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Readiness of Digital Transformation among Malaysian Digital Talents

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Abstract

Digital transformation (DT) entails the strategic transformation of all aspects of the business that leading to the creation of a new ecosystem in which technology creates and delivers value to the stakeholders, and the ability of the business to adapt more quickly to the changing environment through the use of new and updated digital technologies. Although DT is a hot topic in the twenty-first century due to the constant changes in society and business, however, the current state of the literature lacks comprehensive conceptual and empirical studies, particularly on organisational members' readiness of digital transformation at the micro-level and the associated facilitating factors. Therefore, this research aims to study the influences of digital organisational culture, digital literacy, attitudes towards digital transformation, self-efficacy, and autocratic leadership towards the readiness of digital transformation among Malaysian digital talents. Quantitative research approach with the online questionnaire survey was adopted. A sample of 450 respondents (digital talents) were collected as the source of primary data from the various industries in Malaysia. The data was then analysed by using SPSSv28 and SmartPLSv3.2.8. The findings conclude that all the direct and indirect relationships between the digital organisational culture, digital literacy, attitudes towards digital transformation, and self-efficacy towards readiness of digital transformation are significantly supported. Besides, the result also proved that the relationship between digital organisational culture and attitudes towards digital transformation would be weaken when there is present of a strong autocratic leadership.

Keywords: readiness of digital transformation, self-efficacy, digital organisational culture, digital literacy, attitudes towards digital transformation, autocratic leadership, social cognitive career theory

1. Introduction

Throughout the period of fourth industrial revolution and Covid-19 epidemic, most of the corporate sectors are undergoing digital transformation (Dhesi, 2021) with the purpose to increase productivity, reduce energy and material consumptions as well as improve working conditions in the organisations (Machado, Wintroth, Almstrom, Oberg, Kurdve & AlMashalah, 2021; Gilch & Sieweke, 2020). According to the Malaysian Digital Economy Corporation (MDEC), the epidemic has increased the speed of change, with the number of digital job openings tripling year over year (The Star, 2021a). However, Malaysia still has a long way to go in terms of digitisation and digitalisation, with 54% of Malaysian businesses just begun their digital journey in 2020 (The Star, 2021b). The major difficulty encountered by Malaysian businesses that undergoing digital transformation is the shortage of human resources with digital capabilities who are completely prepared for digital transformation (digital expert) (Yapp, 2020). This is expected to worsen the employee readiness of digital transformation, while a digital talent scarcity would stymie Malaysia's digital economy's progress (Othman, 2021).

Although digital transformation is a major issue in the twenty-first century owing to the development of society and business landscape (Varshney, 2020), however, the current state of the literature lacks comprehensive conceptual and empirical studies (Kraus, Durst, Ferreira, Veiga, Kailer, & Weinmann, 2022), particularly on organisational members' readiness for digital transformation at the micro-level (Mhlungu, Chen & Alkema, 2019; Cetindamar, Abedin & Shirahada, 2021). In the literature of digital transformation, existing research primarily focuses on the digitalisation of business models and their impacts on economy or society, representing a macro-level perspective in understanding the digital transformation (Abdallah, Shehab & Al-Ashaab, 2021). Although numerous studies have investigated the organisational related factors that affecting the readiness of digital transformation, but there are limited studies to assess the determinants of the readiness of digital transformation

based on the perception of workforce (digital talents) (Abdallah, Shehab & Al-Ashaab, 2021). In addition, extant literature placed a priority on certain aspects to understand the key determinants of the readiness of digital transformation such as training and learning, perceived benefits, workplace resilience, job expectations and job satisfaction, experiences and salary (Deja, Rak, & Bell, 2021; Fachrunnisa, Adhiatma, Lukman, & Majid, 2020; Meske, 2019; De Sousa Jabbour, Jabbour, Foropon & Godinho Filho, 2018). However, existing studies have overlooked the possibility that other facilitating factors such as digital literacy and digital organisational culture are also significant determinants for the readiness of digital transformation under the context of employees' perspectives (Wu, Huang, Huang & Du, 2019; Rak & Bell, 2021). Therefore, the purpose of this research is to assess the relationships between dependent variable (readiness of digital transformation), independent variables (digital organisational culture and digital literacy), mediating variables (attitudes towards digital transformation and self-efficacy) and moderating variable (autocratic leadership).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Social Cognitive Career Theory

This study deploys the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as the foundation of the framework. SCCT is developed by Lent, Brown and Hackett in 1994, as seeking to provide a unifying framework for understanding, explaining, and predicting the processes through which people develop educational and vocational interests, make academic and occupational choices, and achieve varying degree of success and stability in their educational or work pursuits (Brown, Lent, Telander & Tramayne, 2011).

SCCT model defines performance goals as an individual's intention to participate in a certain activity or to achieve a particular outcome (Brown et al., 2011). By setting goals, it will assist individuals in guiding their own behaviour, as well as in maintaining it in the absence of more immediate positive reinforcement and in the face of unavoidable failures (Brown et al., 2011). According to SCCT, self-efficacy is linked to goal because individuals often create objectives that align with their perceptions of their own personal capabilities (Brown et al., 2011). Therefore, the organisation is required to implement a strategy in the context of the digital transformation, thus, digital talents need self-efficacy to thrive in the age of digital transformation (Bandura, 1977). Hence, with SCCT, this study will investigate the relationship between determinants and readiness of digital transformation through self-efficacy.

2.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) model has found widespread use in social psychology and information systems (Jun & Arendt, 2016). It is widely acknowledged as a very effective model for forecasting behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 2002). The model assumes that behaviour is planned, hence, it predicts deliberate behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB model is predicated on the idea that individuals choose certain actions by connecting their "attitudes towards behaviour," their "social influences," and their "perceived behavioural control" to behavioural intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It can be concluded that an individual's behaviour intention is positively affected by social influences, perceived behavioural control and attitudes (Arafat & Mohamed Ibrahim, 2018).

2.3 Digital Workplace Transformation

The phrase "digital workplace transformation" (DWT) refers to an attempt in which an organisation intends to turn its physical workspace into workspace that focusing on digital technologies (Zimmer, Baiyere & Salmela, 2020). Kaarst-Brown, Quesenberry, Niederman & Weitzel (2018) argue that digital transformation enables workplace improvement by boosting the organisational performance and employee experience. Digital workplaces can be deemed as the physical, cultural, and technological structures that facilitating working in a complex, dynamic, and often unstructured work context (Zimmer, Baiyere & Salmela, 2020). This term conceptualises digital workplaces as being inextricably linked to culture and technology that transcending the physical workplace office. As such, it encompasses physical areas, culture, social systems, and technology, in which all of them are inextricably linked (Kane, 2015).

2.4 Readiness of Digital Transformation

According to Merriam-Webster, readiness is the characteristic or condition of being prepared (Nasution, Rusnandi, Qodariah, Arnita & Windasari 2018). Merriam-Webster explains that ready is related with readiness, willingness, and facility (Nasution et al., 2018). Meanwhile, Dictionary.com defines readiness as a developmental stage that demonstrating an individual's predisposition, desire, and readiness to perform an activity (Dolganova & Deeva, 2019). Thus, the definition of ready from the Dictionary.com will be used to describe the idea for this study, as its viewpoint corresponds with the purpose of redefining the concept of digital transformation readiness based on the employee viewpoint (Dolganova & Deeva, 2019).

Besides, Henriette, Feki, and Boughzala (2016) elaborate digital transformation as a disruptive or incremental

process. Thus, readiness for digital transformation, alternatively also being referred to as “digital transformation readiness” or “digital readiness” or “digital change” (Nasution et al., 2018). It begins with the adoption and use of digital technology and progresses to an implied fundamental transformation of the organisation, or the purposeful pursuit of value creation. It refers to an individual's capacity to adapt to a digital environment and its associated technologies such as by developing new or changing existing business model and customer experiences to meet changing business and market needs (Dolganova & Deeva, 2019).

2.5 Digital Organisational Culture

Culture is crucial in settings the digital workplace transformation, especially during the period of digital transformation in which requires people to have an open mindset, be adaptable and ready to change (Alkhamery, Zainol & Al-Nashmi, 2021). According to Schein (1984), culture is transferred to employees through the establishment of certain ideals in their thoughts and the daily procedures in which they engage. Harshak et al. (2013) argue that organisations cannot transform their culture just by convincing individuals of the benefits of digitisation. According to Samal, Patra and Chatterjee (2019), establishing a digital environment and attitude is essential for shaping employees' readiness for digital transformation.

2.6 Digital Literacy

Historically, digital literacy was confined as the ability to read, write, and utilise textual resources in a variety of contexts (Centindamar, Abedin & Shirahada, 2021). Whereas, Gilster (1997) defines digital literacy as the ability to comprehend and use information presented in a variety of formats and from a variety of sources when presented via computers, has since evolved into an all-encompassing term with numerous applications in the ICT literature. While Eshet-Alkalai (2004) refers digital literacy as the technical and operational skills that required for optimal computer use; other researchers have expanded the definition to include the high cognitive ability that required to access, analyse, and create information by using digital resources and technological gadgets (Tapscott, 1998; Van Laar, Van Deursen, Van Dijk & De Haan, 2017). In overall, digital literacy can be defined as the ability, knowledge, and capability of workers to utilise digital technology in work-related tasks. As a result, it has the ability to significantly boost the use of digital technology in the organisation (Centindamar, Abedin & Shirahada, 2021). Furthermore, digital literacy is a competency that denotes an individual's familiarity with and ability to utilise digital technology in a range of scenarios (Messic 1984; Cetindamar, Abedin & Shirahada, 2021).

2.7 Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation

Attitudes towards behaviour is a component of the TBP. Attitudes reflect one's beliefs about the repercussions of one's actions and the perceived value of these consequences determines one's willingness to take action (Hardin-Fanning & Ricks, 2017). Attitude can be described as a person's tendency to feel, think, or behave favourably or adversely toward the object (Meske 2019). Hardin-Fanning and Ricks (2017), Eby et al. (2000), Kotter (1996), and Martin (1998) primarily focus on positive attitudes as a technique of fostering desired behavioural intention changes. Apart from that, positive attitudes assist individuals in developing physical, intellectual, social, and psychological resources, therefore increasing their resilience and reducing their resistance (Hardin-Fanning & Ricks, 2017). Hence, attitude is a significant determinant of success and failure in any endeavor of digital transformation (Meske, 2019).

2.8 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy and perceived behavioural control are classified as the same concepts (Bandura 1997). Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as the ability to exert influence on one's choice of activities and environmental circumstances, which involves effort and perseverance. When a person's self-efficacy is poor, they tend to postpone completing a task. On the contrary, individuals who believe they are capable of completing the work are more likely to do so. For this research, self-efficacy is referred to behavioural predictor of making a digitally changed or transforming choice when individuals think they are capable of making the shift to digital (Kahveci, 2021; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis & Davis, 2003; Yunus, Ang & Hashim, 2021). Basically, it refers to how individuals perceive their confidence in using digital technology and how they control the usage based on available skills, knowledge, infrastructure and resources (Vimalkumar, Singh & Gouda, 2021). Individuals with self-efficacy in digital transformation show characteristics such as self-confidence, accurate self-evaluation, willingness to take risks and a sense of accomplishment (Vimalkumar, Singh & Gouda, 2021).

2.9 Autocratic Leadership

Leadership is thought to be a significant source of influence in a group context inside an organisation (De Cremer, 2006). Autocratic leaders are often seen as restricting group members' influence and voice over collective decision-making processes and exhibiting a controlling and aggressive leadership style that shows little regard for followers'

ideas (Caillier, 2020). Thus, autocratic leadership is defined in this research as the leader's dominance and control over the process of debating views and ideas that affecting the group's real choice especially in the innovation and digital transformation issues (Okecha, Joureih & Oluwatobi Okeniyi, 2020).

2.10 Self-Efficacy and Readiness of Digital Transformation

According to the SCCT and TBP theories, self-efficacy has an effect on the amount of effort expended to improve behaviour and the perseverance with which one persists in the face of obstacles and failures that may diminish motivation (Ajzen, 2002). When a digital talent has self-efficacy, he or she can confidently do a certain digital activity while using digital technology to accomplish the goal (Deja, Rak & Bell, 2021) because self-efficacy is a subjective assessment of an individual's confidence in the ease with which digital technology can be employed (Oh, Kho, Choi & Lee, 2022). Moreover, Nasution, Arnita and Azzahra (2021) also discover that those who have a high self-efficacy for technology and skills are more confident in engaging with any technology and thus leading them to increase their readiness of digital transformation. In other words, an individual's readiness to adapt to the digital transformation is strongly influenced by their confidence in their ability to carry out future actions (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992; Tommasetti et al., 2018; Deja, Rak & Bell, 2021). Hence, it can be hypothesised as:

H1: Self-efficacy has positive relationship with readiness of digital transformation

2.11 Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation and Self-Efficacy

According to Kahveci (2021), the challenge encountered by many organisational employers is cultivating positive employee attitudes. If their attitudes are negative or contemptuous, employees are unlikely to participate confidently in any digital transformation process (Erdem, 2015). When employees embark negative attitudes towards digital transformation, they will experience a loss of self-esteem, which will demotivate them to learn, develop, and embrace changes (Garavan, McCarthy, Lai, Murphy, Sheehan & Carbery, 2020). Oppositely, Udo et al. (2010) and Olugbola (2017) state that employees who have positive attitudes towards digital transformation are more likely to be confident about their capabilities to produce effects than those who have low and negative attitudes towards engaging in the digital transformation. Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H2: Attitudes towards digital transformation has positive relationship with self-efficacy

2.12 Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation, Self-Efficacy and Readiness of Digital Transformation

Olugbola (2017) states that employees who have positive attitudes are more likely to set up their mindset to be ready for new workplace environment than those who have low and negative attitudes to engage in digital transformation. Positive attitudes towards digital transformation enhances the people a broader range of potential thoughts and behaviour, as people with a positive outlook expect and receive positive outcomes more often. The positivity hereby enables the employees to quickly understand the benefits that they will attain from changing into digital transformation (Oh et al. 2022), thus, give rise to the confident of digital talents to adopt the readiness of digital transformation (Garavan et al., 2020). Once the organisational members have the positive attitudes towards digital transformation, it is easy for the employees to prepare for digital transformation, as them more confident to their knowledge, skills, behavioural control and emotions (Garavan et al., 2020). Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H3: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between attitudes towards digital transformation and readiness of digital transformation

2.13 Digital Literacy and Self-Efficacy

Prior research indicates that digital literacy improves employees' self-efficacy (Deja, Rak & Bell, 2021). According to Hamidi et al. (2018), digital skills and knowledge of employees are critical for the adoption of digital technologies in order to perform the digital transformation. Within the context of digital transformation, digital talents' confident behaviour is governed by their capacity to engage with digital technology (Singh & Hess, 2017). When digital talents are able to learn and work in an environment where communication and access to information are increasingly facilitated by digital technologies, they will understand how technology can benefit their work and assist them in performing the tasks (Wang et al., 2014; Trenerry et al., 2021). In other words, employees that having digital literacy on digital technologies will increase their self-confidence in using digital technologies and able to achieve their goals easily (Hamidi et al. 2018). Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H4: Digital literacy has positive relationship with self-efficacy

2.14 Digital Literacy, Self-Efficacy and Readiness of Digital Transformation

According to Khalique and Singh (2019) as well as Cetindamar, Abedin and Shirahada (2021), individuals with a low confidence in digital knowledge, ability and capabilities to use digital technologies to perform their tasks will tend to have low readiness for the digital transformation. Besides having an understanding on the information

technology and control procedures, digital talents must also be capable of confidently exchanging data with machines and integrated systems (Deja, Rak & Bell, 2021). Based on the above arguments, self-efficacy is essential and serves as a bridge between digital literacy and digital transformation readiness. Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H5: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between digital literacy and readiness of digital transformation.

2.15 Digital Organisational Culture and Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation

Trushkina, Abazov, Rynkevych and Bakhautdinova (2020) assert that the digital transformation involves not only an increase in demand for digital skills in the labour market, but also the necessity to develop and implement a set of strategies to convert digital organisational culture in the context of the rapid expansion of digital technologies and information in the organisation. With the establishment of a digital organisational culture, the organisation can provide sufficient digital technology infrastructure, encouragement and information exchange among employees in order to boost the employees' motivation, keen to take risk, refine their skills, acquire new ones and prepare for the digital transformation (Wu, Huang, Huang & Du, 2019; Alofan, Chen & Tan, 2020; Carmona, Gomes & Costa, 2020; Singh, 2021; Khin & Kee, 2021). Hence, it will strengthen their digital talent's views and attitudes towards the adaptation of digital transformation (Panichkina, Sinyavskaya & Shestova, 2018). Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H6: Digital organisational culture has positive relationship with attitudes towards digital transformation

2.16 Digital Organisational Culture, Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation and Self-Efficacy

Through the establishment of a digital organisational culture in the organisation, the organisation can provide the infrastructure for information technology, information systems and a set of digital vision, mission and objectives that serve as the foundation for improving the employees' self-efficacy (Jang et al., 2018). Thus, the organisation is able to strengthen the digital talent's views and influence their attitudes towards digital transformation (Panichkina, Sinyavskaya & Shestova, 2018). In other words, employees will develop an interest in becoming more immersed in digital technologies and a curiosity about how digital transformation will affect their work performance (Khin & Kee, 2021) and encourage high self-confidence among themselves (Jang et al., 2018). Therefore, it is suggested that a digital organisational culture fosters favourable attitudes towards digital transformation among digital talents, which eventually increases their self-efficacy. Thus, it can hypothesise as:

H7: Attitudes towards digital transformation mediate the relationship between digital organisational culture and self-efficacy

2.17 Digital Organisational Culture, Autocratic Leadership and Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation

Based on the argument of Akor (2014), the leadership style chosen by a supervisor has a significant impact on the employees. Caillier (2020) asserts that when managers engage in disempowering behaviours, they decrease their employees' sense of self-efficacy, psychological control and influence within their work environment as well as destroy the culture of the organisation. The extant literature indicates that when organisation strongly emphasises on autocratic leadership, a negative climate arises within the organisation that makes the digital organisational culture to reciprocate weakening the organisation (Dyczkowska & Dyczkowski 2018), which is translated into worsen employee attitudes and behaviour towards the digital transformation (Dyczkowska & Dyczkowski, 2018; Katou, Budhwar & Chand, 2020). Conversely, when organisation places less emphasis on autocratic leadership, a positive climate arises within the organisation that makes the digital organisational culture to reciprocate strengthening the organisation (Dyczkowska & Dyczkowski, 2018; Katou et al., 2020), which is translated into improved employee attitudes and behaviour towards the digital transformation (Katou et al., 2020). Thus, it can hypothesise as below. All the hypotheses are presented in Figure 1.

H8: Autocratic leadership moderates the relationship between digital organisational culture and attitudes towards digital transformation

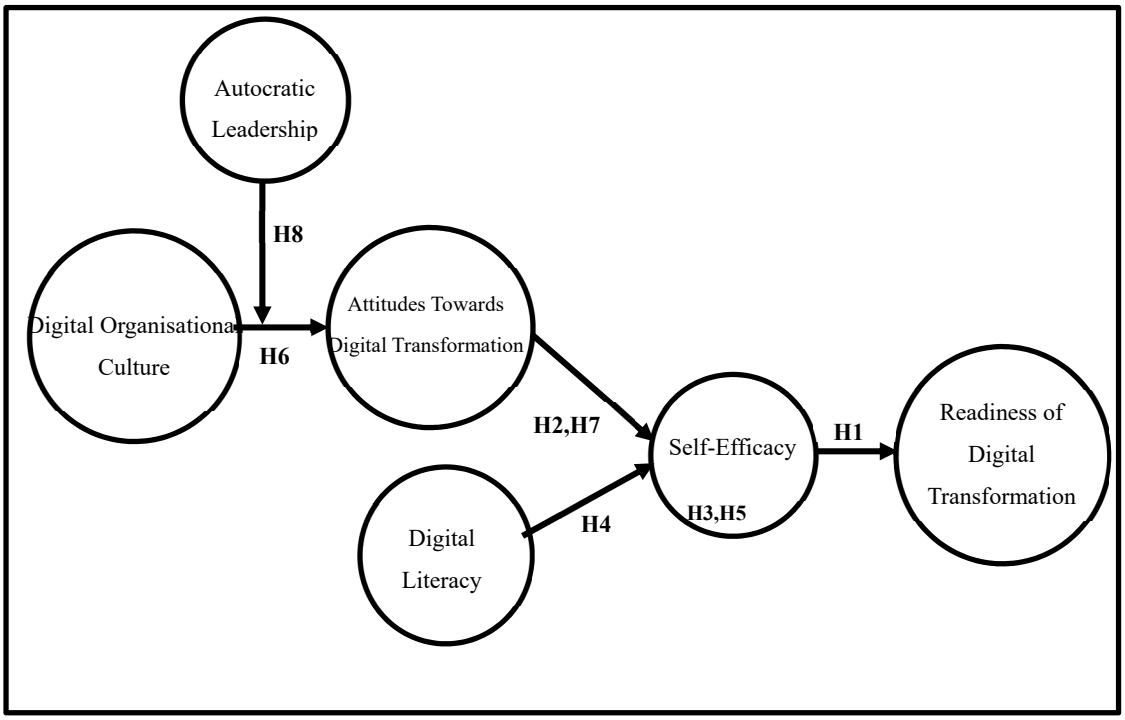

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design and Data Collection Method

By considering the research objectives and data collected, the quantitative research design is adopted in this research to evaluate the determinants of readiness of digital transformation (Eyisi, 2016). Furthermore, Singh Setia (2016) advocates that cross-sectional study should be adopted in this research in order to gather a large amount of data in a short period of time, and data will be acquired only once from the target population.

Besides, online self-administered survey is adopted in this study because this method allows data to be collected quantitatively (Malhotra, 2019). Primary data will be collected from the digital talents in Malaysia via online self-administered survey to ensure the timing of assessments is up-to-date and align with the study follow-up period (Abbondanza & Souza, 2019). With the convenient of the online survey and respondents' network, the respondents can be accessed easily (Andrade, 2020).

3.2 Sampling Design

As to determine the readiness of digital transformation among digital talents, each organisation should begin by assessing the readiness of its own internal employees. As such, with the objective of promoting digital transformation readiness throughout Malaysian digital talents, the targeted respondents for this study are the employees from the various industries in Malaysia. For the eligibility to participate in this survey, the respondents must be Malaysian working adults with aged 18 years and above as well as currently expose to the digital technologies in their workplaces. This research uses the judgemental sampling approach to get a sample of employees from various industries in Malaysia. Bryman & Bell (2015) claim that a judgement sample aims to choose sample components that are typical of the population. The research employs discretion in this study to choose a certain number of individuals from various businesses who are most suited to provide the research with the much-needed insights (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2018). Upon evaluating numerous sources of literature (Cochran 1948; Hair et al. 2018; Singh & Pal 2014; Nunnally 1978; Lei & Wu 2007; Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2009), a sample size of 450 respondents will be targeted in this research.

3.3 Measurement

The questionnaire design is divided into two parts. Section A focuses on demographic questions that consisting of 6 demographic questions, such as gender, age, education level, profession, types of industry and time spent on digital technology at working. A total of 6 constructs being measured in Section B, including dependent variable

(readiness of digital transformation) and independent variables (digital organisational culture, digital literacy, self-efficacy, attitudes towards digital transformation) and moderator variable (autocratic leadership).

In term of measurement, digital organisational culture (DOC) is measured by 4 items that adopted from Zhen, Yousaf, Radulescu and Yasir (2021). Both digital literacy (DL) and self-efficacy (SE) are measured by 4 items respectively in which all of the questions are adopted from Deja, Rak and Bell (2021). Whereas, attitudes towards digital transformation (ATT) are measured by 3 items that adopted from Venkatesh et al. (2003) and Meske (2019). Autocratic leadership (AL) is measured by 8 items that adopted from Akor (2014). Lastly, readiness for digital transformation (RDT) is measured by 4 items that adopted from Nasution et al. (2018). All the items in Section B will be evaluated by 7-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly Agree. The detailed of the measurement can be referred to Appendix A.

3.4 Data Analysis Method

For the data analysis methods, the statistical programs SPSS version 28 and SmartPLS version 3.2.8 are adopted in this study to perform the statistical analysis. Preliminary analysis (non-response bias, common method variance, and multivariate normality), descriptive analysis (demographic and constructs), measurement model and structural model will be explicated in the data analysis and finding sections.

4. Data Analysis and Finding

4.1 Preliminary Data Analysis

In this research, the non-response bias analysis revealed that there is no non-response bias because the six demographic variables of the early and late respondents are not significantly different from each other as the p-value for all demographic variables are larger than 0.05 (Behar-Horenstein & Feng, 2017). The percentage variance retrieved from the Harman single-factor test is 39.48 percent, which is less than the threshold value of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, the common method bias issue does not exist in this research. For the multivariate normality, the result of Mardia's normality test indicated that the data is not normally distributed as the b-value of the multivariate kurtosis is 57.837553, which is higher than threshold value of 3 (Yuan, Bentler & Zhang, 2005).

4.2 Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 shows the demographic profile of respondents, it is observed that 60% of the respondents are female, 40% of the respondents are male. Within 450 respondents, majority of the respondents (44.9%) are between 21-30 years old. As for the academic qualification, 73.1% of the respondents are bachelor degree holders. Majority of the respondents are from the profession fields of Administration and Human Resource, which represent of 62%. Additionally, majority of the respondents are working under the service-based industry where they represent 83.8% of the respondents Finally, majority of the respondents are spending average 3 to 5 hours on digital technology per day at work.

Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents

Demographic Variables	Description	Frequency (N=450)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	180	40.0
	Female	270	60.0
Age	18-20 years old	7	1.6
	21-30 years old	202	44.9
	31-40 years old	138	30.7
	41-50 years old	55	12.2
	51 years old and above	48	10.7
Education Level	SPM/ A-level/ STPM	20	4.4
	Diploma/Foundation	61	13.6
	Bachelor Degree	329	73.1
	Postgraduate (Master/PhD/etc.)	35	7.8
	Others	5	1.1
Profession	Administration/ Human Resource	279	62.0
	Accountant/Auditor	51	11.3
	Engineer/Architect/Quantity Survey	28	6.2

Types of Industry	Software Developer/IT	23	5.1
	Self-employed	23	5.1
	Others	46	10.2
	Service based industry	377	83.8
	Non-service-based industry	73	16.2
Time Spent on Digital Technology at Working	Less than 1 hour	48	10.7
	1 - 2 hours	48	10.7
	3 - 5 hours	210	46.7
	6 - 8 hours	136	30.2
	9 hours and above	8	1.8

4.3 Constructs and Correlational Analysis

As shown in Table 2, the mean values of the various variables are within the range from the 13.5622 (RDT) to 37.0711 (AL), and the distribution of standard deviation values for the variables are within the range from 3.88153 (RDT) to 10.82187 (AL). Moreover, Table 2 also indicated the correlations of every construct at the 0.01 probability level and all the variables have significant positive correlated relationships.

Table 2. Summary of the Mean, Standard Deviation and Pearson correlation of construct

Construct	Mean	Std. Deviation	DOC	ATT	DL	SE	AL	RDT
DOC	18.2422	5.88089	1					
ATT	14.8378	5.02758	0.595**	1				
DL	19.8467	5.23616	0.360**	0.338**	1			
SE	20.8533	5.12175	0.307**	0.392**	0.526**	1		
AL	37.0711	10.82187	0.578**	0.510**	0.290**	0.284**	1	
RDT	13.5622	3.88153	0.268**	0.284**	0.487**	0.518**	0.263**	1

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4 PLS-SEM Assessment

PLS-SEM software is employed as the multivariate normality is not fulfilled in the research (Graber et al., 2002). Measurement model and structural model are developed with PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017). Figure 2 shows the conceptual structural model which being used in PLS-SEM.

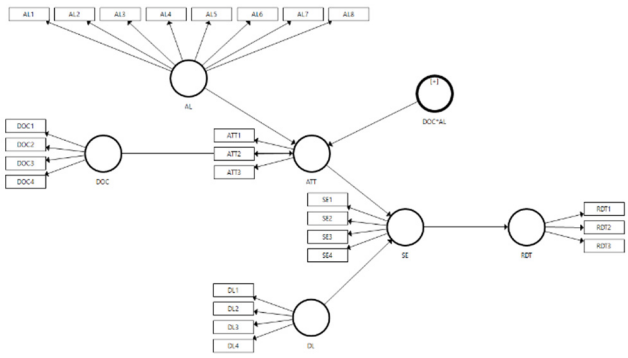

Figure 2. Conceptual Structural Model adopted in PLS-SEM software

4.5 Assessment of Measurement Model

Since the proposed framework is a reflective model, factor loadings, construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity will be examined through PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017). According to Table 3, all the factor loadings of the indicators are ranging from 0.761 to 0.930, which can be considered as satisfy as all the loadings are higher than 0.7 and majority of the loadings are higher than the threshold value of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017).

Besides, Table 3 shows that the inter-item consistency reliability values of Cronbach alpha within the range from 0.869 to 0.933, which larger than the suggested value of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Furthermore, Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρA) also achieved a satisfactory reliability value which ranges from 0.870 to 0.945, which are exceeding the threshold value of 0.7 as recommended by Dijkstra and Henseler (2015). Moreover, the values of Composite Reliability (ρc) are ranging from 0.919 to 0.945, which were higher than the recommended value of 0.7 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Based on the result generated, the research achieved overall reliability with high internal consistency reliability.

For the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), all constructs are ranging from 0.682 to 0.863, which are exceeding the threshold value of 0.5 (Hair et al. 2017). Apart from that, the t-values of all factors are ranging from 32.328 to 136.193, which are above 1.96 (95% confidence level) (Ramayah et al., 2018). In shorts, all the factors are significantly loaded towards their respective latent constructs. In summary, the measuring model used in this study had convergent validity with the data.

Table 3. Convergent validity of the constructs

Construct	Model	Indicators	Outer Loadings	t-value	Cronbach's Alpha	Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρA)	Composite Reliability (pC)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
RDT	**Reflective**	**RDT1**	0.881	72.838	0.869	0.870	0.919	0.792
		RDT2	0.898	90.756				
		RDT3	0.891	90.024				
DOC	**Reflective**	**DOC1**	0.912	120.84	0.919	0.922	0.943	0.805
		DOC2	0.905	111.014				
		DOC3	0.910	118.554				
		DOC4	0.860	64.988				
ATT	**Reflective**	**ATT1**	0.929	135.309	0.921	0.921	0.950	0.863
		ATT2	0.929	136.193				
		ATT3	0.930	128.314				
DL	**Reflective**	**DL1**	0.874	70.746	0.899	0.901	0.929	0.767
		DL2	0.878	77.777				
		DL3	0.886	81.406				
		DL4	0.864	66.493				
SE	**Reflective**	**SE1**	0.874	71.316	0.895	0.896	0.927	0.760
		SE2	0.873	56.967				
		SE3	0.868	66.777				
		SE4	0.873	70.371				
AL	**Reflective**	**AL1**	0.859	59.057	0.933	0.945	0.945	0.682
		AL2	0.885	79.08				
		AL3	0.886	88.455				
		AL4	0.881	78.576				
		AL5	0.78	38.998				
		AL6	0.774	35.473				
		AL7	0.763	33.019				
		AL8	0.761	32.328				

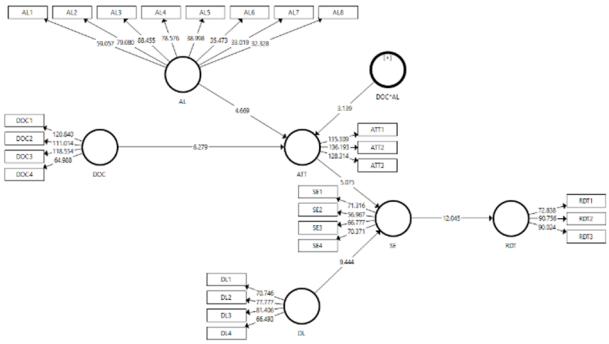

Figure 3. Outer loadings of the indicators

As stated by Voorhees et al. (2016), Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) is the most ideal approach to investigate the discriminant validity of the constructs compared with Fornell and Larcker's (1981) and cross loading. According to Table 4, the results show the values of correlation among the latent variables are lower than the threshold value of 0.85 as suggested by Kline (2011), and there is no value of 1 being included in the upper and lower level of the confidence interval (Preacher & Hayer, 2008). Thus, it can conclude that the latent measurement constructs are clearly discriminant with each other. In conclusion, the measurement model achieved adequate reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Table 4. Discriminant validity of constructs

	AL	ATT	DL	DOC	RDT	SE
AL						
	0.539*					
ATT	CI. 90					
	(0.458, 0.608)**					
	0.328*	0.369*				
DL	CI. 90	CI. 90				
	(0.237, 0.417)**	(0.277, 0.454)**				
	0.618*	0.648*	0.395*			
DOC	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90			
	(0.548, 0.684) **	(0.572, 0.715)**	(0.306, 0.478)**			
	0.298*	0.319*	0.553*	0.303*		
RDT	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90		
	(0.211, 0.388) **	(0.228, 0.411)**	(0.463, 0.631) **	(0.208, 0.398)**		
	0.321*	0.432*	0.585*	0.338*	0.589*	
SE	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90	CI. 90	
	(0.233, 0.408) **	(0.335, 0.525)**	(0.501, 0.666) **	(0.239, 0.436)**	(0.502, 0.663)**	

Notes. *The results of HTMT (all of them less than 0.85). ** The value of 1 does not include in the lower and upper confidence interval (CI).

4.6 Assessment of Structural Model

For the structural model, assessment of collinearity (VIF), significance of the path coefficient, determination of coefficient (R^2), effect size (f^2), predictive relevance (Q^2) based on blindfolding, and advanced predictive relevance conducted via PLSpredict would be analysed. Assessment of collinearity (VIF) test must be assessed before the evaluation of structural model as it can be used to ensure that the research does not contain any potential bias in the regression results. According to Table 5, all the VIF values are less than 5, indicating that the issue of collinearity does not exist in this research as suggested by Hair et al. (2017).

Table 5. Latent collinearity assessment (VIF)

	AL	ATT	DL	DOC	RDT	SE
AL		1.533				
ATT						1.128
DL						1.128
DOC		1.752				
RDT						
SE					1.000	

According to the result generated from the assessment of R^2, the R^2 value for the RDT is 0.270, illustrating that 27.0% of the total variance of RDT is explained by its exogenous variable (SE). Furthermore, 32.6% ($R^2 = 0.326$) of the total variance of SE is explained by its exogenous variables (ATT and DL). Apart from that, DOC explained approximately 41.1% ($R^2 = 0.411$) of the total variance of ATT, as according to the result generated.

Additionally, the assessment of f^2 is adopted in order to measure the effect size of exogeneous and endogenous constructs as stated by Ramayah et al. (2018). Cohen (1988) indicates that a threshold value of 0.35 is used to define a large effect size, 0.15 is used to define a medium effect size, and 0.02 is used to define a small effect size. According to the result generated from the assessment of f^2, SE (f^2=0.37) has a large effect size on RDT. Furthermore, ATT (f^2=0.08) has a small effect size on SE, whereas DL (f^2=0.26) has a medium effect size on SE. Finally, DOC (f^2=0.15) has a medium effect size on ATT. With the results mentioned, the exogeneous constructs possesses significantly different levels of effect size on the endogenous constructs.

Furthermore, Stone-Geisser's Q^2 method was utilised in this research to determine the exogenous construct's predictive value for endogenous constructs after the exogenous construct's effect size on endogenous constructs was determined (Geisser 1974; Stone 1974; Shmueli et al. 2019). Q^2 value larger than zero suggests that the exogenous factors are highly predictive of the endogenous construct, as established by Fornell and Cha (1994) and Shmueli et al. (2019). According to the result generated from the assessment, the Q^2 values for ATT ($Q^2 = 0.331$), RDT ($Q^2 = 0.201$), and SE ($Q^2 = 0.231$) were all larger than zero, indicating the model's adequate predictive significance (Fornell & Cha, 1994; Hair et al. 2017; Shmueli et al. 2019).

For more accuracy of the predictive relevance, PLSpredict assessment is employed as an advancement of the Q^2 assessment. According to Table 6, the Q^2predict values for all indicators are greater than zero for the PLS-SEM. If the Q^2 value is positive, the prediction error of the PLS-SEM results is smaller than the prediction error of simply using the mean values. In that case, the PLS-SEM models contains predictive relevance (Shmueli et al. 2019).

Furthermore, since the data collected for this study are not normally distributed, MAE will be employed to assess if PLS-SEM less than LM [PLS-SEM<LM]. According to Shmueli et al. (2019), MAE error would be recognised for the predictive relevance effect if the research is not normally distributed. As comparison about the MAE values, the findings conclude that the PLS-SEM analysis produces a medium prediction power as the result has majority of the indicators (7 out of 10 indicators; PLS-SEM<LM). In conclusion, majority of the indicators fulfil the requirement [Q^2predict>0; MAE error values are negative (PLS-SEM<LM); thus, moderate predictive powers are existed for the RDT model (Shmueli et al., 2019).

Table 6. Assessment of PLS predict

Items	PLS-SEM			LM			ERROR (PLS-LM)		
	RMSE	MAE	Q²_predict	RMSE	MAE	Q²_predict	RMSE	MAE	Q²_predict
ATT2	1.424	1.091	0.329	1.433	1.102	0.32	-0.009	**-0.011**	0.009
ATT3	1.568	1.242	0.328	1.555	1.239	0.339	0.013	0.003	-0.011
ATT1	1.418	1.079	0.346	1.432	1.094	0.333	-0.014	**-0.015**	0.013
RDT1	1.216	0.969	0.174	1.208	0.914	0.185	0.008	0.055	-0.011
RDT3	1.502	1.213	0.145	1.511	1.226	0.135	-0.009	**-0.013**	0.01
RDT2	1.292	1.011	0.153	1.291	0.993	0.154	0.001	0.018	-0.001
SE4	1.381	1.07	0.215	1.401	1.074	0.193	-0.02	**-0.004**	0.022
SE3	1.285	0.999	0.225	1.311	1.015	0.194	-0.026	**-0.016**	0.031
SE2	1.207	0.927	0.229	1.229	0.953	0.201	-0.022	**-0.026**	0.028
SE1	1.299	1.011	0.217	1.313	1.014	0.201	-0.014	**-0.003**	0.016

4.7 Direct Effect Test

In this research, a total of four hypotheses being developed to examine the direct relationship between the variables. According to the results showed in Table 7, SE (β= 0.407, t =7.431, p < 0.05) is found to have a significant positive direct effect on RDT, indicating that H1 supported. Besides, ATT (β = 0.243, t = 5.036, p < 0.05), and DL (β = 0.444, t = 9.238, p < 0.05) are also found to have significant positive impacts on SE, indicating that H2 and H4 are statistically supported. Furthermore, H6 is also supported as DOC (β = 0.388, t = 6.376, p < 0.05) posits a significant positive effect on ATT. Besides, all of the direct hypotheses do not have zero strapped in between the upper level and lower level of the 95% confidence interval. Finally, the findings of the PLS-SEM bootstrapping approach show that all four direct hypotheses are significantly supported.

Table 7. Path Coefficients Assessment of the Structural Model

Hypotheses	Relationship	Path Coefficient	Standard Deviation	t-value	p-values	Confidence Interval (BC)		Decision
						LL	UL	
H1	SE → RDT	0.521	0.042	12.284	0	0.450	0.590	**Supported**
H2	ATT → SE	0.243	0.049	4.985	0	0.163	0.325	**Supported**
H3	ATT →SE → RDT	0.127	0.029	4.434	0	0.076	0.188	**Supported**
H4	DL → SE	0.444	0.048	9.335	0	0.363	0.520	**Supported**
H5	DL→ SE → RDT	0.232	0.036	6.353	0	0.161	0.305	**Supported**
H6	DOC → ATT	0.388	0.06	6.419	0	0.289	0.488	**Supported**
H7	DOC → ATT → SE	0.235	0.037	6.407	0	0.174	0.294	**Supported**
*H8***	DOC*AL → ATT	-0.154	0.048	3.207	0.001	-0.227	-0.067	**Supported**

Notes. BC= Bias Corrected, LL= Lower Level, UL= Upper Level.

**One-tailed p-value for moderation.

Based on the results of t-value, p-value, CI, R^2, f^2 and simple slope analysis.

4.8 Mediation Effect Test

There are three mediation hypotheses being developed to investigate the indirect relationships between the variables. As exhibited in Table 7, H3 (β =0.127, t = 4.434, p < 0.05) and H5 (β =0.232, t = 6.353, p < 0.05) are supported to have significant indirect effects on RDT. Moreover, the mediation effects on SE are validated as H7 is supported with β =0.235, t = 6.407, and p < 0.05. Additionally, there is no zero straddle in between the upper level and lower level of the confident interval for all the mediation hypotheses. Therefore, it can conclude that all the three mediation hypotheses are statistically supported.

4.9 Moderation Effect Test

Moderation (H8) is statistically significant, as indicated in Table 7, with findings of (β= -0.154, t = 3.207, p < 0.05). Furthermore, there is no zero straddle in between the Confident Interval's lower and upper levels. At the meantime, R^2 and f^2 are measured between the direct relationship between DOC and ATT. With the comparison, R^2 of ATT has changed about 1.9% (additional variance) with the addition of the interaction term (DOC*AL), illustrating that the effect size of the moderating effect is minor (0.0325) as referred to the guidelines suggested by Cohen (1988).

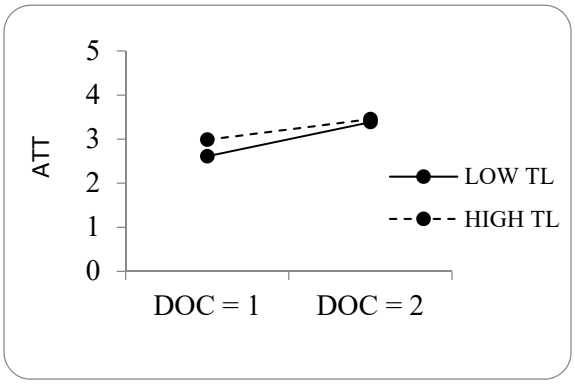

Figure 4. Linear interaction effect analysis

Note. predictor variable (X) = Digital Organisational Culture (DOC); (Y) = Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation (ATT); moderator variable (Z) = Autocratic Leadership (AL).

$(Y=b_0+b_1X+b_2Z+b_3XZ)$

According to Figure 4, the upper line, which represent a high level of the moderator construct AL, has a flatter slope while the lower line, which represent a lower level of the moderator construct AL, has a steeper slope (Hair et al. 2017, p. 269). This make sense since the interaction effect is negative. As the rule of thumb and an approximation, the slope of the high level of the moderator constructs AL is the simple effect (0.388) plus the interaction effect (-0.154), while the slope of the low level of the moderator constructs AL is the simple effect (0.388) minus the interaction effect (-0.154) (Hair et al. 2017, p. 269). Hence, the simple slope plot supports the previous discussion of the negative interaction term as higher AL in the organisation, entail a weaker relationship between DOC and ATT, while lower levels of AL in the organisation lead to stronger relationship between DOC and ATT (Hair et al. 2017, p. 269). As referring to Table 7, the analysis yields a p-value of 0.001 for the path DOC*AL → ATT.

Overall, these results provide clear support that AL exerts a significant and negative effect on the relationship between DOC and ATT (Hair et al. 2017, p. 269). The higher the autocratic leadership, the weaker the relationship between digital organisational culture and attitudes towards digital transformation.

4.10 IPMA

Apart from the significance of hypotheses, it is vital and meaningful to adopt Importance and Performance Matrix Analysis (IPMA) to extend the findings of the basic PLS-SEM results with the latent variable scores (Hair et al., 2016). IPMA is used to identify the total effects (importance) and the average values of the latent variable scores (performance) of the specific endogenous construct (Ramayah et al., 2018). The results are contrasted using the IPMA procedure via PLS-SEM in order to identify the most influential area for digital talent readiness in Malaysia (Hair et al., 2017).

According to Figure 5 and Table 8, the outcomes indicate that the IPMA of Readiness of Digital Transformation (RDT) reveals that the self-efficacy (SE) does have a high-performance and high importance index score. According to Sethna (1982), SE is the important variables thus, should be concentrated as in Figure 5. Precisely, this aspect would be related to self-confidence and self-esteem of the individual in the workplace (Deja, Rak & Bell 2021). Without self-efficacy, an employee will find it difficult to make tough decisions, get people to communicate with them candidly, and be open to feedback. Hence, an employee will always doubt his decisions and find himself becoming defensive (Khalique & Singh 2019).

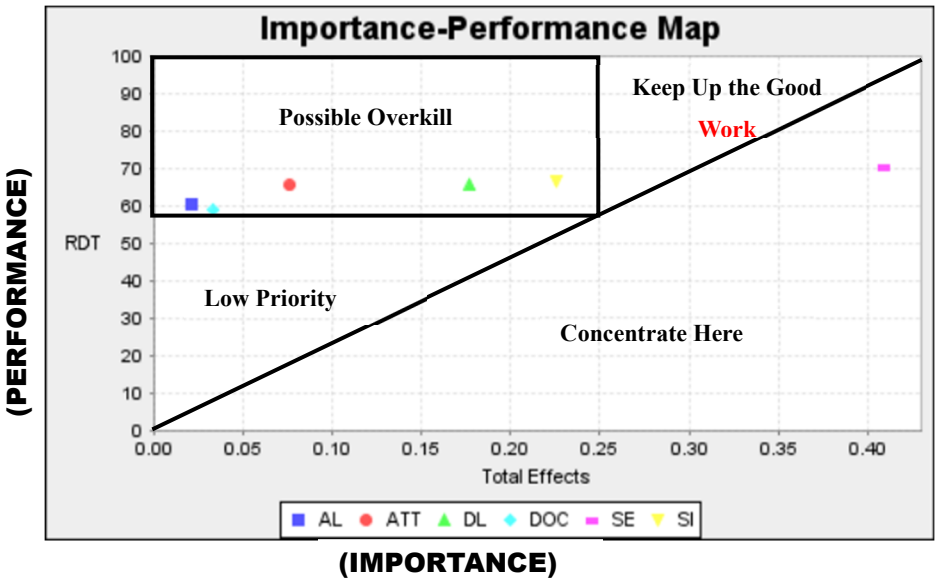

Figure 5. Importance-Performance Map with IPA grid partition

Table 8. Assessment of IPMA

Construct	Importance (Total Effect)	Performance (Index Values – RDT)
AL	0.027	60.349
ATT	0.098	65.533
DL	0.227	65.757
DOC	0.043	58.888
SE	0.525	70.041

4.11 Goodness of Fit

Corresponding to the obtained findings, the SRMR values are 0.05 and 0.07, suggesting that the model has a high degree of fit for both the saturated and estimated models, as according to the Henseler et al. (2015) advised threshold value of SRMR is less than 0.08. Additionally, the NFI values are 0.869 and 0.863 for both the saturated and estimated models respectively, despite the fact that NFI values should be greater than 0.90 to be regarded acceptable (Bryrne 2016). The NFI scores in the study suggest a lack of model fit for both the saturated and estimated models. For the RMS theta measurement, the proposed model in this study does not have good fit as the value is 0.172, which does not meet the threshold value of 0.12 as proposed by Henseler et al. (2016), who said that a value closer to zero indicated a better fit. Therefore, this research is appraised with the reliability and validity of the measurement, the significance of path coefficient, the prediction ability, and the explanation ability of the model to ensure the amount of random error is acceptable in the research as there is not perfectly good-fit in PLS-SEM (Henseler et al., 2016).

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this research filled the research gap by investigating the determinants for the readiness of digital transformation from the employee's perspective. This research provides theoretical contribution by concluding that there are direct and indirect relationships among digital organisational culture, digital literacy, attitudes towards digital transformation, self-efficacy and readiness of digital transformation from the employee perspective. In addition, the findings also discover that the higher the autocratic leadership, the weaker the relationship between digital organisational culture and attitudes towards digital transformation. As part of the efforts in implementing digital transformation in the organisation, the organisational top management is encouraged to enhance the digital literacy among their employees by adopting favourable digital organisational culture and transformational leadership management style. There are some limitations in this research. Most of the determinants for the readiness of digital transformation are derived from the perspective of employees. Further research can be carried out to what extent the social psychologies of the employees affects their readiness of digital transformation. Due

to the diversity of industries being targeted in this research, it is recommended to focus on the small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) that contributing to the nation growth in the country.

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Appendix

Table A. Questionnaire Design

Construct	Indicators	Items	Sources
Readiness of Digital Transformation (RDT)	RDT1	I am ready to collaborate with others with using digital technology.	Nasution et al. (2018)
	RDT2	I do not need a long time to understand the usefulness of digital technology.	
	RDT3	I am ready to develop myself to mastering digital technology.	
		7-Point Likert Scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	
Digital Organisational Culture (DOC)	DOC1	My company collaborates functionally in the initiatives for the innovation and digital transformation.	Zhen, Yousaf, Radulescu & Yasir (2021)
	DOC2	There is a clear orientation to digital technology changes inside the organisation's culture.	
	DOC3	The culture of digital innovation and change takes part as a natural process within the organisation.	
	DOC4	My organisation shares with the staff the digital strategy, taking into consideration their suggestions.	
		7-Point Likert Scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	
Digital Literacy (DL)	DL1	I can learn new digital technologies easily.	Deja, Rak & Bell (2021)
	DL2	I keep up with important new digital technologies.	
	DL3	I know about a lot of different digital technologies.	
	DL4	I have the technical skills I need to use digital technologies for working/teaching and to create artefacts (e.g., presentations, digital	

		stories, wikis, blogs) that demonstrate my understanding of what I have learnt. **7-Point Likert Scale** 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	
Self-Efficacy (SE)	SE1	I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself by using digital technologies.	Deja, Rak & Bell (2021)
	SE2	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them by using digital technologies.	
	SE3	I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges by using digital technologies.	
	SE4	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks by using digital technologies.	
		7-Point Likert Scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	
Attitudes Towards Digital Transformation (ATT)	ATT1	I can learn new digital technologies easily.	Venkatesh et al. (2003); Meske (2019)
	ATT2	I keep up with important new digital technologies.	
	ATT3	I know about a lot of different digital technologies.	
		7-Point Likert Scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	
Autocratic Leadership (AL)	AL1	My manager is often over bearing in his regular inspection of my work.	Akor (2014)
	AL2	My manager does not accommodate any kind of domestic excuse interfering with my duties.	
	AL3	My manager believe that I will work best in a situation where I am given clear and direct instruction on my job.	
	AL4	My manager wears an officious look most of the time.	
	AL5	My manager rules with an iron hand.	
	AL6	My manager does not readily accept new ideas.	
	AL7	My manager takes decisions arbitrarily.	
	AL8	My manager does not explain his actions.	
		7-Point Likert Scale 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree)	