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

Samer Hamad, PhD Candidate
Istanbul Okan University, Turkey

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Abstract

This research investigates the interaction between technology readiness, change management, and job performance. The research explored the effects of technology readiness on change management and job performance, as well as the mediating role of change management in this relationship. 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. The results indicated that technology readiness had no significant direct effect on change management or job performance and change management did not significantly mediate job performance. These results revealed that the widely accepted link between technology readiness and change management may be more context-dependent than previously assumed. The findings suggest that in organizational settings where change is mandated rather than voluntary, individual readiness may become less influential. These insights suggest organizations should focus on structural implementation factors over individual preparation when managing technological changes, offering a new

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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, needing 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 employees experience the effect of change management. Therefore, the change management process describes an employee's perception of the degree to which change management has included adjustments and improvement 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 levels (Gareis, 2010) as well as competencies, behaviors, procedures, duties, leadership, culture, functional metrics. According to the change management approach, it is vital to differentiate between the impact of change management and functions that are performed by the organization's management during the progression of change management. Therefore, by analyzing the impacted level of the company's change management, the company gains benefit from changing management processes. Thus, when change management is implemented more effectively, expenditure is reduced, and more competitive advantage is achieved.

Change management denotes a change or reorganizes 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 lead to four main forms: adaptation, reorganization, development, and redevelopment. In

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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. The findings suggest 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. The research highlights the critical roles of trust, commitment, and communication quality in shaping job satisfaction and institutional adaptability during change. A key original contribution lies in empirically examining the role of the mediating of change management in the relationship between technological readiness and job performance. By incorporating technology readiness into change management analysis, the study provides novel insights into why employees differ in their responses to technological change. This integrative approach bridges theoretical and practical divides, drawing from organizational behavior, information systems, and human resource management to offer a holistic understanding of change implementation.

Literature Review

Change Management

Employees are responsible for the implementation of change, and their perspectives and personal variations are properly playing a significant part in changing management processes. An adaptable employee enables the company to meet change goals and aims, adjust and respond to their 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). Vlasenko et al., 2019) highlighted the complexity of managing change, particularly in the context of rapid technological advancements and shifting workplace dynamics. They also highlighted that the change management is considered as an interaction between direct implementation and organizational impact (Vlasenko et al., 2019). Thus, change initiatives

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must be cost-justified and evaluated against employee, organizational, and procedural outcomes. Oreg et al. (2018) demonstrated that employee resilience and proactive behaviors are equally critical in sustaining change. This perspective shifts the focus from top-down directives to collaborative change ecosystems. Information on change, self-effectiveness 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 the 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. According to Errida et al., (2018), change management can be intentional as well as planned. On the other hand, there are soft change 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 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 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 change management effectiveness is based on six fundamental assumptions of Edmonstone (1995); first, workplace behavior issues are a result of employees' ability, skill, and mindsets. Second, this behavior can be conducted through identifying and modification. 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. Fifth, sustained behavioral change requires continuous reinforcement and support from leadership. Sixth, implementing change management initiatives will change the firm. Furthermore, Shin et al. (2012) underscored the interplay between organizational practices and individual psychological traits in fostering adaptive outcomes and suggested that both organizational support and individual resilience are critical for successful change implementation. Shin et al. (2012) emphasized how external and internal resources shape employee responses to change. The external resources were the organizational inducements which were training and development, information and communication, supportive leadership, and participation in decision-making. These inducements reduced resistance and increased commitment to

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change by providing employees with tools and confidence to adapt. While internal resources were the psychological resilience which were emotional regulation, positive reappraisal, persistence, and adaptability. Resilient employees exhibited more positive attitudes and initiative-taking behaviors regardless of external support.

Shollo and Galliers (2016) argued that emergent change, driven by real-time data and agile methodologies, is increasingly relevant in dynamic industries. Al-Omari and Al-Omari (2006) argued that companies that trust their employees will behave as expected in a socially responsible manner. Therefore, trust minimizes the social complex 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 (1947) model as the three steps 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 to feel acknowledged for their contribution to the change's success. The refreezing solidifies the change by instilling the new behavior in the mindsets of 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 are classified as planned change

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management (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Change management becomes more predictable when attempts are made according to plan and providing 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 all 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 non-financial advantage that both might enhancing profit margins, lowering expenses, expanding competitive advantage, and enhancing 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 identifying 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 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), 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 on the development of the end-product and service whose quality defines the

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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 performance evaluates the success of anticipated objectives of the change management. The measure of employee performance reveals how employees are developing over the change management processes. The measure of the change management performance emphasizes the efficiency and influence of the change management initiatives.

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.

Change management failure may be caused by a variety of factors, including inadequate training, incompetent leadership, 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 be able 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). Oreg and Berson (2019) validate the importance of transformational leadership in fostering adaptability and reducing resistance during change. Their research demonstrates that leaders who exhibit empathy and clarity in communication are more likely to inspire trust and cooperation among employees, thereby enhancing the likelihood of successful change implementation. Modern leadership thinks that job satisfaction is the outcome of logical, strong, and motivated leadership (Platis et al., 2015). According to

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(Ghazali et al. 2008), change management leadership, common interest, proper communication, and organizational support can be considered as antecedence 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 colleague employees. According to Kotter (2007), leaderships who effectively change firms achieve eight elements well. First, create a feeling of urgency through investigating the actual, potential catastrophe, 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 plan 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 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 the employees to supersede their performance to a higher level through changing their behaviors and attitude 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

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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.

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, 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.

Beer et al. (1990) explored change management in twelve organizations and determined that 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. 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).

Smet et al. (2018) conducted a comprehensive analysis of organizational change in the digital era, highlighting how employee engagement and participation are even more critical in rapidly evolving environments. Their work demonstrated that organizations with high levels of employee involvement in change initiatives report higher adaptability and innovation rates. Thus, 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

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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 evolve, develop, progress, innovate and take risks, and desire to learn from failures.

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 are 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 system affect employees' performance. Job performance is considered as a dependent variable in which its 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 the change management that has happened in their working environment can affect job performance as well as the requirement 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 responsibility (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), more devoted and committed to their job, and 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

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al., 2016). Supportive employees think that the company respects them, recognizes their specific requirements, and limits, 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. Saks (2017) and Kurtessis et al. (2017) demonstrated that perceived support not only enhances job performance but also fosters innovation and proactive behavior in employees.

Cullen et al. (2014) contended that employee variations in adaptability affect the amount to which employees feel company support for at least two factors. First, adaptive personnel are active in their reaction to environmental concerns. Employees that 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 the 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 the environmental signal, increasing their capability to detect and accept even little 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 acquire 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 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 benefit 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

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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 employees' 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 would 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 a 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 on ordinary performance as well as overall job. Furthermore, given 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

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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, 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

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personal life situation. Perceived organizational support is only substantially associated with work-life conflict and facilitation.

Technology Readiness

Technology readiness is shaped by a complex interplay of positive and negative attitudes, with employees positioned along a spectrum of technological beliefs. The adoption of modern technology is often driven by positive emotions, while negative emotions may act as barriers to acceptance. Additionally, 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 of 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 be carefully chosen and determining whether technology is sufficient or developed enough to be considered for a certain product. Dery et al. (2017) emphasized that investing in the digital workplace is not just about efficiency but is a strategic enabler of innovation. Organizations must focus on technology, culture, and skills to fully leverage its potential. Dery et al. (2017) argued that employee engagement is not just a byproduct but a key driver of digital innovation. Organizations must design digital workplaces that motivate, empower, and connect employees to unlock their full innovative potential. 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,

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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 the 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.

Contribution of the Study

Burnes (2020) explored the origins of Lewin's three-step model of change (unfreezing-changing-refreezing), clarifying misconceptions about its development and application. Burnes (2020) argued that the three-step approach was not a rigid prescription but part of Lewin's broader, flexible framework for understanding change. Oreg et al. (2011) conducted a comprehensive review of quantitative studies over 60 years (1948–2007) examining employees' reactions to organizational change. They highlighted that negative reactions (resistance, cynicism) are more commonly studied than positive ones (support, readiness). It also reveals methodological gaps, such as overreliance on cross-sectional designs and self-report data.

Rigby et al. (2016) argued that agile methodology has become essential across various industries due to its ability to enhance speed, flexibility, and customer focus. The authors highlight key principles of agile, such as iterative progress, cross-functional teams, and rapid feedback loops, which help organizations adapt to changing market demands. The article also discussed the resistance to agile transformation from traditional hierarchies and the need for cultural shifts. Successful adoption requires leadership support, employee empowerment, and a focus on customer needs. Shin et al. (2012) examined how organizational inducements (supportive resources provided by an organization) and psychological resilience influence employees' attitudes and behaviors during organizational change. Their research contributes to understanding how both external organizational support and internal psychological factors shape employee responses to change.

This study proposes a hybrid framework that integrates Burnes' (2020) work with contemporary agile methodologies (Rigby et al., 2016) to foster employee resilience and adaptability (Shin et al., 2012). By bridging classical and modern approaches, the framework emphasizes employee-centric

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strategies, aligning with recent research advocating for participatory change processes (Oreg et al., 2011) and addressing critiques of Lewin's model as argued by (Burnes, 2020). The synthesis leverages agile practices' iterative flexibility (Rigby et al., 2016) while retaining the structured clarity of Burnes (2020), offering a dynamic pathway for sustainable organizational change.

This research holds practical relevance for leadership and organizational strategy. It highlights the critical roles of trust, commitment, and communication quality in shaping job satisfaction and institutional adaptability during change. The findings advocate for agile leadership methodologies and continuous feedback mechanisms to sustain momentum in volatile environments. Notably, the study advances discourse on adaptive leadership by examining its role in mitigating resistance within hybrid workplaces. A key original contribution lies in empirically examining the role of the mediating of change management in the relationship between technological readiness and job performance. By incorporating technology readiness into change management analysis, the study provides novel insights into why employees differ in their responses to technological change. This integrative approach bridges theoretical and practical divides, drawing from organizational behavior, information systems, and human resource management to offer a holistic understanding of change implementation.

Furthermore, the study refines existing knowledge by investigating how internal resistance or readiness moderates' technology-driven change. It extends prior work by incorporating updated conceptualizations of job crafting and adaptive performance, emphasizing the interplay between structural alignment and proactive employee behavior. Additionally, the research contextualizes technology readiness within change management frameworks, demonstrating how psychological dispositions toward technology influence organizational transformation mechanisms. Finally, this research consolidates evidence-based leadership practices, critiques existing models, and proposes a more employee-centric approach to change management. By integrating psychological resilience, perceived organizational support, and adaptability into a cohesive explanatory model, it underscores that these factors are not merely supplementary but integral to sustaining performance during transformation. These insights are particularly timely for practitioners seeking to foster resilience and engagement in an era of constant disruption.

Methodology

Sample and Procedure

In order to obtain a representative sample of change management perceptions as a mediating role of change management between technology readiness and job performance, a self-report questionnaire in English was created by Google Forms (refer to Appendix B) and the generated link, headed

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with 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 be collected with minimal missing data. According to Koopmans et al. (2014), existing measures of job performance may have significant limitations. The questionnaires began with demographic questions that include age, gender, education, years spent in the organization, and total working experience. The demographic data reveals a diverse sample in terms of age (ranging from 18 to 65 years), gender (balanced representation of males and females), education (from high school to Ph.D.), and work experience (1 to 40 years). This diversity enhances the generalizability of the findings across different organizational contexts. The sample represents random employees who work in middle east regardless their job's name or industry type.

Technology readiness was measured by using two items: optimism and innovativeness which were adapted from Parasuraman (2000). These items were selected because they capture employees' openness to technological change, a core aspect of technology readiness. Optimism reflects a positive attitude toward technology's potential to enhance control and efficiency, while innovativeness indicates a propensity to adopt new technologies early. These items have been validated in subsequent studies, such as Blut and Wang (2020), who confirmed their reliability in assessing employees' openness to technological change.

Change management was measured by using two items: leadership support and participation / communication. Leadership support reflects the role of management in guiding and reinforcing change initiatives, while participation/communication emphasizes employee involvement and transparent information sharing during change processes. These measures align with literature such as Vlasenko et al. (2019) and Shin et al. (2012). These measures highlight leadership and communication as critical drivers of successful change management. By focusing on these dimensions, the study captures both structural and interactive aspects of change management.

Job performance was measured by using two items: perceived organizational support and work-life conflict. These metrics are widely recognized for their robustness in measuring job performance in organizational settings. perceived organizational support measures employees' beliefs about the organization's commitment to their well-being and contributions, which directly influences job satisfaction and performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Work-life conflict evaluates the interference between work demands and personal life, a factor known to impact job performance negatively.

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In this research, job performance was the dependent variable, while technology readiness was the independent variable. Change management was the mediate variable between technology readiness and job performance. The demographic variables were the control variables to include any potential confounding effects on change management and job performance.

Analytical Approach

In this research a Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to evaluate how significance of 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 is 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 from one to five, 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

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administered to diverse populations, as SEM can evaluate whether relationships hold consistently across subgroups.

The methodological strengths of SEM are further supported by its widespread adoption in recent technology readiness research. Blut and Wang (2020) utilized SEM to validate the latent structure of technology readiness metrics and its influence on technology usage. They found that technology readiness significantly impacts technology adoption, with optimism and innovativeness fostering acceptance, while discomfort and insecurity hinder it. Gunawan et al. (2021) utilized SEM to highlight how transformational leadership in entrepreneurship fosters adaptability, enhances employees' psychological resources (such as resilience and optimism), and improves performance. They suggested that transformational entrepreneurship positively influences employees' willingness to embrace change, boosts their psychological capital, and enhances their job performance. Khoza et al. (2024) utilized SEM to explore relationship between technology readiness, technology acceptance, and work engagement. They found that technology acceptance mediates the positive relationship between technology readiness and work engagement. Employees who are more prepared to embrace technology are more likely to accept and use it effectively, leading to higher work engagement.

Descriptive Statistics

As shown in table-01, the descriptive statistics table presents a comprehensive overview of the survey responses collected from participants, detailing key demographic and psychological variables. The respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 65 years, with a mean age of 42.81 years and a median of 43 years, indicating a relatively balanced age distribution. Gender distribution shows that 44.5% of the respondents identified as female, while the remaining 55.5% identified as male. Education levels were measured on an ordinal scale, with most respondents holding a bachelor's degree (median = 3, master's degree), and the mean education level was 2.82, suggesting a skew towards higher education. Years that a respondent has spent in the organization varied widely, ranging from 1 to 39 years, with a mean of 9.31 years and a median of 6 years, reflecting a right-skewed distribution where some respondents had significantly longer tenure. Similarly, total professional experience ranged from 1 to 40 years, with a mean of 17.15 years and a median of 17 years, indicating a symmetrical distribution.

For the Technology Readiness latent variable, the subscales Optimism and Innovativeness. The Optimism items exhibited high means, ranging from 4.15 to 4.22, suggesting respondents reported high levels of optimism. The Innovativeness items had slightly lower means ranging from 3.63 to 3.74, indicating moderate to high levels of innovativeness. The median and mode

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values for these items were consistently 4 or 5, reinforcing the tendency of respondents to agree or strongly agree with these statements.

The Change Management latent variable, represented by Leadership Support and Participation / Communication subscales. Leadership Support items had means from 3.68 to 3.73, reflecting moderate agreement. Participation / Communication items had means ranging from 3.68 to 3.71, suggesting respondents perceived moderate levels of participation and communication in change management processes.

The Job Performance latent variable, comprising Work Life Conflict and Perceived Stress subscales, revealed interesting patterns. Work Life Conflict items had means between 3.16 and 3.52, with median values of 3 or 4, indicating moderate levels of work-life conflict. Perceived Stress items exhibited higher variability, with means ranging from 3.38 to 3.90, suggesting that stress perceptions varied across different aspects, with some items showing higher stress levels than others.

The data suggests that respondents generally reported positive attitudes towards technology readiness and moderate perceptions of change management and job performance-related factors. The variability in responses highlights the diversity of experiences and perceptions among participants.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	Variable	Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
Demographic	age	18	33	43	42.81	52	65
	Gender	0	0	0	0.445	1	1
	Education	1	2	3	2.819	4	4
	Years Spent in Organization	1	3	6	9.311	14	39
	Years of Experience	1	7	17	17.15	26	40
Technology Readiness	Optimism_01	1	4	4	4.161	5	5
	Optimism_02	1	4	4	4.164	5	5
	Optimism_03	1	4	4	4.193	5	5
	Optimism_04	1	4	4	4.188	5	5
	Optimism_05	1	4	4	4.152	5	5
	Optimism_06	1	4	4	4.215	5	5
	Innovativeness_07	1	3	4	3.626	5	5
	Innovativeness_08	1	3	4	3.636	5	5
	Innovativeness_09	1	3	4	3.743	5	5
	Innovativeness_10	1	3	4	3.689	5	5
	Innovativeness_11	1	3	4	3.667	5	5
Change Management	Leadership Support_01	1	3	4	3.675	5	5
	Leadership Support_02	1	3	4	3.685	5	5
	Leadership Support_03	1	3	4	3.729	5	5
	Participation / Communication_10	1	3	4	3.697	5	5
	Participation / Communication_11	1	3	4	3.711	5	5

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	Variable	Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
	Participation / Communication_12	1	3	4	3.682	5	5
Job Performance	Work Life Conflict_01	1	3	4	3.523	5	5
	Work Life Conflict_02	1	2	3	3.174	4	5
	Work Life Conflict_03	1	2	3	3.161	4	5
	Work Life Conflict_04	1	2	3	3.215	4	5
	Work Life Conflict_05	1	2	3	3.205	4	5
	Work Life Conflict_06	1	2	3	3.169	4	5
	Perceived Stress_12	1	3	4	3.557	5	5
	Perceived Stress_13	1	3	3	3.408	4	5
	Perceived Stress_14	1	3	4	3.897	5	5
	Perceived Stress_15	1	3	4	3.381	4	5
	Perceived Stress_16	1	3	4	3.484	4	5
	Perceived Stress_17	1	4	4	3.88	5	5
	Perceived Stress_18	1	3	4	3.778	5	5
Education: (High School = 1, Bachelor = 2, Master = 3, PhD = 4) Gender: (Male = 0, Female = 1)							

Statistical Model

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 of SEM is 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) were examined in order to evaluate how well the hypothesized model aligns with empirical data (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

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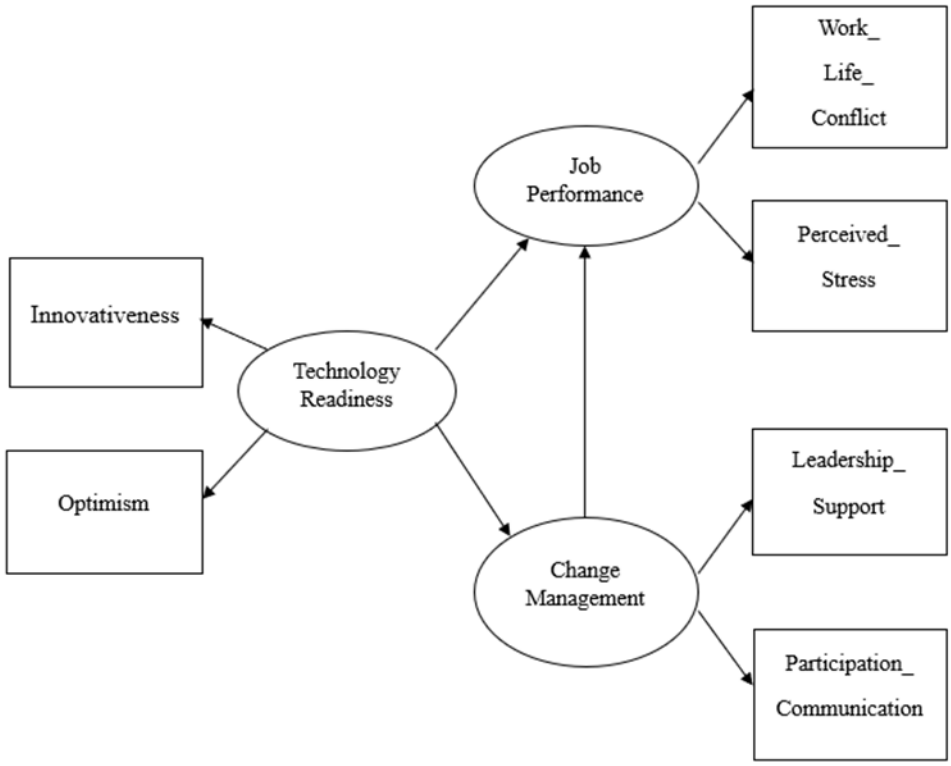

Figure 1: Statistical Model

Statistical Interpretation

Referring to Appendix B and figure-02, 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 means 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 (χ^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 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., Leadership

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Support_01, Participation / Communication_10, Work Life Conflict_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 Management ($p = 0.561$) is not statistically significant, implying that the latent factor does not exhibit substantial variability beyond its indicators. In contrast, the variance of Job Performance ($p = 0.020$) is significant, indicating meaningful latent variability in job performance not fully captured by its observed measures. The variance of Technology Reediness ($p = 0.337$) is fixed for identification purposes, but its non-significant p-value suggests that the latent variance may not be substantial. The standardized loadings (St. All) for most indicators exceed 0.85, demonstrating strong factor-item relationships, which align with established psychometric standards. However, items such as 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. These variables were age, gender, education level, organizational tenure (Years Spent in Organization), and job experience (Years of Experience). The results revealed no statistically significant effects ($p > 0.05$) for any of these control variables in regression models. For change management desire, age showed a marginal negative association ($\beta = -0.008$, $p = 0.379$), 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 ($\beta = -0.020$, $p = 0.445$), consistent with meta-analytic evidence showing minimal gender effects in workplace change acceptance. Education level demonstrated a small positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.027$, $p = 0.397$), while both organizational tenure ($\beta = 0.001$, $p = 0.532$) and job experience ($\beta = 0.009$, $p = 0.368$) showed minimal associations with change management desire. In the job performance model, age again showed a non-significant negative trend ($\beta = -0.012$, $p = 0.460$), potentially reflecting the complex, context-dependent nature of age-performance relationships (Ng and Feldman, 2008). Gender effects remained negligible ($\beta = 0.023$, $p = 0.663$), consistent with contemporary findings on gender and job performance (Joshi et al., 2015). Education showed a modest positive but non-significant association ($\beta = 0.043$, $p = 0.467$), while organizational tenure ($\beta = 0.002$, $p = 0.693$) and job experience ($\beta = 0.019$, $p = 0.269$) demonstrated minimal predictive power. These results suggest that demographic and work experience variables may

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not be robust predictors of change management desire or job performance in this context.

Discussion

The findings underscore the importance of focusing on latent constructions rather than demographic characteristics when designing change interventions. The non-significant effects of demographic variables imply that blanket policies based on age, gender, or tenure may be ineffective. Instead, managers should adopt a more nuanced approach, focusing on psychological and situational factors (e.g., leadership support, role clarity) that have been shown to influence change acceptance and performance. Managers should prioritize fostering technological readiness and job performance through targeted training and support, as these constructions demonstrate meaningful variability and strong empirical grounding.

The non-significant association between technology readiness and change management contradicts the Technology Readiness framework which posits that employees' positive attitudes toward technology drive their acceptance of change. This discrepancy suggests that in contexts where change is mandated, structural and coercive institutional forces may overshadow individual predispositions, aligning with the study's finding that latent constructs like leadership support and organizational context are more critical than demographic or attitudinal factors. In addition, the results support a more nuanced, contingency-based framework, where the success of change initiatives depends on the interplay of individual resilience and organizational support, rather than universal assumptions about attitude-behavior links.

The non-significant effects of demographic variables align with contemporary critiques of demographic determinism and highlight the need for targeted interventions, such as leadership training and iterative feedback mechanisms, to foster adaptability and resilience in dynamic environments. In addition, the lack of statistically significant effects for demographic variables, the findings suggest that these factors may not play a substantial role in influencing change management desire or job performance in the studied context. While some trends, such as the marginal negative association of age with change management desire, align with prior research, the non-significant results caution against drawing definitive conclusions.

Conclusion

The model examining the relationship between job performance, change management desire, and technology readiness exhibits 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

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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 may be more context-dependent than previous research indicates. The findings suggest 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 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 during transitions. Without these practical steps, even strong employee desire for change may fail to yield measurable performance gains.

The demographic variables were not statistically significant which 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 leads to performance improvements. For organizations, this means adopting a tailored approach to change management, recognizing that strategies effective in one context may not work in another. Leaders should assess their specific organizational culture, workforce composition, and the nature of the change before designing interventions.

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). Practically, this implies that organizations' policies and performance evaluations should focus on the depth and relevance of employees' experiences rather than relying solely on tenure or superficial metrics. Organizations could benefit from implementing mentorship programs or competency-based assessments to better capture the qualitative aspects of employee experience.

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Practical Advice for Organizations

Literature prescribes a practical roadmap which is based on transparent communication with clarity to reduce uncertainty, customization support, celebration incremental progress, and co-create change with employees. These steps operate theoretical insights while addressing the human dynamics that determine success. In addition, investing in tailored training programs is another critical step. The Technology Readiness Index (TRI) reveals that employees adopt technology at different paces due to varying levels of optimism or discomfort (Parasuraman, 2000). leaders should segment employees based on TRI dimensions in order to align technology with culture. Additionally, fostering quick wins can build momentum. Agile methodologies further support by breaking changes into iterative phases, allowing employees to adapt progressively.

The findings of this study offer several actionable insights for organizations navigating technological change and aiming to improve job performance. First, leaders should assess whether changes are being introduced as voluntary initiatives or mandated requirements. In cases where change is imposed, organizations should focus less on individual readiness alone and more on creating structural support systems, such as clear communication channels, phased implementation plans, and mechanisms to address employee concerns. This approach aligns with institutional forces that shape behavior, ensuring that change is driven not just by individual willingness but by systemic reinforcement. Second, the absence of a direct relationship between change management desire and job performance highlights the critical role of implementation quality. Organizations should prioritize comprehensive training programs tailored to different learning styles, visible leadership endorsement of change initiatives, and the allocation of sufficient time and resources for employees to adapt. Pairing new technology rollouts with hands-on workshops, mentorship opportunities, and ongoing support can bridge the gap between enthusiasm for change and actual performance improvements.

Additionally, the non-significant effects of demographic variables suggest that traditional markers like tenure or age may not reliably predict adaptability to change. Instead, organizations should adopt competency-based assessments, cross-functional project teams, and continuous learning opportunities that focus on skills rather than seniority. Encouraging a culture of feedback, where employees at all levels can share their experiences and challenges, can also help identify hidden barriers to successful change adoption. Finally, given the complexity of these relationships, organizations should embrace a contingency-based approach to change management. Rather than relying on one-size-fits-all strategies, leaders should diagnose their unique organizational context, including cultural norms, team dynamics, and

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the specific nature of the change being introduced. Pilot programs, iterative testing, and data-driven adjustments can help tailor interventions to the realities of the workplace, ensuring that theoretical models translate into practical success. By integrating these insights, organizations can foster more effective and sustainable change, enhancing both employee engagement and performance outcomes.

Limitation and Future Study

The results also highlight potential measurement gaps, particularly in distinguishing between cognitive evaluations of technology and effective responses to change. 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.

The research design relies on self-reported data, which may introduce bias, particularly in assessing subjective constructs like perceived support or resistance. Additionally, the measurement scope focuses on individual-level responses rather than systemic organizational factors, potentially overlooking broader structural influences on change outcomes. 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 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 into larger samples and different organizational contexts to better understand their potential conditional effects. In addition, future studies may adopt longitudinal designs to explore causal pathways and incorporate multi-level frameworks that integrate individual and institutional factors.

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was entirely voluntary, confidentiality was assured, informed consent was obtained electronically through the questionnaire introduction, and principles of the Helsinki Declaration were followed.

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Appendix A – Results

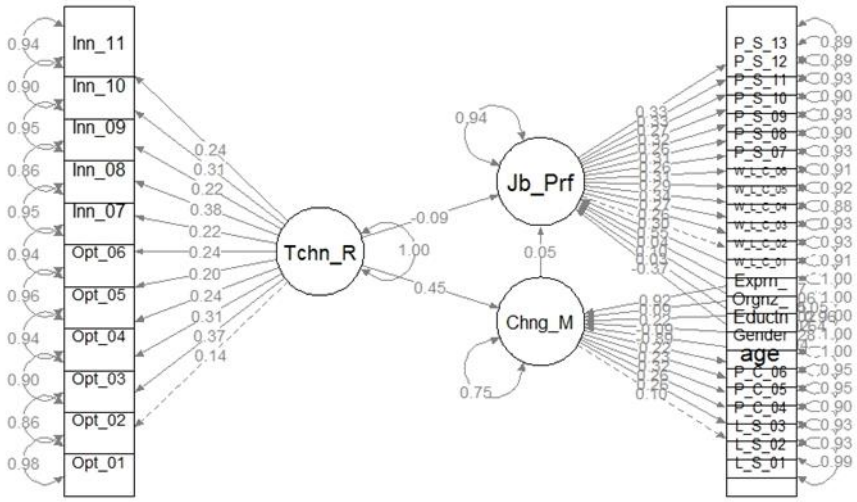

Figure 2: Statistical Results

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

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Standardized Root Mean Square Residual:

SRMR	0.045

Parameter Estimates:

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

Regressions:

	Estimate	St. Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	St. All
Change Management ~						
Technology Readiness	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
Years Spent in Organization	0.001	0.002	0.625	0.532	0.011	0.092
Years of Experience	0.009	0.010	0.900	0.368	0.083	0.919
Job Performance ~						
Change Management	0.164	0.611	0.268	0.789	0.046	0.046
Technology Readiness	-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
Years Spent in Organization	0.002	0.004	0.395	0.693	0.004	0.035
Years of Experience	0.019	0.017	1.106	0.269	0.050	0.553

Variances:

	Estimate	St. Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	St. All
Leadership Support_01	1.166	0.083	14.037	0.000	1.166	0.990
Leadership Support_02	1.133	0.092	12.363	0.000	1.133	0.934
Leadership Support_03	1.093	0.088	12.366	0.000	1.093	0.934
Participation / Communication_04	1.127	0.101	11.113	0.000	1.127	0.896
Participation / Communication_05	1.044	0.081	12.846	0.000	1.044	0.949
Participation / Communication_06	1.209	0.093	12.987	0.000	1.209	0.954
Work Life Conflict_01	1.447	0.110	13.216	0.000	1.447	0.908
Work Life Conflict_02	1.593	0.118	13.495	0.000	1.593	0.930
Work Life Conflict_03	1.493	0.111	13.451	0.000	1.493	0.926
Work Life Conflict_04	1.369	0.106	12.906	0.000	1.369	0.885
Work Life Conflict_05	1.591	0.119	13.314	0.000	1.591	0.915
Work Life Conflict_06	1.461	0.111	13.200	0.000	1.461	0.907
Perceived Stress_07	1.317	0.098	13.504	0.000	1.317	0.931
Perceived Stress_08	1.377	0.105	13.134	0.000	1.377	0.902
Perceived Stress_09	1.396	0.103	13.504	0.000	1.396	0.931
Perceived Stress_10	1.411	0.108	13.089	0.000	1.411	0.898
Perceived Stress_11	1.387	0.103	13.456	0.000	1.387	0.927
Perceived Stress_12	1.242	0.095	13.014	0.000	1.242	0.893
Perceived Stress_13	1.305	0.101	12.956	0.000	1.305	0.888

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	Estimate	St. Err	z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	St. All
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
Innovativness_07	1.425	0.105	13.554	0.000	1.425	0.953
Innovativness_08	1.140	0.097	11.755	0.000	1.140	0.856
Innovativness_09	1.125	0.083	13.523	0.000	1.125	0.951
Innovativness_10	1.120	0.088	12.677	0.000	1.120	0.903
Innovativness_11	1.194	0.089	13.360	0.000	1.194	0.941
Change Management	0.009	0.015	0.582	0.561	0.752	0.752
Job Performance	0.138	0.059	2.334	0.020	0.936	0.936
Technology Readiness	0.017	0.018	0.959	0.337	1.000	1.000