



ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AS A CONTRIBUTOR TO ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING IN THE AIRLINE INDUSTRY OF MALAYSIA

Dean Nelson Mojolou^{a*}, Stephen Laison Sondoh Jr.^{b*}, Toh Pei Sung^c

^{a,b,c} Faculty of Business, Economy and Accountancy, Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Sabah, Malaysia.

*Corresponding author's email: mrking_dean@yahoo.com, jude@ums.edu.my

ABSTRACT

The Malaysia Airlines Industry is one of the most significant financial contributors to the country. It can significantly influence the transportation market globally, and Malaysia had the fourth largest air passenger traffic in the South and Southeast Asia region, after China, India, and Indonesia. The quality of this industry is defined by organizational transformation, which is influenced by various factors that might influence organizational learning and performance. This study investigates the relationship between five factors of organizational change: people, technology, structure, task and organization culture, and organizational learning. The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 26 analyzed the data collected from the sampling among 194 staff in Malaysia Airport. The researcher uses purposive sampling to collect the data and a survey questionnaire, including an online survey. The findings suggest significant relationships exist between technology, structure, and organizational culture toward organizational learning. In contrast, people and tasks have no significant relationship with organizational learning. The study's result will contribute to the previous literature pool on organizational change and work performance by testing Leavitt's and Borman's models. It also gives the airline industry guidance to address its organizational change program's weaknesses and strengths to improve its learning and performance.

JEL classification: L0

Keywords: Organizational change, organizational culture, organizational learning, people, structure, task, technology.

Received: March 30, 2022

Revised: October 10, 2023

Accepted: December 4, 2023

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The Airline industry in Malaysia is the most important industry that can impact the country's economic and social growth. According to MAVCOM (2018), Malaysia ranked fourth in South and Southeast Asia in air passenger traffic, behind China, India, and

Indonesia. Malaysia has a modern and fully equipped domestic and international airport network, according to the Ministry of Transportation Portal (2019). Malaysia's airport has world-class facilities and can accommodate additional passenger and airline operations domestically and internationally. Malaysia has six international airports, sixteen domestic airports, and eighteen airport aerodromes (short take-off and landing ports-STOL ports) to handle passenger demand and support a variety of aircraft types, according to the Ministry of Transportation's website (2019). Malaysian air passenger traffic has climbed by 6.5 percent recently, and the airline industry's growth is likely to accelerate as major companies expand (Ministry of Transport Portal, 2019). In addition, the gross domestic product (GDP) growth in the airline industry of Malaysia could reach 8.6 percent in the year 2020 (MAVCOM, 2018). Besides, the MAHB's entire network of airports increased by 40 percent in 2018 from 133 in 2017 (MAVCOM, 2018). Approximately 1 million passenger movements are the highest passenger volume handled to date (MAHB, 2018). MAHB added that international and domestic passenger movements increased by 5.9 percent and 2.3 percent, respectively, to 63.3 million and 69.8 million passengers (MAHB, 2018).

In modern organizations, organizational and technological change are crucial elements that every management should not take for granted. It became more vital when the organization faced increased competitors and technology itself. According to Dilyana Petkova (2015), companies confront fierce competition and must deal with difficult market conditions. The study investigates the relationship between organizational change and employee learning. This research is based on Leavitt's (1965) and Burke-Litwin's (1992) organizational change models.

1.2 Problem statement

Between July 01 and December 31, 2018, 821 complaints were received, including 810 against airlines and 11 against airports (Aviation Commissioner of Malaysia, 2019). The complaints represent an increase of 11.7 percent over the 735 received from MAVCOM from July 01 to December 31, 2017. According to the MAVCOM report (2019), mishandled baggage, refund processing, and flight delays account for 51.6 percent of MAVCOM-received complaints.

In August 2018, the researcher conducted a survey of two management staff members at Malaysia Airlines (MAS), mentioning that the system still has drawbacks and is outdated. Moreover, AirAsia discovered that the previous system of their jobs was obsolete (MAVCOM, 2019). It is difficult for them to perform their jobs effectively, even more so when juggling multiple tasks simultaneously. MAS and AirAsia Berhad employees agree that improving organizational learning is necessary to enhance employee work performance. To succeed, the organization must be concerned with management and technology changes.

As Ndahiro et al. (2015) noted, government and private institutions face numerous challenges across various operational areas. This is primarily due to intense competition and a lack of change or a failure to implement change after it has been implemented. They added that rapid environmental change, competition for innovative products and services, shifting customer and investor needs, and globalization had become the firms' usual backdrop. Regarding organizational change, resistance to change is a major challenge. The study by Ndahiro et al. (2015) at the Rwanda Revenue Authority found that 52 percent of respondents strongly assert that resistance to change is caused by a lack of motivation, while the other factors are a lack of experience, lack of credibility, and poor management.

Therefore, there is a need to conduct research regarding organizational change and learning in Malaysia's airline industry.

1.3 Research objectives

This study has five research objectives: (i) to examine the relationship between people and organizational learning; (ii) to examine the relationship between organizational learning and technology; (iii) to examine the relationship between organizational structure and learning; (iv) to examine the relationship between task and organizational learning; (v) to examine the relationship between organizational culture and learning.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Organizational change

Organizational change can be defined as an action or set of actions resulting in a shift in direction or processes that affect how an organization works (Karanja, 2015). It happens in every organization, especially with much staff and utilizing modern equipment. According to Karanja, 2015, organizational change positively influenced employee performance, with the technology variable having the greatest and most positive impact. According to Nickols (2010), organizational change refers to planned, managed, or systematic changes. Organizational change is intended to maximize the use of human resources by assisting individuals in better adapting to the organization's structure, technology, and jobs to become more proficient and effectively engage other variables to achieve optimal organizational performance (Ashok, 1971). There are five variables in organizational change: people, technology, structure, task, and organizational culture (Leavitt, 1965; Burke-Litwin, 1992).

The people variable refers to people's attitudes being influenced by their emotions, and collective experiences of feeling, participation, and belonging are created as part of the process (Ashok, 1971). He further mentions that job design, organizational structure, leadership, counseling people, team development, and shifts in employee motivation and attitudes are all important factors. The people variable is related to organizational leadership and how they can motivate the employees. Romi Ilham (2018) states that leadership is the agent of organizational success that shifts from time to time and is contextually based on the social, political, and cultural development prevailing in its era. Leadership is a process of interaction between leaders and followers where the leader attempts to influence followers to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010). Besides, Rikfi (2012) stated that leadership, working environment, and compensation have a positive and significant relationship toward employees' job satisfaction in a selected company in Jakarta, Indonesia. It means that the better the leadership, the more organizational change can occur and enhance employee performance.

In technology, large-scale information systems, such as enterprise resource planning systems (ERP), customer relationship management systems (CRM), and supply chain management systems (SCM), are examples of IT-driven techno changes that have been increasingly implemented in various types of organizations in recent years (Harrison and Boonstra, 2009). Large-scale information systems, such as enterprise resource planning systems (ERP), customer relationship management systems (CRM), and supply chain management systems (SCM), are examples of IT-driven techno changes that have been increasingly implemented in various types of organizations in recent years (Harrison and Boonstra, 2009). According to Harrison and Boonstra (2009), technology changes are self-explanatory and refer to technology-driven businesses, encompassing many factors

that influence work performance. A technology change results in a new set of rules being embedded in the organization's information system, reorganizing the existing organizational arrangements and procedures, and stating that technology changes are a process that involves a major redesign of the institutional framework via its Information Technology system (Ciborra, 2002).

According to Wilson and Rosenfeld (1990), the organization's structure is the established relationship pattern between the parts of an organization, outlining communication, control, and authority patterns, and structure distinguishes the parts of an organization and delineates the relationship between them. Stacey (2003) mentioned that the organization structure can also be defined as a formal way of identifying who takes responsibility for what, who is to exercise authority over whom, and who is answerable to whom. Understanding how to communicate an intended organizational change is one of the challenges for organizational communication scholars in the new century (Jones, Watson, Garder & Gallas, 2004). The focus of this study is on the role of communication on individual employees, and more in particular, on the responses to a planned organizational change. Changes in organizational structure may include changes in communication system pattern, appraisal and evaluation procedures, job definition and appropriate relationship between jobs, the system of authority, control centralization and decentralization of authority, and control centralization and decentralization of authority for changing people's motivation.

The next variable is the task. One of the objectives of starting and regulating task variable changes is to achieve maximum performance of the same task, a new but related task, or a new and different task that requires acquiring new knowledge and abilities (Ashok, 1971). He goes on to say that the task variable in organizational change can be influenced or achieved through the use of technologies like job redesign, simplification or addition of procedures, equipment, and mechanics for better task performance, and the creation of a group feeling of team spirit as well as employee enthusiasm and motivation. According to Stanleigh (2008), a clear vision should also include transformation steps that are coordinated and propel the organization toward the overall goal, and these visions should be communicated not only in words and speeches but also in the actions of managers, supervisors, and executives. Stanleigh (2008) further mentioned that a company's transformation should include short-term goals that can be tracked to show executives and workers that progress is being made toward the ultimate vision and that the long journey will be worth it despite short-term job cuts.

The last variable in organizational change is organizational culture. Saira Irfan and Najib Marzuki (2018) stated that an organization's core values in a strong culture are widely held and shared. Saira Irfan and Najib Marzuki's (2018) study shows that organizational culture influences work motivation and commitment. The study is supported by several researchers, namely May et al. (2014), who believe that organizational culture is a significant element in increasing employee productivity. To a large extent, an organization's culture determines the performance of the individual who works in that organization and, by extension, the organization's performance. Any organization should understand the organizational culture better because it is important for anyone interested in studying organizational growth and development to ensure a strong competitive advantage (Odor, 2018). Different academicians and researchers have seen the organizational culture from their side. For instance, Serpa (2016) view organizational culture as a shared way of being, thinking, and acting in collective and coordinated people with epic oral expectation. However, most of them agree that the

definition by Agwu (2014) is a set of shared values, beliefs, and norms that influence how employees think, feel, and behave in the workplace.

2.2 Organizational learning

Organizational learning processes will be needed to face the continuous change experienced by the business world and the organization, which will be accommodated by learning within the organization. There are three levels in organizational learning: individual, group, and organization (Crossan et al., 1999). In addition, organizational learning involves the process across the individual, group, and organizational levels through intuiting, interpreting, integrating, and institutionalizing (Crossan et al., 1999). The researchers (Crossan et al., 1999) further mention that the approach entails organizational learning, specifically intuition.

Individual learning can be thought of as a conscious or unconscious process. Individuals learn new knowledge through transforming information, changing internal viewpoints, and, in certain cases, behavior, extending their skills and cognitive abilities and enhancing their behavior and outcomes (Martinez and Ruiz, 2002). It is the foundation upon which higher-level procedures, such as group and organizational learning support, are built (Martinez and Ruiz, 2002). According to Dodgson (1993), individuals are the core institutions of the learning organization, and they generate the organizational form that allows learning and organizational transformation. Individuals generate and acquire information, according to Simon (1991). Therefore, individual development must take precedence over organizational development.

Team learning strengthens teamwork, interacts collectively rather than individually, and gets better ideas. This discipline is critical because of the organization, the fundamental learning unit, the team, and not the individual (Martin and Reinders, 2016). Moreover, organizational learning refers to the process of learning that takes place in a company across all levels and among all employees (Martin and Reinders, 2016). It results from interacting and sharing experiences and information among organizational members. As a result, companies must foster a "bottom-up" mindset, in which recommendations for change begin at the bottom and work their way up (Ghosh, 2004). According to this shared knowledge, individual learning is required but insufficient for organizational learning. The information disseminated by the organization's members is methodically shared and interpreted. Organizational learning is one of the methods that may be used to achieve a competitive advantage for a company (Ghosh, 2004).

2.3 The linkage between people and organizational learning

Organizational change in the people dimension refers to people's values, beliefs, attitudes, motives, drives, competencies, knowledge, skills, and abilities (Leavitt, 1965). Organizational learning, also known as deliberate learning, employs procedures at the person, group, and system levels to transform the organization through time to improve stakeholder satisfaction (Dixon, 1994). According to Ashford et al. (1989), when an organization undergoes organizational change, such as restructuring, downsizing, or merging, it causes employees to experience anxiety, stress, and insecurity, affecting productivity, satisfaction, and organizational learning. Behzad Shahrabi (2021) stated that when an organization adopts a change, especially in individual training, specific relations, and inter or intra-organizational learning to discover and solve organizational problems, it will meet customer demand. As a result, a learning organization evolves to shape the future. In Malaysian SMEs, the people factor, such as leadership, has greatly impacted

the firm (Shafique Rehman et al., 2019). After collecting data from individual employees in Chinese firms, Wei et al. (2003) found an association between organizational change in the people dimension and organizational learning. Employee training is one of the people elements of organizational change. McGill and Slocum (1993), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), Jerez Gomez et al., for example, feel that training plays a critical role in organizational learning (2004). Furthermore, according to Camps and Luna-Aroca (2012), training within a learning-oriented HRM system substantially impacts training and organizational learning potential.

2.4 The linkage between technology and organizational learning

Organizational change in the technology dimension refers to the complexity, degree of employee usage, operator control, and responsibility of technology (Leavitt, 1965). Additionally, A technology change results in the establishment of a new set of rules embedded in the organization's information system, reorganizing the organization's established arrangements and procedures states that technology change is a process that entails a significant redesign of the institutional framework via the organization's information technology system (Ciborra, 2002). Organizational learning, as intentional learning, uses processes at the individual, group, and system levels to continuously transform the organization to increase the satisfaction of its stakeholders (Dixon, 1994). According to Neiva et al. (2015), the competencies acquired were those related to the operating system and, to a lesser extent, those related to the adoption of rules and procedure adjustment, which refer to the extent to which individuals were successful in negotiating with other areas and developing joint rules for work in response to the demands imposed by the new system. Aladwani (Aladwani 2001; Bernroider and Koch 2001; Grant Hall, Wailes, and Wright 2006) assert that active learning and new technologies are critical components of the change process, influencing organizational learning. Additionally, organizational learning ability is one of the essential elements of technology innovation. When innovation is fostered by organizational learning ability, it provides a basis for new ideas and encourages creativity (Liao et al., 2008). Thus, the organizational change in the technology dimension will significantly affect organizational learning.

2.5 The linkage between structure and organizational learning

Organizational change in the structure dimension refers to the hierarchy, spans of authority, and centralization of structure (Leavitt, 1965). Organizational learning, as intentional learning, uses processes at the individual, group, and system levels to continuously transform the organization to increase the satisfaction of its stakeholders (Dixon, 1994). The study by Martínez-León and Martínez (2010) found a significant relationship between organizational structure and organizational learning. They believe that the configuration of organizational structure impedes or facilitates the capacity of the company to adapt to change, learn, innovate, or improve its ability to generate added value, thus enhancing the quality of organizational learning. According to Cheng and Huang (2007), the structure influences an interpersonal exchange, organizational resources, communication method, workflow, and member interaction, and because a company's learning capability is contingent on its ability to process and interpret information, the structure affects organizational learning. They further mention that structure in organizational change includes communication systems, job definition,

control centralization, and decentralization of authority, which can motivate employees to learn new things and become more innovative.

2.6 The linkage between task and organizational learning

Organizational change in the task dimension refers to the job design, repetitiveness, physical and cognitive demands, autonomy, and task discretion (Leavitt, 1965). Organizational learning, as intentional learning, uses processes at the individual, group, and system levels to continuously transform the organization to increase the satisfaction of its stakeholders (Dixon, 1994). Thus, Coelho and Borges-Andrade (2008) found that organizational change in task functions, such as individual and working environments, is related to organizational learning. Coelho and Borges-Andrade (2008) argue that added elements such as job design and work setting should assist learning actions. Pouliakas and Russo (2015) state that complex job designs and jobs designed to motivate employees with a high premium on employee skills can positively affect employee and organizational learning. Additionally, according to Neiva et al. (2014), the context of organizational change and the context that enables learning provide the necessary conditions for the informal learning process to take place, while work relations enable interactions that are characterized as a means of developing new competencies that will be expressed further by satisfactory or excellent performance.

2.7 The linkage between organizational culture and organizational learning

Organizational change in organizational culture is described as "the way we do things around here." It considers the beliefs, behaviors, values, and conventions that prevail in an organization (Burke-Litwin, 1992). At the same time, organizational learning, as intentional learning, uses processes at the individual, group, and system levels to continuously transform the organization to increase the satisfaction of its stakeholders (Dixon, 1994). Thus, Fard et al. (2009) found a significant relationship between organizational culture and learning. Besides that, a study by Ando (2002) on Japan Productivity Center 99 (JPC 99) found a positive and significant relationship between organizational culture and organizational learning. He further mentions that several elements, such as a challenging mind, an open mind, and a positive problem-solving atmosphere, may impact organizational learning. Any organization should better understand the organization's culture because it is essential for anyone interested in studying organizational growth and development to ensure a robust competitive advantage (Odor, 2018).

3. METHODOLOGY

The study employs a quantitative research design to investigate the relationship between organizational change and organizational learning among employees in Malaysia's airline industry. The intended respondents are AirAsia Berhad, Malaysia Airlines Berhad, and Malindo Airlines employees.

Purposive sampling was used in this study. The researcher establishes the required information and then seeks the individual's capability and willingness to provide knowledge or experience. The sample size is 194 employees, based on the number suggested by G*Power tools.

The survey questionnaire was used to collect data. It was designed precisely to enable respondents to respond quickly to the questions. Each respondent is given a questionnaire by hand for this study. The organizational change was adapted from Leavitt (1965) and

Burke-Litwin (1992), while the organizational learning questionnaire was adapted from DellaNeve's (2007) study. The survey instrument employed a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to agree (5) strongly.

The data collected from the airline company employees was keyed in and entered into SPSS version 26 for further analysis through data coding. This study employed two types of software, SPSS version 26.0, for descriptive purposes and some basic data collection. Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modeling was developed for measurement and structural models in response to the findings. The following step describes the data, and descriptive statistics detail the relevant procedure. Later, the data's normality was determined and documented. Pearson Correlation and Multiple Regression analysis determined the correlation between latent variables.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Response Rate

Between May 01, 2020, and October 25, 2020, the researcher distributed 230 questionnaires to airline employees in Malaysia. The response rate for this study (n = 197) is 85.65 percent. As a result of the sample size, a total of 194 questionnaires were analyzed.

4.2 Demographic Profile

Table 1 below represents the respondents' demographic profiles; the total number of respondents is 194. The information includes job status, respondents' gender, age, education level, working experience, and job status. Again, descriptive statistics are used to present the respondents' profiles. Most respondents are male, representing 54.1%, and females represent 45.9%. Most respondents are aged between 26 and 35, representing 62.4%. Most of the respondents are STPM/diploma holders, which represents 42.3. Employees working between 2 -5 years are the highest, which are 118 employees, representing 60.8%.

Table 1: Demographics profile.

	Items	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent
Gender	Male	105	54.1	54.1
	Female	89	45.9	45.9
	<i>Total</i>	194	100	100
Age Range	25 and below	15	7.7	7.7
	26 – 35 years old	121	62.4	64.2
	36 – 45 years old	41	21.1	21.1
	56 and above	6	3.1	3.1
	<i>Total</i>	194	100	100
Education	SPM	50	25.8	25.8
	STPM/Diploma	83	42.3	42.3
	Master's	10	5.2	5.2
Working Experience	Less than one year	6	3.1	3.1
	2 – 5 years	118	60.8	60.8
	6 – 10 years	49	25.3	25.3
	More than 20 years	15	7.7	7.7
	<i>Total</i>	194	100	100
Job Status	Full-time	155	79.9	79.9
	Part-time	11	5.7	5.7
	<i>Total</i>	194	100	100

4.3 Measurement model

The measurement model should consider convergent validity, discriminant validity, and cross-loading items. Convergent validity is utilized to characterize the degree of various things measured inside the same concept in an understanding. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that data from factor loading, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE) is obligatory to run this convergent validity. The result suggests that this study's composite reliability range is between 0.833 to 0.927. Meanwhile, the average variance extracted (AVE) ranges from 0.525 to 0.716. The data is considered acceptable. The degree of correlation within items among distinct constructs was measured using discriminant validity. In discriminant validity, elements from the same group will correlate more strongly than those from other constructs, supposedly not intended to correlate (Adriana and Elena, 2011). The value denotes that discriminant validity has been established. For instance, the AVE, a technological latent variable, is 0.650. Hence, the square root is 0.806. All latent variables have a square root of 0.724 to 0.846. Any hint of cross-loading, defined as an item with coefficients greater than 0.5 on more than one factor, is also examined. It is called cross-loading when something loads at .32 or greater on two or more variables (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Five items were deleted because the item loading on its construct was lower than its cross-loadings.

The step is a structural model assessment, an important part of PLS-SEM. Three criteria have been assessed by the structural models, such as path coefficients (β), Path signification (p-value), and variance explanation (R²). The validation of the structural model is achieved using SmartPLS 3.0. According to Ringle et al. (2005), the model is designed in PLS as per the guidelines given in the SmartPLS Guide. The bootstrap resampling method is vital to test the statistical significance of each path coefficient. Five hundred iterations use randomly selected sub-samples to estimate the theoretical model and hypothesized relationships. The findings indicate that the R² value for organization learning was 0.457, indicating that 45.70% of the efficiency variance was significantly explained by all exogenous latent variables, people, technology, structure, task, and organizational culture. Therefore, by referring to Cohen's (1998) guidelines (0.26 is substantial, 0.13 is moderate, and 0.2 is weak), this research model can be categorized as substantial compared to the baseline value. Figure 1 below indicates the structural model result in which the path coefficients (β) are obtained for the structural model relationships, testing the hypothesized relationship among the constructs.

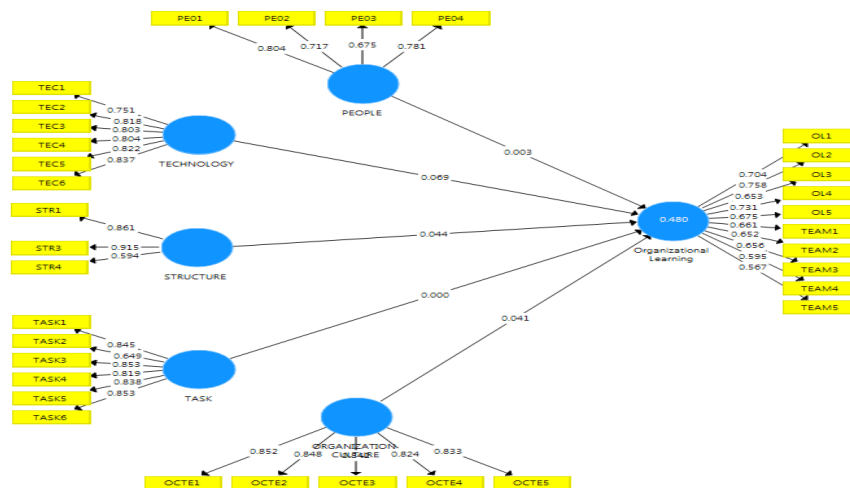


Figure 1: Structural model.

4.4 Hypothesis testing

For H1, the result suggests that the relationship between people and organizational learning was insignificant with $\beta=-0.039$, $t=0.374$, and $p>0.05$, indicating that people have no direct influence on organizational learning. Thus, H1 was not supported. For H2, the result suggests that the relationship between technology and organizational learning was significant, with $\beta=0.334$, $t=2.823$, and $p<0.05$, indicating that technology directly influences organizational learning. Thus, H2 was supported. For H3, the result suggests that the relationship between structure and organizational learning was significant, with $\beta=0.240$, $t=2.434$, and $p<0.05$, indicating that structure directly influences organizational learning. Thus, H3 was supported. For H4, the result suggests that the relationship between task and organizational learning was insignificant, with $\beta=-0.012$, $t=0.127$, and $p>0.05$, indicating that task has no direct influence on organizational learning. Thus, H4 was not supported. For H5, the result suggests that the relationship between organizational culture and organizational learning was significant, with $\beta=0.220$, $t=2.282$, and $p<0.05$, indicating that organizational culture directly influences organizational learning. Thus, H5 was supported.

Table 2: Summary of hypotheses.

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std. Beta	p-value	SE	t-value	Decision
H1	People -> Organization Learning	-0.039	0.354	0.103	0.354	Not Supported
H2	Technology -> Organization Learning	0.334	0.002	0.118	2.823	Supported
H3	Structure -> Organizational Learning	0.240	0.007	0.098	2.434	Supported
H4	Task -> Organizational Learning	-0.012	0.45	0.095	0.127	Not Supported
H5	Organization Culture -> Organizational Learning	0.220	0.011	0.096	2.282	Supported

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion of result

The study investigates the relationship between organizational change and organizational learning among airport staff in the Malaysia Airline Industry. The factors in organizational change include people, technology, structure, tasks, and organizational culture. Therefore, there is 5 hypothesis that is tested. 3 out of 5 hypotheses are accepted: technology, structure, and organizational culture directly influence organizational learning, while people and tasks do not directly influence organizational learning. People variables in organizational change, such as motivation, have no bearing on the organizational learning implemented in the Malaysia Airlines industry. It demonstrates how critical leadership motivates employees to participate in any implemented change. Management strategy is critical to ensuring the organization's plans run smoothly. Employees may lack motivation due to an ineffective management system or a lack of

leadership. The activity has been demonstrated not to affect the organization's learning. This occurs because some of the skills acquired are insufficient for them to continue learning on the job. The training outcome may be inconsistent with the employee's equipment. This demonstrates that the current training program is insufficient and should focus on the overall objective. The organization will ensure that the employee effectively utilizes technology by sharing knowledge and acquiring new skills via technology.

Additionally, the organization ensures that the current technology is relevant to their jobs. The study suggests that technology innovation and creativity in organizational change will boost organizational learning individually or in an organization. Furthermore, the organization that allows it to share and encourage upgrading its technology skills can enhance its organizational learning. Introducing the changes through technology variables, such as adapting new technology components and equipment, allows employees to learn better in their new tasks or deal with difficult situations. The structure also includes the communication flow, a critical component of the organization's success. Top management should be able to communicate effectively with employees about their performance and provide constructive feedback. It enables employees to take formal responsibility for their job responsibilities and understand their organization's chain of command. The organization must establish a clear vision and procedures to ensure employees complete their assigned tasks. Additionally, it entails developing long and short-term strategies within the scope of their job. A well-designed workflow within an organization can help employees improve their ability to learn new skills and produce high-quality work. Coelho and Borges-Andrade (2008) believe this factor should support learning actions in the work context.

The effectiveness of job design and workflow in Malaysia's airline industry fails to relate to producing organizational learning. The finding has proven that there is no significant relationship between these variables. This is not supported by Pouliakas and Russo (2015). They state that complex job designs and jobs designed to motivate employees with a high premium on employee skills can positively affect employee and organizational learning. It might happen due to different strategies in management in their work management, which cannot produce good organizational learning among their participant or workers. Organizational culture is a variable in organizational change that refers to an employee's beliefs, behavior, and values. It is also related to the employee's daily norms and attitude toward the work environment and activity. It is critical to emphasize a positive culture to facilitate the learning process as part of the organizational change process. Again, top management plays a critical role in fostering an environment conducive to improved behavior and thus increasing employee productivity. According to Schein (1984), organizational culture is the pattern basic assumption that an organization hand develops in learning, which can affect the quality of organizational learning.

5.2 Recommendations

The researcher would like to suggest a few approaches for another researcher who wants to do a similar study or continue this research. Future researchers may focus on a broader area, such as ASEAN or Asia. The worldwide organization will profit from expanding the scope of the study to improve its management process and job productivity. In addition, a future researcher could continue this investigation by using a new research methodology to improve the data and results' trustworthiness. The future researcher may use a qualitative method or alternative sample procedures, such as probability sampling.

In the future, the survey instrument can be improved by incorporating additional data sources. Because this study's methodology of employing an online survey channel was unsuccessful, future research could collect data face-to-face or through other methods.

5.3 The implication of the study

The first research objective is to investigate the relationship between organizational change and learning. Most research focuses on the direct relationship between organizational change and work performance; for example, Karanja (2015) found that organizational change benefits employee performance. The technology variable had the greatest and most positive impact. The study's findings will help organizations improve their ability to alter and learn to improve their performance. It will also assist the organization in better understanding organizational change dimensions such as people, technology, structure, tasks, and organizational culture. The outcome will serve as a baseline or principle for future organizational learning strategies. Furthermore, the study may aid the airline industry in recognizing the importance of organizational change and learning, which will aid in management and performance improvement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We want to express our sincere thanks to all those respondents who have participated in this study. Besides that, thanks to the content experts who helped validate the questionnaire. We were not forgetting our friends and family who gave ideas and support until the completion of this paper.

REFERENCES

- Ando, F. (2002). The Real Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Organizational Learning. *Annals of Business Administrative Science*, 1(2), 25–34.
- Armenakis, A. A., & Bedeian, A. G. (1999). Organizational change: a review of theory and research in the 1990s. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 293-315. doi: 10.1177/014920639902500303
- Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(4), 803-829.
- Ashok, S. (1971). *Approaches to Organization change and development*. Cleveland State University.
- Borman, W. C. (2004). The Concept of Organizational Citizenship. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 13(6), 238–241.
- Burke, W. W. & Litwin, G. H. (1992). A Causal Model of Organizational Performance and Change. *Journal of Management*, 18(3), 523-545.
- Cameron, K. S. (1994). Strategies for Successful Organizational Downsizing. *Human Resource Management*, 33(2), 189-212.
- Camps, J., Luna-Aroca, R., (2012). A matter of learning: how human resources affect organizational performance. *British Journal of Management*, 23, 1-21.
- Checkland, P. (1981). *Systems Thinking, Systems Practice*. New York: Wiley.
- Ciborra, C. (2002). *The labyrinths of information: Challenging the Wisdom of Systems*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Coelho, F. A., Jr., & Borges-Andrade, J. E. (2008). Uso do conceito de aprendizagem em estudos relacionados ao trabalho e organizações. *Paidéia*, 18(40), 221-234.
- Crossan, M.M., Kane, H.W., White, R.E., (1999). An organizational learning framework: from intuition to institution. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 522-537.

LBIFf 21(2) 2023, pp. 1-14.

- Daft, R. L. (1998). *Organizational Theory and Design, 6th edition*. Southwestern: Cincinnati, OH, USA Davenport & Short. (1990). "The New Industrial Engineering: Information Technology and Business Process Redesign," Sloan Management Review).
- Dixon, N. M. (1999). *The Organizational Learning Cycle: How We Can Learn Collectively*. Gower Publishing, Ltd. Dobbins.
- Dodgson, M. (1993). Organizational learning: a review of some literatures. *Organization Studies, 14(3)*, 375-394.
- Fard, H. D., Rostamy, A. A. A., & Taghiloo, H. (2009). How types of organizational cultures contribute to shaping learning organizations. *Singapore Management Review, 31(1)*, 49-61.
- Frankenhaeuser, M. & Gardell, B. (1976). Underload and Overload in Working Life: Outline of a Multidisciplinary Approach, *Journal of Human Stress, 2*, 35-46.
- Ghosh, A., (2004). Learning In Strategic Alliances: A Vygotskian Perspective, The Learning Organization, P. Bierly, E. Kessler, E. W. Christensen, "Organizational Learning," *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 13(6)*, 595-618.
- Hair, J. F., Black, B., Babin, B. & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis 7th* Pearson Prentice Hall. Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Harison, E., and Boonstra, A. (2009). Essential competencies for technochange management: Towards an assessment model. *International Journal of Information Management, 29(4)*, 283-294.
- Jacob, T., & Reinders, G. (2016). *Organizational Learning And Performance: A Theoretical Review Student: Antonio Valero Martin. June 2015.*
- Jerez Gomez, P., Céspedes Lorente, J.J., Valle Cabrera, R., (2004). Training practices and organizational learning capability. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 28*, 234-256.
- Karanja, A. W., & Kenyatta, J. (2015). Organizational Change and Employee Performance: A Case on the Postal Corporation of Kenya. *European Journal of Business and Management Wwww.iiste.Org ISSN, 7(11)*, 232–242. www.iiste.org
- Khaled Aladwan, Ramudu Bhanugopan, Alan Fish. (2014). Managing human resources in Jordanian organizations: challenges and prospects. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management, 7(1)*, 126-138.
- Leavitt, H. (1965). *Applied Organizational Change in Industry: Structural, Technological and Humanistic Approaches*. In: Handbook of Organizations. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Martínez, L. I., Ruiz M. M. & Ríos S. C. (2001). *Explicit Learning in SMEs*. In: National Congress of the Scientific Association of Economics and Business Management (11 University of Zaragoza).
- May, N. S., Bandar, N. F. A., Hutasuhut, I. J., & Yahya, F. (2014). The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Work Motivation among Employees in Hotel Industry in Kuching, Sarawak. Paper presented at UUM *International Conference on Governance*.
- McGill, M. E., & Slocum, Jr., J. W. (1992). Management practices in learning organizations. *Organizational Dynamics, 21(1)*, 4-17.
- Ndahiro, S., Shukla, J., & Oduor, J., (2015). Effect of change management on the performance of government institutions in Rwanda: A case of Rwanda revenue authority. *International Journal of Business and Management Review, 3(5)*, 94-107.

LBIFf 21(2) 2023, pp. 1-14.

- Neiva, E. R., Odelius, C. C., & Ramos, L. D. (2015). The organizational change process: Its influence on competencies learned on the job. *BAR - Brazilian Administration Review*, 12(4), 324–347. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1807-7692bar2015140082>
- Nickols, F. (2010). *Change Management 101: A primer*. Distant Consulting LLC.
- Nonaka, I., Takeuchi, H., (1995). *The Knowledge-creating Company*. Oxford University Press, New York, USA.
- Odor, H. O. (2018). *Organisational Culture and Dynamics*. January. <https://doi.org/10.18535/ijstrm/v6i1.em05>
- Pouliakas, K. and G. Russo (2015). Heterogeneity of Skill Needs and Job Complexity: Evidence from the OECD PIAAC Survey, IZA Discussion Paper No 9392. Retrieved from Ministry of Transport Malaysia Website <https://www.mot.gov.my/en> on January 08, 2020.
- Saira Irfan & Najib Marzuki. (2018). The Moderating Effects of Organizational Culture on the Relationship between Work Motivation and Work Commitment of University Academic Staff. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, 8(1), 137-155.
- Schein, E. H. (1986). *Coming to a New Awareness of Organizational Culture*.
- Shahrabi, B. (2012). The Role of Organizational Learning and Agility in Change Management in State Enterprises: A Customer-Oriented Approach. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 3(12), 2540–2547.
- Rehman, S., Bhatti, A., & Chaudhry, N. I. (2019). Mediating effect of innovative culture and organizational learning between leadership styles at third order and organizational performance in Malaysian SMEs. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 9(1), 1–24.
- Wagner, J. & Hollenbeck, J. (1998). *Organizational Behaviour Securing Competitive Advantage* (3rd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Wilson, D. C & Rosenfeld, R. H (1991). *Managing Organization: Text, Reading, and Cases: Instructor's Resource Book*, Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill