T.C.
IŞIK UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

MASTER'S THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADIMINISTRATION
EXECUTIVE MBA PROGRAM

Mehmet Cemal GÜLLÜOĞLU

FROM COMMITMENT TO SUCCESS: ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS ENABLING DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

SUPERVISOR
Assist. Prof. Kemal Özkan YILMAZ

İSTANBUL, January 2026

T.C.
IŞIK UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

MASTER'S THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADIMINISTRATION
EXECUTIVE MBA PROGRAM

Mehmet Cemal GÜLLÜOĞLU

(22IMBA5019)

FROM COMMITMENT TO SUCCESS: ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS ENABLING DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

SUPERVISOR

Assist. Prof. Kemal Özkan YILMAZ

İSTANBUL, January 2026

T.C.
IŞIK UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

MASTER'S THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF
EXECUTIVE MBA PROGRAM

Mehmet Cemal GÜLLÜOĞLU
(22IMBA5019)

FROM COMMITMENT TO SUCCESS: ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS ENABLING DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

Date: 23.01.2026

Thesis Supervisor : Assist. Prof. Kemal Özkan YILMAZ / Işık University

Jury Members :

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Y. Pınar SOYKUT SARICA / Işık University

Assist. Prof. Emine Başak TAVMAN TÜRK / Istanbul Okan University

İSTANBUL, January 2026

ÖZET

BAĞLILIKTAN BAŞARIYA: ORGANİZASYONLARDA DİJİTAL DÖNÜŞÜMÜ SAĞLAYAN ORGANİZASYONEL FAKTÖRLER

Dijital dönüşüm, organizasyonların iş değeri yaratma biçiminde temel bir değişikliği temsil etmektedir. Birçok organizasyon bu değişim sırasında zorlanırken, organizasyonel faktörler, değişime direnç ve dönüşüm başarısı arasındaki doğrudan ilişkileri inceleyen sınırlı sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, organizasyonel bağlılık, liderlik tarzı, organizasyonel kültür ve iş stresinin dijital dönüşüm sonuçları üzerindeki etkisi ve değişime direncin bu organizasyonel faktörler ile dijital dönüşümün başarısı arasındaki ilişkiyi etkileyip etkilemediği incelenmiştir. Veriler, Türkiye'deki 71 beyaz yaka profesyonelinden oluşan uygun bir örneklemden çevrimiçi anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Çoklu regresyon analizi organizasyonel faktörlerin doğrudan etkilerini ölçerken, Hayes'in bootstrap güven aralıkları ve PROCESS makrosu aracılık ilişkilerini test etmiştir. Sonuçlar, organizasyonel faktörlerin dijital dönüşüm başarısındaki varyansın önemli bir bölümünü birlikte açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur. Özellikle organizasyonel bağlılık, istatistiksel olarak güçlü bir anlamlılık göstermiştir. Ayrıca iş stresinin dönüşüm sonuçları üzerinde önemli bir olumsuz etkiye sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Ancak, ölçüm sınırlamaları ve organizasyonel bağlılıkla paylaşılan varyans nedeniyle, liderlik tarzı ve organizasyonel kültürün önemli doğrudan etkileri gözlemlenmemiştir. Öte yandan, değişime direnç, organizasyonel faktörler ile dijital dönüşümün başarısı arasındaki ilişkileri etkilememiştir. Organizasyonel faktörler değişime direnç düzeylerini öngörememiş, değişime direnç de dönüşümün sonuçlarını öngörememiştir. Bulgular, organizasyonların dijital dönüşüm girişimlerini planlarken öncelikle direnç yönetimine odaklanmak yerine çalışan bağlılığını

oluşturmaya, iş yeri stresini yönetmeye ve hazırlık düzeylerini değerlendirmeye öncelik vermesi gerektiğini göstermektedir. Sonuçlar, direnç merkezli teorik modelleri sorgularken Sosyal Değişim Teorisi'ni doğrulamaktadır.
Anahtar Kelimeler: Dijital Dönüşüm, Organizasyonel Bağlılık, Değişime Direnç, İş Stresi, Organizasyonel Hazırlık

ABSTRACT

FROM COMMITMENT TO SUCCESS: ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS ENABLING DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

Digital transformation represents a fundamental change in how organizations create business value. While many organizations struggle with this change, limited research examines the direct relationships between organizational factors, resistance to change, and transformation success. This study examines the impact of organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, and work stress on the outcomes of digital transformation, and whether resistance to change affects the relationship between these organizational factors and the success of digital transformation. Data were collected via a questionnaire from a convenience sample of 71 white-collar professionals in Türkiye. Multiple regression analysis assessed direct effects, while Hayes' PROCESS macro with bootstrap confidence intervals tested mediation pathways. The results showed that organizational factors collectively explained a significant amount of variance in digital transformation success. Organizational commitment particularly showed strong statistical significance. Work stress was also found to have a significant negative effect on DT outcomes. However, leadership style and organizational culture showed no significant direct effects, likely due to measurement limitations and shared variance with organizational commitment. Contrary to expectations, resistance to change did not mediate the relationships between organizational factors and DT success. Neither organizational factors influenced resistance, nor did resistance influence outcomes. The findings suggest that organizations should prioritize building organizational commitment, managing work stress, and assessing organizational readiness thresholds rather than focusing primarily on

resistance management when planning digital transformation initiatives. The results validate Social Exchange Theory while challenging resistance-centered theoretical models.
Keywords: Digital Transformation, Organizational Commitment, Resistance to Change, Work Stress, Organizational Readiness

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This thesis would not have been possible without the support and guidance of many individuals who contributed to its completion.

First and foremost, I extend my deepest gratitude to my thesis advisor, **Assist. Prof. Kemal Özkan Yılmaz**, for his invaluable guidance, insightful feedback, and consistent support throughout this research. His expertise and mentorship have been essential in shaping both this thesis and my development as a researcher and practitioner.

I am grateful to the **professionals** who generously participated in this study, sharing their experiences with digital transformation. Their willingness to contribute their time and insights made this research possible. I also thank my **professional network** for helping with increasing the participants and supporting data collection efforts.

Special thanks to **FMV Işık University** and the Executive MBA program faculty for providing an intellectually stimulating environment that encouraged rigorous academic inquiry while maintaining relevance to business practice.

Finally, and most importantly, I thank my **family** for their extraordinary patience, understanding, and support during this intensive period. To my wife and our two daughters: your tolerance of late nights, weekend work, and my preoccupation with this research has been remarkable. This achievement belongs to all of us.

Any errors or limitations in this work remain entirely my own.

Mehmet Cemal GÜLLÜOĞLU

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS LIST

AI: Artificial Intelligence

DOI: Diffusion of Innovation

DPI: Digital Public Infrastructure

DT: Digital Transformation

DV: Dependent Variable

EHRs: Electronic Health Records

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

GDPR: General Data Protection Regulation

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

IT: Information Technology

IV: Independent Variable

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

KPIs: Key Performance Indicators

M: Mediating Variable (Mediator)

OT: Operational Technology

RPA: Robotic Process Automation

SET: Social Exchange Theory

SMEs: Small and Medium-sized Enterprises

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

STEM: Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics

TAM: Technology Acceptance Model

VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

VUCA: Volatile, Uncertain, Complex, and Ambiguous

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Digital transformation (DT) is a process where organizations use digital technologies to change their value creation paths. This process is not just a technological upgrade; it represents comprehensive organizational change that requires fundamental changes to internal structures, culture, and core business processes. For organizations to create new ways to generate value and remain competitive, DT requires changes in strategy and operations (Vial, 2019). However, implementing such a large-scale change is a complex process. It often includes high initial costs and creates significant resistance from employees (Martins et al., 2023). Human and organizational resistance frequently leads to high failure rates for digital initiatives. Resistance can be caused by psychological reactions, such as a fear of new routines, or by organizational inertia, including adherence to traditional, rigid structures (Shahzad et al., 2025). This study examines the effects of key organizational factors, such as culture, organizational commitment, and leadership style, on reducing employee resistance and influencing successful DT outcomes.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH GAP

DT projects, despite massive investment and strategic importance, often fail to meet their objectives. Reported failure rates range up to 70% (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Daškevič & Burinskienė, 2025). One significant factor contributing to these failures is employee resistance (Vial, 2019, p. 118). Research indicates that the primary obstacles to DT are not just technological but are caused by organizational and human elements (Hizir, 2022). Effective DT requires organizational factors to align with technological goals. This requires

comprehensive remodeling of business operations and culture (Weill & Woerner, 2018). Consequently, DT success relies on specific organizational capabilities. These include a strong leadership style required to promote continuous learning and strategic vision, an organizational culture that must be flexible and innovative rather than rigid or resistant, and organizational commitment that influences employee dedication during change (Ferdaus et al., 2025; Munsamy et al., 2025). Furthermore, the substantial changes associated with DT often create high levels of Work Stress. This technostress is a psychological mechanism that promotes both active and passive employee resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024).

Although the importance of employee resistance is widely recognized, existing research on this phenomenon is fragmented and lacks integration. This results in only partial explanations of the underlying mechanisms (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Many studies have traditionally focused on the adoption or rejection of individual technologies. These studies overlook the complex relationships between broad organizational factors and specific resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024). This fragmentation limits understanding of how individual and organizational factors collectively determine DT outcomes. Therefore, a comprehensive integrated framework is needed to systematically explore how organizational factors such as organizational commitment, leadership, culture, and stress influence resistance to DT. Furthermore, few studies directly examine the relationships between these organizational factors and employee resistance within a combined model.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this study is to systematically test the direct and indirect relationships between specific organizational factors and DT success. These organizational factors include leadership, organizational culture, organizational commitment, and work stress. This research adopts a mechanism

framework by investigating how resistance to change may function as a partial mediator in this relationship.

The theoretical framework is based on a Partial Mediation Model that provides a comprehensive view of how organizational elements affect outcomes. This model suggests two distinct pathways to DT Success. The primary pathway involves organizational factors influencing outcomes indirectly by reducing or increasing employee resistance. This pathway operates as Organizational Factors → Resistance to Change → DT Success. For instance, certain leadership styles may reduce technostress and therefore lower resistance. The second direct pathway accounts for effects not mediated through employee behavior. This pathway operates as Organizational Factors → DT Success. Examples include resource allocation, infrastructure investment, or alignment of objectives that directly enable DT regardless of individual opposition. This conceptualization is essential for understanding how organizational readiness, including people, process, and structure, contributes to sustained performance.

These theoretical relationships have important practical implications. Organizations considering DT face a fundamental question: Is the organization ready? This study helps answer this question by identifying which organizational factors influence DT success. Organizations can assess their levels of employee commitment, leadership effectiveness, organizational culture, and work stress to evaluate DT readiness. The findings also inform whether organizations with specific characteristics should prioritize building organizational conditions before attempting DT or delay it until readiness improves.

1.3 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

This study helps identify non-technical factors in DT. The research tests a partial mediation model to examine whether employee resistance functions as the behavioral mechanism through which organizational factors influence outcomes.

Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive literature review, establishing the theoretical foundations related to DT, organizational factors, resistance mechanisms, and contextual influences. Chapter 3 details the methodology, describing the research design, data collection, sample, measurement tools, and hypothesis formulation. Chapter 4 presents the statistical analysis and empirical findings derived from the collected data, including the testing of all hypotheses. Finally, Chapter 5 synthesizes the key results, provides a discussion of theoretical and practical implications, details the limitations of the study, and offers recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

DT refers to comprehensive organizational change that extends beyond simple technological upgrades. DT is outcome-oriented and represents the strategic integration of digital technologies across all areas of the organization (Gong & Ribiere, 2021; Vial, 2019). This process is conceptually distinguished from digitization and digitalization. Digitization refers to the technical conversion of analog information into digital format. Digitalization uses digital technologies to automate processes or change business models for value creation (Martins et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023). DT fundamentally changes how a company creates business value. It requires a comprehensive redesign of strategy, operations, processes, competencies, and business models to strategically use digital resources.

The scope of DT is comprehensive, covering technology, operations, and the organizational network across management, leadership, and culture. DT represents a sociotechnical process that integrates digital technologies into the organization's established operations and practices (Shahzad et al., 2025). Remaining competitive is a strategic objective in dynamic environments. Organizations must continuously transform to maintain market relevance. Organizations that fail to quickly create and execute DT strategies are unlikely to keep pace with the demands of the digital world. As DT requires fundamental changes, it involves redefining organizational structure. This often requires less bureaucratic administrative control and higher cross-functional integration.

DT success is the dependent variable (DV) in this study. It reflects the organization's ability to maximize the benefits from its DT efforts. Success is measured by tangible outcomes, including which digital technologies are used to improve operational processes, enhance customer experience, and reinvent

business models (Pandey & Badir, 2021). Successful outcomes also include better operational efficiency, greater innovation, and sustained competitive advantage (Martins et al., 2023). Achieving sustained success requires not only the technical implementation of digital tools but also organizational acceptance and strong cultural alignment. This highlights that attaining DT Success depends heavily on successfully managing core organizational factors and reducing the employee resistance that this study specifically tests.

2.1 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

This section establishes the theoretical frameworks that support the study's conceptual model. These frameworks explain how organizational change unfolds, how individuals adopt new technologies, and how social exchange relationships influence employee behavior during DT. Section 2.2.1 examines macro-level change models, specifically Lewin's Three-Step Model and Kotter's 8-Step Model, which provide frameworks for managing organizational transformation processes. Section 2.2.2 explores micro-level technology adoption theories, including Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) and the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), which explain individual-level acceptance of digital tools. Section 2.2.3 presents Social Exchange Theory (SET) as the foundational framework explaining how perceived organizational support influences employee commitment and behavior. Together, these theories provide the conceptual foundation for understanding how organizational factors influence resistance and DT success.

2.1.1 Macro-Level Change Models

Successful DT requires more than adopting new technologies. It requires profound understanding of macro-level organizational change processes (Shahzad et al., 2025). DT is a complex transformation that fundamentally changes strategy, operations, and business models (Vial, 2019). Implementation

difficulty often involves high initial costs and creates substantial resistance from workers (Martins et al., 2023). Foundational models of planned organizational change, such as Kurt Lewin's Three-Step Model and John P. Kotter's 8-Step Model, provide frameworks for managing this complexity and achieving lasting results (Carreño, 2024; Hussain et al., 2018). These frameworks address organizational inertia and structural rigidity. Organizations tend to continue using past practices. The frameworks outline distinct, manageable phases required to overcome rooted organizational barriers and establish new digitally enabled behaviors (Schwarzmüller, 2021; Shahzad et al., 2025).

Kurt Lewin's Three-Stage Model, developed in the 1940s, remains foundational in organizational change theory due to its psychological focus on how groups move from one stable state to another (Carreño, 2024; Lewin, 1947). The model includes three sequential stages: Unfreeze, Change (or Movement), and Refreeze (Hussain et al., 2018; Sarıibrahim, 2008). The model is based on Lewin's Force Field Theory. This theory proposes that organizational stability results from equal balance between driving forces (supporting change) and restraining forces (resisting change) (Khan et al., 2016; Lewin, 1947; Sarıibrahim, 2008).

The Unfreeze stage prepares the organization for change by challenging the status quo, reducing restraining forces, or increasing driving forces to create motivation and readiness (Hussain et al., 2018). In the context of DT, unfreezing requires leaders to address psychological barriers such as employee fears related to skill gaps or job displacement. Leaders must transparently communicate the necessity of the digital transition (Schiffelers et al., 2025). The Change stage focuses on implementing new digital tools and processes. This requires continuous support and comprehensive training. Finally, the Refreeze stage stabilizes the organization in its new state by integrating digital practices into performance metrics, policies, and culture. This prevents regression to old analog habits (Sarıibrahim, 2008).

John P. Kotter's 8-Step Change Model, introduced in 1995, offers a detailed, sequential, and leadership-focused framework designed specifically to

guide large-scale organizational transformations and avoid common leadership failures (Carreño, 2024; Kotter, 1995). Kotter (1995) outlines the eight steps as follows:

1) Establishing a Sense of Urgency
2) Forming a Powerful Guiding Coalition,
3) Creating a Vision and Strategy
4) Communicating the Vision
5) Empowering Others to Act on the Vision
6) Generating Short-Term Wins
7) Sustaining Acceleration
8) Institutionalizing New Approaches

This model is explicitly designed to anticipate and manage resistance throughout the process (Carreño, 2024).

Steps 4 and 5 are critical for managing the human element. Effective and frequent Communication of the Vision (Step 4) is essential for building broad support and overcoming resistance caused by confusion or misinformation (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008; Sittrop, 2021). Empowering Others and removing barriers (Step 5) proactively addresses obstacles, including outdated structures and skill gaps. This helps reduce resistance rooted in feelings of inadequacy or helplessness (Shahzad et al., 2025; Sittrop, 2021). In DT, leadership must successfully execute these steps. Failure to implement proper change management strategies, particularly regarding resource allocation and transparency, often negatively affects human resources and increases subsequent resistance (Martins et al., 2023; Shahzad et al., 2025).

These macro-level frameworks emphasize that change is a managed organizational process, not a sudden event (Carreño, 2024). The organizational factors proposed in this study (Leadership, Culture, Organizational Commitment, and Work Stress) serve as essential inputs governing the execution quality of the steps outlined by Lewin and Kotter. Resistance to Change (M) is theorized to occur when organizations fail to properly execute these critical change steps. This structure justifies the partial mediation model in two ways: 1) The Direct Pathway (organizational factors → DV) is explained by effective change management. For example, strong leadership creating a clear vision

directly enables DT success. 2) The Mediation Pathway (organizational factors → M → DV) illustrates how poor execution of change management leads to organizational inertia and employee resistance. This resistance then acts as the mechanism that blocks the achievement of DT success.

2.1.2 Micro-Level Technology Adoption Theories

While macro-level models such as Lewin's and Kotter's frameworks focus on orchestrating organizational change, achieving DT success ultimately depends on individual employee adoption decisions. DT requires changing individual mindsets and overcoming reactions to new tools. This makes micro-level theories essential for diagnosing acceptance patterns at the user level. The Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) Theory and the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) are complementary frameworks used to understand and predict how individuals perceive, adopt, and spread new digital tools. DOI analyzes the innovation itself and how it spreads through a social system. TAM focuses on the individual's cognitive evaluation process.

According to Everett Rogers's Diffusion of Innovations (DOI) theory, innovations are communicated through specific channels over time among members of a social system (Rogers, 2003). DOI provides a conceptual model for understanding how technologies spread and why adoption is not a uniform event. The perceived characteristics of the innovation strongly determine the rate of adoption (Rogers, 2003). Rogers highlights five important attributes:

- **Relative Advantage**: The degree to which the innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes.
- **Compatibility**: The perceived consistency of innovation with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters.
- **Complexity**: The perceived difficulty in understanding and using innovation.
- **Trialability**: The ability to experiment with innovation on a limited basis to reduce uncertainty.
- **Observability**: The visibility of the results of an innovation to others.

In DT, DOI provides a framework for assessing specific digital deployments. Technologies perceived as highly complex or incompatible with current workflows face significant barriers to diffusion. DOI is successfully applied in diverse contexts such as guiding DT in education (Wang et al., 2023) and structuring project management methodologies for technology diffusion in logistics (Daškevič & Burinskienė, 2025). The theory categorizes adopters into five segments: Innovators, Early Adopters, Early Majority, Late Majority, and Laggards. This shows that resistance is predictable across these groups, especially the Late Majority and Laggards.

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is the most widely used information systems theory for predicting user acceptance. Davis (1989) proposed this model, which suggests that two core cognitive beliefs determine behavioral intention to use a system:

- **Perceived Usefulness**: The individual's perception that using technology will enhance their job performance (Davis, 1989).
- **Perceived Ease of Use**: The individual's belief that using the system will be free of effort (Davis, 1989).

These beliefs together shape attitude, which drives intention to use. Importantly, Perceived Ease of Use directly influences Perceived Usefulness. Systems that are easy to use require less cognitive effort and are therefore perceived as more useful (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). In the context of large-scale change, TAM frames resistance not as an emotional reaction but as a rational response to negative cognitive evaluation (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). If employees perceive low usefulness or great difficulty, they will form an intention to resist the new digital tool. Recent studies on complex technologies such as Artificial Intelligence (AI) confirm that Perceived Usefulness is the core factor driving adoption. However, Perceived Ease of Use is important, especially in lowering psychological barriers during early adoption stages (Ibrahim et al., 2025; Song et al., 2025).

The DOI and TAM frameworks are highly related. TAM's core constructs are essentially a subset of DOI's perceived innovation characteristics. There is a

strong empirical link between the two. The Complexity attribute of an innovation (DOI) is a primary determinant of Perceived Ease of Use (TAM). Relative Advantage and Compatibility (DOI) are strong determinants of Perceived Usefulness (TAM). Empirical evidence confirms that DOI's innovation characteristics have a strong and significant impact on both Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use (Al-Rahmi et al., 2019). Integrating TAM and DOI provides a strong model that helps diagnose technology adoption success.

This integration is directly relevant to this thesis because organizational factors influence these perceptions. Poor Leadership or a weak Organizational Culture leads to negative perceptions of DOI attributes. For example, employees may perceive high complexity or low relative advantage. This results in low Perceived Ease of Use and Perceived Usefulness. This negative cognitive assessment increases Resistance to Change (the Mediating Variable), which consequently blocks the achievement of DT Success.

2.1.3 Socio-Relational Foundations: Social Exchange Theory

SET is a foundational sociological and psychological paradigm that views human interaction as a series of exchanges based on subjective cost-benefit analysis (Kumar & Shailaja, 2024; Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). The core concept of SET is that individuals act rationally to start and keep relationships with the expectation of receiving rewards that outweigh the costs incurred (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Kumar & Shailaja, 2024). A relationship's perceived profit is calculated as rewards (positive outcomes like support, recognition, or resources) minus costs (negative consequences such as effort, time, or emotional stress). The central principle is reciprocity. Reciprocity is the expectation that one party will return benefits or favors, fostering trust and cooperation (Kumar & Shailaja, 2024). Perceived Organizational Support formalizes this mutually beneficial dynamic. It indicates that the employee believes the organization values their work and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986; Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025).

During large-scale corporate transitions such as DT, organizations implicitly renegotiate their foundational relationship with employees. Employees evaluate this change by weighing the imposed costs against the rewards offered by the organization. Costs include high psychological strain, increased workload, skill effort, and fears surrounding job security (Bausch et al., 2024). Organizations must provide commensurate rewards such as transparent communication, training and support, job security assurance, and opportunities for development and inclusion in decision-making (Kumar & Shailaja, 2024; Shahzad et al., 2025). When the organization proactively provides this support, employees reciprocate with greater willingness to adopt change, higher organizational commitment, and increased effort (Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). Conversely, resistance to change is viewed as a rational and predictable response to a perceived unfavorable exchange. This occurs when the burden of change (costs) outweighs the corresponding support (rewards) (Cieslak & Valor, 2024).

Organizational commitment, particularly affective commitment, reflects the quality of the perceived social exchange relationship (Rhoades et al., 2001). Perceived Organizational support is a strong indicator of higher organizational commitment because employees feel valued and believe the organization will reward their performance and support them through change (Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986; Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). This commitment operationalizes the favorable social exchange captured by SET (Kumar & Shailaja, 2024). Committed employees who have a strong belief in the organization's goals and trust in the long-term relationship are significantly more willing to accept the temporary costs, uncertainty, and effort required by DT (Iverson, 1996; Tatli et al., 2025). This loyalty makes employees less likely to engage in active or passive resistance behaviors. This theoretical proposition explains why Organizational Commitment should reduce resistance (M) in the mediation model (Peccei et al., 2011).

SET provides the theoretical grounding for the study's proposed mechanisms. The theory suggests that organizational factors influence Perceived

Organizational Support, which strengthens employee commitment and should theoretically reduce Resistance to Change. This forms the basis for the indirect pathway (organizational factors → M → DV) tested in this study. Furthermore, SET justifies the direct pathway (organizational factors → DV) by demonstrating that strong, positive exchange relationships enable important organizational behaviors such as knowledge sharing, cooperation, and efficient resource allocation (Amy, 2008). Therefore, SET forms the theoretical foundation for proposing that Organizational Commitment (H2) is the key driver enabling successful DT. Chapter 4 presents the empirical testing of these theoretical propositions, while Chapter 5 interprets the findings.

2.2 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance to Change is the proposed mediating variable (M) in this study. It represents the central behavioral mechanism through which organizational factors are theorized to influence DT Success. Understanding resistance is essential because change management literature consistently identifies employee opposition as a perceived primary barrier to DT success (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Vial, 2019). This section examines resistance from three perspectives. Section 2.3.1 conceptualizes resistance to DT, defining its dimensions and manifestations. Section 2.3.2 explores the psychological mechanism of technostress that theoretically drives resistance behaviors. Section 2.3.3 reviews empirical evidence supporting resistance as a mediator and justifies the proposed partial mediation model tested in this study.

2.2.1 Conceptualizing Resistance to DT

Resistance to Change is the proposed mediating variable in this study. It reflects employee opposition, reluctance, or inability to support organizational transformation. Resistance is traditionally defined as any behavior from individuals or groups that oppose a particular change, a program of changes, or

change in general (Peiperl, 2005). More specifically, employee resistance to transformation is described as behavior intended to slow down or stop a change initiative (Pandey & Badir, 2021). This phenomenon has multiple dimensions, including cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). At the individual level, resistance originates from psychological responses such as fear, stress, and anxiety, or cognitive elements like perceived threats to resources (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Shahzad et al., 2025). Systemic resistance is rooted in structural inertia, routine practices, and cultural barriers (Schwarzmüller, 2021). Importantly, resistance is often not an irrational act of opposition but a rational response to valid concerns. It can be a valuable signal indicating flaws in the change process or perceived threats to the employee's material or intangible resources (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Thomas & Hardy, 2011).

Resistance is widely recognized in literature as a perceived primary barrier to successful DT. Despite significant investments, substantial research indicates that DT initiatives fail at high rates. Estimates frequently range from 70% to 95% (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Tobin D, 2025). Employee resistance is consistently identified in change management literature as a critical factor contributing to this widespread failure, often exceeding technical and financial barriers (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Vial, 2019; Yucel, 2011). Resistance ranges from passive to active behaviors (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Passive resistance involves actions that are difficult to detect. These include non-use of technology, withdrawal, minimizing compliance, decreased job involvement, and mental dismissal (Bausch et al., 2024; Yenigurbuz, 2017). Active resistance involves clear behaviors like vocal opposition, complaints, sabotage, or strikes (Bausch et al., 2024). These resistant behaviors can result in project delays, increased costs, underutilization of technology, failure to realize intended benefits, and eventual project termination (Khan et al., 2016; Shahzad et al., 2025).

Based on this theoretical foundation, resistance is positioned as the central mediating variable (M) between organizational factors and DT Success (DV). The core mediation logic suggests that organizational factors such as leadership

quality, cultural support, and resource provision influence the psychological state of employees. This psychological state should theoretically determine the level of opposition or support for the initiative (Bausch et al., 2024). The literature suggests that organizational failures result in employee resistance, which acts as a barrier to successful implementation of transformation efforts (Pandey & Badir, 2021; Yucel, 2011).

This study proposes a partial mediation model. While organizational factors should influence success through behavioral mechanisms (organizational factors → M → DV), they may also have a direct impact on DT Success (organizational factors → DV). This direct pathway includes non-behavioral mechanisms that are important for DT. These include executive strategic decisions, effective resource allocation, and necessary infrastructure investments (Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). The overall model tests whether organizational elements manage resistance, which either enables or blocks successful DT. Chapter 4 presents the empirical testing of this mediation framework. Subsequent sections examine the psychological mechanism of technostress and empirical evidence supporting this theoretical model (Bausch et al., 2024).

2.2.2 Technostress and Resistance

Technostress describes the psychological strain that individuals fee due to their use of information technology (IT) (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007). When IT entered the workplace in the 1980s, researchers first studied this phenomenon, which is distinct from general work stress. Digital tools specifically trigger it, leading to an organizational transformation (Bausch et al., 2024). DT increases technostress because it causes significant and frequently unexpected changes in work processes. These changes require employees to abandon familiar behaviors, quickly master new skills, and constantly adapt (Bausch et al., 2024). This comprehensive and rapid digitization of jobs, involving the introduction of various digital technologies simultaneously, overwhelms employees and leads to high levels of stress (Bausch et al., 2024).

Research identifies five distinct dimensions of technostress that describe the various types of stressors resulting from IT use (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007):

- **Techno-overload** is the perception that technology forces the employee to work much faster, longer hours, or handle a higher workload than they can manage (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007). The perceived DT of the workplace has the strongest influence on techno-overload (Bausch et al., 2024).
- **Techno-complexity** it the difficulty employees face in understanding and using complex digital tools. This often leads to feeling that they lack the necessary knowledge or time to acquire new technology skills (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007).
- **Techno-insecurity** is the fear of job loss due to automation or the perceived inability to keep pace with continuous technology changes (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007). This is rooted in concerns that technological changes will jeopardize one's job (Bausch et al., 2024).
- **Techno-invasion** is the dissolution of boundaries between professional and personal life. Examples include feeling the need to be constantly connected or having work-related issues invade personal time (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007).
- **Techno-uncertainty** is the instability created by constant, rapid changes and frequent upgrades in digital technology. This leads to demands for continuous learning and adaptation (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007). This is linked to concerns and strains related to continuously learning new skills (Bausch et al., 2024).

The broad scope of digitalization ensures that DT simultaneously affects all five dimensions, highlighting its broad psychological influence on the workforce (Bausch et al., 2024).

The literature identifies technostress as the central psychological mechanism that should explain why employees show resistance behavior toward DT (Bausch et al., 2024). When individuals experience technostress, they are

motivated to eliminate the stressor. This leads to either a "fight or flight" response (Bausch et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2007). This response should theoretically translate into passive resistance (flight behaviors) or active resistance (fight behaviors). Flight behaviors include avoiding technology, disengaging from work, or taking sick leave. Fight behaviors include complaining to supervisors or protesting (Bausch et al., 2024).

High technostress should theoretically undermine the cognitive evaluation required for acceptance. This links this mechanism to the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Specifically, technostress dimensions like Techno-complexity and Techno-uncertainty should reduce the individual's Perceived Ease of Use of new systems. This is a major factor in forming an intention to resist (Kocak, 2024).

Empirical findings from other studies support this mechanism. Research demonstrates that technostress fully mediates the effect of DT on both passive and active resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024). This theoretical mechanism explains the operating logic for the Work Stress, a dimension of the IV in this study. Organizational factors such as lack of support or poor communication that fail to address the demands of DT should theoretically increase employee psychological strain and amplify technostress. This, in turn, should drive resistance (M) and reduce the likelihood of DT Success (DV) (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). Additionally, the literature suggests that passive resistance is specifically promoted by Techno-insecurity and Techno-complexity, while active resistance is promoted by Techno-complexity and Techno-uncertainty. This highlights that anxiety and fear related to job security and competence are key emotional drivers of resistance behavior (Bausch et al., 2024).

2.2.3 The Mediating Role of Resistance to Change

The conceptual model proposes that Employee Resistance to Change (M) functions as the primary mediator between Organizational Factors (IV) and DT Success (DV). Change management literature consistently identifies resistance

as a significant factor contributing to high failure rates in DT initiatives. Approximately 70% to 95% of these projects fail, often attributed to employee opposition (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Vial, 2019). This resistance is not irrational. It is a predictable outcome when employees judge that transformation threatens their material or intangible resources, such as job security or professional identity (Almatrodi et al., 2023; Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Resistance is defined as a three-stage process that includes cognitive threat evaluations, emotional responses such as fear and anxiety, and subsequent behavioral actions (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Therefore, the theoretical expectation is that the effectiveness of organizational commitment, leadership, culture, and stress management operates indirectly by reducing this perceived threat and resulting resistance behaviors (Almatrodi et al., 2023; Bausch et al., 2024).

Studies from the literature suggest that employee psychological and behavioral reactions are necessary filters through which organizational interventions must pass to influence change outcomes. This theoretical foundation supports testing the mediated path in the proposed model.

A critical quantitative study by Bausch et al. (2024) examined the relationship between DT of the workplace (IV) and employee resistance behaviors (DV), utilizing Technostress as the mediator (M). Technostress was conceptualized as a psychological tension construct covering dimensions like techno-overload and techno-complexity (Bausch et al., 2024). The key finding of this research was full mediation. Technostress significantly increased both passive and active resistance behaviors. The direct link between DT and resistance was not significant (Bausch et al., 2024). This study validates that mitigating psychological factors such as Work Stress and Technostress is important for reducing resistance in a DT environment, as transformation itself is the dominant source of organizational tension (Bausch et al., 2024).

In a separate quantitative study focusing on resistance within a technological context, Tatli et al. (2025) investigated the relationship between Organizational Climate (IV) and Resistance to Change (DV) among healthcare professionals. Their mediating variable (M) was Technology Readiness, which

broke down into motivating and blocking factors. Tatli et al. found that the technology readiness factors successfully mediated the favorable impact of a positive organizational climate on reducing resistance. This shows that organizational support (IV) must first successfully establish the necessary internal psychological resources and readiness (M) among employees to reduce resistance effectively (Tatli et al., 2025). This finding is relevant because it emphasizes that positive employee attitudes toward technology adoption can be achieved by improving the quality of organizational factors, which should help reduce opposition.

Furthermore, research emphasizes that DT outcomes depend on overcoming employee opposition. This opposition arises from perceived threats to material and intangible job resources (Almatrodi et al., 2023; Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Pandey and Badir (2021), in their work on the human side of technological change, position resistance to change (M) as an internal challenge that affects success in implementing technological change (DV). Success can be measured using comprehensive scales focused on improving customer experience, operations, and business models (Pandey & Badir, 2021).

These findings of strong or full mediation in the literature provide the theoretical foundation for proposing a partial mediation model (H2) in this study. This approach allows including the direct link (IV → DV), which represents necessary strategic decisions and structural interventions. These include establishing digital governance or performing major structural redesigns that drive DT success independently of individual employee psychological responses (Weill & Woerner, 2018; Shahzad et al., 2025). By testing for partial mediation, the study examines whether both the relational aspects (mediated by employee resistance) and the strategic/structural aspects (the direct path) of DT success operate in the proposed manner.

Adopting a sociotechnical process perspective on DT helps explain why resistance theoretically requires management and is often systemic (Martins et al., 2023; Shahzad et al., 2025). DT is defined by the necessary interaction and alignment between the social system (roles, skills, culture) and the technical

system (Martins et al., 2023; Shahzad et al., 2025). Resistance often originates from organizational inertia, where organizational routines and internal conflict prevent the organization from adapting to external demands (Pandey & Badir, 2021; Sebastian et al., 2023). Therefore, resistance is not just an individual attitude but a system-level phenomenon arising from structural misalignment.

Based on this synthesis, the conceptual model proposes a partial mediation relationship to be tested (H2). The model includes two distinct theoretical pathways for influence:

The Indirect (Mediated) Path should theoretically capture the influence of organizational factors on success indirectly through employee attitudes and relational engagement. Factors like positive organizational climate and effective leadership should reduce employee threat perception and mitigate resistance, thereby improving outcomes (Cieslak & Valor, 2024).

The Direct Pathway includes a direct path (Organizational Factors → DT Success) that should operate independently of individual employee resistance. This path includes structural and strategic enablement. DT requires leaders to execute fundamental structural redesigns such as flattening hierarchy and promoting cross-functional collaboration. It also requires persistent strategic resource allocations (Shahzad et al., 2025). Leadership drives strategic alignment between digital initiatives and core organizational goals, which should directly impact organizational performance (Munsamy et al., 2025; Sebastian et al., 2023). This direct path ensures that the model accounts for success achieved through top-level management decisions and structural changes, even when some degree of resistance persists.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS

This section examines the four dimensions of organizational factors in the study's theoretical model. These factors are hypothesized to influence DT

Success both directly and indirectly through their effects on Resistance to Change.

2.3.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment is established as a critical organizational factor (a dimension of the IV) within this model. It is hypothesized to influence both employee resistance (M) and the ultimate success of DT.

Organizational commitment is broadly defined as the psychological attachment an individual feels toward their organization. It reflects the relative strength of the employee's identification with and involvement in the organization. Committed individuals have a strong belief in the organization's goals and values. They show eagerness to spend extra effort on behalf of the organization and have a genuine desire to maintain organizational membership (Mowday, et al., 1979).

The most widely accepted model for this attachment is the three-component framework developed by Meyer and Allen (1991):

- **Affective Commitment:** The employee's emotional attachment to and desire to remain in the organization.
- **Continuance Commitment:** Commitment based on the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization.
- **Normative Commitment:** The obligation that employees feel to continue working with the organization.

Of these, affective commitment is frequently cited as the most relevant dimension for studying voluntary change support. It is associated with the emotional condition of the person in that organization, leading to a positive quality of work experience and loyalty (Cook & Wall, 1980).

Organizational commitment is theoretically important for successful DT because it meets the motivational needs of radical change. Committed employees view the organization's success as personal success. This motivates them to align their actions with organizational objectives.

Organizational Commitment is vital for managing DT uncertainties and achieving positive outcomes:

- **Willingness to Invest Effort:** Committed employees are more willing to provide the necessary effort, creativity, and motivation to achieve company goals. This includes adapting to new digital skills and overcoming implementation challenges.
- **Trust and Acceptance:** Employee commitment creates trust that the organization values and supports employees during challenging times. This trust reduces the perception that DT is a threat. It allows them to accept innovation that benefits the organization.
- **Reduced Resistance (Effect on M):** High organizational commitment should theoretically have a significant negative relationship with resistance to change. This mechanism is explained by SET. SET suggests that when employees perceive high Organizational Support (Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986), they feel obligated to repay this debt by caring for the organization's well-being and helping it achieve its goals (Wayne et al., 1997; Whitener, 2001). This sense of obligation strengthens employee commitment and consequently should lower the likelihood of displaying opposition or resistance behaviors.

On the direct pathway to DT Success (DV), committed employees should demonstrate loyalty, persist through implementation challenges, and contribute to performance. In contrast, low employee commitment can cause poor work outcomes and actions such as absenteeism, lateness, and resignation (Sıcakyüz & Yüregir, 2020).

Empirical findings from the literature confirm the importance of organizational commitment for successful adaptation to technology-driven changes. Affective commitment has been specifically found to mitigate resistance to technology. This aligns with the idea that perceiving the usefulness of change and having commitment reduce opposition (Peccei et al., 2011).

Sector-specific studies demonstrate the importance of this variable. For instance, in an assessment involving hospital employees, commitment played an

important role in the acceptance of changes. This resulted in more committed employees desiring greater participation in change projects (Nafei, 2014). Furthermore, a meta-analysis confirmed that Perceived Organizational Support (POS), which strongly drives employee commitment, is significantly positively associated with improved employee performance (Riggle et al., 2009). It is also essential to reducing voluntary turnover. Organizations' investment of limited resources in POS programs shows that managers recognize the importance of these initiatives. Overall, organizational commitment is consistently cited as one of the most important determinants of successful organizational change and technology adoption (Iverson, 1996; Sıcakyüz & Yüregir, 2020).

This literature review provides the theoretical foundation for proposing that organizational commitment is a key driver of DT Success. Based on SET, this study hypothesizes that organizational commitment will have significant influence. SET proposes that a favorable exchange relationship, where employees feel organizational support, leads to strong affective commitment. This study's survey measures this affective connection through items assessing "Being Happy to Stay" for organizational commitment and "Caring for Individuals" for culture. These constructs operationalize Perceived Organizational Support. The literature suggests that organizational commitment should be the necessary mechanism linking organizational factors to reduced employee resistance and successful DT.

2.3.2 Leadership Style

Leadership is widely recognized as a critical factor in determining the success or failure of DT initiatives. It serves as a primary organizational factor that should theoretically influence both DT success (DV) and employee resistance (M) (Weill & Woerner, 2018).

Digital Leadership, or Leadership 4.0, describes the guidance needed to manage significant organizational changes brought by DT (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Munsamy et al., 2025). This leadership concept represents a major shift from traditional, hierarchical models that favor stability and control. It moves

toward a decentralized, collaborative, and agile approach necessary for the Fourth Industrial Revolution (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Successful DT requires leaders to undergo their own DT. Human-centric values like purpose and engagement become as important as data-driven efficiency (MIT Sloan Management Review, 2021).

Digital Leadership requires a combination of technological expertise and advanced soft skills, aligning with the conceptual framework of Leadership 4.0 (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Munsamy et al., 2025). Key competencies are:

- **Digital Literacy:** Leaders need to know how to use new technologies to reach strategic goals and stay ahead of the competition (Munsamy et al., 2025).
- **Strategic Foresight:** The ability to anticipate technological disruptions and market changes is critical for developing and aligning organizational strategy (Munsamy et al., 2025).
- **Transformational Qualities:** Digital leaders often show transformational leadership qualities. They present a compelling vision and inspire their teams, which encourages innovation and continuous professional development (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024).
- **Emotional Intelligence:** Emotional Intelligence is emphasized for managing the uncertainty and discomfort generated by change among employees Munsamy et al., 2025; Sacavém et al., 2025).
- **Change Management Capability:** Leaders must promote structural and process changes (Shahzad et al., 2025) and execute recognized transformation phases. This acknowledges the importance of actively managing transitions (Hussain et al., 2018; Lewin, 1947).

This integrated approach aims to create a social environment that challenges the traditional management style of strict control (Amy, 2008).

Leadership's influence on DT outcomes is theoretically complex, working through both direct organizational support and indirect psychological factors.

Leaders are fundamentally responsible for guiding the transformation process (Sacavém et al., 2025). They must present a unified strategic vision,

which is essential for transformation success (Kocak, 2024; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Leaders should ensure efficiency and acceleration by removing structural obstacles such as rigid hierarchies and organizational barriers (Shahzad et al., 2025; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Additionally, leaders must identify and allocate resources regardless of existing organizational hierarchies (Gao et al., 2023; Shahzad et al., 2025). This ensures that technical investments align with broad business objectives. Digital leaders need to combine strategic vision with practical actions that promote teamwork and effective implementation (Weill & Woerner, 2018).

Leaders are important in reducing employee resistance by addressing the fear and uncertainty that come with large-scale change (Bausch et al., 2024). Leadership should mitigate resistance by:

A lack of clear communication and vision is a primary cause of resistance (Mohamed & Demirel, 2022). Leaders can address this by transparently communicating strategic goals and showing that the chosen strategy is logical (Sacavém et al., 2025).

Leaders should move from directive to facilitating styles (Weill & Woerner, 2018). Giving autonomy to employees and involving them in decision-making and project implementation affords them a sense of control and ownership. This should reduce passive and active resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024; Mohamed & Demirel, 2022).

Effective leadership is a critical component of strong organizational commitment, often mediated through SET. Leaders who act with integrity, fairness, and individualized consideration build trust. This is especially important in virtual work environments (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Drescher et al., 2014). This trustworthy environment creates increased productivity and engagement (Amy, 2008). Transformational leadership specifically improves the perception of trust and fairness (Pillai et al., 1999). This leads to increased Perceived Organizational Support (Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025) and should motivate employees to show higher levels of commitment and adaptability in return.

Empirical research from the literature consistently validates the significance of leadership in determining DT outcomes. Studies confirm that transformational leadership is strongly associated with positive change management. Transformational leadership minimizes opposition, shows a negative correlation with resistance to change, and increases the level of positive outcome expectations after the change process (Alos-Simo et al., 2017; Sarıibrahim, 2008). Furthermore, studies have shown that transformational leadership styles improve trust in virtual contexts (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024). They also have a positive relationship with employees' openness to change and their willingness to share knowledge (Zainab et al., 2021).

Leadership is also a powerful indicator of organizational capabilities necessary for DT. Research in the healthcare sector demonstrates that leadership support significantly affects innovation performance and organizational learning capacity (Comlek, 2023). However, while leadership is critical, its impact is often realized through intervening factors. Leaders primarily shape the organizational environment, fostering psychological safety and continuous learning (Amy, 2008; Ramadan et al., 2023). Weill and Woerner (2018) suggest that leaders often influence organizations by focusing on new business models and then actively changing the company culture. This helps the organization stay flexible and reach its goals. Therefore, leadership's strategic actions enable cultural and relational dynamics such as commitment and trust that ultimately execute the transformation.

The literature confirms the central theoretical role of leadership in reducing resistance and driving strategic outcomes. This study tests whether Leadership Style significantly influences DT Success and whether it operates through reducing Resistance to Change. The literature suggests that leadership often works indirectly by influencing human-centered outcomes. Leaders should accelerate DT success by meeting the requirements of SET. This includes generating a powerful strategic vision and creating a culture of autonomy and initiative (Sacavém et al., 2025). These dimensions of transformational leadership, captured by the study's survey items (vision, taking initiative,

autonomy, mistake tolerance, and motivation), should build Perceived Organizational Support and trust. This should directly improve organizational commitment (Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). Therefore, the theoretical expectation is that leadership is critical, with its effectiveness relying on building strong internal relationships that translate strategy into committed employee action.

2.3.3 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is one of the four organizational factor dimensions in the DT model. It is theorized to affect how employees react to change (Resistance, M) and the level of success (DV) that DT initiatives achieve.

Organizational culture is defined as the shared values, beliefs, assumptions, and norms that guide and determine behavior within an organization (Akman, 2024; Hofstede et al., 2010). It is the shared mental programming that sets members of one organization apart from others (Hofstede et al., 2010). Because culture reflects the spirit, values, and habits established over time, it is deeply rooted and difficult to change. This makes it one of the greatest challenges in the digital age (Kocak, 2024; Weill & Woerner, 2018).

For DT, various cultural dimensions determine the potential for change and technological adoption:

- **Innovation Orientation:** The openness to new ideas, experimentation, and proactive adoption of digital tools (Akman, 2024; Martins et al., 2023).
- **Risk Tolerance vs. Risk Avoidance:** The willingness to take risks and experiment, which is critical for digital initiatives (Sousa-Zomer et al., 2023; Vial, 2019).
- **Learning Orientation:** A focus on continuous improvement, knowledge exchange, and skills development (Martins et al., 2023; Munsamy et al., 2025).
- **Collaboration vs. Hierarchy:** Cross-functional integration and teamwork are essential for breaking down traditional hierarchies (Shahzad et al., 2025; Vial, 2019).

- **Agility vs. Bureaucracy:** The ability to adapt quickly and efficiently is critical for responding to volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) digital environments (Martins et al., 2023; Shahzad et al., 2025).

Organizational culture plays a key theoretical role in the success or failure of DT, functioning as either an accelerator or a barrier (Akman, 2024; Kocak, 2024).

An innovation-friendly culture should facilitate DT by encouraging experimentation, embracing digital literacy, and fostering resilience (Martins et al., 2023; Munsamy et al., 2025). Prioritizing adaptability, collaboration, and learning capacity prepares organizations better for smooth digital integration (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Weill & Woerner, 2018). A culture that supports continuous learning and knowledge exchange should enable employees to fully utilize new digital tools (Ferdaus et al., 2025).

Strong resistance to change, along with rigid hierarchical structure, is frequently identified as a major cultural obstacle (DigitalDefynd, 2025). These cultures maintain the status quo and limit the innovative power of new digital technologies (Vial, 2019). DT often fails because of cultural barriers that prevent successful implementation of new digital strategies (Kocak, 2024).

Culture should theoretically mediate how employees respond to technological change (Kocak, 2024). In hierarchical or risk-cautious cultures, the uncertainty in DT increases employees' fears and skepticism, leading to resistance (DigitalDefynd, 2025; Mohamed & Demirel, 2022). In contrast, an organizational culture that encourages risk-taking and management support should reduce employee resistance (Tatli et al., 2025). A learning culture sees change as an opportunity for development rather than a threat. This should minimize negative emotional responses (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Kocak, 2024).

DT requires cultural transformation (Weill & Woerner, 2018). Successful DT is dependent on achieving harmony between culture, people, and structure (Sousa-Zomer et al., 2023). Cultural characteristics like digital literacy,

customer centricity, and agility are theoretically essential for improving DT efforts (Martins et al., 2023).

Empirical research from literature consistently positions organizational culture as a primary challenge to DT success, often exceeding technical challenges (DigitalDefynd, 2025; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Approximately 70% to 95% of DT efforts fail, with employee resistance, which is highly influenced by culture, identified as a significant factor (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Specific cultural attributes that are associated with positive outcomes in the literature are as follows.

A comprehensive review confirmed that organizational culture is integral to DT success. Adaptable cultures mitigate resistance that originates from fear and skepticism (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Munsamy et al., 2025). In contrast, organizations with stable, internally focused hierarchical cultures showed no significant relationship with intense DT. However, organizations with flexible, externally focused cultures did show such a relationship (Rutihinda, 2019).

The existing professional culture in the academia, which values teaching independence and face-to-face instruction, led to strong resistance to digital tools (Giones et al., 2025). Research in the Indian Information and Communication Technology (ICT) sector indicates that successful DT requires overcoming major human-related challenges. This highlights that DT is mainly about changing corporate culture, people, and processes (Pandey et al., 2021).

To ensure success, organizations must drive and enforce cultural change in parallel with technical upgrades. This includes imposing new behaviors like risk-taking and learning (Weill & Woerner, 2018). The core of DT success is not technology but aligning systems, workflows, and human capabilities within a culture prepared for change (Al-Shdaifat et al., 2024; Munsamy et al., 2025). Organizations that actively invest in culture change see significantly higher success rates (DigitalDefynd, 2025).

Literature establishes organizational culture as a critical enabler of DT. This study tests whether Organizational Culture significantly influences DT Success and whether it operates through reducing Resistance to Change. The

theoretical expectation is that culture influences DT through two pathways. First, innovation-supportive cultures should directly enable DT by providing the necessary organizational conditions. Second, such cultures should reduce employee resistance by framing change as an opportunity rather than a threat.

2.3.4 Work Stress

Technostress, a specific type of work stress, is theorized to negatively affect the success of DT efforts and to cause employees to resist these changes (Bausch et al., 2024; Yılal, 2021). Technostress refers to the psychological stress that people experience because they have to use Information Technology (IT) (Bausch et al., 2024). Due to the rapid and comprehensive nature of DT, the transformation itself is the primary source of organizational stress for the majority of employees (ausch et al., 2024; Vial, 2019).

DT is highly disruptive. It forces employees to change behaviors and rely on complex systems, which causes strain (Bausch et al., 2024). Technostress dimensions include Techno-complexity, Techno-uncertainty, and Techno-insecurity (Bausch et al., 2024). Empirical studies from the literature confirm that technostress is the psychological mechanism underlying employee resistance (Bausch et al., 2024). The requirements of transforming the digital workplace create technostress, which then promotes both active and passive resistance behaviors among employees (Bausch et al., 2024). Employees' anxiety related to job loss (Techno-insecurity) and the perceived difficulty of new systems (Techno-complexity) are specific factors that promote resistance (Bausch et al., 2024).

High technostress is a negative organizational factor that indicates poor employee well-being. It is harmful because it negatively impacts mental and physical health (Bausch et al., 2024).

Technostress presents a major theoretical obstacle to DT because it significantly weakens employee motivation and their cognitive ability to adapt to new systems and processes (Mete & Eyel, 2021). High levels of technostress

should theoretically lead to negative consequences for employees and organizations (Nastjuk et al., 2023).

Stress generates negative emotions like anxiety, which reduces the ability to concentrate (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). Strong and continuous frustration often occurs when technologies are viewed as obstacles to goals (González-Gómez & Hudson, 2023). This leads to emotional exhaustion (Schneider & Sting, 2020) and reduced job performance (Ioannou & Papazafeiropoulou, 2017). This situation creates a negative cycle. Employees perceive it as a burden, making it difficult to learn important digital skills (Cieslak & Valor, 2024).

Technostress is also associated with increased job insecurity and the possibility of turnover (Rajâa & Mekkaoui, 2025). The focus on efficiency and productivity in DT has led to criticism. A digitally adapted workforce expects leaders to prioritize their values and concerns (MIT Sloan Management Review, 2021).

The literature identifies technostress as the central psychological mechanism that should mediate the effect of DT on employee resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024). Stress activates a "fight or flight" response (Bausch et al., 2024). Behaviors aimed at attacking the stressor constitute active resistance. Studies from the literature confirm that DT in the workplace increases both passive and active resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024).

Technostress, particularly derived from techno-complexity, should reduce the Perceived Ease of Use of new systems (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). If a system is perceived as too complex or difficult, it creates a barrier to adoption regardless of its potential usefulness (Al-Rahmi et al., 2019; Davis, 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). The complexity of digital technologies and the confusion they cause can overwhelm employees. This consequently heightens their feeling that the technology is difficult to use (Bausch et al., 2024; Cieslak & Valor, 2024).

To mitigate the negative effects of technostress and resulting resistance, organizations should implement proactive mitigation strategies. Example interventions from literature are as follows.

Digital literacy facilitation is considered critical for reducing technostress (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Initiatives such as training programs (workshops, tutorials, and manuals) reduce techno-complexity and techno-insecurity. They support employees with necessary skills and knowledge (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Empirical studies indicate that digital literacy facilitation significantly reduces four out of five technostress dimensions (techno-overload, techno-invasion, techno-complexity, and techno-insecurity). This leads to negative overall effects on both passive and active resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024).

User Involvement is important to involve employees in the change process by letting them help make decisions or work on pilot projects (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008; Schiffelers et al., 2025). Involvement allows employees to express concerns and uncover problems early (Ford et al., 2008). It also gives them a sense of control (Bausch et al., 2024). This consequently reduces active resistance behavior (Almatrodi et al., 2023; Bausch et al., 2024).

Providing efficient **technological support**, such as help desks with qualified staff, quickly resolves issues that arise during use. This minimizes technostress related to uncertainty and anxiety (Bausch et al., 2024; Fuglseth & Sørebø, 2014). User-friendly design and integrated technology that limits the number of applications are also important technological enablers (Schiffelers et al., 2025).

Leadership that shows empathy and psychological safety is critical for reducing technostress (Munsamy et al., 2025; Sacavém et al., 2025). Leaders should create a supportive learning environment where psychological safety is guaranteed (Cieslak & Valor, 2024). This makes employees feel safe to take risks and acknowledge their skill gaps (Cieslak & Valor, 2024; Munsamy et al., 2025). Leadership 4.0 emphasizes digital empathy to address the psychological impacts of digital tools (Munsamy et al., 2025).

Organizations should provide **sufficient time for users to adapt** to new services. They should avoid forcing employees to rush, as this increases techno-overload (Expert Panel on Effective Ways of Investing in Health (EXPH), 2020;

Schiffelers et al., 2025). Automating repetitive tasks using tools like Robotic Process Automation (RPA) can reduce employee pressure and burnout (Hizir, 2022). Additionally, gamification and rewarding mechanisms that recognize employees who contribute to transformation can increase confidence and commitment (Cieslak & Valor, 2024).

Organizations that proactively implement these strategies, like providing digital literacy training, show significant decreases in both passive and active resistance behaviors. This helps the DT process (Bausch et al., 2024).

The widespread presence of DT suggests that the main source of organizational stress comes from technology. The Technostress model provides a theoretical framework for understanding the psychological difficulties employees face as their workplaces become more digital (Bausch et al., 2024). This study tests whether Work Stress negatively influences DT Success and whether it operates through increasing Resistance to Change. While a dedicated Technostress scale would allow dimensional analysis of specific stressors (techno-overload, techno-complexity, and techno-insecurity), the widespread influence of DT means that a general work stress measure serves as a reasonable proxy for the underlying Technostress construct within this context. However, **this study acknowledges the use of a general stress scale as a methodological limitation**. Future studies should apply multi-dimensional Technostress scales to gain more detailed insight about which specific factors cause resistance behaviors (Bausch et al., 2024).

2.4 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

This literature review indicates that successful DT depends not only on technology adoption but fundamentally on managing the human and organizational dimensions of change. DT success requires aligning technological implementation with critical organizational factors. Macro-level frameworks such as Lewin's Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze Model and Kotter's 8-

Step Model explain the foundational process of organizational transition. Micro-level theories like the Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) and the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) detail individual adoption. Critically, the literature positions employee resistance to change as the primary psychological and behavioral mechanism that should mediate DT outcomes. This resistance is theoretically rooted in employees' perceived threats to resources. These threats should be mitigated or increased by four key organizational antecedents: Organizational Commitment, Digital Leadership, Organizational Culture, and Work Stress (Technostress).

This synthesis forms the theoretical foundation for the conceptual model, which proposes a partial mediation relationship. Specifically, Organizational Factors (Organizational Commitment, Leadership, Culture, and Stress) are hypothesized to influence DT Success (DV) through two pathways. The indirect pathway operates through Resistance to Change (M), where organizational factors should influence employee resistance, which in turn affects DT outcomes. The direct pathway acknowledges that these organizational factors may independently enable success through mechanisms such as strategic resource allocation, fostering collaboration, and high-level strategic decision-making.

This literature review provides the theoretical foundation for the two main hypotheses with eight sub-hypotheses (H1, H1a-H1d, H2, H2a-H2d) tested in the subsequent study. H1 examines whether combined organizational factors significantly influence DT Success, with sub-hypotheses H1a-H1d testing the individual effect of each dimension (organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, and work stress). H2 tests whether Resistance to Change mediates the relationships between these organizational factors and DT success, with sub-hypotheses H2a-H2d examining each mediation pathway separately.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

This research tests the relationships between organizational factors and DT success. The organizational factors are conceptualized as a multidimensional construct with four key dimensions: organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, and work stress. The study tests whether organizational factors, both collectively and individually, significantly influence DT success and whether resistance to change mediates these relationships.

The study has three specific objectives:

1. Quantify the collective and individual impacts of organizational factors on DT success (H1, H1a-H1d).
2. Test whether resistance to change mediates the relationships between organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, work stress, and DT success (H2, H2a-H2d).
3. Provide evidence-based guidance for organizational readiness assessment prior to DT initiatives.

3.1 RESEARCH MODEL

This study uses a quantitative approach with a mediation model to test relationships between organizational factors and DT outcomes. The conceptual framework tests both direct and indirect effects.

The research model includes three main constructs. Organizational Factors as the Independent Variable is a multidimensional construct with 4 dimensions: organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, and work stress. This multidimensional conceptualization follows Edwards' (2001) framework for higher-order constructs in organizational research, where

multiple related dimensions reflect an underlying organizational environment that collectively influences DT outcomes. Resistance to change serves as the mediating variable, representing the psychological mechanism through which organizational factors may influence outcomes. DT success is the dependent variable, measured through organizational performance improvements and DT maturity.

The model proposes two pathways. The indirect path (organizational factors → Resistance → DT Success) tests whether organizational factors influence success by reducing employee resistance. The direct path (organizational factors → DT Success) tests whether organizational factors influence success through mechanisms independent of resistance. This direct pathway aligns with research showing that organizational capabilities enable transformation through top-level actions (Vial, 2019; Weill & Woerner, 2018). The research model is presented in Figure 3.1, showing all variables and hypothesized relationships.

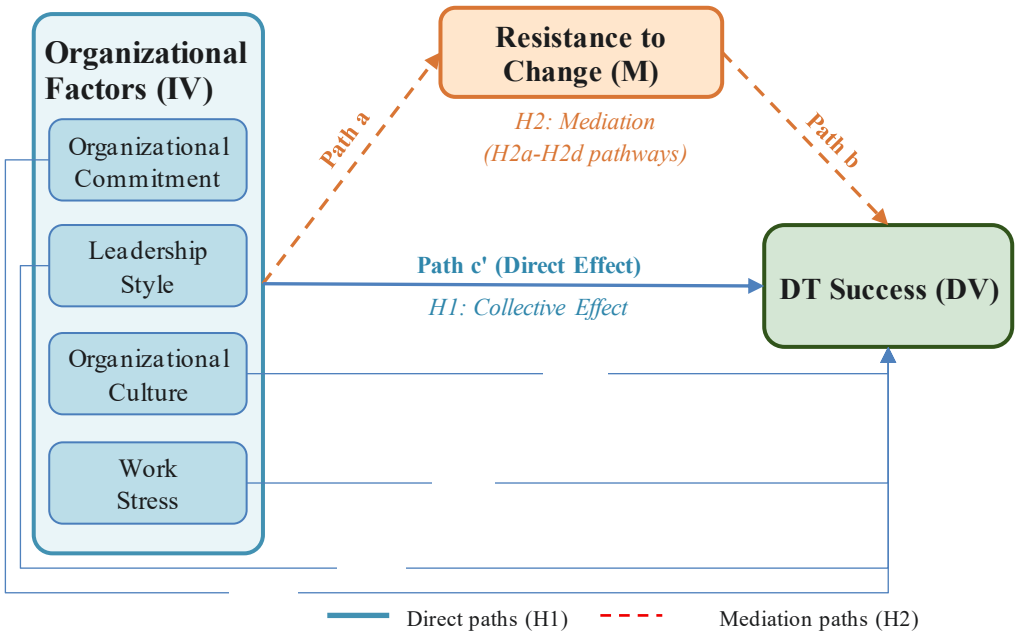

Figure 3.1 Research Model

3.2 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The literature review establishes three key empirical foundations for this research. First, organizational factors work together to influence DT outcomes rather than operating separately, with studies showing that commitment, leadership, culture, and work conditions collectively explain significant variance in DT success (Vial, 2019; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Second, organizational commitment consistently emerges as the strongest predictor of change-related behaviors, explaining 24% of variance compared to 12% for trust in management and 18% for change-specific attitudes (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), with research in digital contexts confirming that committed employees show greater willingness to adopt new technologies (Nadkarni & Prügl, 2021). Third, resistance to change has been identified as a primary mechanism through which organizational conditions affect DT outcomes, with approximately 70% of DT failures linked to employee resistance (Cieslak & Valor, 2024), and evidence showing that positive organizational climate reduces resistance, which then improves technology adoption success (Tatli et al., 2025). Based on the literature reviewed above, this study proposes two main hypotheses with eight sub-hypotheses to test the influence of organizational factors on DT success.

H1: The combined organizational factors significantly influence DT success.

This hypothesis tests whether organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, and work stress together explain variance in DT success. The collective approach recognizes that transformation is a complex phenomenon influenced by multiple interconnected factors (Kotter, 1995; Lewin, 1947). This hypothesis is supported if the overall regression model is statistically significant ($p < .05$) with meaningful explanatory power ($R^2 > .10$). To understand the individual contribution of each dimension, four sub-hypotheses test the direct effects:

H1a: Organizational commitment significantly influences DT success.

Social Exchange Theory proposes that employees reciprocate organizational support with increased effort and commitment (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees with high organizational commitment should demonstrate greater willingness to support DT initiatives. This hypothesis is supported if organizational commitment achieves statistical significance ($p < .05$) as a predictor of DT success.

H1b: Leadership style significantly influences DT success.

Digital leadership provides vision, removes obstacles, and creates psychological safety during transformation (Munsamy et al., 2025; Weill & Woerner, 2018). Effective leadership should directly enable DT success. This hypothesis is supported if leadership style achieves statistical significance ($p < .05$) as a predictor of DT success.

H1c: Organizational culture significantly influences DT success.

Innovation-oriented organizational culture that encourages experimentation and learning should facilitate DT (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Lemaissi, 2022). This hypothesis is supported if organizational culture achieves statistical significance ($p < .05$) as a predictor of DT success.

H1d: Work stress significantly influences DT success.

High work stress creates cognitive and emotional burdens that impede employees' capacity to engage with transformation initiatives (Tarafdar et al., 2007; Yılal, 2021). This hypothesis is supported if work stress achieves statistical significance ($p < .05$) as a predictor of DT success.

H2: Resistance to change mediates the relationships between organizational factors and DT success.

This hypothesis tests whether organizational factors influence DT success by reducing employee resistance. Favorable organizational conditions may decrease resistance, which then facilitates transformation (Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). Because organizational factors is a multidimensional construct, four specific mediation pathways are tested, one for each dimension:

H2a: Organizational commitment → Resistance to change → DT success

High organizational commitment should reduce resistance, which then improves DT outcomes. This pathway is supported if the indirect effect is statistically significant with a confidence interval excluding zero.

H2b: Leadership style → Resistance to change → DT success

Effective leadership should reduce employee resistance by providing clear communication and support, which then improves DT outcomes. This pathway is supported if the indirect effect is statistically significant with a confidence interval excluding zero.

H2c: Organizational culture → Resistance to change → DT success

Innovation-oriented culture should reduce resistance to technological change, which then improves DT outcomes. This pathway is supported if the indirect effect is statistically significant with a confidence interval excluding zero.

H2d: Work stress → Resistance to change → DT success

Lower work stress should reduce resistance to additional change demands, which then improves DT outcomes. This pathway is supported if the indirect effect is statistically significant with a confidence interval excluding zero.

Each pathway is tested separately using mediation analysis. For each model, three paths are examined: the effect of the dimension on resistance (path a), the effect of resistance on DT success controlling for the dimension (path b), and the direct effect of the dimension on DT success controlling for resistance (path c'). Mediation is supported if the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect excludes zero. Testing separate pathways allows evaluation of whether resistance is a consistent mediating mechanism across all dimensions of organizational factors or whether mediation effects vary by dimension.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND APPROACH

This study uses a positivist approach, which assumes that reality can be measured objectively through empirical observation. This paradigm is appropriate for testing hypothesized relationships through quantitative methods and has been used in recent DT research.

The study uses a deductive approach to test theory-driven hypotheses. Variables are measured using standardized multi-item scales, enabling statistical analysis to identify patterns influencing DT success.

A cross-sectional survey design was used to collect data at a single point in time. The quantitative approach enables statistical analysis of relationships between constructs through objective, replicable methods (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). While cross-sectional design provides an effective overview of relationships among variables, it cannot establish causal order or detect changes over time.

The survey method effectively captures self-reported data on employee perceptions of commitment, stress, and resistance. Standardized 5-point Likert scales enable statistical comparison while maintaining efficiency in data collection. This design allows simultaneous examination of multiple relationships in the mediation model.

3.4 TARGET POPULATION AND DATA COLLECTION

The target population consisted of white-collar professionals, defined as employees in knowledge-based, managerial, or administrative roles, across various organizational contexts in Türkiye. Due to the absence of a complete sampling frame and resource constraints, convenience sampling was used to recruit participants. In this non-probability sampling method, participants were selected based on their availability and accessibility through the researcher's professional networks and contacts.

The sampling strategy sought participants across different sectors, organizational sizes, and job roles. The final sample consisted of 71 respondents from organizations in Türkiye. Demographic characteristics are presented in detail in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.

Data were collected between May and June 2023 using an online self-administered questionnaire created in Google Forms. The survey link was distributed through professional networks, primarily LinkedIn. Initial participants were asked to share the link within their networks to expand reach.

The survey required approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. The survey introduction explained the research purpose and time required. No personally identifying information was collected. Data were stored securely and used solely for academic purposes.

Data quality assurance measures included disabling form submission for incomplete responses and reviewing response patterns for careless answering. These checks resulted in 71 valid responses meeting all inclusion criteria.

3.5 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

The measurement instruments used in this study were adapted from established academic research to ensure content validity and theoretical grounding.

The following table summarizes the scales, their original sources, and the dimensions they measure.

Table 3.1 Measurement Scales

Construct	Items	Source(s)	Focus of Measurement
Org. Commitment	9 Items	Yenigurbuz (2017). Original: Meyer & Allen (1991)	Affective commitment, emotional attachment, and organizational identification.
Leadership Style	8 Items	Yenigurbuz (2017); Kuvan (2001); Lemaissi (2022); developed items	Transformational and digital leadership, including vision, trust, and empowerment.
Org. Culture	11 Items	Lemaissi (2022)	Innovation support, risk tolerance, learning orientation, and organizational agility.
Work Stress	6 Items	Yılal (2021). Original: House & Rizzo (1972). Turkish Adaptation: Efeoğlu (2006)	Perceived work pressure and psychological strain, serving as a proxy for technostress.
Resistance to Change	15 Items	Yılal (2021). Original: Oreg (2006). Turkish Adaptation: Kurt (2010)	Cognitive, emotional, and behavioral reactions to organizational and digital change.
DT Success	7 Items: 6 Likert, 1 Nominal	Developed for this study, adapted from Lemaissi (2022); Westerman et al. (2011, 2014)	Digital maturity, operational efficiency, customer experience, and business model innovation.

Note: All items used 5-point Likert scales (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree) except one nominal item assessing overall digital maturity stage (1=No transformation, 5=Fully transformed operations).

The complete survey instrument included 56 items from six sections and 8 items from sociodemographic and organizational information section which contained a total of 64 items.

Organizational Commitment was measured using 9 Likert-scale items (survey questions 24-32) based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) conceptualization of affective organizational commitment, accessed through Yenigurbuz (2017).

Affective commitment represents employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Items assess employee loyalty, alignment with organizational values, and motivation to remain with the organization. Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), with higher scores indicating stronger organizational commitment.

Leadership Style was measured using 8 Likert-scale items (survey questions 50-57) developed for this study by adapting items from multiple sources to capture transformational and digital leadership dimensions relevant to organizational change contexts. The scale incorporated items measuring trust in leadership, originally developed by Kuvan (2001) and subsequently adapted by Çakır (2009), accessed through Yenigurbuz (2017). Additional items measuring supportive management culture were adapted from Lemaissi (2022). The remaining items were developed specifically for this study to assess leadership behaviors supporting DT, including vision-setting, employee empowerment, and innovation encouragement. Responses were recorded using a 5-point Likert scale. Higher scores reflect a leadership style that is more effective and supportive of DT.

Organizational Culture was measured using 11 Likert-scale items (survey questions 39-49) adapted from Lemaissi (2022). This scale assesses innovation-supportive cultural dimensions such as demonstrating entrepreneurial orientation, showing tolerance for risk-taking, encouraging learning, caring for individuals, and defining innovation Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). The scale includes several reverse-coded items to assess organizational rigidity. Responses used the 5-point Likert scale. Higher scores indicate a culture that is more open to innovation and supports DT efforts.

Work Stress was measured using 6 Likert-scale items (survey questions 33-38) based on the Job Stress Scale originally developed by House and Rizzo (1972) and adapted to Turkish by Efeoğlu (2006), accessed through Yılal (2021). This measure serves as a proxy for technostress in a DT environment. Items assess employees' perceived work pressure, psychological strain, feelings of

overload, and general stress levels. The 5-point Likert scale was used, with higher scores indicating higher work stress. One reverse-coded item ("The stress caused by my job is at a reasonable level") was included to control for response bias. Permission to use this scale was obtained from Yılal (2021) (see Appendix B.1).

Resistance to Change was measured using 15 Likert-scale items (survey questions 9-23) based on the Resistance to Change Scale originally developed by Oreg (2006) and adapted to Turkish by Kurt (2010), accessed through Yılal (2021). This scale captures the resistance behaviors, ranging from passive resistance (such as avoidance or skepticism) to active resistance (such as opposition or refusal to participate). The items reflect attitudes toward general change initiatives and specifically toward DT. Higher scores indicated greater resistance to change. Permission to use this scale was obtained from Kurt (2010) (see Appendix B.2).

DT Success, the dependent variable, was measured using 7 items (survey questions 58-64) developed for this study based on established DT frameworks and maturity models. The measure draws on conceptual frameworks by Lemaissi (2022) and Westerman et al. (2011, 2014), consisting of 6 Likert-scale items assessing operational efficiency, customer experience, and DT outcomes, plus one nominal item assessing the perceived success of DT initiatives.

The nominal scale item (Question 64) assesses organizational digital maturity using a 5-point ordinal scale adapted from established digital maturity frameworks (Lemaissi 2022; Westerman et al., 2014). The scale progression ranges from "no digital transformation initiative" (1) through awareness, adoption, and integration stages to "fully transformed business model using digital technologies" (5). This 5-level staged approach follows the standard structure identified in digital maturity literature, where five progressive stages represent the most common assessment framework (Pham & Pham, 2022).

The study combines these measures to examine both the implementation depth and the business outcome of DT success. Higher total scores reflect greater achievement in DT.

Internal consistency reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha for all multi-item scales.

The DT Success scale was refined during analysis by removing two items that weakened scale reliability: one measuring management support (redundant with the Leadership scale) and one with negative correlation (conceptually ambiguous). This improved reliability from .653 to .723. Despite lower reliability for Culture and Resistance, these scales were retained for theoretical completeness, with findings interpreted cautiously.

Content validity was established through the use of previously validated scales from published research. All instruments have demonstrated validity in organizational change and DT contexts.

Construct validity was assessed through factor analysis diagnostics using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure.

Detailed reliability analysis and construct validity analysis are presented in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.

Multicollinearity was assessed using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) for all organizational factor dimensions. All VIF values remained below 2.0 (well below the 3.0 threshold), indicating no problematic collinearity. Detailed VIF results are reported in Chapter 4, Section 4.6.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Quantitative data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 26) to perform descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression.

Data quality was assessed through multiple diagnostics. Normality was evaluated using skewness and kurtosis values (acceptable ranges: $|\text{skewness}| < 2$, $|\text{kurtosis}| < 7$). Outliers were identified using standardized z-scores (± 3.29 threshold). No extreme values require removal. Reverse-coded items were recoded before scale computation. Data suitability was confirmed through these diagnostics.

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, ranges) were calculated for all continuous variables. Frequency distributions characterized demographic and organizational variables.

Bivariate Pearson correlations examined relationships among all study variables at $\alpha = 0.05$ significance level. The correlation matrix provided preliminary evidence for hypothesized relationships and identified potential multicollinearity issues before regression analysis.

Multiple regression analysis tested H1: whether combined organizational factors significantly influence DT success. The four dimensions of organizational factors (commitment, leadership, culture, stress) were entered simultaneously. The regression equation was:

$$\text{DT Success} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Commitment}) + \beta_2(\text{Leadership}) + \beta_3(\text{Culture}) + \beta_4(\text{Stress}) + \varepsilon$$

The overall model was evaluated using an F-test ($p < 0.05$). Explanatory power was assessed using R^2 with Cohen's (1988) thresholds: $R^2 > .10$ (small effect), $R^2 > .25$ (medium effect), $R^2 > .40$ (large effect). Individual significance was assessed using t-tests ($p < 0.05$).

To test H1 and its sub-hypotheses H1a-H1d, the relative strength of the four dimensions was compared using standardized beta coefficients (β), which enable direct comparison across different measurement scales. Organizational commitment's coefficient was compared against all other dimensions using magnitude and 95% confidence intervals.

For H2, and its sub-hypotheses H2a-H2d, mediation analysis tested whether resistance to change mediates relationships between dimensions of organizational factors and DT success. Hayes' PROCESS macro-Version 5.0 (Hayes, 2025) Model 4 was used for simple mediation analysis with 5,000 bootstrap iterations to generate bias- corrected 95% confidence intervals.

Four separate mediation models were tested:

- Organizational Commitment → Resistance → DT Success
- Leadership Style → Resistance → DT Success
- Organizational Culture → Resistance → DT Success

- Work Stress → Resistance → DT Success

Each model examined three paths: path a (dimension → mediator), path b (mediator → dependent variable, controlling for dimension), and path c' (direct effect of independent variable → dependent variable, controlling for mediator). The indirect effect was calculated as a × b.

Statistical significance was determined using bootstrap confidence intervals. If the 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero, mediation was considered significant. Partial mediation occurs when both indirect (a × b) and direct (c') effects are significant. Full mediation occurs when only the indirect effect is significant.

Testing separate models for each dimension of organizational factors allowed evaluation of whether resistance operates as a common mediating mechanism or varies by dimension. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) diagnostics assessed multicollinearity among dimensions. Values below 3.0 indicate acceptable collinearity levels.

All inferential tests used $\alpha = 0.05$ significance level.

CHAPTER 4

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the empirical findings from statistical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 2.

4.1 DATA SCREENING AND PREPARATION

Before hypothesis testing, data were screened for normality using skewness and kurtosis statistics. Table 4.1 presents normality assessment results for all study variables. As shown in Table 4.1, skewness values ranged from -0.732 to +0.616, and kurtosis values ranged from -0.590 to +0.711. All values fell well within acceptable limits (±2.0), indicating that the distributions approximated normality and justified the use of parametric statistical procedures.

Table 4.1 Normality Assessment of Variables

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Interpretation
Organizational Commitment	-0.605	-0.002	Normal (within ±2)
Leadership Style	-0.732	0.223	Normal (within ±2)
Organizational Culture	-0.335	0.711	Normal (within ±2)
Work Stress	0.616	0.001	Normal (within ±2)
Resistance to Change	-0.040	-0.007	Normal (within ±2)
DT Success	-0.405	-0.590	Normal (within ±2)

The negative skewness observed for most dimensions (Organizational Commitment, Leadership Style, Organizational Culture, and DT Success) indicated that participants tended to report higher values on these constructs. This pattern is consistent with voluntary survey participation, where more engaged and change-receptive employees are more likely to respond. Notably, Resistance to Change demonstrated near-zero skewness (-.040) and kurtosis (-.007), indicating excellent distributional normality. However, this variable exhibited restricted variance (Standard Deviation, SD = 0.36, range = 1.67-3.33) with a mean of 2.50, suggesting generally low resistance levels among participants.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The total sample consisted of 71 employees who participated in the study. Table 4.2 presents the complete demographic frequencies and percentages.

Table 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Variable	**N**	**%**	**Variable**	**N**	**%**
GENDER			AGE		
Female	24	33.8%	20-30	26	36.6%
Male	47	66.2%	31-40	27	38.0%
			41 and above	18	25.4%
MARIAL STATUS			EDUCATION LEVEL		
Single	34	47.9%	Undergraduate	37	52.1%
Married	37	52.1%	Graduate+	34	47.9%
WORK EXPERIENCE			JOB TITLE		
0-5 years	23	32.4%	Specialist	38	53.5%
6-10 years	11	15.5%	Team Lead	10	14.1%
11-15 years	9	12.7%	Manager	15	21.1%
15-20 years	19	26.8%	Director / C-Level	8	11.3%
21 years and above	9	12.7%			
ORG. EMPLOYEE NUMBER			ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE		
1-50	6	8.5%	Hierarchical	31	43.7%
51-250	7	9.9%	Hybrid	19	26.8%
251-1000	4	5.6%	Matrix	14	19.7%
1.001-10.000	17	23.9%	Flat	5	7.0%
more than 10,000	37	52.1%	Other	2	2.8%

The demographic profile shows a clear gender imbalance, with 66.2% (n = 47) of participants identifying as male and 33.8% (n = 24) identifying as female. Marital status was nearly evenly distributed: 52.1% (37 participants) were married, and 47.9% (34 participants) were single.

The age distribution indicated strong representation of mid-career professionals: 38.0% (n=27) were aged 31-40 years, 36.6% (n=26) were aged 20-30 years, and 25.4% (n=18) were aged 41 and above. Reflecting a highly qualified workforce, 52.1% (n=37) held undergraduate degrees, and 47.9% (n=34) held graduate degrees or higher.

Due to the researcher's professional network, the majority of the participants were white-collar professionals employed in the private sector. Work experience showed a bimodal distribution, with concentrations at early career (0-5 years, 32.4%, n=23) and experienced professionals (15-20 years, 26.8%, n=19). The 6-10 years category contained 15.5% (n=11), while both the 11-15 years and 21+ years categories contained 12.7% (n=9) each.

The largest group by job title was employees/specialists (53.5%, n=38), followed by managers (21.1%, n=15), team leaders (14.1%, n=10), and directors/C-level executives (11.3%, n=8).

In terms of organizational size, the sample skewed toward large enterprises: 52.1% (n = 37) worked in organizations with more than 10,000 employees, and 23.9% (n = 17) worked in organizations with 1,000–10,000 employees. Smaller organizations (under 1,000 employees) accounted for 23.9% collectively.

Organizational structures were commonly hierarchical (43.7%, n=31) or hybrid (26.8%, n=19), with matrix structures (19.7%, n=14), flat structures (7.0%, n=5), and others (2.8%, n=2) comprising the remainder.

In summary, the sample largely consists of educated, mid-career male professionals employed in large organizations featuring traditional or hybrid hierarchical structures. The wide distribution across experience levels and job

roles, from frontline employee/specialist to director/C-level executive, ensured that varied perspectives could be captured regarding DT initiatives.

Table 4.3 presents descriptive statistics for all study variables and dimensions. As shown in the table, DT Success demonstrated a mean of 3.82 (SD = 0.82), indicating moderate to high levels of DT maturity among participating organizations.

Table 4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Variable	M	SD	Min	Max
Organizational Commitment	3.16	0.80	1.22	4.78
Leadership Style	3.61	0.96	1.00	5.00
Organizational Culture	3.25	0.51	1.60	4.40
Work Stress	2.84	0.71	1.33	4.50
Resistance to Change	2.50	0.36	1.67	3.33
DT Success	3.82	0.82	2.00	5.00

Note: All variables and dimensions were measured on 5-point scales.

Organizational Commitment showed substantial variability (SD = 0.80, range = 1.22-4.78), suggesting meaningful differences in employee attachment across organizations. Resistance to Change exhibited restricted variance (SD = 0.36, range = 1.67-3.33) with a mean of 2.50, indicating generally low resistance levels among participants. This restricted variance became relevant for interpreting mediation results.

4.3 SCALE RELIABILITY

Internal consistency reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (α) for each multi-item scale. The acceptable threshold is $\alpha \geq 0.70$ (Hair et al., 2010), with coefficients of 0.90+ indicating excellent reliability, 0.80-0.89 good reliability, and 0.70-0.79 acceptable reliability (Ahmad et al., 2024). Table 4.4 presents reliability statistics for all scales.

Table 4.4 Reliability Statistics

Construct	Items	Cronbach's α	Item-Total r Range	Reliability
Leadership Style	8	.956	.76 to .95	Excellent
Organizational Commitment	9	.873	.06 to .82	Good
Work Stress	6	.864	.43 to .78	Good
DT Success	5*	.723	.32 to .67	Acceptable
Organizational Culture	10	.616	-.12 to .67	Questionable
Resistance to Change	15	.517	-.23 to .52	Poor

* Originally 7 items; 2 items removed due to redundancy (DT3) and negative correlation.

Four of six scales demonstrated acceptable to excellent reliability: Leadership Style achieved excellent reliability (α = .956), while Organizational Commitment (α = .873) and Work Stress (α = .864) showed good reliability. DT Success demonstrated acceptable reliability (α = .723). These strong reliability coefficients ensure confidence in subsequent analyses.

Two scales showed suboptimal reliability. Organizational Culture (α = .616) demonstrated questionable reliability, which likely reflects the construct's conceptual breadth spanning multiple cultural dimensions. Resistance to Change (α = .517) fell significantly below acceptable thresholds, suggesting heterogeneous item content across cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions.

Construct validity was assessed through factor analysis diagnostics. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy (0.749) exceeded the recommended 0.70

threshold, indicating adequate inter-item correlations. Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly significant ($\chi^2 = 1999.192$, $df = 595$, $p < 0.001$), confirming sufficient correlation structure for factor analysis (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2010).

4.4 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Bivariate Pearson correlations were calculated to examine relationships among all continuous study variables. The correlation matrix shows several significant associations consistent with the theoretical framework. Table 4.5 presents the correlation results.

Table 4.5 Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
DT Success	—					
Commitment	.532**	—				
Leadership	.434**	.597**	—			
Culture	.378**	.555**	.621**	—		
Stress	-.424**	-.306**	-.387**	-.309**	—	
Resistance	.063	.021	.122	.041	.025	—

**p < .01 (2-tailed).

Note. DT Success = DT Success; Commitment = Organizational Commitment; Leadership = Leadership Style; Culture = Organizational Culture; Stress = Work Stress; Resistance = Resistance to Change.

As hypothesized, all three positive organizational dimensions demonstrated significant positive correlations with DT Success. Organizational Commitment showed significant positive association ($r = .532$, $p < .01$), followed by Leadership Style ($r = .434$, $p < .01$) and Organizational Culture ($r = .378$, $p < .01$). These moderate-to-strong correlations suggest that organizations

with higher commitment, more effective leadership, and innovation-supportive cultures tend to achieve greater DT success.

Work Stress exhibited a significant negative correlation with DT Success ($r = -.424$, $p < .01$). This indicates that higher stress levels are associated with reduced DT success. This finding supports the hypothesis that excessive work stress impedes DT efforts.

Notably, Resistance to Change showed no significant correlations with any other study variables. Correlations with organizational dimensions ranged from $r = .021$ (Organizational Commitment) to $r = .122$ (Leadership), and the correlation with DT Success was $r = .063$ (all $p > .05$). This lack of significant relationships, combined with the restricted variance observed for Resistance (SD = 0.36, Section 4.3), suggests limited individual variability in resistance levels across the sample. This pattern has important implications for mediation testing (H2), discussed in Section 4.7.

The three positive organizational dimensions demonstrated significant positive inter-correlations, indicating they tend to co-occur: Organizational Commitment and Leadership ($r = .597$, $p < .01$), Organizational Commitment and Culture ($r = .555$, $p < .01$), and Leadership and Culture ($r = .621$, $p < .01$). Work Stress showed significant negative correlations with all three positive dimensions ($r = -.312$ to $-.392$, all $p < .01$), suggesting that supportive organizational environments are associated with lower stress levels.

Despite moderate-to-strong correlations among organizational factors, multicollinearity diagnostics (reported in Section 4.6) confirmed that correlations remained below problematic levels for regression analysis. All Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were below 2.0, well within acceptable limits (Hair et al., 2010).

In summary, the correlation analysis provided preliminary support for H1 (collective effects of organizational factors on DT Success) and H2 (Organizational Commitment having a more significant positive effect on DT success, compared to other factors), while revealing unexpected null relationships for Resistance to Change that challenge H2 (mediation).

4.5 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Hypothesis 1 (H1) proposed that combined organizational factors significantly influence DT success. Additionally, sub-hypotheses H1a-H1d tested the individual effects of each organizational factor. To test these hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was conducted with Organizational Commitment, Leadership Style, Organizational Culture, and Work Stress and DT Success as the dependent variable. Table 4.6 presents the results.

Table 4.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

Dimension	**B**	**SE**	**β**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	3.026	.735	-	4.117	.000	-
Organizational Commitment	0.392	.131	.385	3.000	.004	1.709
Leadership Style	0.070	.118	.083	0.594	.554	2.006
Organizational Culture	0.051	.210	.032	0.242	.810	1.790
Work Stress	-0.304	.123	-.264	-2.466	.016	1.194
Model Summary						
R	.604					
R^2	.365					
Adjusted R^2	.326					
F	9.473***					
SE of Estimate	0.673					

Note: B = unstandardized regression coefficient; SE = standard error; β = standardized regression coefficient; VIF = variance inflation factor. ***p < .001.

The overall regression model was statistically significant, $F(4, 66) = 9.473$, $p < .001$, with $R^2 = .365$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .326$). Organizational factors collectively explained 36.5% of the variance in DT Success, supporting H1.

Examination of individual dimensions (H1a-H1d) revealed differential effects. H1a was supported: Organizational Commitment achieved statistical significance ($\beta = .385$, $p = .004$), demonstrating a positive effect on DT success.

H1b and H1c were not supported: Leadership Style (β = .083, p = .554) and Organizational Culture (β = .032, p = .810) did not show significant direct effects. H1d was supported: Work Stress demonstrated a significant negative relationship with DT Success (β = -.264, p = .016), with higher work stress associated with reduced DT outcomes (B = -0.304, SE = 0.123). This medium effect size suggests that stress management is an important factor for DT success. All VIF values were below 3.0, confirming no problematic multicollinearity.

These findings support H1, showing that combined organizational factors significantly influence DT Success, explaining 36.5% of variance. Among the sub-hypotheses, H1a (Organizational Commitment) and H1d (Work Stress) were supported, while H1b (Leadership Style) and H1c (Organizational Culture) were not supported. The non-significant direct effects of leadership and culture suggest these factors may influence outcomes through indirect pathways not captured in this direct-effects model.

These findings align with Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), which suggests that employees respond to perceived organizational support with increased commitment and extra effort essential for successful change adoption. When employees feel valued and invested in their organization, they are more likely to embrace DT initiatives rather than resist them. The findings also align with Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment, particularly the affective commitment dimension. Affective commitment, or emotional attachment to the organization, has been shown to predict discretionary behaviors and change readiness more strongly than continuance or normative commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The significant negative effect of work stress highlights that even with high commitment, excessive workplace demands can impede DT success.

4.6 MEDIATION ANALYSIS

Hypothesis 2 (H2) proposed that Resistance to Change would partially mediate the relationships between organizational commitment, leadership style, organizational culture, work stress, and DT Success. Mediation analyses tested four separate indirect pathways using Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 4) with 5,000 bias-corrected bootstrap samples. Mediation results for all four pathways are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Mediation Analysis: Resistance to Change as Mediator

Path	Org. Commitment	Leadership	Culture	Stress
Path a (IV → Resistance)				
B	0.010	0.045	0.028	0.060
SE	0.066	0.053	0.075	0.065
p	0.887	0.398	0.708	0.364
Path b (Resistance → DT Success)				
B	0.119	0.024	0.110	0.266
SE	0.231	0.267	0.283	0.248
p	0.607	0.929	0.708	0.289
Path c' (Direct: IV → DT Success)				
B	0.542	0.368	0.601	-0.503
SE	0.108	0.129	0.204	0.114
p	<0.001	0.006	0.004	<0.001
Indirect Effect (a × b)				
Point estimate	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.016
95% CI Lower	-0.025	-0.030	-0.027	-0.013
95% CI Upper	0.042	0.045	0.083	0.099
Model Summary				
R^2	0.286	0.189	0.146	0.193

Note: B = unstandardized coefficient; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval (5,000 bootstrap samples). Mediation is significant if the 95% CI

excludes zero. Path a = predictor to mediator; Path b = mediator to outcome (controlling for predictor); Path c' = direct effect (predictor to outcome, controlling for mediator).

No significant mediation was identified in the results. All indirect effects were insignificant (ranging from .0011 to .0031) with 95% confidence intervals containing zero:

- H2a: Not supported (Organizational Commitment → Resistance → DT Success: IE = .001, 95% CI [-.025, .042]).
- H2b: Not supported (Leadership → Resistance → DT Success: IE = .001, 95% CI [-.030, .045]).
- H2c: Not supported (Organizational Culture → Resistance → DT Success: IE = .003, 95% CI [-.027, .083]).
- H2d: Not supported (Work Stress → Resistance → DT Success: IE = .016, 95% CI [-.013, .099]).

The absence of mediation reflected the failure of both component pathways. Path a (organizational factors → Resistance) showed no significant relationships: Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .010$, $p = .887$), Leadership ($\beta = .045$, $p = .398$), Culture ($\beta = .028$, $p = .708$), and Work Stress ($\beta = .010$, $p = .364$). Similarly, Path b (Resistance → DT Success, controlling for each dimension) was non-significant across all models (β ranging from .024 to .266, all $p > .70$).

These null findings align with the correlation analysis (Section 4.5), which showed that Resistance to Change correlated with neither the organizational factors ($r = .021$ to .122) nor DT Success ($r = .063$, all $p > .05$). The restricted variance observed for Resistance ($SD = 0.36$, $M = 2.50$, Section 4.3) suggests consistently low resistance levels across the sample, limiting capacity to mediate relationships.

Despite absent mediation, organizational factors retained significant direct effects on DT Success (Path c' in PROCESS models, controlling for Resistance):

- Organizational Commitment → DT Success: $\beta = .542$, $SE = .108$, $p < .001$

- Leadership → DT Success: β = .368, SE = .129, p = .006
- Organizational Culture → DT Success: β = .601, SE = .204, p = .004
- Work Stress → DT Success: β = -.503, SE = .114, p = <.001

These direct effects were virtually unchanged compared to total effects (without the mediator), confirming that organizational factors influence DT success through pathways independent of resistance reduction.

In conclusion, **H2 is not supported.** Resistance to Change did not mediate relationships between organizational factors and DT Success. Neither component pathway achieved significance and organizational factors failed to predict resistance levels (Path a), and resistance failed to predict DT success (Path b).

These findings suggest that DT Success was driven primarily through positive organizational enablers rather than through the reduction of resistance barriers. This pattern may reflect selection bias. Participants in a voluntary DT research study may represent change-receptive individuals with inherently low resistance. This restricts the variance necessary to detect mediation effects.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter interprets the study findings and discusses their implications for DT theory and practice.

The analysis of data produced three main findings. First, organizational factors together explained 36.5% of variance in DT success. Among these factors, organizational commitment was the only significant predictor. Second, resistance to change did not mediate any relationships between organizational factors and DT success. This occurred because resistance showed limited variation in the sample, suggesting that participants had already accepted change. Third, leadership style and organizational culture had no significant direct effects on DT success, contrary to theoretical expectations.

These results challenge the common assumption that reducing employee resistance drives DT success. Instead, the findings suggest that building organizational commitment matters more than managing resistance, at least in contexts where employees are already open to change.

Prior research has consistently identified organizational commitment significantly influences change outcomes, with Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) finding it explained 24% of variance in change behaviors compared to 12% for trust in management, and Cunningham (2006) reporting $\beta = .42$ for change acceptance. The current study extends these findings by demonstrating commitment's dominance even when controlling for leadership, culture, and stress simultaneously in a multivariate model. Organizational commitment demonstrated a statistically significant positive effect and showed the largest standardized coefficient among all organizational factors tested.

The analysis revealed organizational commitment significantly influences DT success, validating Social Exchange Theory. However, the hypothesized mediation by resistance to change was absent, suggesting that DT operated through positive enablement rather than resistance reduction. Leadership style

and organizational culture showed no significant direct effects, raising questions about measurement quality and indirect pathways.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The Primary Role of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment demonstrated a statistically significant positive effect on DT success. Work stress also achieved statistical significance, while leadership and culture did not. Leadership style and organizational culture showed no significant direct effects.

This finding aligns with Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), which proposes that employees reciprocate organizational support with increased effort and loyalty. When employees feel valued by their organization, they respond by committing to organizational goals, including challenging initiatives like DT (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Success depends not only on technical implementation but also on employees' willingness to embrace new technologies, adapt workflows, and persist through implementation challenges.

The survey items measured affective commitment, the emotional attachment and identification with the organization. Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model distinguishes affective commitment from continuance commitment (perceived costs of leaving) and normative commitment (obligation to remain). Affective commitment predicts discretionary effort more strongly than other forms (Meyer et al., 2002). Employees with high affective commitment genuinely care about organizational success and willingly contribute beyond minimum requirements.

The dominance of commitment over leadership and culture requires explanation. Commitment represents the direct psychological state that motivates individual behavior during DT. Leadership and culture operate as contextual factors that may build commitment but do not directly motivate behavior. An employee with high organizational commitment will support DT

regardless of immediate leadership quality or cultural conditions, because DT success serves the organization they value. Conversely, even excellent leadership cannot compel discretionary effort from uncommitted employees who view their employment as purely transactional.

This finding has important implications. It suggests that organizations should prioritize building genuine employee attachment before launching major DT initiatives. Technical planning and leadership alignment remain necessary but insufficient. Without organizational commitment, even well-designed transformations face passive compliance rather than active engagement.

The relationship between commitment and DT success operates through several mechanisms. Committed employees invest greater effort in learning new technologies and processes. They persist through implementation difficulties rather than abandoning new systems. They advocate DT among peers, creating social momentum. They provide constructive feedback to improve systems rather than criticizing flaws without offering solutions. These behaviors collectively enable DT success.

Prior research supports these findings. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) found that organizational commitment explained 24% of variance in change-supportive behaviors, exceeding the effects of trust in management (12%) and change-specific attitudes (18%). Cunningham (2006) showed that commitment predicted change acceptance more strongly than perceived organizational support. In DT contexts specifically, Nadkarni and Prügl (2021) found that committed employees were 2.3 times more likely to engage with digital tools. Warner and Wäger (2019) identified organizational commitment as the primary predictor of digital adoption behaviors.

The current study extends these findings by demonstrating commitment's dominance in a multivariate model controlling for other organizational factors. This establishes commitment as the foundation upon which other factors operate, rather than one factor among many.

Individual Effects of Organizational Factors

While H1a demonstrated organizational commitment's significant positive effect, examination of the remaining individual factors (H1b-H1d) revealed differential patterns. Of the three remaining hypotheses, only work stress (H1d) achieved statistical significance, while leadership style (H1b) and organizational culture (H1c) showed non-significant direct effects. These findings require careful interpretation to understand the different mechanisms through which organizational factors influence DT success.

H1d was supported, with work stress demonstrating a significant negative relationship with DT success. This finding aligns with work stress literature (i.e., technostress) literature, which identifies workplace pressure as a critical constraint on employees' capacity to engage with technological change (Tarafdar et al., 2007; Yılal, 2021).

The negative effect of work stress operates through several mechanisms. High stress reduces cognitive resources available for learning new technologies and systems, decreases patience with implementation difficulties, and creates resistance to additional work demands (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Employees already overwhelmed by existing workloads perceive DT as an additional burden rather than an organizational improvement or efficiency enabler. This creates a vicious cycle: DT initiatives designed to improve efficiency are undermined by the very stress conditions they aim to address.

The non-significant direct effects of leadership style and organizational culture contrast with their theoretical importance. The absence of significant effects requires careful interpretation. Theoretical and empirical literature supports the interpretation that leadership and culture operate primarily through building organizational commitment rather than as direct drivers of DT outcomes.

Regarding leadership's indirect effects through commitment, transformational leadership theory explicitly proposes that leaders influence follower outcomes by building emotional attachment and identification (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Eisenberger et al. (2010) demonstrated that supportive leadership

increases perceived organizational support, which then builds affective commitment. Meyer et al. (2002) found that leadership behaviors predicted organizational commitment (β=.48), which subsequently predicted performance outcomes. In DT contexts specifically, Singh et al. (2020) showed that transformational leadership increased organizational commitment (β=.52, p<.001), which then predicted technology adoption success.

Similarly, organizational culture's effects operate through commitment-building mechanisms. Cameron and Quinn (2006) showed that clan culture, characterized by supportiveness, participation, and employee development, strongly predicts affective commitment. Silverthorne (2004) found that innovative organizational culture increased organizational commitment (r=.54, p<.001). In Turkish organizational contexts specifically, Basri and Zorlu (2022) found that clan culture significantly influenced organizational agility through commitment-building mechanisms.

The strong intercorrelations observed in this study support these indirect pathways. Leadership correlated with commitment, culture correlated with commitment, and leadership correlated with culture. These correlations indicate shared variance consistent with a model where leadership and culture build commitment, which then drives DT success.

Therefore, the non-significant direct effects of leadership (H1b) and culture (H1c) should not be interpreted as evidence that these factors are unimportant. Instead, they serve as distant factors that create the organizational conditions (primarily through building commitment) that enable DT success.

Mediation analysis would test these indirect pathways by examining whether leadership and culture influence commitment, which then influences DT success. However, this differs from the mediation model tested in this study (organizational factors → resistance → DT success). Future research should test whether commitment mediates the relationships between leadership, culture, and DT success.

Together, these findings reveal a nuanced pattern. Organizational commitment (H1a) and work stress (H1d) demonstrated significant direct effects

on DT success, explaining variance through different mechanisms: commitment as a positive enabler through social exchange reciprocity, stress as a negative barrier through reduced cognitive and emotional capacity. In contrast, leadership (H1b) and culture (H1c) likely work indirectly by building the commitment that drives outcomes, rather than directly influencing success themselves. This pattern suggests a two-level model of organizational influence: immediate factors (commitment, stress) directly affect DT success, while foundational factors (leadership, culture) create the conditions that allow these immediate factors to work/

The Resistance Paradox: Understanding Null Mediation

The most unexpected finding was the absence of mediation by resistance to change**.** All four tested pathways yielded non-significant indirect effects with confidence intervals containing zero. Organizational commitment, leadership, culture, and work stress all showed indirect effects with confidence intervals including zero, indicating non-significant mediation.

This contradicts literature positioning resistance as a central barrier to organizational change (Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). DT research consistently emphasizes that employee resistance constitutes one of the primary obstacles to implementation (Vial, 2019). The absence of mediation requires explanation.

Both component pathways of the mediation model failed. Path a (organizational factors to resistance) showed no significant relationships. Path b (resistance to DT success) was also non-significant across all models. Resistance neither responded to organizational factors nor influenced DT outcomes.

The primary explanation lies in restricted variance in resistance to change**.** Participants reported uniformly low resistance levels with minimal variation. The correlation matrix confirmed this: resistance showed no significant correlations with any other variable, including DT success.

This restricted variance reflects selection bias inherent in voluntary survey participation**.** Employees who strongly resist DT likely declined to participate in a study about DT. Those who completed the survey were change-receptive

individuals. This created a floor effect where most participants reported low resistance, precluding the detection of meaningful relationships. Statistical mediation requires the mediator to vary substantially. When a variable shows a restricted range, it cannot mediate relationships regardless of true population effects.

The absence of resistance mediation may also reflect specific sample characteristics that made participants more accepting of change. The sample consisted entirely of white-collar professionals with university-level education (100% undergraduate or higher), working mostly in large organizations. Research indicates that white-collar workers with higher education levels show significantly higher technology acceptance than the broader workforce (Molino et al., 2020). Highly educated employees not only accept technology more readily, but also show better adaptability and learning agility, which allows them to quickly acquire new digital skills and view DT as a way to create value rather than a threat (Zhang & Jin, 2023). Organizational size is also important. Large companies, especially those with more than 10,000 employees, often have the resources and strategic alignment needed to support digital adoption compared to mid-sized organizations (van Vulpen & Veldsman, 2023). Additionally, the work experience in this sample suggests that these employees had experienced multiple organizational changes throughout their careers. Rather than producing change fatigue, repeated exposure to change can build change capabilities and allows experienced employees to maintain control and react positively rather than resistance (Stensaker & Meyer, 2012). The voluntary nature of survey participation, alongside these factors, likely created a sample where resistance was naturally lower.

Beyond measurement issues, the null mediation finding suggests an important theoretical insight: DT may operate through different mechanisms in different contexts**.** In imposed-change contexts where employees face unwanted transformation, resistance likely plays a central role. Organizations must overcome opposition through communication, training, and participation mechanisms. However, in voluntary contexts where transformation is pursued

strategically with employee involvement, resistance was minimal in this context. Success then depends on positive enablement through commitment and capability building rather than resistance reduction.

This distinction has practical implications for change management strategies. Organizations should assess whether their DT context is characterized by high or low baseline resistance. In high-resistance contexts (mandatory system replacements, workforce reductions), traditional change management focusing on resistance reduction remains appropriate. In low-resistance contexts (strategic digital initiatives, voluntary adoption), resources should focus on building commitment and capabilities rather than managing resistance that may not exist.

The findings also suggest that resistance and commitment represent distinct constructs rather than opposite ends of a continuum. An employee can simultaneously hold low resistance (accepting that change will occur) and low commitment (not caring about organizational success). Such employees might passively comply with DT requirements without actively contributing to success. This passive compliance differs from active resistance but also differs from committed engagement. The current findings suggest commitment drives success more than the absence of resistance.

Future research should examine resistance in contexts where it genuinely varies. Studies sampling organizations undergoing forced transformation (regulatory mandates, crisis responses) may find that resistance operates as theorized. The current study's null findings should not be interpreted as evidence that resistance never matters, but rather that its role depends on context.

THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This study makes several contributions to DT theory.

First, the study validates Social Exchange Theory as a powerful framework for understanding DT success. As predicted by SET, commitment's significant

effect confirms that psychological attachment drives employee effort during transformation. This extends Social Exchange Theory from general organizational behavior into technology-driven change. Commitment's effect relative to other factors shows that psychological attachment matters more than contextual factors like leadership or culture.

Second, the study challenges the assumption that resistance operates as a universal mediator in DT processes. The complete absence of mediation contradicts literature positioning resistance as the central mechanism (Oreg, 2006; Piderit, 2000). The observed difference can be explained by the differing methods of data collection and the context of the changes. Previous research often examined changes that were required and imposed, where resistance naturally varied. In contrast, this study's voluntary survey attracted participants who were probably open to change and had already accepted the transformation. This resulted in a limited range of resistance levels, which made it impossible to find any mediating effects. The findings suggest that resistance may not be the primary dynamic in all contexts. In organizations pursuing DT strategically with employee involvement, success may depend more on positive enablement than on overcoming resistance barriers.

This distinction between resistance-reduction and commitment-building mechanisms advances theory by proposing conditional models rather than universal ones. Resistance likely matters in imposed-change contexts with high opposition. Commitment likely matters in voluntary contexts with strategic alignment. This suggests researchers should specify the DT context when building theory, rather than assuming universal mechanisms.

Third, the study demonstrates that organizational factors operate through complex relationships involving shared variance and indirect pathways. The strong correlations among commitment, leadership, and culture combined with commitment's unique predictive power suggest that these factors form an integrated system rather than independent influences. Leadership and culture may build commitment, which then drives transformation. This systemic

perspective differs from additive models treating each factor as an independent contributor.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings offer several insights for organizations pursuing DT.

Organizations should prioritize building organizational commitment before launching major DT initiatives. Technical planning and leadership alignment are necessary, however are insufficient without genuine employee attachment. Practical steps could be taken:

- Transparent communication about DT rationale and employee benefits
- Meaningful employee participation in DT planning
- Visible organizational investment in employee development and career security
- Fair treatment and psychological safety during DT
- Recognition and reward for transformation-supporting behaviors

These actions build reciprocal relationships where employees feel valued and respond with commitment to organizational goals.

Organizations should assess baseline resistance levels before deploying extensive resistance management programs. The null mediation findings suggest that resistance may not be the primary challenge in all contexts. Organizations pursuing strategic transformation with employee involvement may face minimal resistance, making commitment-building more effective than resistance management. The practical assessment below can be conducted.

- Employee surveys measuring resistance levels and variation
- Focus groups exploring change attitudes and concerns
- Analysis of voluntary participation in DT activities
- Monitoring of passive compliance versus active engagement

Organizations finding low baseline resistance should focus resources on capability building and commitment rather than extensive change management programs designed to overcome opposition.

Organizations should recognize that leadership and culture influence DT primarily through indirect mechanisms. The non-significant direct effects do not mean these factors are unimportant. Rather, they operate by building the organizational commitment that drives DT. Leadership development should emphasize:

- Building authentic relationships with employees
- Demonstrating genuine concern for employee welfare
- Creating psychological safety for experimentation
- Providing resources and support during DT

Culture change initiatives should focus on:

- Creating shared identity and values supporting innovation
- Establishing norms of mutual support and collaboration
- Building trust between employees and management
- Recognizing and celebrating DT successes

Organizations should consider their specific context when applying these findings. Organizations similar to this study's sample can apply the findings with confidence. Organizations in different contexts should adapt accordingly. Manufacturing firms facing automation fears may need stronger emphasis on job security. Healthcare organizations may need greater focus on clinical credibility. Finance organizations may need more attention to culture change.

Organizations should assess DT readiness before committing resources. The finding that commitment drives success while uncommitted employees show passive compliance suggests that readiness assessment should measure commitment levels, not just resistance. Organizations with low commitment should invest in building attachment before launching DT. Organizations with high commitment can proceed with confidence, focusing on technical implementation and capability building.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting findings.

The sample size of 71 participants provided adequate power for detecting large effects but limited power for smaller individual predictor effects. Moderate effects of leadership and culture may exist but remained undetected. Future research should use larger samples to improve statistical power and generalizability.

Voluntary participation created selection bias. The sample likely excluded highly resistant employees, restricting variance in the resistance variable. Participants were predominantly educated, mid-career professionals in large organizations. Future research should employ random or stratified sampling to ensure representation across resistance levels, job roles, and organizational sizes.

The study did not collect sector information, preventing analysis of whether DT dynamics differ across industries. Future research should compare findings across specific sectors such as healthcare, finance, and manufacturing to determine whether organizational factors operate differently in different industry contexts.

Two scales showed problematic reliability that may have affected results. Organizational culture and resistance to change exhibited questionable to poor internal consistency. Low reliability attenuates relationships and reduces power. The culture scale may have failed to capture specific dimensions like innovation orientation or risk tolerance as separate constructs. The resistance scale may have inadequately measured cognitive, affective, and behavioral components as distinct dimensions. Future research should use refined measures that distinguish these dimensions or develop transformation-specific scales.

The commitment scale measured primarily affective commitment (emotional attachment). Meyer and Allen's (1991) model also includes continuance commitment (perceived costs of leaving) and normative commitment (obligation to remain). Future research should examine whether

different commitment forms influence DT success differently. Affective commitment may drive active engagement while continuance commitment produces passive compliance.

The cross-sectional design precludes causal inference. While theory suggests commitment causes DT success, successful DT may also increase commitment. Future research should employ longitudinal designs measuring organizational factors before DT, resistance during implementation, and success after completion to establish temporal precedence.

Common method bias may have inflated relationships because all variables were self-reported by the same respondents. Future research should use multiple data sources: employee surveys for psychological variables, manager assessments for DT success, and archival data for organizational outcomes.

The study measured DT success through self-reported perceptions rather than objective outcomes. Future research should include objective indicators such as system adoption rates, performance metrics (productivity gains, error reductions), financial outcomes (revenue from digital channels, cost savings), and customer outcomes (digital service adoption, satisfaction scores).

The study examined only direct effects and mediation, not moderation. Future research should test potential moderating variables to identify boundary conditions for these relationships.

The study focused on Turkish organizations, limiting generalizability to other national contexts. Future research should replicate the study in different countries to test whether findings generalize across cultural and economic settings.

The study did not measure actual DT outcomes over time. The dependent variable captured perceptions at a single time point. Future research should follow organizations longitudinally, measuring success at early implementation (3-6 months), mid-term (1-2 years), and long-term (3-5 years) to reveal whether commitment influences sustained success or only short-term adoption.

Future research should pursue several directions to address these limitations and extend these findings. Studies using larger and more diverse

samples, longitudinal designs, multiple data sources, and objective performance measures would strengthen causal inference and generalizability. Research examining boundary conditions and alternative mechanisms would deepen theoretical understanding of organizational factors in DT contexts.

CONCLUSION

This study examined how organizational factors influence DT Success, testing whether Resistance to Change mediates these relationships in Turkish organizational contexts. Analysis produced findings that both validate and challenge prevailing theory, while generating practical guidance for organizations navigating technological change.

The findings demonstrate that organizational factors collectively explain 36.5% of variance in DT success (H1 supported). Among individual factors, organizational commitment serves as a significantly positive driver (H1a supported), while work stress presents a significant negative barrier (H1d supported). Leadership style and organizational culture did not show significant direct effects (H1b, H1c not supported), suggesting these factors operate through commitment-building mechanisms rather than as direct influencers. Resistance to change did not mediate any tested pathways (H2, H2a-H2d not supported), challenging universal change models and suggesting that DT mechanisms vary by organizational context.

These findings collectively contribute to transformation theory by demonstrating that commitment-building mechanisms matter more than resistance- reduction mechanisms in the contexts studied. This challenges universal change models that emphasize resistance as the primary driver of DT outcomes.

The findings address a fundamental question: Should all organizations pursue DT immediately? The answer depends critically on organizational readiness. Organizations should assess current levels of organizational

commitment and work stress before committing resources to DT. The study's evidence suggests that high commitment and manageable stress levels are necessary conditions for success. Organizations with low commitment or high stress should consider addressing these foundational conditions before launching DT initiatives.

For organizations that meet readiness thresholds, the path forward emphasizes proactive enablement over reactive resistance management. Invest in practices that strengthen organizational commitment through transparent communication, meaningful involvement, and visible support. Recognize that leadership and culture operate through building commitment rather than as independent direct drivers. Adapt approaches to specific contexts rather than applying generic change management frameworks. These evidence-based strategies position organizations for DT success.

This study contributes to DT scholarship and practice in three ways. Theoretically, it proposes conditional mediation frameworks that specify when different mechanisms operate rather than assuming universal patterns. Methodologically, it identifies critical measurement and sampling challenges requiring attention in future research. Practically, it provides evidence-based readiness assessment guidance and challenges organizations to evaluate whether they possess the foundational conditions for DT success.

The limitations acknowledged in Section 5.4 define the study's scope and appropriate interpretation. Findings apply primarily to change-receptive Turkish organizations, with aggregated patterns across sectors. The comprehensive research agenda in Section 5.4 suggests paths for addressing these constraints through larger diverse samples, longitudinal designs, cross-cultural comparisons, sector-specific studies, alternative mediator testing, improved measurement, and boundary condition examination.

DT presents profound challenges requiring organizations to fundamentally reimagine operations, capabilities, and culture. Understanding the organizational conditions that enable or impede DT is essential for both scholarship and practice. This study enhances the understanding by demonstrating that emotional

bonds between employees and organizations are more significant than previously acknowledged, challenging resistance-centric change models in voluntary DT contexts and offering an evidence-based framework for evaluating organizational readiness. While no single study can definitively answer all questions, this research establishes a foundation and framework for systematic theory development and practical tool creation.

The journey toward mature digital transformation theory requires coordinated research across multiple contexts, methods, and samples. This study represents one step in that journey: establishing foundational relationships, identifying critical limitations, and proposing directions for future validation. The roadmap is provided. These foundations can be expanded upon by organizations and academics to create the complex, contextualized understanding of digital transformation that our increasingly digital world demands.

REFERENCES

Ahmad, S. Z., Bakar, A. R., & Ahmad, N. (2024). Scaling the hurdles: The role of organizational factors in digital transformation success. *Journal of Business Research*, *172*, 114–128.

Akman, A. Z. , Erdirencelebi, M. and Çini, M. A. (2024). The Interaction Between Digital Transformation and Organizational Culture in Society 5.0 Structuring in Turkey. International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 13(3), 486-506. doi: 10.33844/ijol.2024.60427

Al-Rahmi, W. M., Yahaya, N., Aldraihen, A. A., Alstein, M., Kamin, Y. B., & Zeki, A. M. (2019). Integrating TAM with DOI in predicting ICT integration: A case of higher education. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 24819–24831. https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2900474

Al-Shdaifat, F., Al-Ababneh, H., & Al-Sraheen, D. (2024). Leadership 4.0 and digital transformation: The mediating role of organizational culture. *International Journal of Professional Business Review*, *9*(2), e04241.

Almatrodi, I., Skoumpopoulou, D., & Al-Sulami, S. (2023). Digital transformation and employee resistance: A resource-based view. *Information Technology & People*, *36*(8), 112–134.

Alos-Simo, L., Verdu-Jover, A. J., & Gomez-Gras, J. M. (2017). How transformational leadership facilitates e-business adoption. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, *117*(2), 382–397.

Amy, A. H. (2008). Leaders as facilitators of individual and organizational learning. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *29*(3), 212–234.

Basri, H., & Zorlu, K. (2022). Agile Organizations as Part of Digital Transformation: The Relationship Between Corporate Culture and Agility in Turkish Context. *20*(1), 154–172. https://doi.org/10.30794/pausbed.1116689

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire. Palo Alto, CA: Mindgarden.

Bausch, S., Teräs, M., & Schiffelers, A. (2024). Technostress as a mediator between digital transformation and employee resistance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *29*(4), 415–432.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. Wiley.

Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2006). Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework. Jossey-Bass.

Carreño, M. (2024). Bridging the gap: Integrating Lewin and Kotter in digital change initiatives. *Journal of Change Management*, *24*(1), 15–32.

Cieslak, V., & Valor, C. (2024). Moving beyond conventional resistance and resistors: an integrative review of employee resistance to digital transformation. *Cogent Business & Management*, *12*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2024.2442550

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). *Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.*

Comlek, O. (2023). Leadership support and innovation performance in the healthcare sector. *Journal of Health Management*, *25*(3), 312–325.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment, and personal need fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *53*(1), 9–21.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (5th ed.). Sage.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874–900. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602

Çakır, B. S. (2009). İlköğretim okullarında görev yapan yönetici ve öğretmenlerin örgütsel değişim ve örgütsel değişime direnme algılarına ilişkin bir araştırma [A study on perceptions of organizational change and resistance to organizational change among administrators and teachers in primary schools]. Selçuk University.

Daškevič, A., & Burinskienė, A. (2025). Project management methodologies for technology diffusion in logistics. *Logistics*, *9*(1), 12–28.

Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, *13*(3), 319–340. https://doi.org/10.2307/249008

Drescher, M. A., Korsgaard, M. A., Welpe, I. M., Picot, A., & Wigand, R. T. (2014). The dynamics of shared leadership: Building trust and enhancing performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*(5), 771–783.

DigitalDefynd (2025). Top 15 Digital Transformation Challenges [How to Overcome] https://digitaldefynd.com/IQ/top-digital-transformation-challenges/

Edwards, J. R. (2001). Multidimensional Constructs in Organizational Behavior Research: An Integrative Analytical Framework. *Organizational Research Methods, 4(2),* 144-192. https://doi.org/10.1177/109442810142004

Efeoğlu, İ. E. (2006). The effects of work-family life conflict on job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment: A study in the pharmaceutical industry. Çukurova University.

Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. E., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., & Steiger-Mueller, M. (2010). Leader–member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 95(6), 1085-1103. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0020858

Eisenberger, R., & Huntington, R. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 500–507. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500

Ferdaus, J., Munsamy, M., & Basri, H. (2025). Organizational capabilities for digital transformation: A cross-sectoral analysis. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *198*, 122–138.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). Sage.

Ford, J. D., Ford, L. W., & D'Amelio, A. (2008). Resistance to change: The rest of the story. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(2), 362–377. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2008.31193235

Fuglseth, A. M., & Sørebø, Ø. (2014). The effects of technostress within the context of employee use of ICT. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *40*, 161–170.

Gao, Lei and Jiang, Christine X. and Mekhaimer, Mohamed A., Count on subordinate executives: Internal governance and innovation (April 3, 2023). Journal of Banking and Finance, 2023. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3154096

Giones, F., Teräs, M., & Schiffelers, A. (2025). Academic culture and the resistance to digital learning tools. *Higher Education*, *89*(2), 215–233.

Gong, C., & Ribiere, V. (2021). Developing a unified definition of digital transformation. *Technovation*, *102*, 102217. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.technovation.2020.102217

González-Gómez, H. V., & Hudson, S. (2023). Employee frustration with information systems: Appraisals and resources. *European Management Journal*, *42*(3), 425–436. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2023.03.004

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson.

Hayes, A. F. (2025). PROCESS macro for SPSS and SAS (Version 5.0) [Computer software]. http://www.processmacro.org

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 474–487.

Hizir Z (2022), "Digital transformation: “jobocolypse” or empowerment?". Strategic HR Review, Vol. 21 No. 1 pp. 6–9, doi: https://doi.org/10.1108/SHR-10-2021-0047

Hofstede, G. (2010). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Sage.

House, R. J., & Rizzo, J. R. (1972). Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 7(3), 467-505.

Hussain, S. T., Lei, S., Akram, T., Haider, M. J., Hussain, S. H., & Ali, M. (2018). Kurt Lewin's change model: A critical review of the role of leadership and employee involvement in organizational change. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, *3*(3), 123–127.

Ibrahim F, Münscher J-C, Daseking M and Telle N-T (2025) The technology acceptance model and adopter type analysis in the context of artificial intelligence. Front. Artif. Intell. 7:1496518. doi: 10.3389/frai.2024.1496518

IBM Corp. (2019). IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 26.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.

Ioannou, A., & Papazafeiropoulou, A. (2017, August 10–12). *Using IT mindfulness to mitigate the negative consequences of technostress* [Conference session]. Twenty-third Americas Conference on Information Systems, Boston, MA, United States. https://aisel.aisnet.org/amcis2017/Paper/1012

Iverson, R. D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change: The role of organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *7*(1), 122–149.

Khan, S. A., Ali, M., & Sarıibrahim, S. (2016). Force field analysis and the consequences of employee resistance. *Journal of Change Management*, *16*(3), 212–230.

Kocak, A. (2024). Cultural barriers to digital transformation: A review and framework. *Journal of Management and Organization*, *30*(2), 145–162.

Kotter, J. P. (1995). Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, *73*(2), 59–67.

Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (2008). Choosing strategies for change. *Harvard Business Review*, *86*(7/8), 130–139.

Kumar, B. V., & Shailaja, N. (2024). Social exchange theory: Exploring reciprocity, equity, and relationship management in diverse contexts. *International Journal for Multidisciplinary Research*, *6*(6). https://doi.org/10.36948/ijfmr.2024.v06i06.32850

Kurt, C. (2010). An examination of the relationship between teachers' epistemological beliefs and their resistance to change [Öğretmenlerin epistemolojik inançları ile değişime direnme tutumları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi] [Unpublished master's thesis]. Gazi University.

Kuvan, H. (2001). Kamu ve özel sektörde örgütsel değişim algısı ve değişime direnme üzerine uygulamalı bir araştırma [An applied research on perceptions of organizational change and resistance to change in public and private sectors] [Unpublished master's thesis]. Selçuk University.

Lemaissi, M. (2022). Examining The Relationship Between Innovation Capability and Digital Transformation: A Comparative Analysis of Turkish and German Automotive Sectors.

Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics: Concept, method, and reality in social science; social equilibria and social change. *Human Relations*, *1*(1), 5–41.

Martins, J., Sousa-Zomer, T. T., & Shahzad, F. (2023). Socio-technical perspectives on digital transformation: A sector-specific review. *Technovation*, *122*, 102715.

Mete, S., & Eyel, O. (2021). Technostress and employee motivation in the digital workplace. *Psychological Reports*, *124*(3), 312–329.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(1), 61–89.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 61(1), 20-52.

MIT Sloan Management Review (2021). VOL 63.

Mohamed, S., & Demirel, E. T. (2022). The role of communication in reducing resistance to digital change. *Journal of Digital Business*, *1*(2), 45–62.

Molino, M., Cortese, C. G., & Ghislieri, C. (2020). The promotion of technology acceptance and work engagement in Industry 4.0: From personal resources to information and training. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(7), 2438. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17072438

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*(2), 224–247.

Munsamy, M., Al-Shdaifat, F., & de la Cruz, J. (2025). Digital leadership and innovation orientation in healthcare systems. *Health Care Management Review*, *50*(1), 33–48.

Nadkarni, S., & Prügl, R. (2021). Digital transformation: A review, synthesis and opportunities for future research. Management Review Quarterly, 71(2), 233-341.

Nafei, W. (2014). The role of organizational commitment in change management: A study on hospital employees. *International Business Research*, *7*(7), 122–134.

Nastjuk, I., Hanelt, A., & Bausch, S. (2023). Performance reduction and emotional exhaustion in the digital age. *Business & Information Systems Engineering*, *65*(3), 312–329.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 15(1), 73-101.

Pandey, P., & Badir, Y. F. (2021). The human side of technological change: A quantitative analysis of employee resistance. *International Journal of Information Management*, *58*, 102312.

Peccei, R., Giangreco, A., & Sebastiano, A. (2011). The role of organizational commitment in reducing resistance to technology. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(2), 312–325.

Peiperl, M. (2005). Resistance to change. In N. Nicholson, P. G. Audia, & M. M. Pillutla (Eds.), *The Blackwell encyclopedia of management: Organizational behavior* (2nd ed., Vol. 11, pp. 348–349). Blackwell Publishing

Pham, H. M., & Pham, H. T. T. (2022). Comprehensive review of digital maturity model and proposal for a continuous digital transformation process with digital maturity model integration. *IJCSNS International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security*, 22(1), 741-757. https://doi.org/10.22937/IJCSNS.2022.22.1.97

Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review*, *25*(4), 783–794.

Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C. A., & Williams, E. S. (1999). Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Management*, *25*(6), 897–933.

Ragu-Nathan, T. S., Tarafdar, M., Ragu-Nathan, B. S., & Tu, Q. (2008). The consequences of technostress for end users in organizations: Influences of technostress creators and inhibitors. *Information Systems Research*, *19*(4), 417–433.

Rajâa, S., & Mekkaoui, S. (2025). Social exchange theory and perceived organizational support in virtual environments. *Journal of Management Development*, *44*(1), 12–28.

Ramadan, M., Sacavém, A., & Sacavém, A. (2023). Psychological safety and continuous learning in digital transformation. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *44*(3), 312–329.

Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(5), 825–836.

Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of Business Research*, *62*(10), 1027–1030.

Rogers, E. M. (2003). *Diffusion of innovations* (5th ed.). Free Press.

Rutihinda, C. (2019). Organizational culture and digital transformation: A cross-national study. *Journal of Global Information Technology Management*, *22*(3), 1–15.

Sacavém, A., de Bem Machado, A., dos Santos, J. R., Palma-Moreira, A., Belchior-Rocha, H., & Au-Yong-Oliveira, M. (2025). Leading in the Digital Age: The Role of Leadership in Organizational Digital Transformation. Administrative Sciences, 15(2), 43. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci15020043

Sarıbrahim, M. A. (2008). *Investigating the Impact of Leadership on Resistance to Change* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Marmara University.

Schiffelers, A., Teräs, M., & Bausch, S. (2025). Digital literacy and workforce readiness in healthcare: A European perspective. *European Journal of Information Systems*, *34*(1), 45–62.

Schneider, P., & Sting, F. (2020). Employees' perspectives on digitalization-induced change: Exploring frames of Industry 4.0. *Academy of Management Discoveries*, *6*(3), 406–435. https://doi.org/10.5465/amd.2019.0012

Schwarzmüller, T. (2021). Organizational inertia and structural rigidity in the digital age. *Journal of Business Strategy*, *42*(2), 112–128.

Sebastian, I. M., Ross, J. W., & Pandey, P. (2023). How big companies design for digital. *MIS Quarterly Executive*, *22*(1), 1–15.

Shahzad, F., Martins, J., & Shahzad, F. (2025). Sociotechnical processes in digital transformation: A structural equation model. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, *38*(2), 1–22.

Sıcakyüz, Ç., & Yüregir, O. H. (2020). Exploring resistance factors on the usage of hospital information systems from the perspective of the Markus's Model and the Technology Acceptance Model. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Innovation*, *16*(2), 93–131. https://doi.org/10.7341/20201624

Silverthorne, C. (2004). The impact of organizational culture and person-organization fit on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 25(7), 592-609. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437730410561477

Singh, S. K., Giudice, M. D., Chierici, R., & Graziano, D. (2020). Green innovation and environmental performance: The role of green transformational leadership and green human resource management. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 150, 119762.

Sittrop, A. (2021). Communication and vision in Kotter's 8-step model. *Change Management*, *21*(3), 88–105.

Song, Y.; Qiu, X.; Liu, J. The Impact of Artificial Intelligence Adoption on Organizational Decision-Making: An Empirical Study Based on the Technology Acceptance Model in Business Management. Systems 2025, 13, 683. https://doi.org/10.3390/systems13080683

Sousa-Zomer, T. T., Martins, J., & Martins, J. (2023). Digital transformation capability and organizational performance. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *222*, 107–124.

Stensaker, I. G., & Meyer, C. B. (2012). Change experience and employee reactions: Developing capabilities for change. *Personnel Review*, *41*(1), 106–124. https://doi.org/10.1108/00483481211189974

Tarafdar, M., Tu, Q., Ragu-Nathan, B. S., & Ragu-Nathan, T. S. (2007). The impact of technostress on role stress and productivity. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *24*(1), 301–328. http://dx.doi.org/10.2753/MIS0742-1222240109

Tatli, A., Kocak, A., & Sacavém, A. (2025). Organizational climate and technology readiness: Reducing resistance in healthcare. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, *39*(1), 55–72.

Thomas, R., & Hardy, C. (2011). Reframing resistance to organizational change. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, *27*(3), 322–331.

Tobin, D. (2025, August 24). *Data transformation challenge statistics—50 statistics every technology leader should know in 2025*. Integrate.io. https://www.integrate.io/blog/data-transformation-challenge-statistics/

van Vulpen, E., & Veldsman, D. (2023). *The state of digital HR 2023: From business enabler to business driver*. Academy to Innovate HR (AIHR). https://www.aihr.com/leading-hr/state-of-digital-hr/

Venkatesh, V., & Davis, F. D. (2000). A theoretical extension of the technology acceptance model: Four longitudinal field studies. *Management Science*, *46*(2), 186–204. https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.46.2.186.11926

Vial, G. (2019). Understanding digital transformation: A review and a research agenda. *Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, *28*(2), 118–144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsis.2019.01.003

Wang, X., Wang, X., & Wang, X. (2023). Digital transformation in education: A DOI-TAM integration. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *71*(2), 103–125.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(1), 82–111.

Weill, P., & Woerner, S. L. (2018). *Is your company ready for a digital future?* MIT Sloan Management Review.

Westerman, G. et al. (2011). Digital Transformation: A Roadmap for Billion-Dollar Organization. The MIT Center for Digital Business and Capgemini Consulting.

Westerman, G., Bonnet, D., & McAfee, A. (2014). Leading Digital: Turning Technology into Business Transformation. Harvard Business Press.

Whitener, E. M. (2001). Do "high commitment" human resource practices affect employee commitment? A cross-level analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. *Journal of Management*, *27*(5), 515–535.

Yenigurbuz, G. (2017). *The Relationship Between Organizational Commitment and Resistance to Change and the Effect of Organizational Commitment on Resistance to Change.*

Yılal, M. (2021). *Analysis of the Relationship Between Resistance to Change and Work Stress and Burnout*.

Yucel, I. (2011). *Organizational Change and Policies for Overcoming Resistance to Change in Organizations.*

Zainab, B., Bhatti, M. A., & Alshagawi, M. (2021). Factors affecting e-learning adoption in the pandemic era: The role of transformational leadership. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, *16*(1), 4–22.

Zhang, Y., & Jin, S. (2023). How does digital transformation increase corporate sustainability? The moderating role of top management teams. *Systems*, *11*(7), 355. https://doi.org/10.3390/systems11070355

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Survey Instrument

A.1 Demographics

1. Your gender

( ) Female ( ) Male ( ) Other or do not want to specify.

2. Your age

( ) 20-30 ( ) 31-40 ( ) 41-and over ( )

3. Your Education Status

( ) High school ( ) Undergraduate ( ) Postgraduate

4. Your Marital Status

( ) Married ( ) Single

5. Your Total Work Experience

( ) 0-5 years ( ) 6-10 years ( ) 11-15 years ( ) 15-20 years ( ) 21 years and above

6. The number of employees of your former organization that you are working in, or if you are not working, on which you answered this survey.

( ) Between 1-50 ( ) Between 51-250 ( ) Between 251-1000 ( ) Between 1.001-10.000 ( ) More than 10.000

7. Organizational structure of the organization

( ) Hierarchical (multiple levels of management and clear reporting lines, decision-making authority concentrated at the top).

( ) Flat/horizontal (relatively flat, decentralized decision-making structure with a minimal level of hierarchy, focuses on collaboration, autonomy, and employee empowerment).

( ) Matrix (Has a matrix structure where employees report to both functional managers and project managers)

( ) Hybrid (a combination of both flat and hierarchical structures; some teams may work with a flat structure, while other teams may have a hierarchical layout).

( ) Other.

8. Your position in the organization

( ) Employee / Specialist

( ) Intermediate Manager (Expert, Director, etc.)

( ) Manager (Manager, Group Manager, etc.)

( ) Senior Manager (Director, Assistant General Manager, General Manager, etc.)

A.2 Resistance to Change

9) I consider change to be a negative situation.

10) I prefer a routine day to one full of unexpected events.

11) I prefer to do routine tasks rather than new and different things.

12) I feel nervous when I am informed about the change.

13) I feel uneasy when performance evaluation criteria change for my work.

14) Changing my plans is an inconvenient situation for me.

15) I cannot easily change my thoughts.

16) My views are very consistent even with the passage of time.

17) I feel uneasy even though I know that change will bring satisfactory results.

18) I see innovations not as an opportunity but as a process that brings challenges.

19) Changes and innovations made in our organization have caused many problems.

20) I see innovations as an irresistible process for my organization to be successful.

21) I attend the necessary vocational training courses to follow the innovations related to my profession.

22) Our organization has been successful in implementing innovations in the past.

23) In our organization, the aim of the changes is clearly shared with the employees.

A.3 Organizational Commitment

24) I would be happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.

25) This organization has a special meaning for me.

26) I owe a lot to my organization.

27) It is not right to leave my organization even if it is in my interest.

28) If I leave my organization now, I would feel guilty.

29) This organization deserves my commitment.

30) Currently, staying in this organization is more of a necessity than a desire for me.

31) I do not feel "emotionally connected" to my organization.

32) I do not have a powerful sense of belonging to my organization.

A.4 Work Stress

33) I work under a fairly high level of stress.

34) My job tends to affect my health directly.

35) I often feel nervous or irritable because of my job.

36) My health would probably be better if I had a different job.

37) Even when I am not working, I often think about work-related matters.

38) The stress caused by my job is at a reasonable level.

A.5 Organization Culture

39) My organization is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

40) My organization is dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to take risks.

41) My organization emphasizes human resources. High cohesion and morale in the firm are important.

42) Employee loyalty and organizational culture are key factors that keep my organization together.

43) Openness to innovation and continuous improvement are key factors that keep my organization together.

44) My organization gives employees a reasonable amount of free time to develop themselves and contribute to innovation.

45) The organization I work for is very formal and structured. Established procedures govern people.

46) My organization is goal oriented. A major concern is getting a job done without much personal involvement.

47) Formal rules and policies hold the organization together.

48) My organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.

49) Employees in my organization have performance goals related to innovation and creativity.

A.6 Leadership

50) Managers in my organization are inspiring and motivating.

51) Managers in my organization are visionary and think long-term.

52) Managers in my organization direct the employees without establishing authority over them.

53) Managers in my organization are considered to be mentors or father, brother, or sister figures.

54) Managers in my organization trust the employees and give them initiative.

55) Managers in my organization are part of the team they manage and involve employees in decision-making processes.

56) The managers in my organization accept the mistakes of the employees as normal and tolerate this.

57) Managers in my organization are often considered entrepreneurs, innovators, or risk takers.

A.7 Digital Transformation Maturity and Success

58) My organization has a digitalization or digital transformation strategy that aligns with its core business goals and strategy.

59) My organization evaluates and implements digitalization or digital transformation opportunities.

60) Organizational management supports digitalization or digital transformation.

61) Corporate management has a clear vision of digitalization or digital transformation that it shares with all employees.

62) The main factor driving digitalization and digital transformation in my organization is the developing technologies.

63) The main factors driving digitalization and digital transformation in my organization are strategic goals, business, and customer needs.

64) Please evaluate your organization's digital transformation level from the scale below.

( ) 1 - There is no digital transformation initiative in my organization.

( ) 2 - My organization is aware of the need for digital transformation but has not yet taken any steps to implement it. Employees use some digital tools, but there is no overall strategy for digital transformation.

( ) 3 - My organization has started to adopt digital technologies, but there is still a lack of alignment between corporate strategy and digital initiatives.

( ) 4 - My organization has integrated digital technologies into its core business processes. There is a clear fit between the organization's strategy and its digital initiatives. Employees use a collaborative working method provided by digital technologies.

( ) 5 - My organization has transformed its business model and operations using digital technologies. Employees are competent to use digital technologies to innovate and improve the organization's products and services.

APPENDIX B: Multiple Regression Analysis Detailed Output

B.1. Regression Analysis: Organizational Factors

Model Summary

R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error	F	df1	df2	p
.604	.365	.326	0.673	9.473	4	66	< .001

Note. Predictors: Organizational Commitment, Leadership Style, Organizational Culture, Work Stress. Dependent Variable: DT Success.

ANOVA Results

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Regression	17.144	4	4.015	9.473	< .001
Residual	29.860	66	0.469		
Total	47.004	70			

B.2 Regression Coefficients

	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI	VIF
(Constant)	3.026	.735	-	4.117	.000	[2.226, 3.086]	-
Organizational Commitment	0.392	.131	.385	3.000	.004	[0.138, 0.668]	1.709
Leadership Style	0.070	.118	.083	0.594	.554	[-0.147, 0.329]	2.006
Organizational Culture	0.051	.210	.032	0.242	.810	[-0.406, 0.452]	1.790
Work Stress	-0.304	.123	-.264	-2.466	.016	[-0.393, 0.011]	1.194

Note. B = unstandardized regression coefficient; SE = standard error; β = standardized regression coefficient; VIF = variance inflation factor. All VIF values < 2.0 indicate no problematic multicollinearity.

B.3 Collinearity Diagnostics

Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
			Const.	Commit	Culture	Leader	Stress
1	4.806	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
2	0.140	5.856	.00	.03	.00	.04	.40
3	0.025	13.759	.01	.91	.02	.38	.00
4	0.021	15.277	.17	.05	.17	.54	.36
5	0.008	24.981	.82	.01	.82	.04	.24

Note. All condition indices < 30 indicate no severe multicollinearity problems.

APPENDIX C: Mediation Analysis - Process Macro Output

Hayes PROCESS Macro Model 4 (Simple Mediation)

Bootstrap Samples: 5,000

Confidence Level: 95%

C.1 Model 1: Org. Commitment → Resistance → DT Success

Path a: Organizational Commitment → Resistance to Change

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	2.473	.136	18.17	.000	[2.199, 2.742]
Commitment	0.010	.046	0.204	.860	[-0.085, 0.105]

Model Summary: $R^2 = .0004$, $F(1, 69) = 0.042$, $p = .860$

Path b: Resistance to Change → DT Success (controlling for Commitment)

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	1.595	.856	1.862	.067	[-0.114, 3.304]
Commitment	0.542	.105	5.181	.000	[0.333, 0.751]
Resistance	0.024	.252	0.094	.926	[-0.479, 0.527]

Model Summary: $R^2 = .284$, $F(2, 68) = 13.487$, $p < .001$

Path c': Direct Effect (Commitment → DT Success, controlling for Resistance)

Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect (a×b)
c = .544	c' = .542	ab = .0011
SE = .105	SE = .105	BootSE = .0177
t = 5.181	t = 5.181	
p < .001	p < .001	95% CI [-.0247, .0432]

Conclusion: No significant mediation (95% CI includes zero).

C.2 Model 2: Leadership Style → Resistance → DT Success

Path a: Leadership Style → Resistance to Change

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	2.335	.165	14.18	.000	[2.006, 2.663]
Leadership	0.045	.044	1.019	.312	[-0.043, 0.133]

Path b: Resistance to Change → DT Success (controlling for Leadership)

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	2.434	.687	3.545	.001	[1.064, 3.804]
Leadership	0.368	.094	3.933	.000	[0.181, 0.554]
Resistance	0.024	.254	0.094	.926	[-0.483, 0.530]

Model Summary: $R^2 = .189$, $F(2, 68) = 7.901$, $p = .001$

Path c': Direct Effect (Leadership → DT Success, controlling for Resistance)

Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect (a×b)
c = .369	c' = .368	ab = .0011
SE = .092	SE = .094	BootSE = .0177
t = 4.003	t = 3.933	
p < .001	p < .001	95% CI [-.0288, .0467]

Conclusion: No significant mediation (95% CI includes zero).

C.3 Model 3: Organizational Culture → Resistance → DT Success

Path a: Organizational Culture → Resistance to Change

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	2.405	.274	8.777	.000	[1.858, 2.951]
Culture	0.028	.083	0.340	.735	[-0.138, 0.195]

Model Summary: $R^2 = .002$, $F(1, 69) = 0.115$, $p = .735$

Path b: Resistance to Change → DT Success (controlling for Culture)

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	1.595	.856	1.862	.067	[-0.114, 3.304]
Culture	0.601	.179	3.356	.001	[0.244, 0.959]
Resistance	0.110	.259	0.425	.672	[-0.406, 0.626]

Model Summary: $R^2 = .146$, $F(2, 68) = 5.789$, $p = .005$

Path c': Direct Effect (Culture → DT Success, controlling for Resistance)

Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect (a×b)
c = .604	c' = .601	ab = .0031
SE = .178	SE = .179	BootSE = .0234
t = 3.396	t = 3.356	
p = .001	p = .001	95% CI [-.0268, .0799]

Conclusion: No significant mediation (95% CI includes zero).

C.4 Model 4: Work Stress → Resistance → DT Success

Path a: Work Stress → Resistance to Change

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	2.328	.175	13.29	.000	[1.979, 2.677]
Stress	0.060	.065	0.914	.364	[-0.070, 0.189]

Model Summary: R^2 = .014, F(1, 69) = 0.836, p = .364

Path b: Resistance to Change → DT Success (controlling for Stress)

	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
Constant	4.588	.699	6.564	.000	[3.193, 5.983]
Stress	-0.503	.114	-4.423	.000	[-0.731, -0.276]
Resistance	0.266	.248	1.069	.289	[-0.230, 0.761]

Model Summary: R^2 = .193, F(2, 68) = 10.370, p = .0001

Path c': Direct Effect (Stress → DT Success, controlling for Resistance)

Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect (a×b)
c = -.488	c' = -.503	ab = .016
SE = .111	SE = .114	BootSE = .025
t = -4.412	t = -4.423	
p < .001	p < .001	95% CI [-.013, .099]

Conclusion: No significant mediation (95% CI includes zero).

C.5 Summary of Mediation Analyses

Pathway	Indirect Effect	Bootstrap SE	95% CI	Mediation?
Commitment → Resistance	.0011	.0177	[-.0247, .0432]	No
Leadership → Resistance	.0011	.0177	[-.0288, .0467]	No
Culture → Resistance	.0031	.0234	[-.0268, .0799]	No
Stress → Resistance	.016	.025	[-.0130, .0990]	No

Note. All 95% bootstrap confidence intervals include zero, indicating no significant mediation for any pathway. All analyses used 5,000 bootstrap samples with bias-corrected confidence intervals.

CURRICULUM VITAE