas (2000), lower responsiveness to and acceptance of the change management lead to lower job satisfaction, more job annoyance, and higher inclinations to resign.

Job Performance

The consequence of change is a common phenomenon in the business environment; hence, improving employees' satisfaction and efficiency needs considering the behavior of employees and attitude towards the change management processes. Although behavior affects the achievement of change management, Cullen et al. (2014) argued that employees' understanding of the change and behavioral patterns is important for understanding how employees understand the new work processes that affect their job procedures and performance. Platis et al. (2015) defined job performance as a concept that is related to efficiency, leadership, and the success of the organization. They noted that factors such as job satisfaction, working conditions, and reward systems affect employees' performance. Job performance is considered a dependent variable whose evaluation affects a company's human capital management (Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019). Campbell and Wiernik (2015) highlighted that job performance is a collection of behavior that includes employee-controlled activities that align with the company's goals and aims. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) argued that employees' assessment of the level of change management that has happened in their working environment can affect job performance as well as the requirements of the job itself. As a result, the notion of notable change management is likely to reduce job satisfaction (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006).

Additionally, Perceived Organizational Support (POS) was found to be linked to out-of-work variables, including employees' attitude, well-being, life satisfaction, and balancing a job and life responsibilities

(Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Leadership shows information to employees to help them through organizational change. Employees interpret this information when creating perspectives, including their overall evaluation of the support offered by the company. Employees' belief is positively correlated with job performance and satisfaction. Cullen et al. (2014) argued that employees who perceive a higher, better amount of organizational support report a better level of job performance. Employees receiving organizational support perform better and have more job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al, 1997), are more devoted and committed to their job, and are less at risk of fatigue (Kang et al., 2010). Employees who believe supported by their company are more likely to take part in training that provides them with personal satisfaction (Wojtkowska et al., 2016). Supportive employees think that the company respects them, recognizes their specific requirements and limits, and appreciates their efforts. Employees who are unable to understand their environment are more inclined to blame the company and interpret the uncertainty related to the change management as a symptom of insufficient company support.

Cullen et al. (2014) contended that employee variations in adaptability affect the extent to which employees feel company support for at least two factors. First, adaptive personnel are active in their reaction to environmental concerns. Employees who are adaptable accept accountability for adapting to their environment. In terms of using modern technology, this would entail getting the skills required to perform efficiently. The initiative-taking, inventive, and resilient attitude of adaptable employees enables them to develop these abilities on their own while simultaneously looking for and using help from their company. Adaptable employees' efforts will improve the probability that they will obtain assistance when needed. Furthermore, leadership will appreciate employees' skills and thus reward their efforts. Second, employee adaptability determines how employees understand and respond to the change management. The perception of regulatory procedures is essential in forming perceived regularity support. Adaptive employees are more likely to interpret events positively and are more responsive to environmental signals, increasing their capability to detect and accept even small supporting activities by their company. Therefore, the willingness of adaptable employees leads to better interpretations of the company's activities, including the amount of support they receive from the company.

Employee perceptions give an alternative approach to leadership during implementation for enhancing and fostering good change processes for the employees. The establishment of a good perception of the assistance received by employees from their company will result in beneficial consequences for employees and the company. The adaptable employees will look for the benefits of possibilities given by the company and will perceive

organizational help positively. Employees with high adaptability should have more proper perceptions of company support than employees with low adaptability, while ensuring the understanding of support should favorably affect levels of job performance and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Wang et al. (2011) found that employees' perceptions of their organizational compatibility influenced the link between employee adaptability and environment results throughout the adoption of the new employees. Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed that perceived organizational support is a predictor of commitment and proposed the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) as a commitment measure. They explained the link between organizational commitment and employee commitment through using a social exchange perspective, while employees' perception of work as a mutual exchange can be influenced by leadership motivation in terms of beneficiary or not. This view contends that an employee's perceptions about the company's commitment to them lead to the employees' eventual commitment. Employees' commitment interprets employees' perceptions about the quality of the relationship between the organization and the employees.

Progressive training, rewards, and organizational position were positively correlated with perceived organizational support (Wayne et al., 1997). According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), Perceived Organizational Support implies that there are two components. First, organizational support is a widespread idea that the organization acknowledges and rewards employees' contributions, as evidenced by concrete resources. Perceived support increases an employee's expectation that the company will reward more effort toward attaining the company's goals and objectives. Second, the notion that the company cares about the well-being of its employees. This component of organizational support represents employees' perceptions of company rules and procedures with respect to time away from personal reasons or life care. Employees who wish to stay committed are more often to attend jobs on a regular basis, perform the job to the best ability, and go beyond and assist others (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). High perceived organizational support would satisfy requirements for acceptance, appreciation, and personal identity as well as expect recognition and reward for ordinary and superior performance. Perceived organizational support would develop an effective commitment to the company and enhance efforts on its behalf. When the company puts little importance on an employee's achievement and well-being, it would diminish perceived organizational support and lower the employee's perceived commitment to the company (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Therefore, employees would reduce their efficiency commitment and do less in ordinary performance as well as overall job. Furthermore, perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et

al., 1986) and job satisfaction (Farkas and Tetrick, 1989) are both connected with organizational commitment, and it might be argued that perceived organizational support and job satisfaction are linked.

Additionally, the change management creates uncertain conditions among employees (Rafferty and Griffin 2006). Cullen et al. (2014) argued that the extent to which employees interpret uncertainty influences their perception of support provided by their company and thus their job satisfaction. Employees' perceptions of uncertainty connected to the change management in their business environment, as well as their resilience, are two antecedents that demonstrate employee job performance due to their response to their changing environment. The strain caused by the change management processes is mostly related to perceived uncertainty about changes in the business environment (Rafferty and Griffin 2006). Uncertainty is associated with change and may have a negative impact on employees' expertise in terms of behavior and efficiency. Thus, employees who feel or believe uncertainty will be negatively affected in the same way, regardless of change management efforts.

Employees experience uncertainty due to confusion or a poor understanding of what change means for them (DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998). Uncertainty is a prevalent attitude throughout change management processes (Bordia et al., 2004). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) noted that repeated unplanned changes result in higher levels of uncertainty with the change. Furthermore, uncertainty may prevent employees capability to do their jobs successfully. Cullen et al. (2014) demonstrated how firms enhance the clarification of their goals and objectives by lowering uncertainty and recognizing employees who may need help in adopting the change. They confirmed the importance of organizational commitment as a moderator of the link between employees' resilience, the uncertainty of change management, and job satisfaction.

Employees can determine how the company appreciates their efforts and well-being by distinguishing between job situations that the company easily controls against working conditions that are restrained by the company's authority (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) recognized three main attributes of change management: the frequency of change, the effect of change, and the planning of the change management. They explained why these attributes are important to employees and how they might affect employees' behavior and well-being. When change management attempts are preceded by planning, employees' well-being improves (Korsgaard et al., 2002). According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), employees acquire an overall perception of how the company rewards their efforts and interest in their well-being. The work-life interchange refers to the consequences of work on an employee's personal life. This work-life

interchange is determined by both employees and the work environment such as work conditions, working hours, interpersonal relationships with other employees, and job satisfaction (Frone et al., 1997). While the life-work interchange explains the consequences of personal life on an employee's job. The extension of the work and life exchange may be negative or positive depending on the resources available to the employees, how they utilize these resources in various activities, and the external needs at work and personal life (Grzywacz and Bass, 2003). According to (Grzywacz and Butler, 2005), a positive both work-life and lifework often appear when the employees have appropriate resources such as profession, skills, developing career, and personal life situation. Perceived organizational support is only substantially associated with work-life conflict and facilitation.

Technology Readiness

The technology readiness index (TRI) defines employees as end-users into four types based on their attributes: optimism, innovativeness, discomfort, and insecurity (Erdoğmuş and Esen, 2011). Optimism: a favorable attitude toward technology in order to enhance control, flexibility, and effectiveness. Innovativeness: a proclivity of being the first to use modern technology. Discomfort: a need for control and feeling overburdened. Insecurity: a lack of confidence in technology for issues of security and privacy. Parasuraman (2000) noted that the technology readiness concept refers to employees' proclivity to accept and use modern technology to achieve goals and objectives in work and personal life. There are too many factors that should be considered in terms of technology readiness in order to support an electronic initiative, such as software and hardware to be used, communication, latest technology, network infrastructure, database, and security system (Al-Omari and Al-Omari, 2006). Technology usage factors have been explored in order to anticipate and understand the employees' adoption and satisfaction with technology. Erdoğmuş and Esen (2011) found that the innovativeness and mutual trust between a company and its employees' aspects of technology readiness positively affected perceived effectiveness and employee satisfaction, but not annoyance and instability dimensions.

One of the most difficult difficulties in technology management is determining which technology to carefully choose and determining whether technology is sufficient or developed enough to be considered for a certain product. According to Lavoie and Daim (2017), low technological selection and management can lead to a significant loss in the long term and an inability to compete in areas where the company formerly thrived. Mick and Fournier (1998) highlighted broad aspects of drivers and obstacles of technology readiness. They outlined eight technological factors with which

employees must contend: control/chaos, freedom/enslavement, new/obsolete, competence/incompetence, efficiency/inefficiency, fulfills/creates needs, assimilation/isolation, and engaging/disengaging. According to Mick and Fournier (1998), technology can improve or disprove the feelings of efficiency and cleverness and, thus, the relative domination of these feelings often changes between employees. As a result, the domain of technology readiness is underpinned by a mix of positive and negative attitudes regarding technology. Employees may be positioned along with a virtual set of technological beliefs that are based on a strong feeling at one end and a negative feeling at the other. Furthermore, technological readiness emerges when employees are likely to connect with their tendency to accept and use technology. Although good emotions drive employees to adopt modern technology, unpleasant emotions might hold them back.

Methodology

Sample and Procedure

In order to obtain a representative sample of change management, a self-report questionnaire in English was created by Google Forms (refer to Appendix B) and the generated link, headed with the research title. A total of 409 questionnaires were answered. All questions were made mandatory to avoid missing data. Self-report allows employees to examine their own behavior, evaluate leadership's performance based on employees' perception and thus job performance, and it is easy to collect with minimal missing data. According to Koopmans et al. (2014), existing measures of job performance may have significant limitations. The questionnaires started with demographic questions that included age, gender, education, years spent in the organization, and total working experience. The technology readiness scale was measured by two items: optimism and innovativeness. The change management scale was measured by two items: leadership support and participation/communication. The job performance scale was measured by two items: perceived organizational support and work-life conflict.

In this research, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to evaluate how significance ofthe correlation between job performance, change management, and technology readiness. SEM is a multivariate statistical technique that combines factor analysis and path analysis to examine complex relationships among observed and latent variables. One of SEM key advantages is the ability to model unobserved variables through multiple indicators, which is especially beneficial in social sciences where abstract constructions such as trust, satisfaction, or intelligence cannot be directly observed. SEM allows for the comprehensive testing of theoretical models, enabling researchers to analyze variable interdependencies within an integrated structure rather than in isolation. It further supports theory

development by identifying key constructs and pathways, thereby informing precise interventions or strategic policies. This can be useful in developing interventions or policies aimed at modifying the relationships among variables.

In addition, SEM is a highly suitable analytical method for questionnaire-based research due to its ability to model complex relationships between observed and latent variables while accounting for measurement error. Traditional regression models assume that variables are measured without error, an assumption rarely met in survey data due to respondent biases, ambiguous wording, or random answering patterns. SEM separates true score variance from measurement error by modeling latent constructs as underlying factors that influence multiple observed indicators. This leads to more accurate parameter estimates, which reduces bias in hypothesis testing.

Furthermore, SEM has its ability to evaluate mediation and moderation effects, which are common in social science studies. For instance, if a questionnaire is designed to assess that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between leadership style and employee performance using multiple Likert-scale items, SEM can simultaneously evaluate the direct and indirect effects within a single model, providing a more nuanced understanding than traditional regression approaches. Finally, SEM accommodates complex survey designs, including multi-group analyses, such as comparing models across different demographic groups, and hierarchical data structures. This flexibility is beneficial when questionnaires are administered to diverse populations, as SEM can evaluate whether relationships hold consistently across subgroups.

In the financing field, there are researches that have used SEM such as Jiraporn et al. (2006), Jairo (2008), Chang et al. (2009), Azim (2012), Shin and Thai (2015), Ramli et al. (2019), and Hinson and Utke (2023). Jiraporn et al. (2006) used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to examine how corporate governance and shareholder rights affect the company's diversification decisions. The methodology allowed for capturing the complex relationships between multiple governance variables and capital structure choices. Jairo (2008) provided an empirical example of how SEM can be employed to investigate capital structure choices, illustrating the technique's capacity to model relationships between multiple endogenous and exogenous variables. Chang et al. (2009) used SEM to analyze the determinants of capital structure, providing a robust framework for understanding the simultaneous effects of multiple factors such as profitability, firm size, and market conditions on capital structure choices.

Azim (2012) applied SEM to explore the impact of corporate governance mechanisms on company performance and to understand the

mediating roles between governance and performance metrics, which are central to capital structure decisions. Though focused on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), Shin and Thai (2015) used SEM to highlight its utility in capturing the relationships between intangible assets and financial decisions, which may influence capital structure indirectly. Ramli et al. (2019) utilized PLS-SEM (Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling) to assess how capital structure determinants influence company performance in Malaysia and Indonesia, showing how can deal with complex interrelations in financing decisions. Hinson and Utke (2023) applied SEM in the context of archival capital markets research, using it to examine how disclosure practices affect the cost of capital. The methodology's ability to manage complex financial data and variable interrelationships is particularly beneficial for capital structure research.

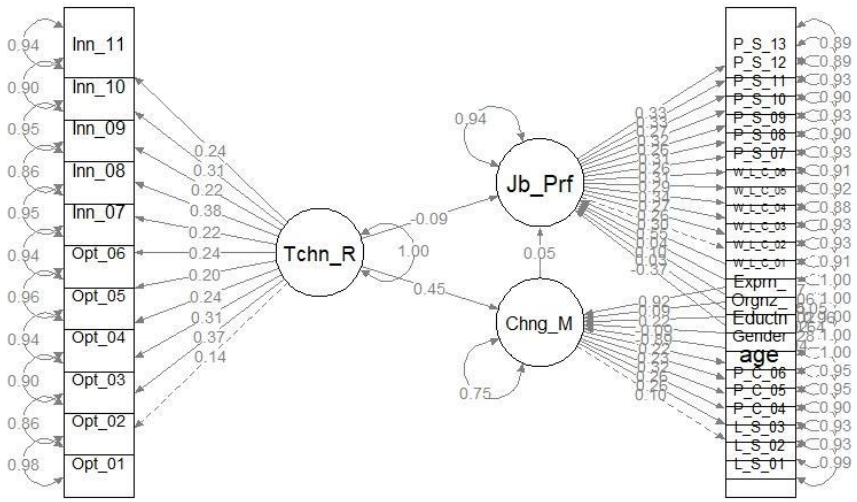
Statistical Model and Interpretation

Questionnaire development in SEM addresses both convergent and discriminant validity to ensure measurement quality. Convergent validity is confirmed when multiple items that are intended to measure the same construct show high factor loadings, while discriminant validity is established when constructs are empirically distinct. The SEM model includes all the relevant variables and hypothesized relationships among them. Conduct model fit analysis and diagnostics to ensure that the SEM model fits the data well and that the assumptions of the model are met. Therefore, in this research, the construct validity, which is a critical aspect of questionnaire development, was assessed. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), a key component of SEM is used to evaluate whether survey items load onto their hypothesized latent factors as expected. This helps verify whether the questionnaire measures what it intends to measure. Furthermore, the assessment of model fit through various indices (e.g., CFI, RMSEA, SRMR) was examined in order to evaluate how well the hypothesized model aligns with empirical data (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

Referring to Appendix A and figure-01, the model shows an acceptable fit. The comparative fit index (CFI = 0.924) and Tucker-Lewis's index (TLI = 0.918) both exceed the recommended threshold of 0.90, indicating good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Similarly, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.010) falls well below the cutoff of 0.06, with the 90% confidence interval ranging from 0.000 to 0.019, further supporting good model fit. The standardized root means square residual (SRMR = 0.045) is also below the recommended threshold of 0.08, reinforcing the model's adequacy (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The chi-square test of model fit ($\chi^2 = 562.810$, df = 542, p = 0.260) suggests that the model does not significantly deviate from the observed data, which is desirable.

Additionally, the Akaike information criterion (AIC = 37792.047) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC = 38085.049) provide comparative measures, though their absolute values should be assessed relative to alternative models. The incremental fit indices, including the incremental fit index (IFI = 0.934) and relative noncentrally index (RNI = 0.924), further corroborate the model's strong alignment with the data. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI = 0.918) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI = 0.905) also meet acceptable standards, indicating that the model accounts for a substantial portion of the observed variance.

Figure 1: Statistical Model



The statistical results presented in the variance estimates table provide insights into the measurement model's error variances and the latent variable variances. The error variances for the observed indicators (e.g., Ldrshp_Sppr_01, Prtcptn_Cmm_10, Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_01, etc.) are all statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating substantial unexplained variance in these items after accounting for the latent constructs. This suggests that while the latent factors explain a considerable portion of the variance in the observed indicators, there remains notable item-specific variability. The variance of the latent construct *Change_Mangmnt* (0.752, $p = 0.561$) is not statistically significant, implying that the latent factor does not exhibit substantial variability beyond its indicators. In contrast, the variance of *Job_Performanc* (0.936, $p = 0.020$) is significant, indicating meaningful latent variability in job performance not fully captured by its observed measures. The variance of *Technlgy_Rdnss* (1.000, $p = 0.337$) is

fixed for identification purposes, but its non-significant p-value suggests that the latent variance may not be substantial. The standardized loadings (Std.all) for most indicators exceed 0.85, demonstrating strong factor-item relationships, which align with established psychometric standards. However, items (e.g., Optimism_02, Innovatvnss_08) show slightly lower loadings, suggesting potential measurement error or weaker associations with their respective constructs.

Furthermore, the regression analysis examined the potential influence of demographic and work experience variables specifically age, gender, education level, organizational tenure (Organization_yrs), and job experience (Experience_yrs) on both change management desire and job performance. The results revealed no statistically significant effects ($p > 0.05$) for any of these control variables in either regression model, though few noteworthy patterns emerged in the parameter estimates. For change management desire, age showed a marginal negative association ($\beta = -0.893$, $p = 0.379$), potentially aligning with prior research suggesting older workers may prove more resistance to organizational change (Ng and Feldman, 2012). However, this non-significant finding contrasts with other studies reporting positive age effects in technology adoption contexts (Morris and Venkatesh, 2000). Gender differences were negligible ($\beta = -0.093$, $p = 0.445$), consistent with meta-analytic evidence showing minimal gender effects in workplace change acceptance. Education level demonstrated a small positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.222$, $p = 0.397$), while both organizational tenure ($\beta = 0.092$, $p = 0.532$) and job experience ($\beta = 0.919$, $p = 0.368$) showed minimal associations with change management desire. In the job performance model, age again showed a non-significant negative trend ($\beta = -0.371$, $p = 0.460$), potentially reflecting the complex, context-dependent nature of age-performance relationships (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Gender effects remained negligible ($\beta = 0.029$, $p = 0.663$), consistent with contemporary findings on gender and job performance (Joshi et al., 2015). Education showed a modest positive but non-significant association ($\beta = 0.098$, $p = 0.467$), while organizational tenure ($\beta = 0.035$, $p = 0.693$) and job experience ($\beta = 0.553$, $p = 0.269$) demonstrated minimal predictive power.

Conclusion

The model examining the relationship between job performance, change management desire, and technology readiness exhibits a strong statistical fit, as evidenced by multiple fit indices. This supports the plausibility of the hypothesized structural relationships and justifies further interpretation of the parameter estimates. The non-significant findings of this study explored established theoretical assumptions in organizational behavior and technology adoption literature that prompt a reevaluation of the

relationships between technology readiness, change management, and job performance. These results suggest that the widely accepted link between technology readiness and change management desire may be more context-dependent than previous research indicates. While models like the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) posit direct relationships between these constructs, our findings imply that in organizational settings where change is mandated rather than voluntary, individual readiness may become less influential. This aligns with institutional perspectives (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) that emphasize structural and coercive forces over individual agency in organizational change processes.

The lack of significant association between change management desire and job performance further complicates traditional change management theories that assume positive attitudes automatically translate to performance improvements. This discrepancy may be explained by the often-overlooked mediating role of implementation quality, where factors like adequate training, leadership support, and resource availability become crucial bridges between desire and actual performance outcomes. The directional trends observed in demographic variables, while not statistically significant, hint at more complex underlying relationships that may be nonlinear or contingent on other factors such as career stage (Ng and Feldman, 2012) or job-specific characteristics. These findings collectively suggest the need for more nuanced theoretical models that account for contextual and organizational variables moderating these relationships. Rather than universal applicability, contingency frameworks may be needed to specify when and under what conditions technology readiness translates to change desire, and when such desire actually leads to performance improvements. The demographic and experience results could reflect sample-specific characteristics or measurement limitations that attenuated potential relationships. Therefore, these non-significant effects may suggest the need for more nuanced operationalizations of experience and tenure that account for quality rather than simply duration (Quiñones et al., 1995).

The results also highlight potential measurement gaps, particularly in distinguishing between cognitive evaluations of technology and affective responses to change (Oreg et al., 2011), suggesting that future research might benefit from integrating dual-process models (Epstein, 1994) that capture both rational and emotional dimensions of organizational change. The results align with contemporary perspectives that emphasize the decreasing predictive power of traditional demographic variables in modern, diverse work environments (Posthuma and Campion, 2009). However, the directional trends observed - particularly for age and experience - warrant further investigation in larger samples and different organizational contexts

to better understand their potential conditional effects The study's outcomes contribute to ongoing theoretical discussions about the boundary conditions of technology acceptance and change management theories, emphasizing the importance of implementation context and challenging the assumption of straightforward attitude-behavior links in organizational settings. These insights open new avenues for research that more carefully consider the organizational ecosystems in which technological changes occur and the complex interplay between individual predispositions and systemic factors in determining workplace outcomes.

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Appendix A – Results

Estimator	ML
Optimization method	NLMINB
Number of model parameters	73
Number of observations	409

Model Test User Model:

Test statistic	562.810
Degrees of freedom	542
P-value (Chi-square)	0.260

User Model versus Baseline Model:

Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.924
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.918

Loglikelihood and Information Criteria:

Loglikelihood user model (H0)	-18823.024
Loglikelihood unrestricted model (H1)	-18541.619
Akaike (AIC)	37792.047
Bayesian (BIC)	38085.049
Sample-size adjusted Bayesian (SABIC)	37853.407

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation:

RMSEA	0.010
90 Percent confidence interval – lower	0.000
90 Percent confidence interval – upper	0.019
P-value H_0: RMSEA <= 0.050	1.000
P-value H_0: RMSEA >= 0.080	0.000

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual:

SRMR	0.045

Parameter Estimates:

Standard errors	Standard
Information	Expected
Information saturated (h1) model	Structured

Regressions:

	Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	Std.all
Change_Management ~						
Technlgy_Rdnss	0.368	0.382	0.963	0.335	0.446	0.446
age	-0.008	0.009	-0.879	0.379	-0.076	-0.893
Gender	-0.020	0.026	-0.763	0.445	-0.188	-0.093
Education	0.027	0.032	0.847	0.397	0.255	0.222
Organizatn_yrs	0.001	0.002	0.625	0.532	0.011	0.092
Experience_yrs	0.009	0.010	0.900	0.368	0.083	0.919
Job_Performance ~						
Change_Mangmnt	0.164	0.611	0.268	0.789	0.046	0.046
Technlgy_Rdnss	-0.263	0.412	-0.639	0.523	-0.089	-0.089

Age	-0.012	0.016	-0.739	0.460	-0.032	-0.371
Gender	0.023	0.052	0.436	0.663	0.059	0.029
Education	0.043	0.059	0.727	0.467	0.112	0.098
Organizatn_yrs	0.002	0.004	0.395	0.693	0.004	0.035
Experience_yrs	0.019	0.017	1.106	0.269	0.050	0.553

Variances:

	Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	Std.all
.Ldrshp_Sppr_01	1.166	0.083	14.037	0.000	1.166	0.990
.Ldrshp_Sppr_02	1.133	0.092	12.363	0.000	1.133	0.934
.Ldrshp_Sppr_03	1.093	0.088	12.366	0.000	1.093	0.934
.Prtcptn_Cmm_04	1.127	0.101	11.113	0.000	1.127	0.896
.Prtcptn_Cmm_05	1.044	0.081	12.846	0.000	1.044	0.949
.Prtcptn_Cmm_06	1.209	0.093	12.987	0.000	1.209	0.954
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_01	1.447	0.110	13.216	0.000	1.447	0.908
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_02	1.593	0.118	13.495	0.000	1.593	0.930
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_03	1.493	0.111	13.451	0.000	1.493	0.926
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_04	1.369	0.106	12.906	0.000	1.369	0.885
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_05	1.591	0.119	13.314	0.000	1.591	0.915
.Wrk_Lf_Cnfl_06	1.461	0.111	13.200	0.000	1.461	0.907
.Prcvd_Strss_07	1.317	0.098	13.504	0.000	1.317	0.931
.Prcvd_Strss_08	1.377	0.105	13.134	0.000	1.377	0.902
.Prcvd_Strss_09	1.396	0.103	13.504	0.000	1.396	0.931
.Prcvd_Strss_10	1.411	0.108	13.089	0.000	1.411	0.898
.Prcvd_Strss_11	1.387	0.103	13.456	0.000	1.387	0.927
.Prcvd_Strss_12	1.242	0.095	13.014	0.000	1.242	0.893
.Prcvd_Strss_13	1.305	0.101	12.956	0.000	1.305	0.888
.Optimism_01	0.896	0.064	14.018	0.000	0.896	0.982
.Optimism_02	0.749	0.063	11.837	0.000	0.749	0.860
.Optimism_03	0.847	0.067	12.670	0.000	0.847	0.903
.Optimism_04	1.005	0.075	13.370	0.000	1.005	0.942
.Optimism_05	0.945	0.069	13.677	0.000	0.945	0.960
.Optimism_06	0.763	0.057	13.377	0.000	0.763	0.942
.Innovatvnss_07	1.425	0.105	13.554	0.000	1.425	0.953
.Innovatvnss_08	1.140	0.097	11.755	0.000	1.140	0.856
.Innovatvnss_09	1.125	0.083	13.523	0.000	1.125	0.951
.Innovatvnss_10	1.120	0.088	12.677	0.000	1.120	0.903
.Innovatvnss_11	1.194	0.089	13.360	0.000	1.194	0.941
.Change_Mangmnt	0.009	0.015	0.582	0.561	0.752	0.752
.Job_Performanc	0.138	0.059	2.334	0.020	0.936	0.936
Technlgy_Rdnss	0.017	0.018	0.959	0.337	1.000	1.000

Appendix B – Screenshot of Questionnaire Form

The Questionnaire was headed with:
“I kindly ask you to devote 15 minutes to participate and fill this survey. Your individual privacy and confidentiality will be maintained, and no organization will be linked to your participation or answers. Participation is entirely voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time without any consequence. By completing this questionnaire, you indicate your informed consent to participate in this study.”