CONTRIBUTION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO SENSE OF PLACE AND TURNOVER INTENTION OF MYANMAR WORKERS IN THAILAND: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TRUST IN LEADER AND SUPPORTIVE DIVERSITY CLIMATE

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ABSTRACT

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Myanmar migrant workers represent the major workforce for low skilled labor Thailand in numerous areas such as agriculture, manufacturing, and certain service branches such as construction and domestic work. The high turnover among these Myanmar workers is costly to the company and may lead to labor shortage. Thus, it is important for the companies to retain these workers. One of the important factors that also contributing to the attachment and commitment of migrants that still have not received sufficient attention is the concept of "sense of place" (SOP). Given that there was no study on the determinants of SOP that migrant employees exhibit in the work context, this study filled the gap by targeting on the SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward their workplace. Also, this research filled the research gap by providing new evidence about the role of transformational leadership of top management and workplace climate which were antecedences of SOP toward the organization. The first objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between SOP and turnover intention by using the case of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand. Another objective was to investigate an antecedence of SOP by focusing on the role of transformational leadership of top management. In addition, trust in leader and the supportive diversity climate were proposed as the mediators to explain the association between transformational leadership and SOP. Data was collected from 736 Myanmar employees from two manufacturing plants. The results from the partial least squares regression revealed that the Myanmar migrant workers with strong SOP tended to report having less intention of leaving the company. The results also showed the positive contribution of transformational leadership on SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward the

workplace which implied that Myanmar workers who work under the supervision of transformational leadership style of top management tend to have high level of SOP toward their organization. This association was significantly mediated by trust in leader and the supportive diversity climate. Based on the finding, the supportive diversity climate was a factor that explained why those Myanmar migrant workers who perceived their leaders as having transformational leadership quality developed strong SOP toward their workplace. Lastly the finding provided evidence supporting the idea that the trust in leader was a factor that explained why Myanmar employees that worked for the company managed by a transformational leader were likely to develop strong SOP toward their workplace.
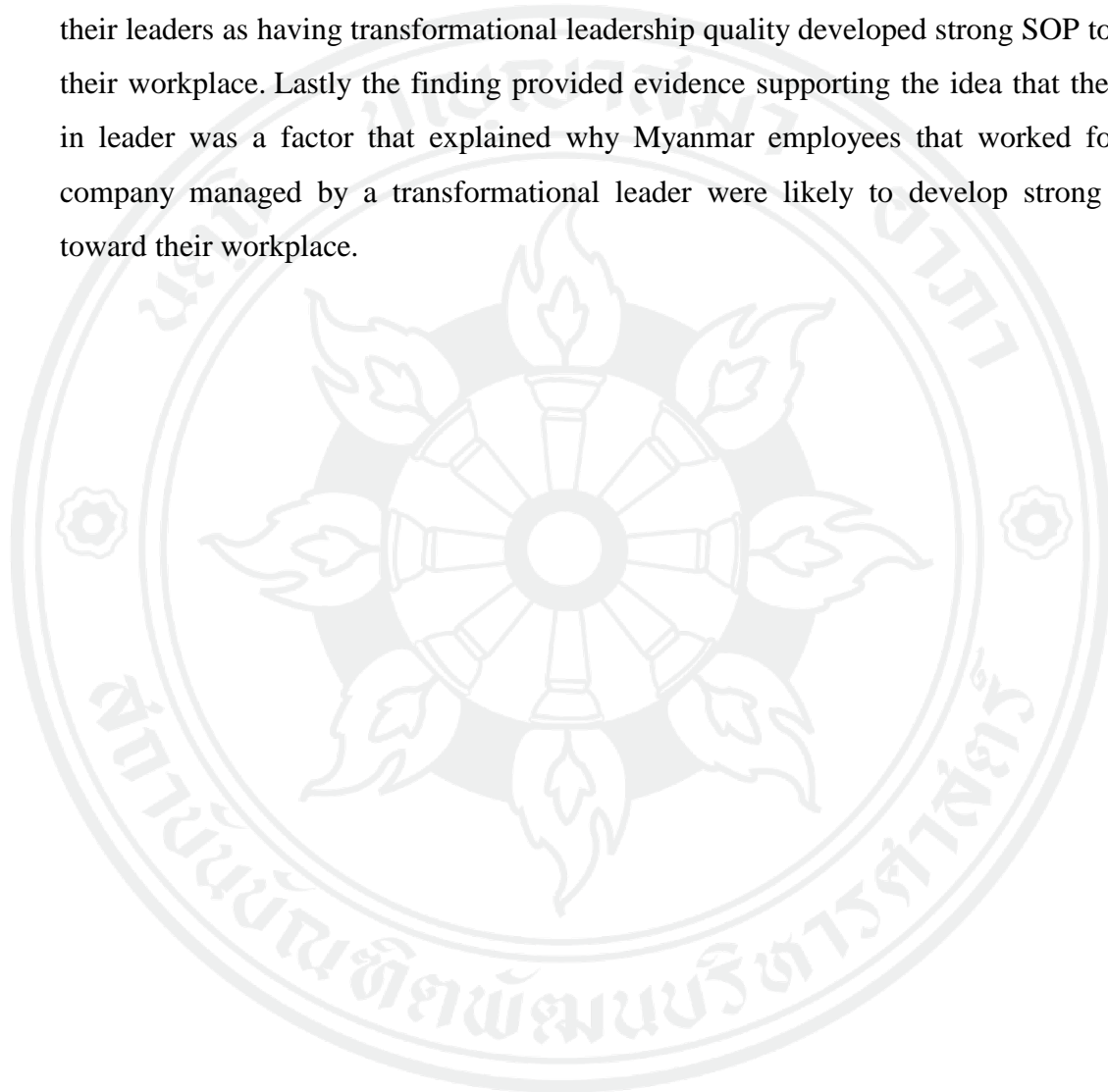
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Growth of Thai Industry and Labor Shortage in Thailand

Economically, Thailand has the potential to attract workers, because it is a destination where the labor markets found locally require unskilled labor in numerous areas such as agriculture, manufacturing, and certain service branches such as construction and domestic work. Generally, there has been cross-border migration between Thailand and neighboring countries for centuries especially during the 1970s when Thailand was developing toward industrialization (Kaur, 2010). During this stage, there was high labor demand for manual workforce in various industries such as construction and manufacturing which were previously met by the rural workers. However, the development of Thai economy caused the change in the structure of Thai labor market. The fact that Thai economy has continued to grow and Thai people have better education allow them to have more chances to work in various businesses (Sornbanlang & Bamrungsuk, 2012). Those rural workers relocated to the city and preferred office works over agricultural-related and heavily labor-intensive works. The labor shortage in these industries also results from the fact that Thailand is moving toward aging society and Thai people are more selective in choosing their jobs. Sunpuwan and Niyomsilpa (2012) mentioned that employers have difficulties in finding and recruiting local Thais because most Thai people refuse to do dangerous, difficult, and dirty (3D) jobs as they require intensive labor while the payments are very low.

As the economy continued to develop in Thailand, there were cases of labor shortage in strenuous work, hence leaving job opportunities to job seekers from the neighboring countries such as Myanmar, Cambodia, and Lao. Since Thai workers have abandoned these kinds of work, migrants were allowed to work in these intensive positions (Rajapongsa, 2014). According to the aforementioned reasons, Thai employers need to rely more on migrant workers. Additionally, the income discrepancy between Thailand and neighboring countries is also one of the driving factors pulling migrant workers to search for job opportunities in Thailand (OECD/International Labour Organization, 2017). Migrant workers account for almost 10% of the Thai workforce and are an essential factor of market competitiveness of Thailand (Jaisat, Biel, Pollock, & Press, 2014).

1.1.2 Myanmar Worker's Characteristics

Most of the migrants who crossed the border to work in Thailand came from different regions in Myanmar which accounted for 80% of all migrant workers (Jaisat et al., 2014). Myanmar workers became the major workforce in Thailand partly because they are willing to accept low pay as well as working in 3D areas. Sornbanlang and Bamrungsuk (2012) stated in their study that Myanmar migrant workers migrated to Thailand due to three main reasons, which are the adjacent geographical location of Myanmar and Thailand, the pull factors that Thai employers need to find cheap labor from bordering countries, and the push factors that Myanmar people want to escape from poverty and the political conflicts within the country. According to different immigration reports that were registered in 2012, there were 1,186,805 Myanmar migrants who shifted to Thailand and these individuals worked in 3D jobs that were neglected by the local people (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal, 2012). Moreover, according to government's estimation, there are about 4.25 million Myanmar citizens living abroad (The International Organization for Migration, 2015). The International Organization for Migration (2016) suggests that approximately 70% of all Myanmar migrants residing abroad are in Thailand, followed by Malaysia at 15%, China at 4.6%, Singapore at 3.9%, and finally the US with a paltry 1.9%. As of 2016, IMO

puts the estimates of three million migrants from Myanmar seeking refuge in Thailand (The International Organization for Migration, 2016).

1.1.3 Benefits of Hiring Myanmar Workers

The benefits of hiring Myanmar workers lie in both the firm and national levels. As for the firm level, there are several advantages of employing these migrant workers. Firstly, the companies can hire Myanmar migrants at a much cheaper salaries compare to Thai workers. As in year 2013, on average the salary of Cambodian and Myanmar migrant workers was less than half of those Thai workers in the fishing industry (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal, 2012). The study of Kohpaiboon (2009) concluded that many of Thai exporting companies in textile industry built their factories in Tak province near the border of Thailand and Myanmar in order to benefit from the cheap labor of Myanmar migrants. Secondly, there are evidences that the hiring of migrant workers helps the companies to maintain cost competitiveness (OECD/International Labour Organization, 2017). These migrant workers have very limited days off. Thus, most companies can increase their productivities as well as save cost at the same time. It is supported by previous paper of Y. Kura, Revenga, Hoshino, and Mock (2004) stating that Thai companies could achieve the leading position in the international market of the shrimp production sector partly due to low salaries from employing unskilled migrant workers. Thirdly, these migrant workers help lessen the problem of labor shortage in certain industries that are ignored by local Thais. It is reinforced by the study of Athukorala, Manning, and Wickramasekara (2000) indicating that without employing migrant workers, some Thai corporations might have gone out of business due to the high labor cost and labor shortage. Fourthly, according to Thai laws, alien workers cannot become members of labor union of the organization (Perawongmetha, 2014). Consequently, these Myanmar workers seem to be very submissive and afraid to complain anything. It is accordance with the study by Pearson, Punpuing, Jampaklay, Kittisuksathit, and Prohmmo (2006) stating that most companies prefer hiring young migrants because these individuals are easy to control, they are more willing to work in 3D jobs, and accept low wages. The companies also remarked that migrant workers were more

attentive to their works than Thai workers (P. Martin, 2007). Lastly, the companies also learn from hiring the migrant workers (Tanchaitranon & Charoensukmongkol, 2016).

As for the national level, Myanmar migrants worked in various organizations contributed a lot to Thailand economy because they covered the gaps in certain fields that required manual labor such as manufacturing industries, fisheries, agriculture, garment, production, and construction (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal, 2012). According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD/International Labour Organization, 2017), in year 2010, one in eight employees of construction, manufacturing, and services sectors are accounted for by migrant workers. Pholphirul, Rukumnuaykit, and Kamlai (2010) stated that the migrant workers added an average of 2.3% of national income from 1995 to 2005. Approximately, Myanmar migrants have contributed 0.5 percent or 600 million USD to Thailand's gross domestic product, and when the labor force increased in 2005, the percentage of GDP augmented to 1.25 (Jaisat et al., 2014). OECD/International Labour Organization (2017), the Migration Policy Institute estimated that on average, migrant employees were accounted for one percent to the Thai real GDP.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the benefits that Myanmar migrants provide, the companies in Thailand are facing challenges with these employees. One major problem is that they normally leave the company or quit the job after a short period of time. According to the interview with the CEO of one construction business in Bangkok, over 50% of Myanmar migrants working in the construction sites quit from their jobs right after six months period. The high turnover of these migrant workers come from several reasons. Firstly, Puangyoykeaw and Nishide (2015) indicated that most of the Myanmar migrants, especially the low skilled employees working in various manufacturing companies are not satisfied with the low levels of compensation and other insecurities, making them disloyal with their jobs. The majority of the migrants

quit from their jobs whenever they find a more lucrative offer from another company. Secondly, they keep changing their jobs due to poor working environment. Ungsriwong, Yakun, Jirakraisiri, and Kanjanapokin (2014) stated that many companies did not provide safe working environment according to Universalism Declaration of Human Rights. They explained further that from January to August of 2011, it was reported that in Samut Sakhon province alone, there were 5,609 Myanmar workers who had serious accidents in the workplaces. The subsequent factor might come from the abusiveness from the companies. Some local employers from different businesses and manufacturing industries exploit these Myanmar migrants due to their desperate financial situation. Some employers pay poorly even less than the minimum wage, some hold back their payments, and some even force them to work for longer hours than they supposed to. Lastly, the discrimination from their employers can be one of the essential factors leading to high turnover among migrant workers. For example, the previous research (Paitoonpong & Chalamwong, 2012; Pholphirul et al., 2010) reflected that Thai company owners discriminated and manipulated the migrant employees because they believe that these alien workers did not earn the same privileges as Thai workers. Many of the Myanmar migrants employed in various organizations experienced exploitation, racism, attempted murder, and discrimination occasionally from their hirers. These could lead to the negative job attitudes and finally result in turnover intention.

The high chances of leaving the job at any time have raised the turnover rate of the companies. When these incidents occur, the economic status and the performance of an organization are affected, as well as the employer's effort and time invested are wasted (Harhara, Singh, & Hussain, 2015). The frequent need to hire and train a new workforce may even make the company deviated from their intended goals (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012). It was reinforced by the previous literature of Wöcke and Heymann (2012) which stated that turnover intentions may be costly to the companies due to the excessive expenditures on employing and coaching new workers. Furthermore, the higher number of the employees leaving a company may also have a negative effect on the productivity of the other workers (Tapola, 2016). For example, scholars found that the turnover can lower the commitment and performance of current employees

because they may be too exhausted from the escalation in workload (L. James & Mathew, 2012).

Considering the context of Myanmar workers in Thailand, these group of workforces have significant impact to the company's productivity. The high turnover rate of the Myanmar migrant workers without replacement may also lead to a shortage of labor. This is supported by the research of Chalamwong (1998) mentioning that a large number of Myanmar migrants have influenced the productivity and the economic growth in various companies such as construction, fishery, and factories which are labor intensive and require most of manual labors. Therefore, it is vital for these organizations to find possible ways to retain these migrants and motivate their sense of loyalty.

Many scholars had studied extensively on how to create employee loyalty and attachment to the organizations (Y.-C. Chen, Chen, Tsui, & Chiang, 2016; Fuller, Hester, Barnett, & Relyea, 2006; Narteh & Odoom, 2015). Some common factors leading to employee attachment and loyalty to the company include, but not limited to, the supervisors (Z. X. Chen, Tsui, & Farh, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Walumba, Wu, & Orwa, 2006), co-workers (Ahmad, Bibi, & Majid, 2017; Sloan, 2017) and working environment of a single company (Fuller et al., 2006; Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). One of the important factors that also contribute to the attachment and commitment of migrants that still have not received sufficient attention is the concept of "sense of place". D. R. Williams and Stewart (1998) defined sense of place as "the collection of meanings, beliefs, symbols, values, and feelings that individuals or groups associate with a particular locality". Sense of place is associated with how people assign value and have emotional attachment to a particular setting. Originally, sense of place had been studied in various areas. For example, it referred to the residential attachment with particular city (Nanzer, 2004). It was used to signify to the relationship between students and educational institutions (H. Lee & Chiang, 2016; Sun & Maliki, 2015). It was discussed in the marketing context to explore the association between the company and the customer attachment (Brocato, Baker, & Voorhees, 2015). Furthermore, this concept has been used to

measure the attachment between the migrants and the specific place (Derrien & Stokowski, 2014; Du, 2017; Qian & Zhu, 2014).

1.3 Research Gap

While various papers examined the sense of place among migrants (Derrien & Stokowski, 2014; Mazumdar, Mazumdar, Docuyanan, & McLaughlin, 2000; Qian & Zhu, 2014), there is no study on the determinants of sense of place that the migrant employees exhibit in the work context. In addition, prior studies investigated various antecedents of SOP such as recorded histories of a place (Durie, Yeoman, & McMahon-Beattie, 2006; Low, 1992; D. R. Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992), environment and location (Tester, Ruel, Anderson, Reitzes, & Oakley, 2011), duration of stay (Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1977), and bonding with a particular place; however, the role of leadership and its relation to SOP in the organization have never been examined before. It is particularly important because top management dominates the role in creating and setting the organizational climate (Choi & Chang, 2009; Purvis, Sambamurthy, & Zmud, 2001). Therefore, the leadership style of top management may potentially have an impact on transforming the perception of the employees regarding their SOP toward the organization. Although there are various leadership styles proposed in prior research that contribute to positive work attitude of employees, this study focuses on transformational leadership as antecedence of employee's SOP. Bernard M Bass (1990) defined transformational leadership as the leadership style where a leader attends to individual employees and use his or her charismatic characteristics to inspire the employees to reach their full potential by committing to the organizational vision. Transformational leadership is selected in this research because it is most recognized leadership styles that have received extensive research support about its contributions to a wide array of organization performance and employees' work motivation (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Jain & Duggal, 2016; Hougyun Kim, 2014; Long, Yong, & Chuen, 2016; Lowe & Gardner, 2000; Newman & Butler, 2014; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015; Rowold, Borgmann, & Bormann, 2014).

1.4   **Objectives of the Study**

The first objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between SOP and turnover intention by using the case of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand. Another objective is to investigate an antecedence of SOP by focusing on the role of transformational leadership of top management. In addition to the direct association between transformational leadership of top management and SOP, this research further proposes that the linkage between transformational leadership and SOP might be mediated by two variables which are (1) trust in leader and (2) the supportive diversity climate. Trust in leader is expected to indirectly explain the linkage between transformation leadership and SOP because the level of trust is a crucial component for the effective interpersonal relationship between the transformational leaders and the followers (R. C. Solomon & Flores, 2003). Research suggested that when the followers trust in their transformational leaders, they have tendency to be inspired and identify with the organization (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yukl, 1989). Moreover, this study also proposes that the positive association between transformational leadership and SOP can be mediated by the supportive diversity climate in the workplace. Because transformational leaders take an important part in building the supportive diversity climate that makes employees develop bonding with the organization (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bernard M Bass, 1999; Gregory Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004), consequently, this workplace characteristic may also explain why employees who worked in an organization managed by transformational leaders could have more tendency to develop SOP.

This research applies two theories, which are the social exchange theory and the social identity theory to support hypotheses development. According to the social exchange theory, when individuals receive favor from another person, they tend to reciprocate in the same manner (Blau, 1964; Jia, Song, Li, Cui, & Chen, 2007). Similarly, when the transformational leaders support and treat their followers fairly, the followers tend to reciprocate by demonstrating positive attitudes and work behaviors that can relate to a tendency to develop SOP toward the organization (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Nair & Salleh, 2017). On the other hand, social identity theory

predicts that individual tends to identify himself or herself with another significant other that he or she has the sense of belonging to (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Because the transformational leaders can make their followers want to identify with them and with the organization (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006), this might be consistent with social identity theory in the sense that it can also motivate employees to develop SOP toward the organization.

1.5   Contribution of the Study

1.5.1   Academic Contribution

This research provides academic contribution to the studies of SOP. Given the limited number of studies about SOP in workplace, especially, among the migrant workers, this research will provide empirical evidence in this context to fill the research gap. In addition, given that the role of leadership has never been studied as an antecedent of SOP, this research will fill this research gap by investigating the contribution of transformational leadership to SOP by considering the mediating role of trust in leader and supportive diversity climate to explain the role of transformational leader in this situation.

1.5.2   Practical Contribution

This study will also provide practical contribution to organizations employing migrant workers. Because turnover is a critical problem and it is directly and indirectly harmful to the organization's growth and profit (Ali, 2008; Chapman, 1993; Vance, 2006), organizations must consider some policies or intervention to prevent this problem. This research is particularly useful for many industries that rely on Myanmar migrant workers as it may help preventing the problem of labor shortage (Chantavanich & Vungsiriphisal, 2012). Considered the results from previous research suggesting the role of SOP in helping people develop emotional attachment

to the place (Altman & Low, 1992; Hashemnezhad, Heidari, & Mohammad Hoseini, 2013; Lewicka, 2008), additional evidence about the benefits of SOP and how it formed might provide important insight regarding some policies to promote employee retention. Moreover, the findings of this research will provide some guidelines on how to create appropriate and good working environment for Myanmar migrant workers. Overall, this study may help the companies retain the employees and reduce the turnover.
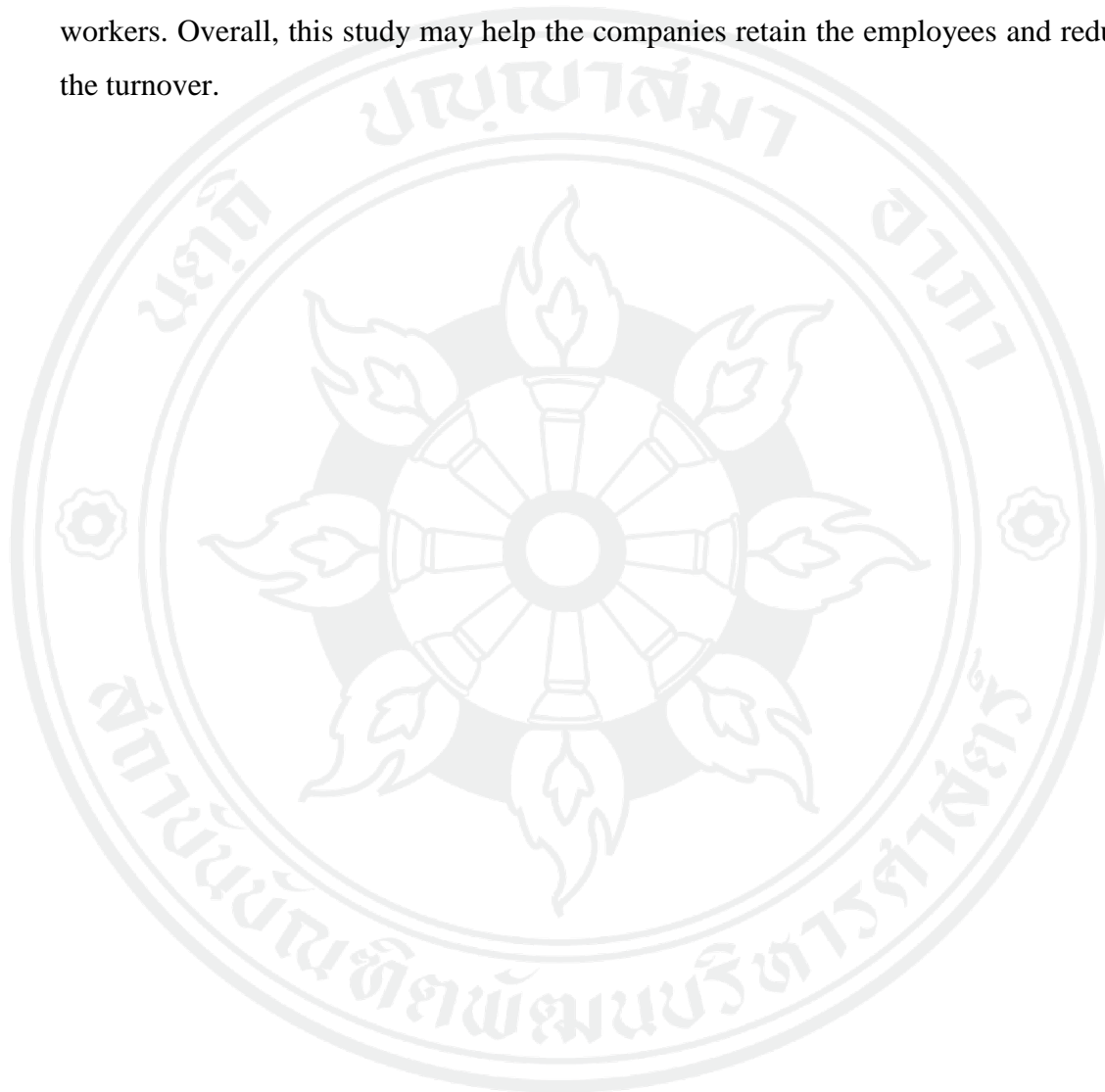
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Concept of Sense of Place

The study of place became significant since 1970s. Dayaratne and Kellett (2008) mentioned that place is not just about owning a physical accommodation, but also the reconnection of community and cultural associations which combine spaces, things, and foundations to represent and commemorate new connections, feelings, actions, and experiences. As stated by Gieryn (2000), place is composed of three characteristics which are (1) place is a distinctive location, (2) it has physical form, and (3) it has to add value and means something to people. Many people develop psychological attachment to a place, which turn that particular place to be meaningful for them. Thus, the "Sense of Place (SOP)" is developed.

According to Tuan (1977), people develop SOP by assigning meaning and giving value to a unique physical spot. Hashemnezhad et al. (2013) noted that the meaning of SOP is varied according to different areas of sociological, cultural, and psychological sciences. Many studies associate SOP with how people feel and ascribe meeting to a unique place. For example, Jamal and Hill (2004) refers SOP as the tangible and intangible components that contribute to the way individuals feel about, appreciate, assign meaning to, and value a place. It is consistent with the study of D. R. Williams and Stewart (1998) mentioning that SOP happens when people add significance and have feeling toward a particular locale. To many scholars, SOP is defined by focusing through the experiences that people create in the setting. For example, according to Tuan (1975), people develop SOP through the direct experiences with a particular place overtime through different feelings and emotions. To Relph (1976), SOP is constructed from the experiences of people in the environment. It is supported by Stedman (2003) that a space can be transformed to a place when people have

emotional attachment to it. Several scholars state that SOP comes from the experiences as well as the emotional connection that people construct with a particular physical spot (Agnew, 1993; Massey, 2006; Sack, 1988). Various scholars encompassed that SOP is the social processes which include the interaction and activities (Canter, 1977; Cross, 2001; Relph, 1976). Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) mentioned that SOP is not just the attitude and emotional connection toward a certain place, but it also includes people's behavioral commitment. Hashemnezhad et al. (2013) added further that SOP cannot be prearranged. It is developed from the interaction between people and their setting through different activities. Despite numerous definitions, the common aspect toward SOP is that it refers to the bonding between people and their setting.

SOP can be represented from numerous types of spaces. To name some, scholars have studied SOP in the form of a city such as Michigan (Nanzer, 2004), a river (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000), lake (Stedman et al., 2007), particular community (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001), university (Sun & Maliki, 2015), and workplace (Inalhan & Finch, 2004; Rooney et al., 2010).

2.1.1 The Dimensions of Sense of Place

The components of SOP are varied and overlapped among scholars. Steele (1981) separated SOP into two parts which are cognitive and perceptual dimensions, and physical features. A more recent study of Hashemnezhad et al. (2013) held the similar view as they categorized SOP into two categories; physical and emotional aspects. The physical aspect refers to the descriptive environments in which people stay in. The emotional concept means how people add positive or negative meanings to that place. Additionally, many scholars proposed that SOP is the combination of two factors which are place attachment and place meaning (Farnum, Hall, & Kruger, 2005; Smaldone, Harris, & Sanyal, 2005; Trentelman, 2009).

Conversely, several scholars divided SOP into more levels. For example, Shamai (1991) mentioned three elements which are belonging to a place (emotional connection), place attachment and place commitment. Jorgensen and Stedman (2006) adopted the attitude framework to explain the construct of SOP by focusing on three dimensions, which are, the affective, cognitive, and conative. The affective dimension refers to the feeling people feel in their locale, while, the cognitive dimension means their attitude and their belief toward that place, and conative dimension is the behavior people act toward the place (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006). Hashemnezhad et al. (2013) had similar observations toward the model of SOP by separating into three measurements: cognitive, behavioral, and emotion. It is consistent with the previous study of Canter (1977) that signified SOP into three elements; form, function, and meaning. According to Hashemnezhad et al. (2013), those three components are related to the three types of relationship between people and place which are cognitive, behavioral, and emotional. First, form of the place refers to the cognitive facet when people develop general perception toward a space. Second, function aspect refers to the behavioral facet when people perform activities in that particular place to obtain their goals. Third, meaning aspect refers to the emotional facet when people satisfy and have emotional attachment with the setting (Altman & Low, 1992). As for Qian and Zhu (2014) and Shamai and Ilatov (2005), the relationship and bonding between a person and the place can be explained by three constructs namely; place attachment, place dependence, and place identity. These constructs are consistent with earlier concepts as the affective dimension can also refer to the place attachment, the cognitive dimension is similar to the concept of place identity, and the conative dimension is identical with the concept of the place dependence (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006).

In this research, the researcher applies three concepts of SOP model proposed by Jorgensen and Stedman (2001), namely; place attachment, place identity, and place dependence because they appear often in the literatures (Brocato et al., 2015; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001, 2006; Nanzer, 2004; Qian & Zhu, 2014; Sun & Maliki, 2015). Additionally, they are suitable with the context of the study because this model covers comprehensive aspects of SOP especially the behavioral dimension which is

absence in some other models. The three constructs will be explained in the next section.

2.1.1.1 Place attachment

The first construct of SOP is place attachment. It seems to receive the most attention from researchers. For example, Hashemnezhad et al. (2013) situated that it is one of the most fundamental notions in the people-place study. Scholars defined place attachment as the emotional connections that individuals establish with place (Altman & Low, 1992; Hashemnezhad et al., 2013; Lewicka, 2008). It happens when people have affective bonding with a certain place. For example, according to Rubinstein and Parmelee (1992) and Low and Altman (1992), the place attachment occurs when the individuals develop the emotional and feeling toward a physical setting. Seamon (1993) suggested that that the attachment to place happens when people perceive that a single place is significant to them. Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) stated that the individuals attach to the setting and want to stay there because they form a strong emotional bonding with that particular place. Rowles (1993) and Semken and Freeman (2008) also stated that when a person has the direct experience and engages with a certain place, he or she will involve with that place psychologically; thus, the place attachment is developed. Numerous scholars stated that the place attachment does not only derive from the connection between people and their place, but also from the interactions and activities with other people (Altman & Low, 1992; Hashemnezhad et al., 2013; Relph, 1976). Various scholars found that the longer a person stay in a particular place, the stronger his or her place attachment will be (Hay, 1998; McAndrew, 1998; Moore & Graefe, 1994).

2.1.1.2 Place identity

The second aspect of SOP construct is place identity. Place identity is the association with or belonging to a specific place (Du, 2017). It is how people identified themselves with the location. According to Proshansky (1978), the individuals identify their personal identity with the setting. It is consistent with previous papers

that a certain place can convert to be an individual's self-identity (Cuba & Hummon, 1993; Farnum et al., 2005; Korpela, 1989; Manzo & Perkins, 2006; Trentelman, 2009). The individuals identified themselves with a certain place because that place makes them feel unique, have self-worth, and self-efficacy (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). Pena (1998) stated that 'place' is the initial source where people form their identity through their memories. Many scholars referred place identity as the emotional attachment that individual forms with a place (Derr, 2002; Kaltenborn, 1998; D. R. Williams & Vaske, 2003). Two elements contributing to the higher level of place identity are how strong people feel emotionally involved their particular setting and the length of stay (Chawla, 1992; Moore & Graefe, 1994).

2.1.1.3 Place dependence

Lastly, place dependence refers to the functional element (Du, 2017; Kaltenborn, 1998; D. R. Williams & Vaske, 2003) as supported by previous literatures that the individuals depend on a specific place in order to accomplish particular objectives and fulfill their desires (Stokols, 1981; Trentelman, 2009). It is accordance with other papers that place dependence happens when it provides setting that can satisfy people when they perform activities in that place (Farnum et al., 2005; Halpenny, 2006; Vaske & Kobrin, 2001). Thus, place dependence represents the action and behavioral aspect of SOP.

2.1.2. Interrelationship Among Three Variables of SOP

To date, there are little consensus of the findings on how SOP dimensions interrelated (Hammitt & Stewart, 1996; Qian & Zhu, 2014). For example, Jorgensen and Stedman (2006) stated that the relationships of SOP constructs are very complex. Even though Cuba and Hummon (1993) cited that place attachment and place identity can be used interchangeably, Hernández, Hidalgo, Salazar-Laplace, and Hess (2007) claimed that these two concepts are different and place attachment forms before place identity. On the contrary, D. R. Williams et al. (1992) stated that place attachment is formed by place identity and place dependence. Similarly, Moore and Graefe (1994) found that

place identity precedes place attachment and place dependence. It is supported by the study of Nanzer (2004) which found that that the highest percentages of Michigan residences develop place identity more than other constructs of SOP; thus, it indicated that place identity is formed before other constructs. Conversely, Qian and Zhu (2014) found the different result that place identity does not constitute place attachment; thus, place attachment and place identity are considered to be independent from one another. However, they reported further that there is a strong association between place attachment and place dependence. D. R. Williams et al. (1992) found that there is the strong interconnection between place dependence and place identity. Instead, Qian and Zhu (2014) found that place dependence contributes to place identity but not vice versa. Nevertheless, Bonnes and Secchiaroli (1995) stated that despite some overlaps among place attachment, place identity, and place dependence, they still have unique features.

2.1.3. Antecedents Associated with SOP and SOP Formation

Research found that people tend to develop SOP from various reasons. The formation of SOP comes from many sources such as historical stories of a place (Durie et al., 2006; Low, 1992; D. R. Williams et al., 1992), climate and environment (Tester et al., 2011), length of stay (Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1977), and emotional association with particular locale (Hummon, 1992; Low & Altman, 1992; Tuan, 1979).

First, SOP develops from the history of a nation. For example, Durie et al. (2006) reported that SOP of Scotland derived from its history such as literature, food, landscape, music and film, heritage, authenticity, and the appeal of the country. Second, SOP can be developed through the perception and experiences of people toward a particular location. For example, Kianicka, Buchecker, Hunziker, and Müller-Böker (2006) studied the SOP under the aspect of tourists and found that both local and tourist respondents developed SOP toward the village of Alvaneu, but in a different way. SOP of local people was intensely linked to their past memories; while, those of the tourists were linked to the characteristics of the certain place. Third, previous research provided support that supportive environment encouraged SOP

creation. For example, Tester et al. (2011) reviewed SOP among the residents of Atlanta public housing and reported that some positive community features, such as social support, had influence on place attachment. Various scholars also found that the length of stay had a major impact on SOP development. For example, Nanzer (2004) measured the strength of SOP among Michigan's residents and found that the length of time staying in a particular place had impact on place attachment and SOP formation. It is in line with the study of H. Lee and Chiang (2016) which found that the length of stay within the community had influence on SOP and place-based teaching could increase SOP of the students in Taiwan and also improve their study accomplishment. Likewise, Du (2017) also found that the longer people stay at a particular place, the stronger their place attachment will be. Last but not least, many scholars also pointed out that psychological engagement with a single space can lead to SOP. For example, in their study on the ecosystem-based management, Poe, Donatuto, and Satterfield (2016) found that SOP derived from emotional experiences and the establishment of the social connections. It is in accordance with the study of Derr (2002) which investigated Children's SOP in New Mexico and found that once the children concerned for a particular place, they were more likely to care for the overall environment. Likewise, Derrien and Stokowski (2014) also found that the social interaction among Bosnian migrants led to SOP development.

Research found that SOP can also be explained by demographic factors. For example, Nanzer (2004) studied the level of SOP among Michigan's residents and found that difference in gender was not the vital factor in SOP creation. However, female respondents held higher levels of place attachment and place dependents than male respondents did; while, male respondents possessed the stronger level of place identity. Moreover, the strength of SOP was found to associate with age. For example, the study of Nanzer (2004) focusing on residence in Michigan found that older people tend to have stronger SOP toward the city. Research also provide support that birth place is associated with the strength of place attachment. It is supported by the study of Du (2017) reporting that even though people can develop SOP both by birth and by residence, place attachment ascribed by birth tend to be stronger.

2.1.4. Outcomes Associated with SOP

SOP has been found to explain attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of individuals. SOP has been studied in different disciplines such as environmental psychology (Derr, 2002; Egoz, Bowring, & Perkins, 2006; Mehnen, Mose, & Strijker, 2013), online platforms (Goel, Johnson, Junglas, & Ives, 2011; Mamonov, Koufaris, & Benbunan-Fich, 2016), marketing (Allen, 2011; Campelo, Aitken, Thyne, & Gnoth, 2014; Durie et al., 2006), tourism (Amsden, Stedman, & Kruger, 2010; Kianicka et al., 2006), and management aspect (Inalhan & Finch, 2004; Rooney et al., 2010).

In term of environmental psychology, Stedman (1999) found that SOP among the residents was the important factor in sustaining the community. Venables, Pidgeon, Parkhill, Henwood, and Simmons (2012) discovered that SOP of people who live in dangerous environment such as a nuclear power plant led to lower risk perception toward the community. Mehnen et al. (2013) reviewed the governance and SOP in restricted area such as the nature parks and revealed that the place attachment among the local people were very strong and it led to pro-environmental behavior. Larson, De Freitas, and Hicks (2013) investigated the relationship between SOP and people's attitude toward natural resources, particularly, the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. They found that SOP influenced people's attitude and commitment toward an environmental resource. C.-C. Lin and Lockwood (2014) also explored SOP in the natural locations and found that when people formed place attachment, they would devote substantial time and money to protect the particular place that was meaningful for them. McCunn and Gifford (2014) found that residents who developed high SOP tended to attach and have strong commitment with their neighborhoods. Poe et al. (2016) studied SOP through the ecosystem-based management (EBM) and suggested that when people develop SOP, they tend to support the ecosystem restoration; thus, it leads to healthy ecosystem for the residents.

Additionally, SOP received attention from the online perspective. For example, Goel et al. (2011) explored SOP as one of the predicting factors for user's intentions to return to virtual spheres. Mamonov et al. (2016) use the sense of community theory to

explain why some social networking sites fail while some succeed. They found that SOP is a fundamental factor to increase the sense of community; thus, SOP helps sustaining the social networking sites. SOP is also significant in business-related context. As for marketing and branding, a specific place is viewed as the destination brand. For example, Hede and Watne (2013) found that SOP stimulated the sense of belonging in the consumers toward the brand of craft breweries. Brocato et al. (2015) found that the service company could develop strong bonding with the customers through SOP because it led to place attachment.

In term of tourism perspectives, Amsden et al. (2010) examined the relationship between residents and place attachment in the tourism dependent community and found that place attachment led to the growth of the community and it influenced people's behavior to participate and engage in that community. J. Y. Chung, Kyle, Petrick, and Absher (2011) investigated how SOP has impact on the willingness to pay to visit a natural resource. They found that place identity influenced the willingness to pay, but place dependence did not show the significant affect. Morrison and Dowell (2015) found the similar results that there was a significant relationship between place identity and willingness to pay in order to conserve cultural resources. Another main finding was that the more people identified with the cultural resources, the more frequent they tended to visit that places, but, there was no significant relationship between place dependence and number of visits.

However, there were only few studies that applied SOP to management and work-related contexts. For example, Inalhan and Finch (2004) studied about the place attachment and sense of belonging in the workplaces through longitudinal case study. They found that attachment to the previous workplace was the factor on how people reacted and had resistant to the new working environment. Miller, Erickson, and Yust (2001) studied SOP in the workplace and found that the interior design could lead to good working climate; thus, it led to job satisfaction and employee engagement.

2.1.5. Sense of Place in the Context of Migrant Workers

SOP can be applied to expatriates, migrants, and asylum job seekers. This is because these people need to be away from their former habitat in order to work and live in a new location. Even though scholars have concurred that individuals who need to relocate to different places may experience stress and resentment (Entrikin, 1991; Sharpe & Ewert, 2000), they can develop SOP toward different locations at the same time. According to Du (2017), SOP can be changed over time and does not limit to a single location. It is supported by the study of Gustafson (2001) which stated that the social connection and emotional involvements of a person are not limited to a particular place. Usually, people who move to a new location will reconnect and attach to the new place they reside to. When these people relocate to a new place, they can still attach to the previously dislocated place and also form attachment to a new place concurrently. It is in line with the recent study of Du (2017) which found that Chinese migrants can develop SOP towards both their hometown and the new place at the same time.

The concept of SOP is also particularly important for migrant workers because these individuals also need to relocate to new places. Empirical evidence about SOP in migrant workers have been reported in many studies. For example, Mazumdar et al. (2000) studied SOP among the Vietnamese – American ethic people in particular setting in California. They found that the ethic community has strong connection with a migrant's place identity. Derrien and Stokowski (2014) did the study about Bosnian migrants in Vermont and found that it took time for people to develop SOP with new place and SOP was developed through different learning stages over time. Qian and Zhu (2014) studied about SOP among Chinese urban migrants and concluded that place identity was not a fundamental factor in determining migrant's place attachment to the community center; whereas, the social bonding was found to create place dependence among migrants toward the culture center. Nevertheless, so far SOP studies among migrants were not focused on the setting of working atmosphere and management framework and there is still no study on the determinant of SOP in the workplace.

2.2 Concept of Transformational Leadership

The concept of transformational leadership was introduced by James MacGregor Burns in year 1978. Burns (1978) suggested that leadership involves inducing followers to act for specific objectives that characterize the value and the inspiration of both leaders and followers. Burns (1978) additionally proposed that the leader – follower interaction can be categorized into transactional and transformation. Transactional leadership is the traditional leadership style which involves meeting the needs of their people, but not focusing on inspiring them (Davidson, Wood, & Griffin, 2009). On the other hand, transformational leadership refers to the leaders with certain characteristics which motivate and inspire their followers to achieve the far-reaching organizational goals (Gregory Stone et al., 2004). While transactional leadership emphasizes on the exchange of good and services between leaders and subordinates, transformational leadership focuses on the moral, the ethical, and the motivation of both leaders and subordinates (Burns, 1978). Moreover, transaction leadership tends to drive the employees to achieve the targets in exchange of reward, whereas transformational leadership tends to motivate and inspire their people to achieve far beyond the original target (Northouse, 2016).

Bernard M Bass (1985) extended Burns' study and suggested that transformational leadership augments the impact of transactional leadership on subordinates. According to Bernard (1990), transformational leadership occurs when leaders enlarge and raise the interests of their followers, when they make their followers aware of the objectives and mission of the group, and when they stimulate their followers to think beyond their self-interest and concern more on the group as a whole. The leaders attend to individual employee and transform them to aim for the benefit of overall organization rather than focusing on themselves (Gregory Stone et al., 2004).

Bass and Avolio (Bernard M Bass, 1985; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1990) built on the foundation of transformational leadership not only from Burns (1978), but also from the study of other scholars such as Bennis and Nanus (1985). Bennis and Nanus

(1985) suggested four approaches used by transformational leadership. First, transformational leaders must have a clear vision of appealing, convincing, and promising future. Second, transformational leaders are the social architects for the company by developing and setting the practices of the people within their company. Third, transformational leaders create trust in the company by being consistent and reliable. Lastly, transformational leaders learn their weakness and focus on their strengths to achieve the ambitious goals (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). In essence, transformational leaders inspire their followers with encouraging future.

According to Hunt (2017), transformational leadership theories have developed and changed the initial focus from measuring the leaders' high ethical conduct to achieving the organizational objectives instead. Many scholars stated that transformational leadership main concern is on achieving the company's goal. For example, Burns (1998) and Yukl (1999) stated that transformational leadership's primary emphasis is to drive and enhance employee performance to achieve the organizational objectives. Gregory Stone et al. (2004) suggested that transformational leadership's central focus is to inspire and motivate their followers to achieve the organizational goals. Transformational leadership's main concern is to get their people to involve and care for the objectives of the company.

Transformational leadership is also associated with positive interaction between the leaders and the followers. For example, according to Gregory Stone et al. (2004), transformational leaders acknowledge and appreciate their people, listens, coach, instruct, as well as delegate their works to their team members. Hunt (2017) also identified transformational leaders as the leaders with humane orientation which shows concern for being fair, compassionate, and altruistic.

Fundamentally, from above reviews, transformational leadership is associated with creating and communicating the vision, having high ethical conduct, being the role model, inspiring and motivating people to achieve a far-reaching goal, and showing individualized concern to particular follower. The characteristics of transformational leadership are discussed in detail in the following section.

2.2.1 Characteristics of Transformational Leadership

Bernard M Bass (1985) proposed four characteristics of transformational leadership which are idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration.

2.2.1.1 Idealized Influence

The first characteristic of transformational leadership is idealized influence. Idealized influence refers to the appealing characteristics of the leaders that are respected, valued and imitated by their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994). Northouse (2016) also stated in his book that these leaders usually have high moral and ethical value; thus, are believed to perform the right things. According to Bernard M Bass and Riggio (2006), idealized influence is divided into two dimensions, namely; attributional dimension and behavioral dimension. Attributional dimension refers to how the followers perceive the attributes of their leaders, whereas behavioral dimension refers to particular behaviors of the leaders that the followers can directly notice (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Northouse, 2016).

Formally, idealized influence was entitled as charisma, but it was renamed to make it more neutral to avoid the extreme connotation of idolization (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994). However, it is still referring to the charismatic qualities of the leader. The term "charisma" was introduced by Weber (1947) who refers to it as a particular talent that not everyone has. Originally, Bass (1985) referred charisma as the emotional aspect of the leaders and it has very strong effects on the followers. House (1976) also described charisma as the emotional reciprocity between leaders and followers.

The transformation leaders emphasize on their charismatic natures to motivate the followers emotionally. For example, Weber (1947) stated that leaders used charismatic authorities to create emotional appeal to make the followers willing to do

what the leader instruct them. B. M. Bass (1960) also mentioned that charisma is a source of personal power. According to Elzioni (1961), leaders exercise the symbolic power, also known as charisma, to create commitment among the followers. It is supported by Gregory Stone et al. (2004) that transformational leaders build on their charismatic talents. Bernard M Bass and Avolio (1994) stated that this component of transformational leadership creates emotional bonding among leaders and followers. According to Day and Antonakis (2012), charismatic leaders can form a deep emotional attachment with their followers by using persuasive communication and guarantee for superior future. It is supported by Newman and Butler (2014) that this leadership component results from the ability of the leaders to influence their followers emotionally. Many scholars also defined idealized influence leaders as the role models who are admired and respected by their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bernard M Bass, 1999; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994). For example, Bernard M Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that transformational leaders with idealized influence characteristic behave in a way that lead their subordinates to perceive them as the role models.

Leaders who are characterized by idealized influence can build trust and gain respect from the followers through many aspects. For example, many scholars stated that followers show a high level of trust toward a leader with this characteristic (Bernard, 1990; Jung & Avolio, 2000). In a more recent study, Yıldız and Şimşek (2016) mentioned that transformational leaders with individualized influence characteristic perform high moral behaviors, which lead the followers to respect and have confidence in their leaders. Abdullah and Varatharajoo (2017) affirmed that leaders with high idealized influence possess strong self-confidence as they tend to coach and motivate their subordinates to work proficiently to achieve the organizational objectives. According to Gardner and Avolio (1998), charismatic leaders create a solid sense of vision to gain faith and admired from the followers. Many scholars stated that transformational leaders with idealized influence quality are respected, appreciated, and trusted by their followers because of their leadership qualities such as risk taking, concern for individual follower, and high ethical standard (Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006; C. Williams, 2013). With these qualities, the followers will

identify with their leaders and imitate their paths (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006). Several scholars stated that these leaders value their followers and build their self-esteem to achieve their potential. In turn, the followers form their trust and loyal to their leaders (de Vries, 2001; Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). Transformational leaders also use their idealized influence to encourage the followers to gear toward the organizational goals and instigate their willingness to achieve the organization objectives (Abdullah & Varatharajoo, 2017).

2.2.1.2   Inspirational Motivation

The second characteristic of transformational leadership is inspirational motivation. (Northouse, 2016) defined leaders with inspiration motivation as "leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the organization". According to Day and Antonakis (2012), the leaders with inspirational motivation quality encourage and inspire their followers to achieve the previously unreachable targets. These kinds of leader encourage and inspire their followers by "providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work" (Avolio & Bass, 2001) p.2. It is supported by Hellriegel and Slocum (2009) that these leaders display the positive future to their followers and inspire them to focus on reaching the determined objectives. Abdullah and Varatharajoo (2017) mentioned in their study that these leaders tend to challenge their followers by motivating them to perform difficult tasks and create the excitement in putting more effort to achieve those tasks. Northouse (2016) also mentioned that leaders with this characteristic emotionally motivate their followers to surpass their self-interest in order to focus more on achieving the higher organizational goals; thus, it enhances the team spirit.

2.2.1.3   Intellectual Stimulation

The third characteristic of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. Day and Antonakis (2012) stated the intellectual stimulation component as the logical and unemotional aspects of transformational leadership. According to Bernard M Bass

(1990), the transformational leaders with intellectual stimulation quality are those leaders who supports the followers to use their logics to put effort in using new methods to solve the problems. For this aspect of transformational leadership, the fundamental part is not just the problem-solving skill of the followers, but also those of the leaders (Abdullah & Varatharajoo, 2017). The leaders need to be keen on problem solving ability. Yıldız and Şimşek (2016) also identified that these leaders build the innovative working environment to support the followers to question the leaders and come up with new methods. They see the problems as the meaningful opportunities and they emphasize on continuous learning (Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016). Gregory Stone et al. (2004) stated that the leaders encourage the followers to be creative and they will not criticize the follower's mistake openly in public. By doing so, the followers are stimulated to be innovative and come up with new ideas without getting negative consequences. It is accordance with Avolio and Bass (2001) which suggested that the leaders with intellectual stimulation quality motivate their followers to put effort in challenging traditional way of problem solving, looking to problem with new perspectives, and be innovative.

2.2.1.4 Individualized Consideration

The last characteristic of transformational leadership is individualized consideration. The leaders with individualized consideration display the ability to attend to each follower's need, capability, and goal (Avolio, 1999). According to Yukl (2011), these leaders encourage, support, and help their followers to boost self-confidence and professional development individually so that they can achieve their goals. Hunt (2017) stated that these leaders usually demonstrate altruistic behaviors such as helping, inspiring, and coaching. These leaders need to act as mentor and coach to encourage and support their followers (Bernard M Bass, 1985; Hunt, 2017). Given the aforementioned characteristics of these leaders, they can lead to the supportive environment between leaders and followers by focusing on special consideration of each follower such as their needs (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006).

2.2.2. Review of Related Transformational Leadership Literatures and Outcomes Associated with Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership has been studied considerably and received noticeably attention from scholars. For example, charismatic leadership and transformational leadership were very famous among researchers and appeared a lot in leadership journals (Lowe & Gardner, 2000). Day and Antonakis (2012) also mentioned that the number of articles citing transformational leadership has been increasing. Transformational leadership has been studied in many areas and previous papers identified numerous positive work attitudes such as organizational and employee commitment (Ahmad et al., 2017; Jain & Duggal, 2016; Hougyun Kim, 2014; Long et al., 2016; Malik, Javed, & Hassan, 2017; Newman & Butler, 2014; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015; Rowold et al., 2014), job satisfaction (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013; Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016; Malik et al., 2017; Ölçer, 2015; Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016) and organizational citizenship behavior (Bottomley, Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & León-Cázares, 2016; L. Y. Lee, Veasna, & Wu, 2013; Moon, 2016). Transformational leadership also found to reduce the intention to quit (Alatawi, 2017; Alkharabsheh, Alias, Ismail, & Hanapiah, 2017; Almandeel, 2017; Jauhar, Ting, Rahim, & Fareen, 2017; Waldman, Carter, & Hom, 2015). Previous research also provide support that transformational leadership can boost individual, team, and organizational performances (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004; Gyanchandani, 2017; Iqbal, Long, Fei, & Bukhari, 2015; Jyoti & Bhau, 2015; Tabassi, Roufechaei, Bakar, & Yusof, 2017; Uddin, Rahman, & Howladar, 2017). Moreover, scholars reported that transformational leadership was found to enhance the organizational identity (Epitropaki, 2003; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Horstmeier, Boer, Homan, & Voelpel, 2017; Schuh et al., 2012; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011; Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Transformational leadership also provides benefit in enhancing the expatriate adjustment (L. Y. Lee et al., 2013; Taiwan, Na-Nan, & Ngudgratoke, 2017). Additionally, scholars revealed that transformational leadership can foster diversity in the workplace (Ayoko & Konrad, 2012; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Kunze & Bruch, 2010; Moon, 2016; S. J. Shin & Zhou, 2007).

The summary of outcome of transformational leadership found in various papers are presented in table 1 below.

Table 2.1 Summary of Research Outcomes Associated with Transformational
         Leadership

Context	Authors	Findings of the Research
Positive Work Attitudes	Ölçer (2015)	The more employees in banking industry recognized their leaders as being transformation, the higher levels of their job satisfaction. They also found that all dimensions of transformational leadership strongly influenced employee's satisfaction as well as their commitment.
	Malik et al. (2017)	The job satisfaction and commitment of employees in Islamic banking business of Pakistan were strongly influenced by transformational leadership.
	Dwyer et al. (2013)	The groups of volunteers who were supervised by transformational leader tended to have higher job satisfaction.
	Gangai and Agrawal (2017)	Transformational leadership could enhance employee engagement in private service industry.
	Hougyun Kim (2014)	Transformational leadership has strong influence on affective commitment in South Korea context.
	Rowold et al. (2014)	Transformational leadership was the most essential aspect for commitment for both for profit and nonprofit sectors.
	Newman and	Transformational leadership has strong

Context	Authors	Findings of the Research
	Butler (2014)	influence on affective commitment under the context of Chinese hospitality business in Zhejiang province in China.
	Pradhan and Pradhan (2015)	There was the significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' affective organizational commitment as well as their contextual performance in IT business in India.
	Top, Akdere, and Tarcan (2015)	Transformational leadership was a strong determinant of organizational commitment of private sector employees.
	Long et al. (2016)	There was a significant influence of transformational leadership, especially the inspirational motivation aspect, on affective commitment.
	Jain and Duggal (2016)	Charisma characteristics of transformational leadership found to have the strongest influence on organizational commitment under the context of IT industry in India.
	Ahmad et al. (2017)	Transformational leadership has strong influence on organizational commitment in public organizations.
	L. Y. Lee et al. (2013)	Transformational leadership was a strong determinant of organizational citizenship behavior among the respondents of 1,100 employees in Korea.
Intention to Quit	Waldman et al. (2015)	The intention to quit among Chinese employees was reduced if the leaders

Context	Authors	Findings of the Research
		possessed transformational leadership qualities.
	Alkharabsheh et al. (2017)	There was a negative relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention among nurses in Jordanian public hospitals.
	Jauhar et al. (2017)	Transformational leadership had a significant negative influence on the intention to quit of generation Y employees in the oil and gas industry.
	Alatawi (2017)	There was a strong negative association between transformational leadership and turnover intention among employees in Southern California.
Job Performance and Team Performance	Iqbal et al. (2015)	Transformational leadership qualities of the project managers in Pakistan higher education area found to increase the project success.
	Uddin et al. (2017)	Transformational leadership was found to benefit the job performance in Bangladesh context.
	Tabassi et al. (2017)	The leaders with transformational leadership characteristics led to higher team performance.
	Gyanchandani (2017)	The leader from IT industry in Pune with transformational leadership qualities promoted work involvement and resulted in higher team performance.
Leadership Effectiveness	Louw, Muriithi, and Radloff (2017)	Transformational leadership characteristics had a strong impact on leadership

Context	Authors	Findings of the Research
		effectiveness under the context of banking industry in Kenya.
Learning	Khan and Ismail (2017)	Many aspects of transformational leadership strongly influenced the individual outcomes among employees of various companies in India.
	Balwant (2016)	The instructors with transformational leadership qualities were strongly associated with students' affective learning and cognitive learning.
Fairness	Bacha and Walker (2013)	Out of three types of fairness (distributive, procedural, and interactional), transformational leadership was found to have strong relationship with procedural and interactional fairness in French companies.
Innovation	Doost, Maryan, Gharavi, and Yazdi (2017)	Transformational leadership has strong impact on innovative work behaviors of employee in insurance business.
	Uddin et al. (2017)	Transformational leadership was the predictor of organizational innovation.
	Gyanchandani (2017)	The leaders with transformational leadership characteristics promoted the creative working environments in IT sector.
Organizational identity	Epitropaki and Martin (2005)	Transformational leadership had significant positive impact on organizational identity of services employees.
	Zhu et al. (2012)	Transformational leadership was the predictor of the organizational identity.
	Horstmeier et al.	Transformational leadership was

Context	Authors	Findings of the Research
	(2017)	significantly related to leader identification, team identification, and organizational identification.
Expatriate adjustment	L. Y. Lee et al. (2013)	Transformational leadership was found to enhance the adjustment and performance of expatriate managers of Taiwanese multinational company in China.
	Taiwan et al. (2017)	Transformational leadership has strong influence on the adjustment of expatriates in International Schools Association of Thailand.
Diversity	Moon (2016)	Transformational leadership climate in the U.S. Federal Government encouraged diverse workers to perform beyond their job duties.
	Kearney and Gebert (2009)	The high level of transformational leadership among the diversity of nationalities and educational backgrounds led to high team performance under the context of R&D teams in a multinational pharmaceutical company in Germany. However, the high level of transformational leadership among the age diversity team did not significantly influence the team performance.
	Kunze and Bruch (2010)	Transformational leadership was found to enhance productivity and performance of age diversity team in multinational company.

2.3 Organizational Climate

According to Moran and Volkswein (1992), the organizational climate or corporate climate is defined as the mutual perceptions, mindsets, and feelings that organizational members view as the essential components of the organizations, which

represent the standards, beliefs, and manners of the organizational culture that can affect people behaviors in a positive or negative way. Boh and Wong (2013) added that organizational climate refers to the practices and processes that can be observed by the employees.

Scholars view workplace climate in two perspectives which are generalized climate and facet-specific climate (Anderson & West, 1998; Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003; B Schneider, Bowen, Erhart, & Holcombe, 2000). The first perspective is defined as generalized or molar organizational climate (L. R. James et al., 2008; Benjamin Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Organizational molar climate suggests the general perception of employees whether their company offers a positive work atmosphere (Benjamin Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013). It refers to how people view organizational climate as a whole which emphasizes on multi-dimensional aspects of how individuals perceive the management's policies and practices such as supervisor support and concern for employee's wellbeing (Carr et al., 2003; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004). Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo (1990) proposed that the generalized organizational climate composed of five components. The first component is goal emphasis, which refers to goals set by the management that employees are expected to accomplish. The second component is mean emphasis, which refers to the task processes that the employees are expected to perform. The third component is reward orientation, which refers to the distribution of rewards according to the performance. The fourth is task support, which means the extent to which the employees perceive they are offered with needed resources to perform their task. The last component is socioemotional support, which means the degree that the employees feel the management cares about their personal wellbeing.

On the other hand, scholars proposed that the organizational climate can be viewed as a specific type of climate (L. R. James et al., 2008; Benjamin Schneider & Reichers, 1983). The second perspective is the facet-specific climate or domain-specific climate which emphasizes on the unidimensional aspect of organizational climate that investigates only one specific facet of the organizational objective and its association with certain outcome (Anderson & West, 1998; Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; B

Schneider et al., 2000). For example, Benjamin Schneider and Reichers (1983) suggested that there are numerous organizational climates in the workplace such as procedural justice climate (X. Lin, 2015; Y. Shin, 2012), ethical climate (K. D. Martin & Cullen, 2006; Treviño, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998), innovation climate (C.-J. Chen, Huang, & Hsiao, 2010), trust climate (Brahm & Kunze, 2012), employee involvement climate (Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2016), work-family climate (O'Neill et al., 2009), motivational climate (Nerstad, Roberts, & Richardsen, 2013), team climate (Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008), service climate (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), and safety climate (Griffin & Neal, 2000; Schwatka & Rosecrance, 2016).

The organizational climate plays an important role in the workplace. It specifies how things are done in certain work setting (Villamizar Reyes & Castañeda Zapata, 2014). In particular, the organizational climate influences the employee's behavior in workplace (Carlucci & Schiuma, 2012). Permarupan, Saufi, Kasim, and Balakrishnan (2013) stated that the organizational climate proved to motivate employees to be more productive as well as having more passion for their work and leads to better customer relationship. When employees perceive the organizational climate as positive, they demonstrate positive work behaviors (Taştan & Güçel, 2014). Previous literatures also provided support that favorable organizational climates such as trust climate and justice climate have the significant relationship to various positive work outcomes such as job satisfaction (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; K. D. Martin & Cullen, 2006), organizational commitment (Luthans et al., 2008; Treviño et al., 1998), knowledge sharing behaviors (X. Lin, 2015), organizational citizenship behavior and financial performance (Y. Shin, 2012), innovative behavior (C.-J. Chen et al., 2010), and safety work behaviors (Griffin & Neal, 2000; Schwatka & Rosecrance, 2016). Positive organizational climate was also found to reduce turnover intention, perceived stress, and absenteeism (Hemingway & Smith, 1999; X. Lin, 2015). On the contrary, negative perception toward the organizational climate can cause employees to express counterproductive work behaviors (Taştan & Güçel, 2014). For example, in the organization where bullying is prevalent, the employees are likely to demonstrate

negative work behaviors such as absenteeism and turnover (Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2011).

2.3.1 Supportive Diversity Climate

Although there are many types of climates, this research focuses on supportive diversity climate which is suitable to be applied to the context of Myanmar workers in Thailand. The supportive diversity climate refers to shared perceptions among workforces that employees are treated equally and are united into workplace setting without considering about their attributes or backgrounds (McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). McKay, Avery, and Morris (2008) characterized a pro-diversity climate as an organization that support a diversity-friendly work setting. McKay et al. (2007) additionally suggested that in this type of organization, the top leaders show commitment to diversity and value different viewpoints. Moreover, equality in the workplace with supportive diversity climate tend to be promoted. For example, studies found that in a supportive diversity climate, the organization respects, values, and appreciates all employees regardless of their backgrounds (Y. Chung et al., 2015; McKay et al., 2008). Y. Chung et al. (2015) also stated that all employees receive the same opportunity for the career advancement in the organization that practices supportive diversity climate. Additionally, members in organizations with supportive diversity climate are less likely to have biased perceptions and stereotype of other members from different background (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Ernst Kossek, Markel, & McHugh, 2003; Tsui & Gutek, 1999).

Prior literatures provided support to the benefit of supportive diversity climate in the workplace on various positive work attitudes and behaviors. For example, McKay, Avery, and Morris (2009) added that the organization with supportive diversity climate helps lessen anxiety among individuals from different social settings. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) reported that the supportive diversity climate was found to increase employees' morale. The supportive diversity climate was also proved to enhance employee's motivation (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000). McKay et al. (2008) reported that the supportive diversity climate is positively

related to the sale performance among employees with ethnic diversity. In a more recent study, Y. Chung et al. (2015) collected data from employees in 22 countries and found that supportive diversity climate is positively related to increased employee loyalty. Scholars also suggested that the diversity climate has influence on the extent to which individuals perceive that they are similar to or different from other group members, which can affect the degree of identification that people develop with others in the workplace (Ely & Thomas, 2001). In a less supportive diversity climate, individuals view themselves dissimilar from others, thereby causing conflicts and separation between groups (McKay & Avery, 2005). Opposingly, the perceived cohesion and perceived similarities among different groups are strengthened in a supportive diversity climate (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; McKay & Avery, 2005).

2.3.2 The Role of Leadership in Organizational Climate

Given that the organizational climate affects the employees, the leaders need to consider having the right climate in the workplace. It is supported by Litwin and Stringer (1968) who mentioned that the organizational climate can aid the leaders to consider the positive or negative outcomes of the organizational policies and practices. In particular, top management has a strong influence on the organizational climate in many ways. These can be explained by the institutional theory proposed by Scott (1995). The institutional theory explains the various social forces that the company needs to face in order to embrace and decide on organizational structures (P. DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; P. J. DiMaggio & Powell, 1991). Institutional theory also emphasizes a role of leader which can have an impact on organizational structure and policy (Choi & Chang, 2009). It is accordance with the notion from Scott (1995) who pointed out that the institutional enablers, such as leadership, structure, and resources, form the perception and behavior of organizational members by giving meaning to a situation, which offers members with standards that enforce a particular behavior and control their actions. Many scholars also supported the same idea that leaders are considered to be the institutional enablers. For example, various scholars agreed that the top management is a major institutional enabler because they can essentially influence the institutional setting (Choi & Chang, 2009; Purvis et al., 2001). It is

supported by Grojean, Resick, Dickson, and Smith (2004) and Jay P Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2009) who stated that top managers are the dominant institutional enabler who plays a substantial function in shaping corporate culture, climate, and followers' mindsets.

Previous studies also provided the link between leadership and organizational climate. In particular, scholars suggested that the regulation, policies, and practices initiated by the top management influence the organizational climate (Ngo, Foley, & Loi, 2009). Many scholars also stated that the leaders influence the follower's perception of climate because they execute the company's policy (Zohar, 2000, 2002; Zohar & Luria, 2004). It is supported by the notion that because top management or leaders endorses ethical principles, institute the reward and control procedures, and smooth the work connections (Valentine, Greller, & Richtermeyer, 2006), these shape the behaviors of individuals in the workplace through the setting of work climate (Koh & El'Fred, 2001). It is also in line with the study of Offermann and Malamut (2002) who mentioned that the leaders set and implement the organizational policy in order to stimulate preferred performance among the followers, thereby influencing the perception of the followers to form a specific climate. Evidence about the influence of leaders on organizational climate is also reported in literature. For example, Y. Shin, Sung, Choi, and Kim (2015) proposed in their study that top management ethical leadership is considered to be an institutional enabler for ethical practices as they articulate moral standards and form the moral and justice climate in the company; thus, the justice climate is formed in the workplace. Moreover, a study of Beu and Buckley (2004) showed that when the leaders promote fairness and equal treatments to all employees, the positive climate is established. Several scholars also supported that decent working relationships between management and employees lead to positive organizational climate (Luthans et al., 2008; Pyman, Holland, Teicher, & Cooper, 2010).

2.4 **Trust in Leader**

Scholars identified trust in different viewpoints. Rotter (1967) defined trust as the expectation of an individual which believes that he or she can rely on another person's word, promise, verbal and written statement. Sitkin and Roth (1993) defined trust in a more task-related viewpoint that trust is a belief that an individual is competence to execute a particular job under particular settings. Gambetta (2000) viewed trust as the intended choice of a person to collaborate with certain people. Differently, other scholars did not view trust as a choice, but rather the exchange of the emotion and behavior. For example, Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) focused on the psychological perspective of trust. Rousseau et al. (1998, p.395) conceptualized trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another". Similarly, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) defined trust as the expectation of an individual believing that another person will conduct a specific action significant to him or her. According to their definition of trust, trust is viewed as the exchange of the relationship between people. This is also consistent with Klaussner (2012) who also viewed trust as a reciprocate manner.

Although trust is conceptualized at different levels in the organization (Costigan, Iiter, & Berman, 1998; McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992), this study focuses on the trust that organizational members develop with their leader. According to Y. F. Yang (2014), the trust in leader refers to the willingness of the followers to rely on their leaders. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) proposed that there are three groups for antecedents of trust, which are; leader actions and practices, traits of subordinates, and characteristics of leader-subordinate relationship. Scholars also suggested leaders' characteristic that predict leadership trust such as benevolence (Larzelere & Huston, 1980; L. Solomon, 1960) and integrity (Butler Jr, 1991; Lieberman, 1981).

According to Dirks and Ferrin (2002), trust in leadership can be viewed under two perspectives. The first one is relationship-based perspective which refers to the relationship between leaders and followers. Based on this perspective, trust in

leadership is developed through social exchange process (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). For example, if the followers feel that their leaders care and considerate for them, they are likely to reciprocate by performing positive behaviors (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Additionally, when the subordinates perceive that the leaders treat them fairly, they develop trust toward their leaders (Klaussner, 2012). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) also added that trust from this perspective is developed from a shared relationship over a period of time. On the other hand, the second perspective of trust, which is character-based perspective, emphasizes on the follower's observation of the leader's character and how it impacts the follower's feeling of vulnerability (Mayer et al., 1995). According to this perspective, the followers have assumption about the characteristics of the leaders such as truthfulness, reliability, fairness, and capability and these assumptions have impact on attitudinal and work outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Moreover, Mayer et al. (1995) also stated that the employees trust their leaders when they perceive that their leaders have trustworthiness, competence, or kindness.

Literatures suggests that there are many benefits that can be obtained when subordinates develop trust toward their leaders. Scholars supported that trust in leadership is considered to be one of the most important aspects in management research because it has significant influence on subordinates' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (K. W. Chan, Huang, & Ng, 2008; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). For example, scholars reported that trust in leader was found to boost team's performance (Dirks, 2000) and teamwork (Y. J. Cho & Poister, 2014). Previous research also found that trust in leader has significant relationship with job satisfaction (Y. F. Yang, 2014), organizational commitment (Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2014), organizational citizenship behavior (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), and employee's participation in problem solving (Li, Nahm, Wyland, Ke, & Yan, 2015). Moreover, previous research supported that trust in leader was negatively related to organizational deviance (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013). Trust in leader was also found to reduce perceived work stress (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010) and turnover intention (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

2.5   **Turnover Intention**

Tett and Meyer (1993) defined turnover intention as the deliberate and careful inclination to leave an organization. DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, and Ingerson (2012) and Loquercio, Hammersley, and Emmens (2006) added that a person with turnover intention has willpower to terminate the employment with the organization. According to Amankwaa and Anku-Tsede (2015), there are two types of turnover; namely, voluntary or involuntary turnover. The first one is voluntary turnover which refers to the decision of employees deciding to leave the company on voluntary basis (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsede, 2015). On the other hand, involuntary turnover is the termination of the employment without the consent of the employees (Hung, Lee, & Lee, 2018). In particular, this research conceptualizes turnover intention as voluntary turnover. Although turnover intention is a perception, scholars proposed that turnover intention is a vital indicator of actual turnover and it is the final stage before the employee actually leave the company (Shim, 2010; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Tromp, van Rheede, and Blomme (2010) also suggested that reducing turnover intention is an effective way to reduce actual employee turnover.

Previous research provide support that the turnover intention can cause the negative consequences for the companies (Ali, 2008; Chapman, 1993; Vance, 2006; Wöcke & Heymann, 2012). For example, turnover intention may lead to high expenses in term of recruiting and training new employees (Cascio, 2000; Wöcke & Heymann, 2012). Turnover intention is also found to decrease the productivity and employee engagement due to the work overload and burnout among the remaining employees (L. James & Mathew, 2012; Kumar & Dhamodaran, 2013). Additionally, the management's effort has been wasted as a result of turnover intention (Catherine, 2002).

Literatures suggested that there are various predictors of turnover intention. For example, Hansung Kim and Stoner (2008) reported that the job autonomy and social support have negative relationship with turnover intention. Paré and Tremblay (2007)

and George and Wallio (2017) found that fair rewards reduced turnover intention. Albrecht (2006) proposed that organizational fairness, trust in leaders, job satisfaction, as well as affective commitment have significant effect on turnover intention. Moreover, various scholars proposed different predictors of turnover intention such as leadership characteristics (S. Bhattacharya, 2008; Campion, 1991; Furtado, Batista, & Silva, 2011; Kleinman, 2004; Tepper, 2000), organizational characteristics (Al-Shbiel, Ahmad, Al-Shbail, Al-Mawali, & Al-Shbail, 2018; Hung et al., 2018), work characteristics (Abate, Schaefer, & Pavone, 2018; Coetzee & van Dyk, 2018), and personal characteristics of employees (Almandeel, 2017; Teng et al., 2017).

2.6 Theories

There are two theories that will be used to explain why transformational leaders can influence positive work attitudes and SOP of employees. The explanation regarding how each of these two theories can support the hypotheses will be explained below.

2.6.1 Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory was introduced by Blau (1964). Reciprocity is the principal aspect of the social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960). The premise of this theory is that when an individual receives favor from others, he or she wants to return something back in similar fashion in the future (Jia et al., 2007). The reciprocity in the social exchange cannot be bargained and it depends on the preference of both parties involve (Blau, 1964) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Blau (1964) identified two types of exchange relationships: social and economic exchanges. According to Blau (1964), economic resources refer to anything that have financial value such as compensation, perk, or promotion, while social resources refer to socioemotional aspects such as guidance, support, obedience, care, respect, appreciation, admiration, social liking, love, and deference. The social exchange emphasizes on socio-

emotional resources over a long-time frame, while the economic exchange emphasizes on material or economic resources over a short period of time (Blau, 1964). Blau (1964) additionally proposed that the economic exchange usually results in low-quality relationships which focus on the employment contracts, whereas, social exchange results in high-quality relationship which produces the employees to oblige, gratitude, and trust their leaders.

In the workplace setting, individuals form several social exchange relationships (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The social exchange process in the workplace starts when a supervisor or coworker treat another person positively or negatively (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981). In the context of supervisor-subordinate relationship, for example, the positive treatments from the supervisors' side may refer to behaviors or attitudes such as social support (L. Y. Lee et al., 2013), respect (Blau, 1964; Ng, 2016), or justice (Cropanzano, Paddock, Rupp, Bagger, & Baldwin, 2008; Konovsky, 2000), while the negatives one may include offensive supervision (Tepper et al., 2009) or harassment (Lewis, 1999; Rayner & Keashly, 2005). When a supervisor provides favorable treatments to subordinates, subordinates tend to reciprocate by expressing positive attitudes and behaviors to the supervisor (Foa & Foa, 1980; Gouldner, 1960). Scholars also used the social exchange theory to explain various leaders' characteristics in relation to numbers of employee's positive work attitudes and behaviors. Those leadership's characteristics included but not limited to supportive behaviors (Hill, Morganson, Matthews, & Atkinson, 2016; L. Y. Lee et al., 2013), caring (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard, & Bhargava, 2012), fairness (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), benevolence (S. C. Chan & Mak, 2012), trust in subordinate (Byun, Dai, Lee, & Kang, 2017), and willingness to share resources (Delić, Kozarević, & Alić, 2017). Research found that employees who worked with leaders with these characteristics tended to demonstrate positive work outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (Cooper, Kong, & Crossley, 2018; Taylor, Bedeian, & Kluemper, 2012), safety citizenship behaviors (Reader, Mearns, Lopes, & Kuha, 2017), job satisfaction (Bagger & Li, 2014; Flaherty & Pappas, 2000), high job performance (Delić et al., 2017), constructive deviance (K. M. Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2016),

organizational trust (Jia et al., 2007), organizational commitment (Brunetto, Shacklock, Teo, & Farr-Wharton, 2014; Rhoades et al., 2001), employee cohesion and morale (Gupta & Bhal, 2017), knowledge sharing behavior (S. L. Kim, Han, Son, & Yun, 2017), creativity (Martinaityte & Sacramento, 2013; Xerri, 2013), and gratitude toward the organization (Ng, 2016). Favorable social exchange relationship between supervisors and subordinates was also found to reduce negative workplace behaviors such as harassment and bullying (Nelson et al., 2014) as well as turnover intention (Brunetto et al., 2014; Wei Tian, Cordery, & Gamble, 2016).

2.6.2 Social Identity Theory

The social identity theory was proposed by Tajfel and Turner (1979). According to the social identity theory, individuals tend to classify themselves and other people based on different categories such as membership in the organization, age, gender, religious (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This process of social classification performs two major purposes; first, to be the framework for people to express themselves and others, and second, to locate people concerning to the organization's setting and background (Bond & Seneque, 2012). Social identity theory also suggests that when an individual develops sense of belonging toward a particular group, he or she will identify himself or herself with that group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). According to Matherne, Kirk Ring, and McKee (2011), once identification is formed, individuals have unique connection with a particular group and have the feeling of "oneness"; therefore, they want to be the same as other group members and view things from the group's viewpoint.

The social identity composes of three components, namely; cognitive, affective, and evaluative (Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999; Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004). Firstly, the cognitive element indicates individuals' self-awareness of group belonging (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). The individuals may develop self-identity from the perceived similarity between self and other group members (C. B. Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). For example, individuals may identify themselves base on work membership, race, and gender (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992).

Secondly, the affective component refers to psychological attachment or commitment to a group (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2002). The individuals may develop self-identity from the positive feeling associated with other people such as honor, passion, and affinity (Fujita, Harrigan, & Soutar, 2018). Lastly, the evaluative component refers to individuals' foundation of self-esteem of how other people view the group (Ellemers et al., 1999).

Most of studies suggest that individuals tend to develop sense of identification with a group or an organization. However, some studies also suggest that people also develop identification with a person as well (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Kelman, 2017). For example, Hobman, Jackson, Jimmieson, and Martin (2011) stated that when individuals have high connection with a significant other, they define themselves to the characteristics of that particular person, hence, identification is formed. Consistently, Stock and Özbek-Potthoff (2014) stated that the employees' identification with their leader developed from the emotional connection with the leader. W. Lam, Lee, Taylor, and Zhao (2018) also found that the proactive personality of leader can leads to greater identification of followers.

The social identity has been employed to explain the reason why individuals develop emotional attachment and loyalty (Kuo & Hou, 2017; S. K. Lam, Ahearne, Hu, & Schillewaert, 2010). Previous literatures also provide support to the benefit of social identity theory to various positive work attitudes and behaviors such as collaboration (R. M. Kramer, 2006), stewardship behaviors (Matherne et al., 2011), job satisfaction (J. Cho, Ramgolam, Schaefer, & Sandlin, 2011; Myers, Davis, Schreuder, & Seibold, 2016), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002). The social identity theory can be explained in workplace context as well. For example, Griepentrog, Harold, Holtz, Klimoski, and Marsh (2012) found that applicants who highly identified with the firms were unlikely to withdraw from the recruiting process. In a more recent study, Conroy, Becker, and Menges (2017) reported that through the social identity theory, when individuals lowly identified with the organizations, they were likely to respond to negative emotions such as anger and guilt by leaving the organization.

2.7 Hypothesis Development

Based on the review of literature and related theories described earlier, this section will present theoretical and research supports to explain the linkage between the key variables propose in this research.

2.7.1 Transformation Leadership and SOP

This research proposes that the transformational leadership of top management can be related with SOP. The linkage between transformational leaders and SOP is drawn from the transformational leaders' ability to formulate and communicate visions for employees to make them develop attachment to the organization (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Scholars suggested that transformational leaders perform persuasive communication to inspire and motivate their followers (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Northouse, 2016) causing the followers to have faith and confidence in their transformational leaders (Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016). Transformational leaders also perform the key roles in forming and communicating their vision and mission throughout the organization as well as making sure that the employees are well understood and use organizational vision as a shared point of reference (Bogler & Nir, 2001). Prior research also supported that the transformational leaders create the mutual exchange between the organization and the employees by communicating compelling vision and mission (Jia et al., 2007). Klemm, Sanderson, and Luffman (1991) proposed that the mission statement does not only aims at communicating to the publics but also motivating employees inside the organization. Communicating an organizational vision is an important tool in inspiring and guiding the employee's behaviors (Dowling & Moran, 2012; Hirota, Kubo, Miyajima, Hong, & Won Park, 2010). According to Terry (1993), the organization vision reflects the sense of unity and represents mutual caring among individuals in the organization. Scholars suggested that mission and vision influence the perception of the employees (Campbell, 1997; Sahay & Nirjar, 2006; Sahay & Sharma, 2008). For example, Kantabutra and Avery (2010) stated that a strong vison also enhances the employee's self-worth and it is crucial to employee's satisfaction. Moreover, Collins and Porras

(2008) suggested that the organizational mission offers the tangible image of the future which reflects hope and ambition. Kirkpatrick (2017) proposed that vision is the source of inspiration.

The ability to formulate and communicate compelling vision and mission to employees can potentially develop strong connection with the organization, which can eventually develop into SOP. Scholars stated that the vision and mission derive from the corporate value (S Eric Anderson & Brad Jamison, 2015). A powerful vision obviously describes the future of the company which can inspire the employees to have commitment and develop sense of belonging toward the company (Kantabutra & Avery, 2010). Furthermore, Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) stated that when the transformational leaders share the organizational vision and mutual purpose, both transformational leaders and employees tend to form shared identification with their organization. Similarly, Leggat and Holmes (2015) suggested that shared organizational mission can foster employee's identification with the organization. Avolio, Sosik, Jung, and Berson (2003) suggested that transformational leaders communicate the vision and mission to transform the follower's prior perception to identify with the organization. The sense of belonging and identification induced by transformational leader can be linked to SOP of employees toward the organization which generally requires people to identify with the place and have the sense of belonging to that place (Du, 2017). Once the employees believe in the vision shared by the transformational leaders, they want to fit in and identify themselves with the organization. When identification and sense of belonging to the workplace are developed, SOP can be initiated as a result.

The linkage between transformational leadership of top management and SOP can also be explained through the lens of social identity theory. Based on the social identity theory, a person identifies with others that he or she has the sense of belonging to (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The transformational leaders possess many characteristics that may lead to the sense of belonging among their followers in several ways. For example, literature showed that the followers perceive their leaders as the role model that they want to emulate and identify with (Bernard M Bass &

Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006). When individuals identify with another person, it became an integral component of their self-concept (Horstmeier et al., 2017). Moreover, numerous scholars also supported the positive association between transformational leaders and employees' identification (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Kark et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). For example, Hogg (2001) suggested that transformational leaders can create employee's identification because of their proactiveness, motivational skill, and innovative. Walumbwa, Avolio, and Zhu (2008) also reported that the transformational leaders were positively related to the employee's identification with the work unit in the banking industry. Consistently, previous research also supported that transformational leadership is the predictor of organizational identity (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Horstmeier et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2012). For example, Kark and Shamir (2013) stated that the transformational leaders are capable of connecting the self-identity of the followers to the organizational mission so that the followers have emotional identification with the workplace. In addition, scholars suggested that transformational leaders inspire their followers to be part of the team and also motivate them to achieve the organizational goal, thereby influencing their identification with the organization (Kark et al., 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). Thus, with these qualities, the followers want to identify themselves with their leaders and the organization (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006). Because the transformational leaders have the ability to make their followers want to identify with them as well as with the organization as a whole, hence, it can be predicted that SOP of employees will be created as a result. Given all supports and evidences mentioned above, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership is positively related to SOP

2.7.2 Transformation Leadership and Supportive Diversity Climate

This study proposes that the transformational leadership of top management can be related to the supportive diversity climate. Grounded from the reviews on transformational leadership characteristics and features of supportive diversity climate, this study proposes three main reasons to support the linkage between the transformational leadership of top management and the supportive diversity climate in the organization. Firstly, transformational leaders characterized as the leaders that open to new things and encourage their followers to think differently as well as welcome new ideas (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Gregory Stone et al., 2004; Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016). Thus, these leaders can manage people from diverse backgrounds by receiving and accepting the differences. Secondly, because transformational leaders concern for individual employee and care for the specific need and requirement of each person (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006), they tend to be considerate and care for the followers from different credentials. According to Bernard M Bass (1999), these leaders are aware of the cultural differences and have empathy for people from different settings. Therefore, they do not judge others base on their frame of reference. These can lead to the supportive environment for the diversity climate to occur. Thirdly, because transformational leaders are characterized as having high ethical conduct and fairness (Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2016; C. Williams, 2013), it is unlikely that they will discriminate people based on certain characteristics such as ethics, races, ages, and genders. It is also supported by Hunt (2017) stating that transformational leadership is associated with the humane orientation in which leaders making decision fairly and consistently without discriminating against others. Given that the absence of discrimination is one of the key characteristics of diversity climate (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Tsui & Gutek, 1999), therefore, the diversity climate tends to be promoted under the supervision of transformational leaders. As a result, migrant workers may feel at ease and do not perceive themselves as out-group. Once individuals do not feel different from other people in the workplace, the diversity climate is promoted.

All supports and evidences mentioned above, it is expected that transformational leadership of top management may influence the supportive diversity climate in the

organization employing Myanmar migrant workers. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to the supportive diversity climate in the workplace.

2.7.3 Transformational Leadership and Trust

This study proposes that the transformational leadership of top management can be related to trust in leader. As mentioned earlier, trust in leaders can be developed in two perspectives; the relationship-based perspective and the character-based perspective. The transformational leaders can fulfill both aspects. Firstly, in term of the relationship-based perspective, trust is developed through the social exchange process (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). This perspective of trust building implies that when employees are treated well by the leaders, they tend to reciprocate their leaders by demonstrating gratitude and obliged to their organization (Wetzel, Hammerschmidt, & Zablah, 2014). Through the mutual emotional exchange between the transformational leaders and their followers, trust in leader can be developed (Blau, 1964). This is consistent with Seto and Sarros (2016) who suggested that psychological connection between the transformational leaders and followers can make followers develop trust in their leaders. Mutual emotional exchange that transformational leaders develop with their followers can occur in many ways. Yukl (1999) proposed that certain characteristics of transformational leadership such as integrity, benevolence, care, and kindness are the predictors of trust in leaders. When the transformational leaders concern and value their followers, the followers tend to have the positive attitude back to their leaders such as being loyal, admire, and trust their leaders (de Vries, 2001; Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). Additionally, when transformational leaders provide psychological support to their followers and spend time in coaching their followers, their followers feel obliged to show their appreciation by demonstrating trust on their transformational leaders (Blau, 1964). These characteristics of transformational leaders make employees feel that the

transformational leaders care for them and invest time in guiding them, thereby evoking trust in transformational leaders. Moreover, Transformational leaders also support their followers to come up with new perspectives in performing the duties and do not discourage them when they make mistakes (Gregory Stone et al., 2004). Additionally, transformational leaders tend to support and encourage their people to do the job that match with their skills and competencies (Avolio, 1999). It is particularly essential under the context of migrant workers because they might feel that they are minorities and are inferior. Thus, they might feel insecure and afraid of committing the mistake. If the leaders are supportive and open-minded, it is likely that employees will have high tendency to trust their leaders.

Secondly, from the character-based viewpoint, trust can be nurtured from certain assumptions about the characteristics of the leaders (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). This perspective of trust suggests that followers tend to trust their leaders when they perceive that their leaders have high competence (Mayer et al., 1995). Transformational leaders have several characteristics that match with this perspective of trust building. Particularly, transformational leaders tend to have the ability to communicate to their followers in an influential way and to envision their good future (Day & Antonakis, 2012). The ability to convince followers can make followers develop trust and respect toward their leaders (Bernard M Bass & Riggio, 2006; C. Williams, 2013). It is consistent with the study of Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams (1999) which reported that transformational leaders develop reciprocated trust with the followers by initiating a mutual vision. Furthermore, transformational leaders have high level of self-confidence (Abdullah & Varatharajoo, 2017). When the transformational leaders have high self-confidence, the followers tend to perceive their transformational leaders as having competence and that can persuade them to trust the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Evidence about the relationship between transformational leadership and trust in leader are also supported in previous studies (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Liu et al., 2010; Y. F. Yang, 2014; Yukl, 2011). For example, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) found that the

transformational leader was positively related to trust in leader and trust in leader among the respondents in petrochemical industry from the United States, Canada, and Europe. Jung and Avolio (2000) reported that transformational leaders nurtured trust among students from a of public university in the United States. Y. F. Yang (2014) found that the transformational leadership was strongly related to trust in leaders in Taiwan context. Y.-F. Yang (2012) also found that the transformational leadership was associated with trust in leader in the life insurance industry. Additionally, Liu et al. (2010) reported the relationship between transformational leadership and trust in leader among the respondents from employees from the People's Republic of China. Based on the above reviews, this study proposes the next hypothesis as follow:

Hypothesis 3: Transformational leadership is positively related to the trust in leaders.

2.7.4 Supportive Diversity Climate and SOP

This research proposes that supportive diversity climate can associate with SOP of employees. In particular, supportive diversity climate might be essential for Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand because these minorities are facing with the discrimination and exploitation from their employers (Paitoonpong & Chalamwong, 2012; Pholphirul et al., 2010). Previous research provided evidences that the supportive diversity climate in the organization can help lessen these problems. For example, the supportive diversity climate promotes equality in the workplace; thus, lessening the stress among individuals from diverse backgrounds (McKay et al., 2009). Moreover, scholars suggested that the employees in the supportive diversity climate receive fair treatment regardless of their background and origin (McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak et al., 1998). Research found that the positive diversity climate also leads to favorable work outcomes among both minority and non-minority workers (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Hopkins, Hopkins, & Mallette, 2001; McKay et al., 2007) such as boosting self-esteem and self-confidence (Podsakoff et al., 2000) as well as encouraging employee motivation (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000). Previous

papers also supported that this climate was found to increase organizational commitment (O'Reilly III, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) and reduce turnover intention (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993). McKay et al. (2008) also added that effective diversity management enhance organizational identification among employees because they feel the company cares for their interest. Furthermore, Ely and Thomas (2001) found that minority workers in the organization practicing pro-diversity climate tended to feel that the organization value them and treat them fairly.

Based on the above review, it can be predicted that the supportive diversity climate in an organization employing Myanmar migrant workers may make these migrant workers feel appreciated and valued by their organization. When employees feel that they are valued and treated fairly by the organization, they are more likely to feel emotionally connected with the workplace, and that can be developed into SOP toward the organization. Given the literatures support and evidences, it leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: Supportive Diversity Climate is positively related to SOP

2.7.5   Trust in Leader and SOP

This study proposes that trust in leader can be associated with SOP. According to Yukl (1989), the work relationship between the leader and their followers is improved when the followers trust in their leaders. Robinson and Wolfe Morrison (2000) additionally proposed that the healthy work relationship between the leaders and their employees make employees to identify with the organization. This is particularly important because previous SOP research suggested that SOP can be developed when individuals identify with a place and have emotional connection as well as commitment with their place (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006). Therefore, when the employees trust their leaders, they are more likely for them to develop emotional

connection and identify with the organization. Given the supporting reasons, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Trust in leader is positively related to SOP.

2.7.6 SOP and Turnover Intention

This study proposes that SOP can be negatively related to turnover intention among employees. Based on the earlier review of SOP research, SOP is related to the psychological bonding between people and place (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Stedman, 2003). When individuals have emotional attachment with a place, they tend to identify themselves with that place and do not want to leave it even in a harmful situation (Venables et al., 2012). Moreover, studies have indicated that SOP influenced the commitment among people in particular place (Larson et al., 2013; McCunn & Gifford, 2014). Similarly, because SOP is developed when the employees have emotional connection with the company, they tend to have low intention to leave the organization. Based on these reasons and supporting literatures, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: SOP is negatively related to the turnover intention.

2.7.7 Transformational Leadership and Turnover Intention

This study proposes that the transformational leadership of top management can be negatively associated with turnover intention of employees. As reviewed earlier, the transformational leaders are characterized as coaches and highly supportive (Avolio, 2010; Northouse, 2016). Price and Mueller (1981) proposed that supervisory support is a predictor of turnover intention because it leads to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Once the employees receive the good support from their transformational leaders, they tend to satisfy and commit to their organization,

thereby reducing their intention to quit. It is supported by the study of Alexandrov, Babakus, and Yavas (2007) who suggested that the turnover intention is reduced when the employees perceive that the leaders concern for them. Additionally, Alatawi (2017) stated that the employees under the supervision of transformational leaders are loyal to their organization even during the rough situations. A body of research also supported that transformational leaders support and encourage their followers to challenge the difficulties and to successfully accomplish their work, the turnover intention rate is reduced (Avolio, 2010; Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Price, 2001). Furthermore, transformational leaders cater to individual employee's need by assigning job that match with individual's competencies and influence employees to perform well in their assigned tasks (Avolio, 1999). Thus, it may foster employees to stay longer with the organization.

Previous literatures also showed that the transformational leadership is a key reason to reduce turnover intention of employees (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011; Long, Thean, Ismail, & Jusoh, 2012). For example, according to Chang, Wang, and Huang (2013), the transformational leadership was found to reduce the turnover intention among employees and managers from Taiwanese retail businesses. Amankwaa and Anku-Tsede (2015) found that the transformational leadership was negatively related to the turnover among employees from banks in Ghana. Similarly, Alkharabsheh et al. (2017) reported the negative relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention among nurses in Jordanian public hospitals. Alatawi (2017) also reported similar result among employees from various industries in Southern California. Waldman et al. (2015) also found consistent result in the Chinese context. Based on the support and evidences mentioned above, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 7: Transformational leadership is negatively related to the turnover intention.*

2.7.8 Supportive Diversity Climate and Turnover Intention

This study proposes that the supportive organizational climate can be related to employee turnover intention. Based on the previous review of supportive diversity climate, when the employees perceive that their organization values them and treat them fairly regardless of their backgrounds, they tend to have incentive to stay with the company (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Specifically, literature also showed that the supportive diversity climate was found to reduce turnover intention (Y. Chung et al., 2015). All support and evidences lead to the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 8: Supportive Diversity Climate is negatively related to turnover intention.*

2.7.9 Trust in Leader and Turnover Intention

This study proposes that trust in leader can be linked to lower employee turnover intention. Several scholars proposed that when the employees have high level of trust in leaders, they tend to participate in the social exchange and oblige to show positive mutual relationship (Gambetta, 1988; Klimoski & Karol, 1976; R. Kramer & Tyler, 1996). Based on the social exchange theory, when the employees trust that their leaders concern for their well-being, they are likely to reciprocate with positive organizational attitudes and behaviors such as being loyal to the organization (Nair & Salleh, 2017). Moreover, J. H. Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, and Tan (2000) suggested that when the followers trust in their leaders, they tend to feel secured and depend on their organization, thereby reducing the intention to leave the organization.

Previous research provided evidences that trust in leader can lead to lower turnover intention. For example, a meta-analysis conducted by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) showed that trust in leader has negative significant relationship with turnover intention. K. W. Chan et al. (2008) also reported that the trust in leaders reduced the turnover intention among employees in China. Similarly, Jay Prakash Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander

(2006) proposed that the trust in leader is the predictor of turnover intention among the salespeople employing in a global pharmaceuticals industry in the United States. Jay P Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2008) also found that the trust in leader is negatively related to turnover intention among employees in healthcare industry in the United Sates. All supports and evidences lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: Trust in leader is negatively related to turnover intention.

2.7.10 Trust in Leader as a Mediator of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and SOP

Although transformational leadership is logically related to SOP, this linkage may be indirectly explained by the trusting relationship between transformational leaders and their followers. This study proposes that the association between transformational leadership and SOP can be mediated by trust in leader. According to Kouzes and Posner (1987), the leaders could not lead at their full capability without the trust from their followers. Trust in leader is an important element for the interpersonal connection between the leaders and the followers (R. C. Solomon & Flores, 2003). The quality of trust that followers develop with the transformational leader can motivate them to identify with the organization (Robinson & Wolfe Morrison, 2000), which can subsequently develop into SOP toward the organization. Taken together, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by trust in leader.

2.7.11 The Supportive Diversity Climate as a Mediator of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and SOP

Lastly, this study proposes that the supportive diversity climate is expected to mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and SOP. Because transformational leaders perform a key role in building the good climate for their employees (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bernard M Bass, 1999; Gregory Stone et al., 2004), they can induce SOP of employees by creating supportive diversity climate that make employees develop emotional connection to the workplace. Hence, it can be predicted that SOP is strengthened as a result. Grounded on the supporting reasons, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11: The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by supportive diversity climate.

All hypotheses are listed in Table 2.1. The conceptual model that shows direct relationship between variables is presented in Figure 2.1.
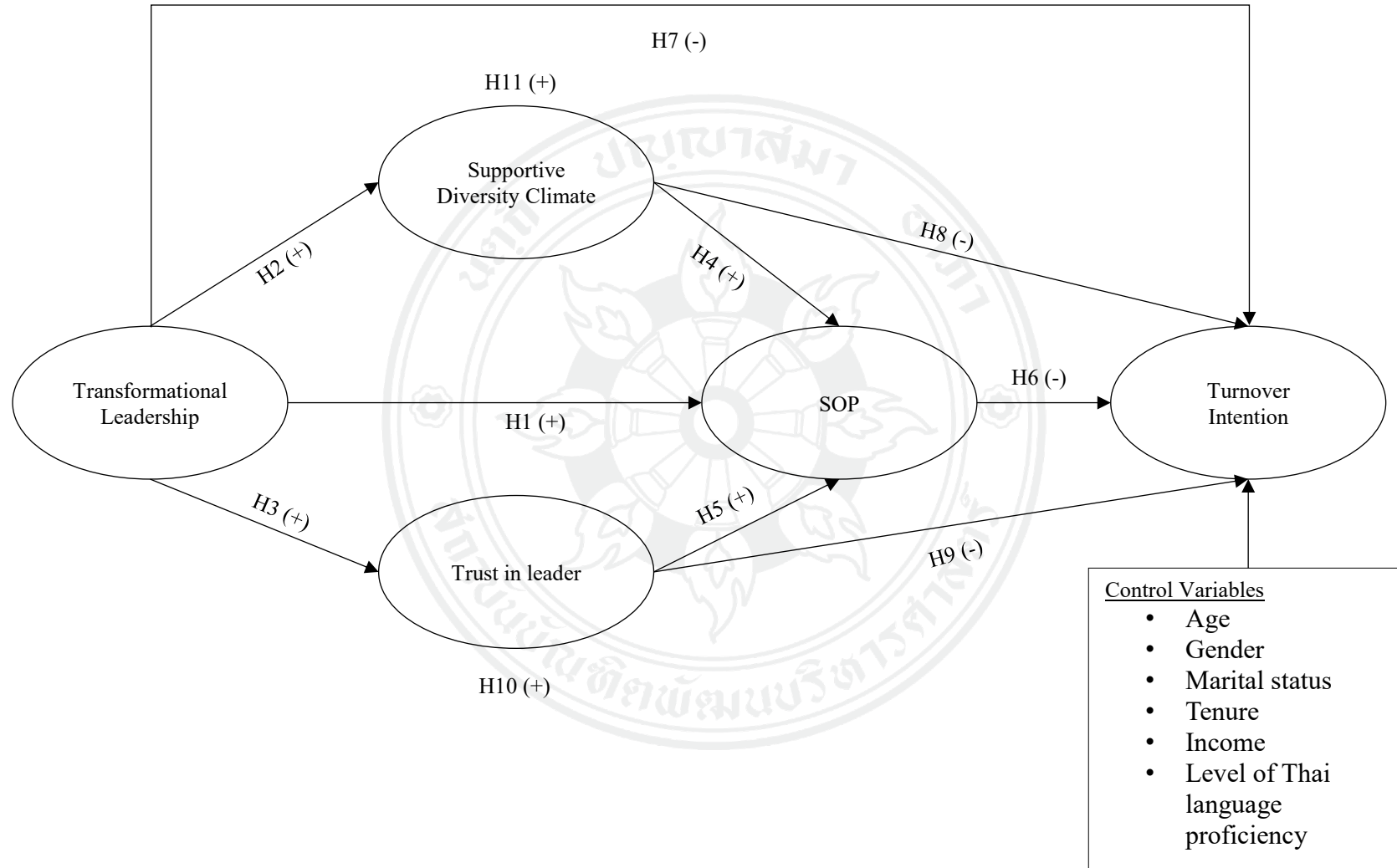
Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model

Table 2.2 The summary of research hypothesis

Hypothesis	
H1	Transformational leadership is positively related to SOP
H2	Transformational leadership is positively related to the supportive diversity climate in the workplace.
H3	Transformational leadership is positively related to the trust in leaders.
H4	Supportive diversity climate is positively related to SOP.
H5	Trust in leader is positively related to SOP.
H6	SOP is negatively related to turnover intention.
H7	Transformational leadership is negatively related to the turnover intention.
H8	Supportive diversity climate is negatively related to the turnover intention.
H9	Trust in leader s negatively related to the turnover intention.
H10	The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by trust in leader.
H11	The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by supportive diversity climate.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Context and Sample Selection Procedure

Research context of this study focuses on the Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand. The nonprobability sampling is used for this study. The convenience sampling refers to the sampling technique where the samples are selected in regard to the convenience of the researcher (Given, 2008; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013). The convenience sampling provides several advantages. It can obtain a large number of respondents within limited time (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2013). In addition, it is cost effective comparing to other techniques (Zikmund et al., 2013). The convenience sampling is practical when the population is very large which makes the randomization impossible (Etikan et al., 2016). The convenience sampling is selected due to a large amount of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand which make randomization difficult to performed. There are a lot of companies in Thailand hiring Myanmar migrant workers as evidenced from the numbers of registered Myanmar workers in Thailand at 992,983 workers in 2015 (Foreign Workers Administration Office, 2015). Because of this characteristic of the population, convenience sampling seems to be more practical for this research.

The sampling frame of this study is the Myanmar workers employed in two firms located in Bangkok and Nakornratchasrima provinces. These two companies are selected because of the personal connection of the research with the company owners. The first company is in the silverware manufacturing industry located in Nakornratchasrima. The company hires 1,323 workers; of this total, 570 are Myanmar workers which account for over 40% of all workforce. The second company is in the garment manufacturing industry located in Bangkok. The company employs approximately 2,000 workers; of this total, 210 are Myanmar workers which account for 10 percent of all workforce. In particular, planned sample for this study will

include all Myanmar workers in the sampling frame which make the total of 780 Myanmar workers from both firms.

3.2 Data Collection Procedure

In this study, a self-administered questionnaire survey was used. The questionnaire survey is chosen for this study because it allows the researcher to collect the data in a short period of time comparing to other methods (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Additionally, the respondents can complete the questionnaires at the convenient time (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

For the data collection process, firstly, the researcher contacted the top management in each firm along with the cover letter asking for the permission to conduct the questionnaire survey at their firm on the working days. The cover letter mentioned about the objectives of this study together with the assurance of the confidentiality and the anonymity. Once the research obtained the approval from the top management, the research together with a team of Myanmar native speakers visited each company. The questionnaire survey was distributed in person. The respondents were asked to cooperate in this study based on their consent. Due to the problem of illiteracy that may occur, Myanmar translators were assigned to facilitate in translating process. The translators are Myanmar natives who are not involved in the organization to reduce the bias that may happen. The respondents were informed about the objectives of the study as well as the guarantee of the privacy and confidentiality. The questionnaires were distributed and collected on the same day.

3.3 Questionnaire Development

In this study, the existing scales developed by other scholars were used. The use of existing scale measurement provides several advantages. Firstly, given that the existing scales have been tested and validated by other scholars, they tend to be more

trustworthy than proposing a new measurement (Bulmer, Gibbs, & Hyman, 2006). Secondly, the existing scale is preferred because it is less time consuming than developing a new measurement (Bulmer et al., 2006). Finally, with the same measurement, the results can be compared with other studies that used the same scale (Meadows, 2003). All the main variables in this study were measured by using existing scales which were initially developed in English. Scholars suggested that the concept conducting in one culture may not be meaningfully represented in another culture (Hui & Triandis, 1985; Schooler, 1996). Therefore, the cross-cultural translation is needed to ensure the accuracy and the meaningful of the result (Banville, Desrosiers, & Genet-Volet, 2000). The back-translation was used to confirm the accuracy of the meaning of the target language (Brislin, 1970). The questions were translated into Myanmar language by a native Myanmar bilingual who is fluent in English and then back-translated into source language (English) by native English bilingual who is expert in Myanmar (Brislin, 1970).

3.4   **Measurement**

3.4.1   **SOP**

SOP constructs were measured by self-report items proposed by Jorgensen and Stedman (2001). The items were modified to match with the context of this study. The scale consists of 12 items with 3 subscales measuring place attachment (4 questions), place dependence (4 questions), and place identity (4 questions). These items will be measured by using five-point Likert-Scale, ranking from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Previous studies also employed this measurement scale (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Kil, Holland, & Stein, 2014; Mazloom, Ariffin, & Shahminan; McCunn & Gifford, 2014; Shirotsuki, Otsuki, & Sonoda, 2017). The questionnaire items include the following:

Place attachment
1.   I feel relaxed when I'm at [The Company]

2. I feel happiest when I'm at [The Company]
3. [The Company] is my favorite place to be
4. I really miss [The Company] when I'm away from it for too long

Place dependence

1. [The Company] is the best place for doing the works that I enjoy most
2. For doing the works that I enjoy most, no other place can compare to [The Company]
3. [The Company] is not a good place to do the works I most like to do
4. As far as I am concerned, there are better places to be than at [The Company]

Place identity

1. Everything about [The Company] is a reflection of me
2. [The Company] says very little about who I am
3. I feel that I can really be myself at [The Company]
4. [The Company] reflects the type of person I am

3.4.2 Transformational Leadership

The measurement of transformational leadership of top management was adopted from the global transformational leadership (GTL) scale developed by Carless, Wearing, and Mann (2000). Participants were asked to rate the company's top management using 10 items. These 10 items will be measured by a seven-point Likert scale, ranking from 1 (never) to 7 (always). This measurement has been used in previous research (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008; Overstreet, Hanna, Byrd, Cegielski, & Hazen, 2013; Yasin Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). The questionnaire items include the following:

1. Communicates a clear and positive vision of the future
2. Treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development
3. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff
4. Fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among team members
5. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions
6. Is clear about his/her values
7. Practices what he/she preaches
8. Instills pride and respect in others

9. Inspires me by being highly competent

3.4.3 Trust in Leader

The measurement of trust in leader derived from Podsakoff et al. (1990). These 6 items were measured by using five-point Likert scales 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Previous research also adopted this measurement scale (Arnold, Barling, & Kevin Kelloway, 2001; Jung & Avolio, 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). The questionnaire items include the following:

1. "I feel quite confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly"
2. "My manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers"
3. "I have complete faith in the integrity of my manager/supervisor"
4. "I feel a strong loyalty to my leader"
5. "I would support my leader in almost any emergency"
6. "I have a strong sense of loyalty toward my leader"

3.4.4 Supportive Diversity Climate

Supportive diversity climate was measured by the scale developed by McKay et al. (2008). These 4 items were scored on a five-point Likert scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This measurement scale has been employed in previous studies (Houkamau & Boxall, 2011; Profili, Innocenti, & Sammarra, 2017; Singh, Winkel, & Selvarajan, 2013; Sliter, Boyd, Sinclair, Cheung, & McFadden, 2014; Stewart, Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2011). The questionnaire items include the following:

1. "I trust [the Company] to treat me fairly,"
2. "[The Company] maintains a diversity- friendly work environment,"
3. "[The Company] respects the views of people like me."
4. "Top leaders demonstrate a visible commitment to diversity."

3.4.5 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention was measured by using the 4 items of the scale which is developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999). These items were measured by using a five-point Likert scales, ranking from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Prior research also adopted this measurement scale (Boamah & Laschinger, 2016; Delle, 2013; Laschinger, 2012; Laschinger & Fida, 2014; Leiter & Maslach, 2009). The questionnaire items include the following:

1. I am thinking about leaving this organization.
2. I am planning to look for a new job.
3. I intend to ask people about new job's opportunities.
4. I do not plan to be in this organization much longer.

3.5   Control Variables

Control variables are considered to be extraneous variables which are not linked to the theories and the hypotheses being tested (Spector & Brannick, 2011). The control variables are confounding factors which might affect the dependent variable being studied (Spector & Brannick, 2011). The commonly used control variables are based on the demographic and work characteristic factors such as gender, age, and tenure (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). The selection of the control variables that might affect SOP and turnover intention is based on prior research. Age, gender, tenure, and salary are selected as the control variable in this study. These variables will be discussed below:

3.5.1   Age

Previous research suggested that the age and the formation of SOP are related (Nanzer, 2004). Nanzer (2004) found that the older respondents exhibited higher perception of SOP toward the city. Additionally, previous studies also reported the negative relationship between age and turnover intention (Huang, 2007; Jones, Chonko, Rangarajan, & Roberts, 2007; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008). Based on this

evidence, it can be expected that Myanmar migrant workers' age may be associated with the strength of SOP and turnover intention.

3.5.2. Gender

Previous research also supported that females exhibited higher place attachment and place dependent than men (Nanzer, 2004). Generally, females tend to develop emotional attachment and depend on others easier than males (Alonso–Arbiol, Shaver, & Yárnoz, 2002; D. Davis, Shaver, & Vernon, 2003). In addition, Prior research also suggested that gender is positively related to the turnover intention (Hansung Kim & Stoner, 2008). Based on this evidence, it can be predicted that gender differences of Myanmar migrant workers may contribute to different level of SOP and turnover intention.

3.5.3. Tenure

Tenure refers to the length of employment Myanmar migrant workers have been with the company. The length of work experience may be associated with the level of SOP because when people stay at a particular place for a long period of time, they are more likely to develop sense of belonging and sense of identity to that place (Hay, 1998). Prior research also found the association between the length of stay in a place and SOP development (Gustafson, 2009; Lalli, 1992). For example, Nanzer (2004) reported that the respondents who stayed in Michigan longer than ten years had stronger level of SOP. In addition, previous research also reported the negative influence of tenure on turnover intention (Bal, De Cooman, & Mol, 2013; Hansung Kim & Stoner, 2008).

3.5.4. Salary

The salary of Myanmar migrant workers may be associated with SOP and turnover intention because the salary may be one of the indicators whether they want to stay with the organization. It is supported by the study of Maltarich, Nyberg, and Reilly (2010) who also used employee salary as the control variable because it can "influence turnover through desirability of movement". Schwab (1991) also suggested that the work opportunity elsewhere tend to be less appealing when the salary is high.

3.5.5. Level of Thai Language Proficiency

The level of Myanmar workers' Thai language proficiency may be associated with SOP and turnover intention because the more people familiar and know the language, it is likely that they can adjust themselves easier with the place. The level of the respondent's Thai language proficiency is divided into five levels ranging from no proficiency at all to the proficiency level.

3.6 Estimation Method

This research used a Partial Least Square (PLS) regression for analyzing the proposed model. PLS offers many statistical methods such as simple and multiple regression analysis, path analysis, and structural equation modelling (Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978). PLS analysis is chosen in this study because it offers many benefits. For example, with PLS analysis, the researcher can analyze multiple hypothesis at the same time which is a single or multiple items measurement. Additionally, PLS analysis does not require the data to be normally distributed (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000). Moreover, PLS analysis requires less sample size than other SEM techniques (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). WarpPLS software was used to perform PLS regression.

CHAPTER 4

RESULT

4.1 Data

This chapter presents the data's characteristics such as the demographic and job characteristics of the samples. It also includes the information on how the data was prepared and analyzed. Finally, the hypothesis testing was performed and presented.

The data were collected from two manufacturing factories located in Bangkok and Nakhon Ratchasima. The first data collection was conducted at the factory in Nakhon Ratchasima on 1st of September 2018. At this factory, there are night and day shifts. The Myanmar workers were asked to do the survey at their canteen right after they finished their shift. There were approximately 20 – 80 workers each time. The process started by having the workers sit together. Then the translator translated the questionnaire and allowed time for the respondents to fill in the survey. Another two translators also acted as the facilitator in case the respondents have questions. The respondents spent approximately 10 to 45 minutes to complete the survey. Once they finished the survey, they returned the survey to the researcher team and received a bag with instant noodle, coffee mix, and a can of energy drink as token of appreciation. A total of 561 questionnaires were distributed and returned. Of this amount 27 of them were removed due to incomplete information.

The second data collection was conducted in Bangkok on 25th September 2018. The data collection process was the same as the first one. However, for this factory, the HR team assigned the Myanmar workers to visit the canteen according to their assigned time slot for each department. Thus, it can be assured that there was no duplication of the respondents. The translators helped translate the questionnaire and

allowed the respondents to fill in the survey. Similarly, to the first factory, once they returned the survey to the researcher team, they received a bag with instant noodle, coffee mix, and a can of energy drink. A total of 209 questionnaires were distributed and returned. Of this amount 7 of them were removed because of the incomplete information.

To sum up, A total of 770 questionnaires were distributed and returned from both factories. Of this amount, 34 of them were removed due to incomplete information. Finally, there were 736 completed questionnaires available for the data analysis which counted for 95.58 percent response rate.

4.2 **Demographic Characteristics**

The demographic characteristics and information related to job characteristics of Myanmar workers are reported in table 4.1 to table 4.3.

Out of 736 respondents, the majority are male. There are 416 male respondents (56.5 percent) and 320 female respondents (43.5 percent). With regard to the marital status of the respondents, 459 respondents (62.4 percent) are married while 277 respondents (37.6 percent) are single.

Table 4.1 Demographic characteristics of Myanmar workers

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	416	56.5%
	Female	320	43.5%
Status	Single	277	37.6%
	Married	459	62.4%

The age of the respondents ranges between 18 to 49 years old with a mean value of 28.70 (the standard deviation = 6.14). With regard to the income of the respondents, the range of their salary level is between 1,000 to 18,000 Thai baht with a mean value of 10,371.30 (the standard deviation = 1454.31). As for the length of stay with the organization, it ranges from 1 month to 144 months with a mean value of 45.38 months (the standard deviation = 36.06). With regard to how long the respondents have stayed in Thailand, it ranges from 1 months to 240 months with a mean value of 56.77 months (the standard deviation = 46.54).

Table 4.2 Myanmar workers' age, income, tenure, and length of stay in Thailand

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age (year)	18	49	28.70	6.14
income	1,000	18,000	10,371.30	1454.31
Tenure (month)	1	144	45.38	36.06
Length of stay (month)	1	240	56.77	46.54

The level of the respondent's Thai language proficiency is divided into five levels ranging from no proficiency at all to proficient level. The majority of the respondents' Thai language proficiency are in intermediate level which accounted for 34.8 percent (256 respondents) followed by no proficiency at all which accounted for 28.8 percent (212 respondents), and beginner level which accounted for 24.3 percent (179 respondents). Only 8.2 percent (60 respondents) of the respondents are in advanced level and finally, another 3.9 percent (29 respondents) are in proficient level.

Table 4.3 Myanmar workers' Thai language proficiency

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Thai language	Level 1 (Cannot speak	212	28.8%
proficiency	Thai)	179	24.3%
	Level 2 (Beginner level)	256	34.8%
	Level 3 (Intermediate	60	8.2%
	level)	29	3.9%
	Level 4 (Advanced level)		
	Level 5 (Proficient level)		

4.3 **Normal Distribution**

The normal distribution test of data was performed to check whether the data are normally distributed. Two tests were conducted to examine the normality of the data. The first one is Jarque-Bera of normality (Normal-JB) and the second one is Robust Jarque-Bera test (Normal-RJB). The results are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Normal Distribution

	TL	DIV	TRU	SOP	TOV	GEN	AGE	STA	TEN	INC	THL
Normal-JB	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Normal-RJB	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

Note: TL = Transformational Leadership, DIV = Supportive Diversity Climate, TRU = Trust in the Leader, SOP = Sense of Place, TOV = Turnover Intention, GEN = Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female), AGE = Age, STA = Marital Status (0 = Single, 1 = Married), TEN = Length of Job Tenure, INC = Income, THL = The Level of Thai Language Proficiency, Yes = data are normally distributed, No = data are not normally distributed.

From the above table, "Yes" means the data are normally distributed. On the contrary, "No" means the data do not follow the normal distribution. The results showed that all variables are not normalized. A body of research shows that PLS provides a robustness result when the data are highly non-normal (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). Hence, the overall result of the above table confirms that PLS is appropriate for this study.

4.4 Model Assessment

Prior to the model assessment, it is important to differentiate between the formative and reflective measurement. In this study, the reflective measurement was used for all constructs. Therefore, the researcher needed to measure the level of validity and reliability of the data to check the validity and reliability levels of the reflective measurement (Hair et al., 2011). With regard to the validity test, the convergent validity and discriminant validity were conducted and analyzed. As for the reliability test, the researcher analyzed the result of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) and composite reliability. Besides assuring the validity and reliability of the questionnaires, these assessments also certified that the result from this research is biased free (Hair et al., 2012).

4.4.1 Validity Test

It is necessary to perform validity testing in order to check how well the constructs are measured (Hair et al., 2012). The researcher performed two types of validity testing which are the convergent validity and the discriminant validity.

4.4.1.1 Convergent Validity Test

Convergent validity analysis indicates how well each indicator measures their constructs (Hair et al., 2011). It checks if the items in the same constructs correspond

well with one another. The convergent validity can be assessed by performing the factor loading. According to Hair et al. (2011), a minimum value of 0.5 is sufficient degree for validity analysis. After performing the factor loading analysis, the result of convergent validity test was satisfactory. As showed in table 4.5, all items were reported the value of more than a minimum of 0.5.

Table 4.5 The combined factor loading and cross loadings of all latent variables.

	TL	DIV	TRU	SOP	TOV
TL1	**(0.715)**	0.018	-0.041	0.213	-0.025
TL2	**(0.685)**	0.086	-0.143	0.239	0.000
TL3	**(0.784)**	-0.057	-0.070	0.116	-0.023
TL4	**(0.796)**	0.012	-0.070	-0.013	0.005
TL5	**(0.804)**	0.021	-0.061	0.023	0.045
TL6	**(0.805)**	-0.068	0.034	-0.032	0.048
TL7	**(0.835)**	0.014	0.110	-0.127	0.009
TL8	**(0.812)**	0.014	0.076	-0.161	-0.003
TL9	**(0.822)**	-0.025	0.128	-0.185	-0.057
DIV1	0.032	**(0.800)**	0.127	-0.053	0.007
DIV2	-0.149	**(0.740)**	0.149	-0.113	0.021
DIV3	-0.014	**(0.788)**	-0.110	0.101	-0.023
DIV4	0.133	**(0.713)**	-0.176	0.065	-0.004
TRU1	0.200	0.313	**(0.641)**	0.043	0.076
TRU2	0.020	0.135	**(0.678)**	0.084	0.051
TRU3	0.013	-0.116	**(0.800)**	0.024	0.010
TRU4	-0.051	-0.073	**(0.825)**	-0.029	-0.014
TRU5	-0.066	0.010	**(0.809)**	-0.106	-0.081
TRU6	-0.068	-0.179	**(0.823)**	0.008	-0.017
PA1	-0.044	0.038	-0.020	**(0.787)**	0.126
PA2	-0.017	0.083	-0.024	**(0.807)**	0.107
PA3	0.020	0.005	0.016	**(0.782)**	-0.067

	TL	**DIV**	**TRU**	**SOP**	**TOV**
PA4	0.014	-0.013	0.069	**(0.776)**	-0.025
PD1	-0.134	0.065	0.182	**(0.748)**	-0.004
PD2	-0.124	-0.059	0.160	**(0.767)**	-0.041
PD3	0.085	0.056	-0.145	**(0.711)**	-0.075
PD4	0.135	0.060	-0.266	**(0.673)**	0.034
PI1	-0.103	-0.069	0.133	**(0.653)**	-0.111
PI2	0.063	0.005	-0.240	**(0.671)**	-0.052
PI3	0.036	-0.064	-0.008	**(0.691)**	0.085
PI4	0.095	-0.126	0.104	**(0.699)**	-0.001
TOV1	-0.061	0.026	0.005	0.017	**(0.908)**
TOV2	0.013	0.008	-0.006	-0.009	**(0.915)**
TOV3	0.019	-0.023	0.057	0.023	**(0.880)**
TOV4	0.034	-0.014	-0.063	-0.035	**(0.787)**

Note: TL = Transformational Leadership, DIV = Supportive Diversity Climate, TRU = Trust in the Leader, SOP = Sense of Place, TOV = Turnover Intention

4.4.1.2 Discriminant Validity Test

The discriminant validity analysis indicates whether a specific latent variable is discriminated from other latent variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It measures if the items belong to the different constructs are overlapping with one another. The discriminant validity test is assessed by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct and the correlation of a particular variable to other variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the discriminant validity analysis is acceptable when the square root of AVE of a particular construct is greater than any correlation it associated. The researcher conducted the discriminant validity test and reported the satisfactory result. Each indicator has the highest value on the construct it wants to measure, thereby it does not overlap with other constructs. The results of discriminant validity of all latent variables are presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6 The correlations and average variance extracted of all latent variables

	TL	DIV	TRU	SOP	TOV	GEN	AGE	STA	TEN	INC	THL
TL	**(0.786)**	0.645***	0.710***	0.683***	-0.559***	-0.020	0.019	0.028	0.050	0.094*	0.117**
DIV	0.645***	**(0.761)**	0.714***	0.629***	-0.542***	-0.001	0.027	-0.022	0.090*	0.071	0.131***
TRU	0.710***	0.714***	**(0.766)**	0.630***	-0.538***	-0.017	0.013	0.012	0.058	0.124***	0.117**
SOP	0.683***	0.629***	0.630***	**(0.732)**	-0.523***	-0.038	0.098**	0.082*	0.242***	0.075*	0.209***
TOV	-0.559***	-0.542***	-0.538***	-0.523***	**(0.874)**	-0.046	-0.038	-0.018	-0.055	-0.087*	-0.138***
GEN	-0.020	-0.001	-0.017	-0.038	-0.046	**(1.000)**	0.014	-0.048	0.017	0.088*	0.003
AGE	0.019	0.027	0.013	0.098**	-0.038	0.014	**(1.000)**	0.273***	0.463***	0.072	0.262***
STA	0.028	-0.022	0.012	0.082	-0.018	-0.048	0.273	**(1.000)**	0.206***	-0.060	0.166***
TEN	0.050	0.090*	0.058	0.242***	-0.055	0.017	0.463	0.206***	**(1.000)**	0.197***	0.491***
INC	0.094*	0.071	0.124***	0.075*	-0.087*	0.088*	0.072	-0.060	0.197***	**(1.000)**	0.230***
THL	0.117**	0.131***	0.117**	0.209***	-	0.003	0.262***	0.166***	0.491***	0.230***	**(1.000)**

0.138***

Note: TL = Transformational Leadership, DIV = Supportive Diversity Climate, TRU = Trust in the Leader, SOP = Sense of Place, TOV = Turnover Intention, GEN = Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female), AGE = Age, STA = Marital Status (0 = Single, 1 = Married), TEN = Length of Job Tenure, INC = Income, THL = The Level of Thai Language Proficiency

- − *p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01, ***p-value < .001
- − The square root of AVE displays in the parentheses.
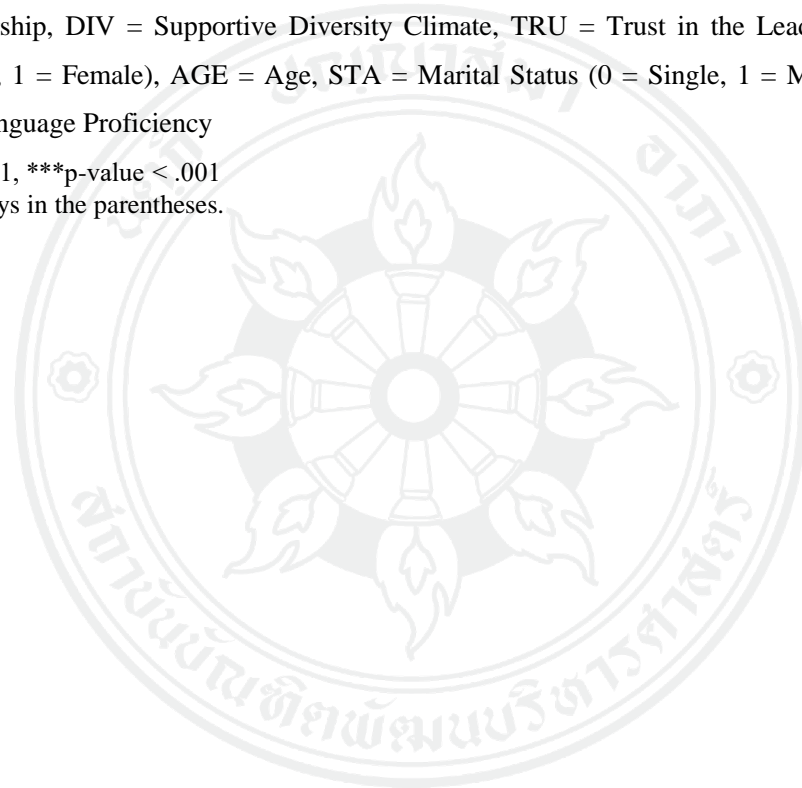
4.4.2 **Reliability Test**

The reliability test was performed to check the consistency level of the scales (Nunnally, 1978). The researcher conducted two reliability test which are Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability.

4.4.2.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used as the indicator to measure the internal consistency of the scales (Hair et al., 2012). Usually, it is used to measure the reliability of the constructs. The value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be over 0.7 to ensure the reliability of the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As presented table 4.7, the reliability indicators of all latent variables exceeded the minimum requirement of 0.7 which indicated that the variables are reliable.

4.4.2.2 Composite Reliability

The composite reliability was also performed to ensure the internal consistency reliability of variables in PLS analysis because this test uses indicator loadings into consideration in the reliability analysis (Hair et al., 2012). Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009) suggested the minimum acceptable value of the composite reliability of 0.7. Additionally, it is considered to be more acceptable if the value of composite reliability of each variable is higher than its Cronbach's alpha value because generally, the value of composite reliability is marginally higher. As presented in the table 4.7, the results indicated that the value of composite reliability of all constructs achieved the minimum requirement of 0.7 and have higher value than their Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Therefore, the scales being used in this study are reliable.

Table 4.7 Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability of all latent variables

	TL	DIV	TRU	SOP	TOV
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.922	0.757	0.857	0.921	0.896
Composite reliability	0.935	0.846	0.894	0.932	0.928

Note: TL = Transformational Leadership, DIV = Supportive Diversity Climate, TRU = Trust in the Leader, SOP = Sense of Place, TOV = Turnover Intention

4.5 **Model Fit Indices**

The quality of PLS model analysis can be determined by several indices (Ned Kock & Lynn, 2012). WarpPLS provides ten model fit indices to analyze the research model which are (1) Average path coefficient (APC), (2) Average R-squared (ARS), (3) Average adjusted R-squared (AAS), (4) Average block VIF (AVIF), (5) Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF), (6) Tenenhaus GoF (GoF), (7) Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR), (8) R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR), (9) Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) and (10) Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ration (NLBCDR).

4.5.1 **Average Path Coefficient (APC)**

The average path coefficient (APC) refers to how strong the paths are in the overall model. It is recommended that the p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result from PLS analysis indicated that APC has a value of 0.163 with p-value lower than 0.001. Therefore, APC is statistically significant.

4.5.2 **Average R-squared (ARS)**

The average R-squared (ARS) refers to overall explanatory power of the model. It is recommended that p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result showed that ARS value is 0.474 with p-value below 0.001. Therefore, ARS is statistically significant.

4.5.3 Average Adjusted R-squared (AARS)

Average adjusted r-squared (AARS) is slightly different from the average R-squared (ARS). The Average adjusted r-squared corrects spurious increases in R-squared coefficients due to predictors that add no explanatory value in each latent variable block. It is recommended that the p-value should equal to or below 0.05. The result from the test revealed that AARS has a value of 0.470 with p-value less than 0.001. Therefore, AARS is statistically significant.

4.5.4 Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF)

The average variance inflation factor (AVIF) is an indicator which measures model's vertical or classic collinearity. WarpPLS 5.0 suggests that an acceptable value of AVIF is equal to or less than 5 and ideal value is equal to or less than 3.3. The result showed that AVIF index is 1.699 which means the collinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.5.5 Average Full Variance Inflation Factor (AFVIF)

The average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF) measures both vertical and lateral collinearity, or multicollinearity of the model. WarpPLS 5.0 suggests that an acceptable value of AFVIF is equal to or less than 5 and ideal value is equal to or less than 3.3. The result showed that AFVIF value of this model is 1.799. Therefore, the multicollinearity in this model is ideally acceptable.

4.5.6 Tenenhaus GoF (GoF index)

GoF index or Tenenhaus GoF is a measurement of model's explanatory power. GoF index defined the square root of the product between what they refer to as the average communality index and the ARS. GoF index is equal to or greater than 0.1 means small explanatory power, GoF index is equal or greater than 0.25 means medium explanatory power and GoF index is equal or greater than 0.36 means large explanatory power. The result indicated that GoF index of this model is 0.626. Therefore, the result has a large explanatory power to the model.

4.5.7 Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)

The Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR) is an indicator which indicates a possibility to have a Simpson's paradox in the model (Wagner, 1982). An acceptable value of SPR is 0.7 or 70 percent of paths in the model are free from Simpson's paradox. The result showed that SPR value is 0.857 which means 85.7 percent of paths do not have a Simpson's paradox issue. Therefore, SPR index in this model is acceptable.

4.5.8 R-squared Contribution Ratio (RSCR)

The R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) measures a negative r-squared which comes from a Simpson's paradox issue (Pearl, 2009). An acceptable value of RSCR is equal to or above 0.9 or above 90 percent of r-squared in the model and has a positive sign. The result from PLS analysis indicated that RSCR index is 0.996 which mean 99.6 percent of paths of r-squared in this model have a positive sign. Therefore, the RSCR index of this model is acceptable.

4.5.9 Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)

The statistical suppression ratio (SSR) is another index that measures a causality problem in the model (Spirtes, Glymour, & Scheines, 1993). The SSR indicates that the hypothesized path in the model is not reasonable or should be reversed. The ideal SSR index is 1 which means there is no SSR issue in the model. The acceptable value is 0.7 which means over 70 percent of paths are not associated with SSR issue. The result of this model is 1.00 which means 100 percent of paths in the model are free from SSR. Therefore, this model is acceptable.

4.5.10 **Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)**

The nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) measures the correctness of direction of causality in non-linear relationship. Acceptable values of NLBCDR is equal to or greater than 7.0 which means 70 percent of path-related instances have weak or no suggestion to reverse hypothesized direction. The result indicated that NLBCDR index is 0.976 which means this model is acceptable for non-linear of direction of causality. Since this model is purposed in linear relationship which means NLBCDR should not be considered in the test. All model fit indices are presented in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Model Fit Indices

Model Fit Indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.163***	Significant
Average R-squared (ARS)	0.474***	Significant
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.470***	Significant
Average block VIF (AVIF)	1.699	Ideally
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	1.799	Ideally
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	0.626	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.857	Acceptable

R-squared contribution ration (RSCR)	0.996	Acceptable
Statistical suppression ration (SSR)	1.00	Acceptable
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.976	Acceptable

Note: ***, **, * means significant at 0.001, 0.01, 0.05 level

4.6 Multicollinearity

A full collinearity variance inflation factor (VIF) test was conducted in order to measure the multicollinearity problem. Multicollinearity is a statistical incident that two or more variables in the model are highly correlated (Farrar & Glauber, 1967). According to Ned Kock (2012), a full collinearity VIF test is more influential than the traditional VIF test because it can access both vertical and lateral collinearity simultaneously. In addition, the full collinearity VIF test can be used to check the possibility of common method bias (CMB) in the PLS model (Ned Kock & Lynn, 2012). As presented in table 4.9, the analysis of the full collinearity VIF for all variables ranged from 1.019 to 2.665, which was below the critical value of 3.3 as proposed by Petter, Straub, and Rai (2007). Hence, the results suggested that CMB may not be a critical issue in the analysis.

Table 4.9 Full VIF Statistics of all overall models

	TL	DIV	TRU	SOP	TOV	GEN	AGE	STA	TEN	INC	THL
Full VIF	2.665	2.441	2.729	2.416	1.661	1.019	1.332	1.121	1.686	1.108	1.387

Note: TL = Transformational Leadership, DIV = Supportive Diversity Climate, TRU = Trust in the Leader, SOP = Sense of Place, TOV = Turnover Intention, GEN = Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female), AGE = Age, STA = Marital Status (0 = Single, 1 = Married), TEN = Length of Job Tenure, INC = Income, THL = The Level of Thai Language Proficiency

4.7 Structural Regression Model

4.7.1 Test of Hypothesis

The researcher proposed eleven hypotheses with linear relationship that are shown in table 4.6. The results of PLS analysis will be covered in this section. The PLS results can be explained by various measurement terms. First, the p-value is the indicator to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis. If the p-value is less than 0.05, it indicates that the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted. Hence, the hypothesis is considered to be statistically significant (Kline, 2004). Instead, if the p-value is higher than 0.05, it indicates that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Hence, the hypothesis is not considered to be statistically significant (Rice, 1989). Second, the report from the path coefficient analysis indicates the strength of the relationship between two variables whether they are positively related or negatively related. The positive value of the beta coefficient means that these two variables are positively related. On the other hand, the negative value of the beta coefficient means that these two variables are negatively related. Third, r-squared coefficient indicates the percentage that the independent variables can be used to explain the dependent variables. The higher r-squared reflects the higher predictive power of the overall model.

The model estimation is also performed using bootstrapping resampling analysis. Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009) stated that "A bootstrapping procedure can be used in PLS path modeling to provide confidence intervals for all parameter estimates, building the basis for statistical inference". The bootstrapping techniques will randomly draw an existing data to create larger data, or subsamples, to represent population. The recommended number of subsample is 100 (Efron, Rogosa, & Tibshirani, 2001). Hence, the researcher followed the recommended value for the accuracy result.

The result from PLS analysis is presented in figure 2.

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership is positively related to SOP

The result showed that these two variables are positively related, which indicates that the transformational leadership of top management is related to SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward the organization. The result was also statistically significant (β= .404; p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to the supportive diversity climate in the workplace.

The result confirmed the positive relationship between these two variables which suggested that the transformational leadership of top management is positively related to the supportive diversity climate in the organization. The result was also statistically significant (β= .645; p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3: Transformational leadership is positively related to the trust in leaders.

The result showed the positive association between these two variables which implied that the transformational leadership of top management is related to the trust in leader. The result was also statistically significant (β= .710; p < 0.001). Hence, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4: Supportive Diversity Climate is positively related to SOP

The result revealed the positive relationship between these two variables which suggested that supportive diversity climate is related to SOP of Myanmar migrant

workers toward the organization. The result was also statistically significant (β= .233; $p < 0.001$). Hence, hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5: Trust in leader is positively related to SOP

The result confirmed the positive relationship between these two variables which indicated that the trust in leader is associated with SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward the organization. The result was also statistically significant (β= .167; $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6: SOP is negatively related to the turnover intention.

The result showed the negative relationship between these two variables which implied that SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward the organization is negatively related to their turnover intention. The result was also statistically significant (β= -.169; $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7: Transformational leadership is negatively related to the turnover intention.

The result confirmed the negative association between these two variables which suggested that transformational leadership of top management is negatively related to turnover intention of Myanmar migrant workers. The result was also statistically significant (β= -.220; $p < 0.001$). Thus, hypothesis 7 is supported.

Hypothesis 8: Supportive diversity climate is negatively related to turnover intention.

The result indicated the negative relationship between these two variables which implied that the supportive diversity climate of the organization is negatively related to the turnover intention of Myanmar migrant workers. The result was also statistically significant (β= -.199; p < 0.001). Thus, hypothesis 8 is supported.

Hypothesis 9: Trust in leader is negatively related to turnover intention

The result revealed the negative association between these two variables which suggested that trust in leader is negatively related to turnover intention of Myanmar migrant workers. The result was also statistically significant (β= -.128; p = 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 9 is supported.

Hypothesis 10: The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by trust in leader.

The hypothesis that involved mediating effect are tested using the method suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004). The result confirmed the positive mediation of trust in leader; this result was also statistically significant (β= .204; p <0.001). This finding suggests that trust in leader mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and SOP. Therefore, hypothesis 10 is supported. In addition, because the direct association between transformational leadership and SOP is statistically significant, the mediating effect of trust in leader is considered to be a partial mediation.

Hypothesis 11: The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by supportive diversity climate

The result confirmed the positive mediation of diversity climate and it was also statistically significant (β= .150; p <0.001). The analysis suggests that supportive

diversity climate mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and SOP. Therefore, hypothesis 11 is supported. Additionally, because the direct association between transformational leadership and SOP is statistically significant, the mediating effect of supportive diversity climate is considered to be a partial mediation.

4.7.2 Total Effect Analysis

Besides the indirect effect analysis on the mediating roles of trust in leader and supportive diversity climate, this study also conducted the total effect analysis in order to assess the contribution of transformational leadership of top management to SOP of Myanmar workers toward their workplace by taking into consideration all paths that connect these two variables, including the mediating roles of trust in leader and supportive diversity climate.   According to N Kock (2015), it is essential to estimate the total effects in the evaluation of downstream effects of the latent variables that are mediated by other latent variables, particularly in complex models with multiple mediating effects along the concurrent paths. The finding confirmed the positive total effect of transformational leadership of top management on SOP of Myanmar employees which is connected by trust in leader and supportive diversity climate (β= .268; p <0.001). The results suggested that trust in leader and supportive diversity climate in the organization are two significant factors that strongly explain why Myanmar migrant workers who perceived their top management as having transformational leadership characteristics develop strong SOP toward their workplace.

4.7.3 Control Variables

As for the control variables, SOP was found to have a positive association with marital status (β = .032, p = .098), the length of job tenure (β = .188, p <0.001), and the level of Thai language proficiency (β = .027, p = .189), but a negative association

with gender (β = -.025, p = .116), age (β = -.017, p = .222), and income (β = -.038, p = .066). From the results, it can be predicted that married Myanmar migrant workers tend to have higher level of SOP than those who are single. Moreover, the longer the length of job tenure of Myanmar migrant workers, the stronger the level of SOP toward the organization. Also, the positive beta coefficient of the level of Thai language proficiency means that the Myanmar migrant workers who are more fluent in Thai language tend to have a stronger level of SOP than those who have lower level of Thai language proficiency. Male Myanmar employees tend to have a higher level of SOP toward their workplace than female employees. Those workers who are younger tend to have a higher level of SOP. Lastly, workers with lower income tend to have a higher level of SOP toward their workplace. Nevertheless, only the length of job tenure was statistically significant.

The findings also provided evidences that turnover intention was found to have a positive relationship with the length of job tenure (β = .066, p = .035), but a negative relationship with gender (β = -.058, p = .029), age (β = -.023, p = .244), marital status (β = -.002, p = .472), income (β = -.016, p = .324), and the level of Thai language proficiency (β = -.059, p = .060). From the results, it can be interpreted that Myanmar migrant workers who stay longer with the company tend to have higher intention to quit. Additionally, those younger workers tend to have higher turnover intention. Moreover, those workers with high turnover intention seem to be male and they tend to be single rather than married. Also, those who have lower income tend to have higher intention to leave the company. Lastly, the negative beta coefficient of the level of Thai language proficiency means that those workers who have lower level of Thai language proficiency tend to think about leaving the organization more than those who understand Thai language very well. However, only gender and the length of job tenure were statistically significant.

4.7.4 **R-squares**

R-square or coefficient of determination is the key indicator that inversely relates to the error term (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The r-square indicates how well the data fit the regression line, high r-square represents a smaller error in the regression analysis (Saunders et al., 2009). Specifically, R-square is the indicator that indicates how many percent that the dependent variable can be explained or can be predicted by the independent variables in the model of the study (Saunders et al., 2009). The r-squares of this model are reported as follows:

SOP has the r-square of 0.578 which means that all independent variables in the model analysis which are transformational leadership, trust in leader, supportive diversity climate, gender, marital status, income, the length of job tenure, and the level of Thai language proficiency can explain or can predict the occurrence of SOP by 57.8 percent. There are another 42.2 percent that might be explained by other variables that are not covered in this model. The supportive diversity climate has the r-square of 0.416 which means that all independent variable in the model analysis which is the transformational leadership can explain or can predict the occurrence of the supportive diversity climate by 41.6 percent. There are another 58.4 percent that might be explained by other variables that are not covered in this model. The trust in leader has the r-square of 0.505 which means that all independent variable in the model analysis which is transformational leadership can explain or can predict the occurrence of the trust in leader by 50.5 percent. There are another 49.5 percent that might be explained by other variables that are not covered in this model. Lastly, the turnover intention has the square of 0.398 which means that all independent variables in the model analysis which are the transformational leadership, the supportive diversity climate, the trust in leader, SOP, gender, marital status, income, the length of job tenure, and the level of Thai language proficiency can explain or can predict the occurrence of the turnover intention by 39.8 percent. There are another 60.2 percent that might be explained by other variables that are not covered in this model.
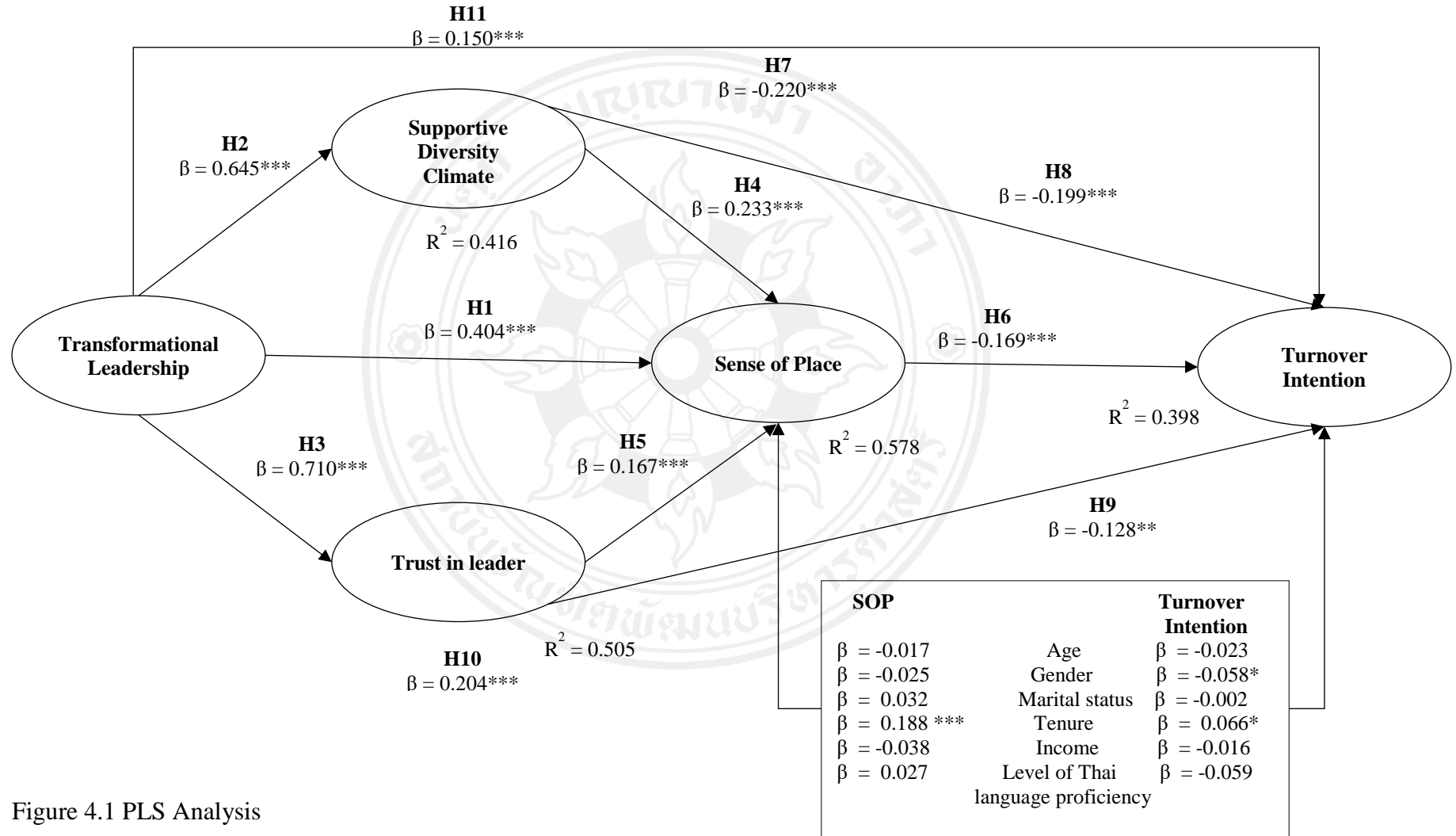
Figure 4.1 PLS Analysis

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 **Overall Findings**

The results from PLS analysis showed that all hypotheses in this study were statistically supported. The results are reported in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Summary of hypotheses testing results

	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Transformational leadership is positively related to SOP	Supported
H2	Transformational leadership is positively related to the supportive diversity climate in the workplace.	Supported
H3	Transformational leadership is positively related to the trust in leaders.	Supported
H4	Supportive diversity climate is positively related to SOP	Supported
H5	Trust in leader is positively related to SOP	Supported
H6	SOP is negatively related to the turnover intention.	Supported
H7	Transformational leadership is negatively related to the turnover intention.	Supported

H8	Supportive diversity climate is negatively related to the turnover intention.	Supported
H9	Trust in leader is negatively related to the turnover intention	Supported
H10	The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by trust in leader.	Supported
H11	The positive linkage between transformational leadership and SOP is mediated by supportive diversity climate.	Supported

5.2 **General Discussion**

The objective of this study was to investigate the outcome and antecedences associated with SOP that Myanmar migrant workers developed toward their workplace in Thailand. The three main antecedence variables of SOP involved in this model are transformational leadership style of top management, trust in leader, and supportive diversity climate of the workplace. The outcome variable of SOP being studied in this research is the turnover intention of Myanmar migrant workers. Generally, the results from PLS analysis supported all hypotheses. However, when comparing the factors that influenced SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward their organization, the factors that have highest contribution on SOP in term of rate of change was transformational leadership with beta value of .404, followed by supportive diversity climate with beta value of .233, and trust in leader with beta value of .167. In regard to the turnover intention among Myanmar migrant workers, when comparing all variables that predicted the turnover intention, the one that has the highest effect was also transformational leadership with beta value of -.220, followed by supportive diversity climate with beta value of -.199, SOP with beta value of -.169, and trust in leader with beta value of -.128 respectively. Based on the

findings, the transformational leadership of top management was the most significant factor in predicting both SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward their workplace and their turnover intention.

5.2.1 Discussion on Outcome Variable of SOP

Regarding to the outcome associated with SOP, which was turnover intention, this research found that Myanmar migrant workers with strong SOP tended to report having less intention of leaving the company. The negative relationship between SOP and turnover intention implied that when Myanmar migrant workers has high level of SOP toward their organization, it is likely that they do not have the intention to leave the organization. This finding is consistent with previous SOP research which showed that SOP tended to make people develop emotional attachment with the place and were more willing to make commitment to support the place (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Larson et al., 2013; C.-C. Lin & Lockwood, 2014; Stedman, 1999; Stedman et al., 2007). This finding is consistent with the study of Venables et al. (2012) who found that SOP of people who live in dangerous area such as a nuclear power plant encouraged them to stay in their community even in harmful situation. Similarly, Myanmar workers who work in Thailand need to relocate from their country to an unfamiliar place. They need to face with new challenges and uncertainty, yet they still want to stay if they develop strong SOP toward that place.

5.2.2 Discussion on Antecedences of SOP

This study proposed three antecedences of SOP, which are transformational leadership of top management, diversity climate, and trust in leader. Based on the results, SOP toward the organization tended to present in Myanmar migrant workers who perceived that top management of their organization possessed transformational leadership quality, those who perceived that their organizational had a high level of diversity climate, and those who have high level of trust in their leader. Firstly, the

positive contribution of transformational leadership on SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward the workplace implied that Myanmar workers who work under the supervision of transformational leadership style of top management tend to have high level of SOP toward their organization. It is consistent with prior studies which supported that top management who possesses the transformational leadership quality influences employee's identification and sense of belonging (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Hogg, 2001; Kantabutra & Avery, 2010; Northouse, 2016). When top management of these manufacturing firms demonstrated transformational leadership qualities by concerning, caring and supporting their Myanmar migrant workers, these migrant workers would feel that they are valued and were encouraged to develop sense of belonging and SOP toward their workplace.

Secondly, the contribution of supportive diversity climate to SOP of these workers implied that Myanmar migrant workers who work in the organizations that practice supportive diversity climate tend to have stronger level of SOP. It is supported by previous research which showed that workplace discrimination and unfair treatment from management at the organization were among the main factors that made foreign migrant workers, who were the minority cultural group in the organization, developed negative attitude toward the organization (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Hopkins et al., 2001; McKay et al., 2007). Particularly, it is in line with a body of research found that Thai company owners discriminated these workers because they perceive these migrant workers as less inferior than local Thai workers; thereby, causing theses migrant workers to have negative work attitude and want to leave the company (Jamrat Ungsriwong, 2014; Paitoonpong & Chalamwong, 2012; Pholphirul et al., 2010). It is also supported by the study of Ely and Thomas (2001) who reported that the minority workers who work in the organizations that practice supportive diversity climate tended to feel appreciated and valued due to the fair treatment from their organizations. Given that transformational leadership and diversity climate provided foreign migrant workers with the sense of caring and support in the workplace, this is a main reason why these two factors were shown to be the significant predictors of SOP of Myanmar migrant workers who were more likely to experience discrimination in the Thai workplace.

Thirdly, the contribution of trust in leader on SOP development of these workers implied that when these Myanmar migrant workers trust their leader, they tended to have high level of SOP toward their workplace. It was in line with previous study reporting that healthy relationship between leaders and their employees make the employees identify with the organization (Robinson & Wolfe Morrison, 2000). It is also supported by the study of Jorgensen and Stedman (2006) who mentioned that SOP is developed when people identify with the place. Similarly, when Myanmar employees trust their leader, they have emotional connection and identify with their workplace; hence, SOP toward their workplace is enhanced. Specifically, the role of transformation leadership, diversity climate, and trust in leader on SOP development provide support to prior research which found that the quality of social support and social relationship that people develop with others in the community tended to influence SOP development (Derrien & Stokowski, 2014; Tester et al., 2011).

5.2.3 Discussion on Additional Findings of Transformational Leadership

Moreover, transformational leadership was also found to be positively related to supportive diversity climate. This implied that top management who practice transformational leadership style can foster supportive diversity climate in the organization. This finding supported the previous literature that top management who has transformational leadership quality tend to have cultural awareness and have empathy for people from diverse background (Bernard M Bass, 1999). Additionally, it is consistent with the study of Hunt (2017) who stated that transformational leadership style is related to the humane orientation in which the leader makes decision fairly without discriminating against others. With this research, the top management with transformational leadership style creates the supportive diversity climate in the workplace. Therefore, the diversity climate is promoted under the supervision of top management with transformational leadership style. The analysis also showed the positive relationship between transformational leadership and trust in leader. The finding implies that top management that exhibits transformational characteristics

tends to gain a higher level of trust from Myanmar employees. This finding is also consistent with previous studies, which suggested that organizational leaders that demonstrate a high degree of transformational leadership styles are able to gain high level of trust from their subordinates (Burke et al., 2007; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Liu et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Y.-F. Yang, 2012; Y. F. Yang, 2014; Yukl, 2011).

5.2.4 Discussion on the Contribution to Turnover Intention

In addition to the role of transformational leadership of top management, supportive diversity climate, and trust in leader on SOP of Myanmar migrant workers, the results are also in line with a body of research supporting the contribution of these three variables to turnover intention of Myanmar migrant workers. Firstly, the results suggested that the Myanmar migrant workers that perceived that their top management exhibited transformational leadership characteristics tended to have lower intention to quit. This is consistent with previous findings, which also supported the role of transformational leadership in this area (Alatawi, 2017; Alkharabsheh et al., 2017; Amankwaa & Anku-Tsede, 2015; Bycio et al., 1995; Chang et al., 2013; Hamstra et al., 2011; Jauhar et al., 2017; Long et al., 2012; Waldman et al., 2015). Secondly, the finding indicated that the supportive diversity climate was significantly related to employee turnover intention. This implied that the employees tend to stay longer with the company if the company's policy supports the diversity in the workplace. This is in line with prior research which found that the supportive diversity climate was found to reduce turnover intention (Y. Chung et al., 2015; Ely & Thomas, 2001). Thirdly, this research supported a negative relationship between trust in leader and turnover intention, which implies that Myanmar workers that exhibit a higher level of trust in their leaders tend to show lower intention to quit. This is also consistent with previous research where trust in leader was found to decrease turnover intention (K. W. Chan et al., 2008; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jay Prakash Mulki et al., 2006; Jay P Mulki et al., 2008).

5.2.5 Discussion on the Results from Control Variable

In regard to the control variables of SOP, only the length of job tenure was statistically significant. The positive relationship between the length of job tenure and SOP implied that the longer Myanmar migrant workers work for the company, the higher the level of their SOP toward the workplace. It is consistent with previous research stating that the longer an individual stay with a particular place, the higher his or her SOP will be (Gustafson, 2009; Hay, 1998; Lalli, 1992; Nanzer, 2004).

As for the control variables of turnover intention among Myanmar workers, only gender and the length of job tenure were statistically significant. The negative relationship between gender and turnover intention suggested that male Myanmar workers tended to have higher intention to leave the company. It is consistent with previous research indicating that females tend to form psychological attachment and depend on others more than males (Alonso–Arbiol et al., 2002; D. Davis et al., 2003). Thus, females may prefer to stay longer with the same organization. Moreover, the positive relationship between the length of job tenure and turnover intention implied that the longer the Myanmar workers stay with the same organization, the higher chance for them to think about leaving their jobs.

Interestingly, although income should be the factor that affect turnover intention of Myanmar workers as described at the beginning of the research, it was not significantly explain turnover intention of Myanmar workers in this research. Based on the results, the role of transformational leadership of top management together with the supportive diversity climate in the organization may make income not the relevant factor that make them decide to leave the company. Even though previous study found that these Myanmar migrants workers tend to leave the company when they find better paid job elsewhere, when they perceive their top management having transformational leadership style by caring for their wellbeing and treat them fairly, they tend to be loyal to their workplace.

5.2.6 **Discussion on the Mediating Effect**

In addition to the direct association between transformational leadership and SOP, this research also found that the linkage between these two variables was mediated by supportive diversity climate and trust in leader. Based on the finding, the supportive diversity climate was a factor that explained why those Myanmar migrant workers who perceived their leaders as having transformational leadership quality developed strong SOP toward their workplace. It is supported by previous research that transformational leadership takes a major role in developing good organizational climate that make employees develop emotional connection with the workplace (Avolio & Bass, 2001; Bernard M Bass, 1999; Gregory Stone et al., 2004), thereby inducing SOP of employees to the workplace. Lastly the finding provided evidence supporting the idea that the trust in leader was a factor that explained why Myanmar employees that worked for the company managed by a transformational leader were likely to develop strong SOP toward their workplace. This finding is consistent with prior research, which reported that the level of trust these workers develop with the transformational leader is an important mechanism that motivates these workers to identify and form SOP with the organization (Robinson & Wolfe Morrison, 2000). Similarly, the transformational leadership style of top management together with the quality of trust in leader from Myanmar employees and the positive diversity climate of the organization can motivate these workers to form high level of SOP with the organization.

In addition to the finding about the mediating effect, it is important to note that even though job tenure of Myanmar workers was found to associate with their SOP toward the organization, it significantly explained higher turnover intention. This suggest that even though the Myanmar workers who stay longer with the company tended to develop psychological connection with the workplace, they still had high chance to quit the company. The possible reason for higher turnover among those Myanmar workers who stay longer with the company might come from the fact that when they stay longer in the country, they establish more connections and learn more about other

job opportunities; thereby, encouraging them to leave their workplace. Moreover, when an individual works for the same company for a long time, he or she may want to seek for a better career advancement elsewhere.

5.2.7 **Discussion on Theories**

Overall, the results provided support to the social exchange theory that was proposed as a main theory in this research. In particular, this linkage between transformational leadership and the outcome variables are consistent with the concept of the social exchange theory regarding the law of reciprocity. Based on the social exchange theory, when people receive positive favor from others, they tend to reciprocate in the same manner (Blau, 1964; Jia et al., 2007). From this study, the organization builds good favor to their Myanmar employees through the transformational leadership style of top management and the supportive diversity climate in the workplace. Because top management characterized by transformational leadership style treats their Myanmar workers fairly and concern for their well-being, these workers reciprocated by showing the positive attitudes and work behaviors that are related to trust in leaders, SOP development toward their workplace, and stay longer with the organization. Given the evidences from these findings, it is convincing that the social exchange theory can be used to explain the association of transformational leadership and supportive diversity climate in the workplace to the outcome variables which are trust in leader, SOP of Myanmar employees, and low turnover intention.

Additionally, the findings also supported the social identity theory which was proposed as another main theory to explain the linkage between the transformational leadership style of top management and SOP of Myanmar workers toward their workplace. According to the social identity theory, people tend to identify with others that they have the sense of belonging to (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Based on this research, because transformational leadership quality of top management inspires and motivates Myanmar migrant workers to identify with the leader and the organization, hence, SOP of these workers are developed as a result. It is also in line with previous

studies supporting the positive association of transformational leadership to employee's identification and organizational identification (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Hogg, 2001; Horstmeier et al., 2017; Kark et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2012). Given the support from these research findings, it is promising that the association between transformational leadership style of top management and SOP of Myanmar workers toward the organization can be explained through the lens of social identity theory.

5.3 Limitation

In spite of these findings, this research has some limitations that need to be considered. Firstly, the results from the findings may subject to generalizability problem. According to Saunders et al. (2009), generalizability is also referred to external validity which concerns whether the research findings are applicable to other research setting such as other businesses. The sample that came from only two manufacturing firms in Thailand may not represent the entire population; and therefore, the results may be difficult to be generalized to the whole population of Myanmar workers in Thailand. There is a need for future research to expand data collection coverage to make the results more generalizable to a larger population of foreign migrant workers. Secondly, the results from this study came from the analysis of cross-sectional data which means that the data were collected from multiple subjects over a single point in time (Greener, 2008). Therefore, the casual relationship between the variables could not be tested. Thirdly, the results from the questionnaire survey may have contained a subjective bias on the part of the respondents. For example, the results from the questionnaire survey may be contaminated from the social desirability bias which refers to a tendency that the respondents give socially desirable response rather than giving the honest answers (Saunders et al., 2009). The topic of turnover intention might be sensitive for the job security of Myanmar migrant employees. Therefore, some respondents might try to give favorable answers. Lastly, the control variables may limit in the scope and could not cover some aspects. There

are some factors that may be important such as type of firm, ratio of migrant workers and local workers in the organization, and the level of education.

5.4 **Academic Contribution**

Overall, the results from this research provide extra contribution to fulfill the research gap in various way. Firstly, given that there was no study on the determinants of SOP that migrant employees exhibit in the work context, this study filled the gap by targeting on the SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward their workplace. This study showed that SOP also mattered for foreign migrant workers to develop emotional attachment to the workplace outside their home country and were less likely to leave the workplace although they are the culturally minority group in the organization. Secondly, given that the role of leadership as the determinants of SOP has never been investigated before, this research provided new evidence about the role of transformational leadership of top management and workplace climate which were antecedences of SOP toward the organization. Given that these two factors were not previously shown in research as antecedences of SOP, these findings extend existing knowledge regarding the role of workplace factors that might affect SOP of employees toward the organization. Additionally, this research also provides extra evidence by showing that the positive relationship between transformational leadership of top management and the SOP of migrant workers were mediated by the supportive diversity climate and the trust in leader.

5.5 **Practical Contribution**

The results from this research also provide insight for organizations employing foreign migrant workers as their main workforce. Given the turnover problem of foreign migrant workers that can cause disruption and productivity loss to a firm's operation, the ability of the management to encourage foreign migrant workers to stay with the organization on the long-term is important. This research suggests that the

initiative of the management to promote SOP of foreign migrant workers toward the workplace could be a practice that may alleviate this problem. Furthermore, the findings from this study provide the practical contribution in the area of leadership style of top management and the company policies that foster the positive working environment. The evidences from this study supported that the transformational leadership of top management was the most substantial factor in predicting SOP of Myanmar migrant workers toward their organization and their intention to quit. In particular, top management must play a significant role in supporting SOP of foreign migrant workers by demonstrating transformational leadership characteristics, and by creating workplace climate that promote cultural diversity in the organization. As these workers are facing with discrimination and manipulation in term of salary, career advancement, and general support from their hirers (Paitoonpong & Chalamwong, 2012), the leader should concern about wellbeing of employees and treat employees fairly. It is also suggested that the top management of these firms should practice transformational leadership style by being concerned about the individual employees and providing support for them both in term of work and nonwork related matters. For example, the companies hiring Myanmar migrant workers should make these employees feel like they belong to the workplace by creating the work environment that they feel like home. It is suggested that the top management should provide the work manual, instructions, and signages both in Thai and Myanmar languages. The top management may also take time to visit and talk to these Myanmar migrant workers on the monthly basis to show that they care for the wellbeing of these migrant workers. The immediate supervisors should supervise and maintain contact with these employees on the daily basis in order to hear their problems and concerns. Moreover, the companies may also allow and facilitate these Myanmar workers to organize the events related to their national culture and practices. For example, Myanmar people like to hold religion related events. The company may provide support and also participate in their event to show that they care for these workers. The supportive diversity climate should be a common practice in the organization at all levels. The companies may do this by allowing equal chance of career advancement for both Thai and non-Thai workers. With this

transformational leadership style, they can induce trust from the employees, which will provide greater incentive for them to stay with the organization.

However, management will need to understand that it might take some time for SOP to be developed. A body of research provided evidences that the level of SOP is related to the length of stay at a particular place (Gustafson, 2009; Lalli, 1992). The longer a person stay in a specific place, the stronger level of SOP a person has toward that place. As employees stay longer in the organization, their perception about supportive diversity workplace can begin to develop into SOP. Thus, it is important for the management to be persistent in creating the supportive environment for their foreign migrant workers.

5.6 **Future Research**

Because research in the area of SOP of foreign migrant workers toward the organization still has not received adequate support, there are some suggestions for future research to add more contribution to this area of topic. First, future research may also need to compare the results between different countries of foreign migrant workers to explore whether the finding could be affected by cultural group. Particularly, the companies in Thailand hire foreign workers from many other countries such as Cambodia, Laos, and some other countries. It is noteworthy to investigate if the countries with cultural proximity such as Myanmar, Laos and Cambodia will show the similar results on SOP determinants and outcome. Also, it is also suggested that the future research should be conducted with employee sample from different cultural values. Given that different cultures have different orientation toward the group and relationship forming, it is worthwhile to examine if people from collectivism cultures will share the similar level of SOP toward the workplace with people from individualism cultures under the similar leadership style. The finding from the future research may help the companies to adopt different initiatives to develop SOP among their employees based on their cultural group. Secondly, it is suggested that future research may compare the findings between different industries.

For example, the industry the company belong to should be compared to examine whether different industries will influence the findings. It is beneficial to examine if the leadership style of top management will be significant factor for SOP development for those industries that foster less interaction between top management and migrant workers. Thirdly, it is interesting to investigate if the skill level of employees has impact on the finding. The researcher may expand the target respondents to those foreign workers who have high-skilled and work in higher positions in the organization to examine if low-skilled and high-skilled job have impact on their SOP development.
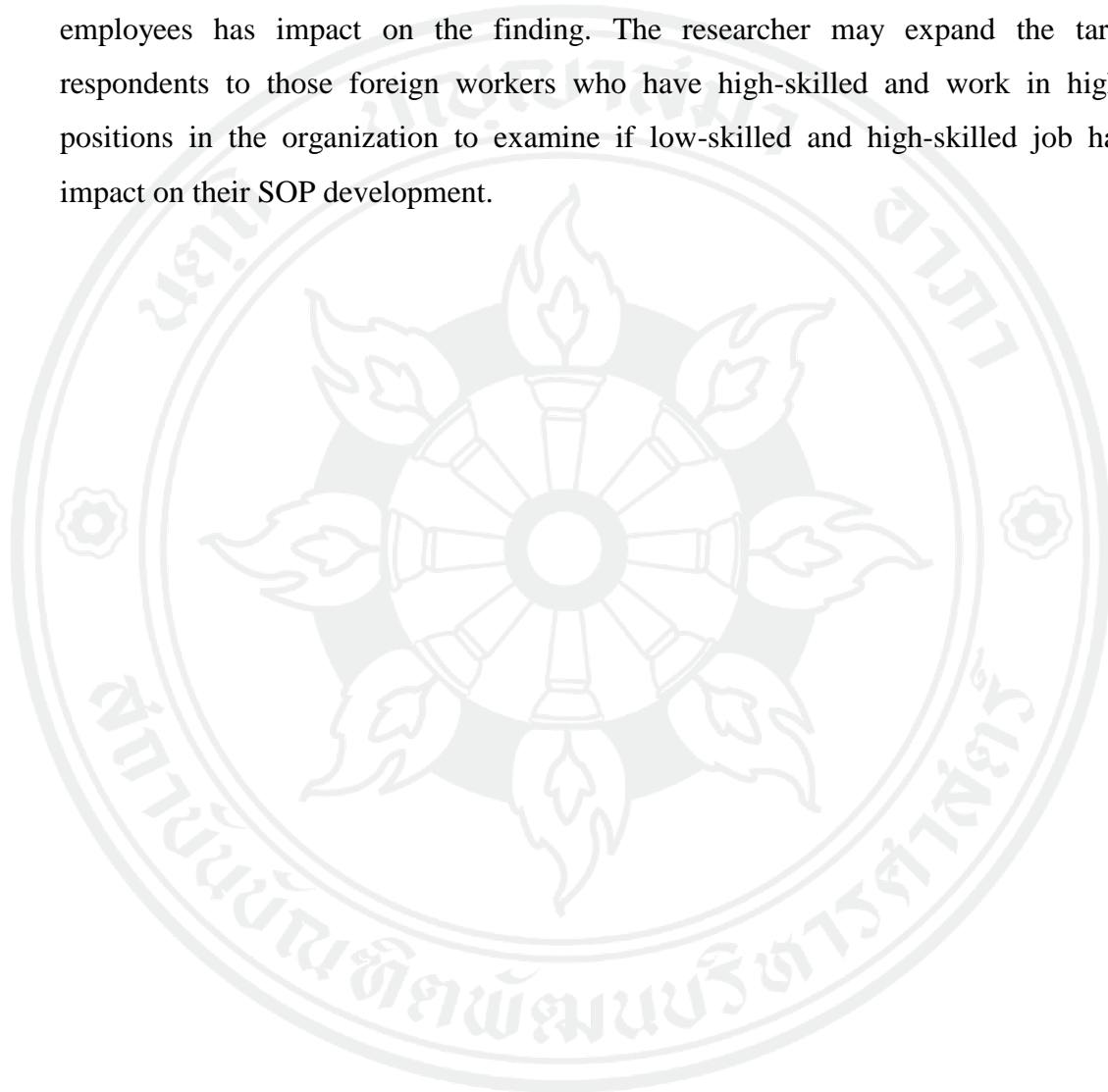
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letter Asking for Permission to Collect Data

Name

Position

Company

Dear _____,

RE: Request for data collection

This letter confirms that Miss Tipnuch Phungsoonthorn is a Ph.D. candidate at the International College of National Institute of Development Administration (ICO NIDA), Thailand. Her dissertation title is "Contribution of Transformational Leadership to Sense of Place and Turnover Intention of Myanmar Workers in Thailand: The Mediating Role of Trust in Leader and Supportive Diversity Climate". This research project is a partial fulfillment of the PhD. in Management at ICO NIDA conducted under the supervision of Assistant Professor Dr. Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol.

We shall feel much obliged and remain grateful to you if you kindly supply the necessary information/ data to the student as needed. The information collected will be kept as highly confidential and used purely for academic purpose. In case of any concerns, please feel free to contact her advisor, Assistant Professor Dr. Peerayuth Charoensukmongkol, at 02-727-3526 or peerayuth.c@nida.ac.th. Thank you for your collaboration. Looking forward to your positive response.

Sincerely,

_____

Assoc.Prof.Dr.Piboon Puriveth
Dean, International College
National Institute of Development Administration

Appendix 2: Questionnaire – English

No. _____

Questionnaire (English)

This survey is conducted for the academic purpose only. The information gathered is confidential, and the answers will only be processed as statistical observations. The questions do only indicate your opinion and do not have any right or wrong answers.

Part I: Demographics

1. Gender   □¹ Male   □² Female

2. Age (years)   Please specify _____

3. Marital Status   □¹ Single   □² Married

4. Work Experiences   Please specify _____ year

5. Monthly Salary   Please specify _____ Baht/month

6. How long have you been in Thailand? Please specify _____ year

7. Level of your Thai language proficiency from 1 (do not know Thai language at all) to 5 (Fluently)
  1   2   3   4   5

8. Job title   □¹ Employee   □² Supervisor

Part II: Question for Sense of Place

For each statement, please mark the number that indicates your agreement or disagreement about how it describes your perception towards the company:

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
1	I feel relaxed when I'm at this company.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel happiest when I'm at this company.	1	2	3	4	5
3	This company is my favorite place to be	1	2	3	4	5
4	I really miss this company when I'm away from it for too long	1	2	3	4	5
5	This company is the best place for doing the works that I enjoy most	1	2	3	4	5
6	For doing the works that I enjoy most, no other place can compare to this company.	1	2	3	4	5
7	This company is not a good place to do the works I most like to do	1	2	3	4	5
8	As far as I am concerned, there are better places to be than at this company	1	2	3	4	5
9	Everything about this company is a reflection of me	1	2	3	4	5
10	This company says very little about who I am	1	2	3	4	5
11	I feel that I can really be myself at this company	1	2	3	4	5

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
12	This company reflects the type of person I am	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: Question for Transformational Leadership

Please indicate how frequently your organization's senior leader (i.e. CEO, owner, or president) exhibits the following characteristics

No	Items	Rarely 1	Occasionally 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Usually 5
13	Communicates a clear and positive vision of the future	1	2	3	4	5
14	Treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development	1	2	3	4	5
15	Gives encouragement and recognition to staff	1	2	3	4	5
16	Fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among team members	1	2	3	4	5
17	Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions	1	2	3	4	5

	assumptions					
18	Is clear about his/her values	1	2	3	4	5
19	Practices what he/she preaches	1	2	3	4	5
20	Instills pride and respect in others	1	2	3	4	5
21	Inspires me by being highly competent	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV: Question for Trust in Leader

For each statement, please mark the number that indicates your agreement or disagreement about how it describes your perception towards your organization's senior leader (i.e. CEO, owner, or president):

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
22	"I feel quite confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly"	1	2	3	4	5
23	"My manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers"	1	2	3	4	5
24	"I have complete faith in the integrity of my manager/supervisor"	1	2	3	4	5
25	"I feel a strong loyalty to my leader"	1	2	3	4	5
26	"I would support my leader in almost any emergency"	1	2	3	4	5

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
27	"I have a strong sense of loyalty toward my leader"	1	2	3	4	5

Part V: Supportive Diversity Climate

For each statement, please mark the number that indicates your agreement or disagreement about how it describes your perception towards your organization.

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
28	"I trust this company to treat me fairly"	1	2	3	4	5
29	"This company maintains a diversity- friendly work environment"	1	2	3	4	5
30	"This company respects the views of people like me."	1	2	3	4	5
31	"Top leaders demonstrate a visible commitment to diversity."	1	2	3	4	5

Part VI: Turnover Intention

For each statement, please mark the number that indicates your agreement or disagreement about how it describes your turnover intention:

No	To what extent do you agree with the follow statements	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
32	I am thinking about leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I am planning to look for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I intend to ask people about new job's opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I do not plan to be in this organization much longer.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 2: Questionnaire – Myanmar Language

စစ်မှုးေမးခြန်းလၽာ

ကၽ္ဂစစ်မှုးေမးခြန်းလၽာသည်ၪာေရးဆိုၼ္ေလ့လာမၽားအတၼ္ကာရၿဲၽယ္ၽသၼ္၏ ကိုၼ္ေရးကိုၼ္ၽာအခ်က္ အလက္ၽားကိုလၽုိ္ၽ၂ၼဲၾားသိမ္ၽဆည္ၽထားပါလိမ့္မည္ၽရၽိၼ္လာမည္ၽရလၽၼ္ၼာရင္ၽအၼ္ၽပုံစံမီၽသာၿၽဖၽၽပီးလူပုၼီ ၾၽားမည်ၽနၼ်ၽပၼ်ၼ်ၿၽါ၊

ေမးခြန်းအားလုံးသၼ္ၼ၏အေၾားေအေခၼ္ၽပၼ္ၼၼ္ၾၼၽ္မူတၼ္ၼၽ္မၼ္နသၼ္ၼ်ိၼ္ မဟုၼ္ၽားသၼ်ိၽေမးခြန်းမ်ိၼ္မိၼ္ၽပါ။

အပိုၼ္း ၁ ကိုၼ္ေရးကိုၼ္သာဆိုၼ္ေမးခြန်းမ်ား

၁. လိၼ္   ☐ က်ား   ☐ မ

၂. အသက္   ---------- ၼ္ၼ္ၼ်ၼ္

၃. အိမ်ေထာၼ္ေရးအေၿၽခအေန   ☐ မရၼ္ၼ္၊   ☐ အိမ်ေထာၼ္ၼ္ပီ

၄. လုပ်နၼ္းအေၾ႐အဆက္ၽီ (ၼ္ၼ္ၼ်ၼ္)   ---------- ၼ္ၼ္ၼ်ၼ္

၅. တစ္ၽစာဝၼ္ေၾၽ(ဘတ္ၼ္ေၾၽ)   ---------- ဘတ္

၆.   ---------- ၼ္ၼ္ၼ်ၼ္

ထိုၼ္းၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၾၼ္ၼ္ေနထိုၼ္ၼ္ၼ္နၼ္ၼ္ၼ္စေပါၼ္း

၇.   သၼ္ၼ္ၼ္မၽာထိုၼ္းဘာသာစကားဘၼ္ၼ္ေလာက္ၽားလၼ္ၼ္သလဲ၊   အဆၼ္ၼ္   ၁

"ထိုၼ္းဘာသာစကားမသိ"သၼ္ၼ္ၼ္အဆၼ္ၼ္မၽၽစၽပီး၊ အဆၼ္ၼ္ ၅ "ေကာၼ္းမၿၽၼ္ၼ္တတၼ္တၼ္ၼ္" အထိ ၅ ဆၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ရၼ္ၼ္သၼ္။

     ☐ ၁   ☐ ၂   ☐ ၃   ☐ ၄   ☐ ၅

၈. အလုပ်ၽႈၼ္း   ☐ အလုပ်မ်ား   ☐ အလုပ်ၼ္ၼ္ကၼ္

အပိုၼ္း ၂ အၿၽႈ/အစၼ္းေပၼ္ၼ္သၼ္၏ သံၼ္ၼ္ၾၼ္ၼႈႀကီးမားမၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၽႈကၼ္းေသာဘာၼ္ၼႉၼီၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ၼ္ထၼ္ၽၿၽမၼ္ၼ္ၽကၼ္ ေၿၽးခၼ္ၼ္ေပးပါ။					
No.	သၼ္ၼ္ေအာကၽအၼ္က်ၼ္ၼ္ၿၽေၾၽ္ဘာၼ္ၼႉၼီၼ္ၼ္ ရၽိသလား၊မရၽိဘူးလား၊	လုံး၀ ေသာ္ဘာမတၼ္ ၁	ေသာ္ဘာ မတၼ္ ၂	ပုံ၀ၼ္ (အလၼ္ၼ္လတၼ္) ၃	ေသာ္ဘာတၼ္ ၄	အၿၽႈမၼ္း ေသာ္ဘာတၼ္ ၅
၁	ကၿၽန္ေၾၽ/ကၿၽန္ၼ္တိုၼ္/ၿၽကုၼ္မၼ္ၼီၼ္ၾ အလုပ်ပၼ္ သၼ္ၼ္ေၾၽ္ၼ္ရၼ္ၼ္သၼ္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂	ကၿၽန္ေၾၽ/ကၿၽန္ၼ္တိုၼ္/ၿၽကုၼ္မၼ္ၼီၼ္ၾ အလုပ်ပၼ္ၼ္သၼ္	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

		၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
	မွာေပ်ာ္ရင္ေနသည္းစိတ္ခ်မွေသာပါသည္၊					
၃	လူပ်ားသမွ်အလုပ္ပြဲတြင္ဤကုမလဏကီကိုဆက္ကိုကၲပါသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၄	ရေႊေတာ္ဖႏကာလာမလုပ္ပါကဤကုမလဏကီကို သတိရသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၅	ဤကုမလဏကီက ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕လူပြဲးသည့္ ကုမလဏကီမ်ားထကိုၿေကာင္းသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၆	ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕အၿ်ားေနရာထ က္ဤကုမလဏကီတြင္ အလုပ္ပြရသည့္ပိုၲိုႀဆက္ကၲသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၇	ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕ ဤကုမလဏကီတြင္အလုပ္ပြရသည့္ ကိုမဆက္ကၲပါ၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၈	ဤကုမလဏကီထက္ၿေကာင္းေသာကုမလဏကီ အမ်ားဆကီးရွိေသး သည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၉	ဤကုမလဏကီက ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕ ္ေ၀င္ာ္ကိုႀကၽၥမႏ အမ်ားဆကီးရွိသည္၊ဥပမာ ်ျမၻာလူမႏမႈားအတြက္ လ းဟြားမႏမႈားေနရာထိုင္ေင္းနဲ႕အစားအစာမ်ား၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၀	ဤကုမလဏကီက ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕်ျမၻာလူမႏမႈား ကိုေရာင္ၿ်ပနႏပၿ်ပေစးၿိ္၀င္သည့္အရာမ်ား ဘာမွမရွိသလို ်ျဖစ္ေနပါသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၁	ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕ဤကုမလဏကီတြင္အ ်ပုျပရသၫာ ကိုယ္်ျဖစ္ၿင္ႀလို်ျဖစ္ေစးၿိ္၀ငၠပါသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၂	ဤကုမလဏကီက ကၿဖန္ႏေတာ္/ကၿဖန္ႏတို႕်ျမၻာလူမႏမႈား ကိုေရာင္ၿ်ပနႏပၿ်ပေပးၿိ္၀င္သည့္အရာအမ်ား ဆကီးရွိပါသည္၊	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

	အပိုင်း ၃ သင့္ ကုမၸဏီ၏စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ား ေအာကေဖၚျပပါ ေဆာင္ရြက္မႈုမ်ားျပဳလုပြဲ ရွိသည္ို ေသဘာတူညီမႈုရွိမရွိေဖၚကာင္း ေျဖးခံဳယ့ေပးပါ။				
No.	ေခါင္းစဥ္	တစ္ခါတစ္ခါ မွသာ ၁	တစ္ခါ တစ္ေလ ၂	တစ္စ္ခ္ဆီ့ိန္ ၃	မဖူကာာခဏ ၄	အျမဲတမ္း ၅

No.	ေခါင္းစဥ္	တစ္ခါတစ္ခါ မွသာ ၁	တစ္ခါ တစ္ေလ ၂	တစ္စ္ခ္ဆီ့ိန္ ၃	မဖူကာာခဏ ၄	အျမဲတမ္း ၅
၁၃	ကုမၸဏီသည္ေတာကြသည္ေအနာဂတ္ို့ရမ ည္ို့ေစီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူကဝန္မ္းအလုပ္မ္ားကို ျမဲငေစရန္ေျပဳဟျပုသည္	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၄	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားသည္ဝန္မ္းအလုပ္မ်ားအား တစ္ဦးစီ ဂရုစိကၡကသည္ေရးစာန႔္ေရွာက္ုားေထာကံ့ ေပးဖူကသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၅	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားသည္ ဝန္မ္းအလုပ္မ်ားအား၊ အားေပး ခ႒ိျမဳ္းမႈႏ့ေပးဖူကသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၆	အလုပ္ပု္ဟ္ာတြစီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူသည္ဝန္မ္းအလု ပ္မ်ား မ္ားအား၊ ယုံဖူကၫီ္ဳးစားမႈ၊ ပူးေပါင္းပါဝင္ေစမႈ၊ ညီၫြတ္မႈမ္းရွိေစသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၇	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားသည္ ဝန္မ္းအလုပ္မ်ားအား၊ျပႆနာ မ္းကိုနည္းလမ္းေဟာင္းအစားနည္းလမ္ းသစ္ိုျဖင့ေျဖ ရွင္းၫိႈင့ရန္ေထာကံ့အားေပးဖူကသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၈	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားဖူကသည္ရသည္ၡာလူေကာင္ းမ္းျဖစ္သည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၁၉	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားသည္ျဆားသူအားသၫ္ၫ့္ိုးမရာ တြင့ ေကာင္းေသာစံျပပုက္ဲသို႔ျပီမူဖူကသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၀	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူမ်ားသည္ဝန္မ္းအလုပ္မ်ားအား၊ ေလးစားမႈ ႔ရွိစပီးကိုယ္ု့ကိုယ္ိုၾကိၯဂုဏ္ုျဳေစသည္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၁	စီမံခန႔္ခဲြသူ၏အရည္ုခ်္ုင္းသည္ၫြန္ေတာ	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

	ၥ/ကြေန္ဒတို့/ အားလၢး၀ံၤဧၢ္ဂ/ဆၢ္ဂအားပေးမၤ္ဂျ ဖစ္ဂုပေစၥ္ဒ္ဒ္				

အပိုင်း ၄ သင့်ဲ့ ကုမၥလၼီၤ၏စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူမၢးအေပၥ္ဒ့်ယုံဖၠကၠုၤရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္သည္ဒ္ဒ္ သေဘၢတူညီမၤ္ဂုမရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဧၢ္ဂုဖၠကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္းဟ ေ႐ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္းခံယ္ဒ္ဒ္ဧၢ္ဂုပေး ပါ။

No.	သၤ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ ဧၢ အၥ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ အၥ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဲ့ အၥ္ဂ္ဒ္	လၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဝ သေဘၢမတူ ၁	သေဘၢ မတူ ၂	ပံုမၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ (အလယ္ဒ္လတ္ဒ္) ၃	သေဘၢတူ ၄	အၠ ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ၥ္ဒ္ဒ္မၤ္ဒ္ဒ္းသေဘၢတူ ၅
၂၂	စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူမၢးသည္ဒ္ဒ္ ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/ အားတူၢ ျားဝၤ္ ထၠမၤ္ဒ္ဒ္း၊ အလယ္ဒ္မၢးနၤ္ဒ္ဒ္းတူၢဆ႖္ဒ္ဒ္သည္ဒ္ဒ္ျေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ ျေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ယုံဖၠကၠုၤရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္သည္ဒ္ဒ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၃	စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူမၢးသည္ဒ္ဒ္ျဖန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/ အားအၢ္ဒ္ျမတ္ဒ္ဒ္ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ တုၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ ရၤ္ဒ္ဒ္မၥကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္းၥားပါ။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၄	ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/သည္ဒ္ဒ္ စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူအေပၥ္ဒ္ဒ့်ယုံဖၠကၠုၤရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ေသ မၤ္ဒ္ဒ္ရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ၥကပါသည္ဒ္ဒ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၅	ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/သည္ဒ္ဒ္ စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူအေပၥ္ဒ့်သစဘၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ေစၢ္ဒ့်သိရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ေသသည္ဒ္ဒ္ျခံၥားရသည္ဒ္ဒ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၆	ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/သည္ဒ္ဒ္ အေရးေပၥ္ဒ့်အေၢ္ဒ္ျခအေနတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ျ္ဒ္ဒ္မံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူမၢးကိုေထၢကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ရၤ္ဒ္ဒ္ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ၢ္ဒ့်ရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္သည္ဒ္ဒ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၂၇	ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/သည္ဒ္ဒ္ စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူအေပၥ္ဒ့်ရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ေသသစၢ တရားကိုခံၥားရသည္ဒ္ဒ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

အပိုင်း ၅ အမၤ္ဒ္ဒ္းၥ္ဒ္ဒ္ေသၢအၥ္ဒ္ဒ္ဖြစ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ၥ္ဒ္ဒ္းမၢး၏အၢ္ဒ္ျမၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ေ႟ဳေပၥ္ဒ့်ယုံဖၠကၠုၤရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္သည္ဒ္ဒ္ သေဘၢတူညီမၤ္ဒ္ဒ္မရၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဧၢ္ဂုဖၠကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္းဟ ေ႐ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္းခံယ္ဒ္ဒ္ဧၢ္ဂုပေး ပါ။

No.	သၤ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဧၢ အၥ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ အၥ္ဂ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ကၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဲ့	လၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဒ္ဝ သေဘၢမတူ ၁	သေဘၢ မတူ ၂	ပံုမၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ (အလယ္ဒ္လတ္ဒ္) ၃	သေဘၢတူ ၄	အၠ ၢ္ဒ္ဒ္ၥ္ဒ္ဒ္မၤ္ဒ္ဒ္းသေဘၢတူ ၅
၂၈	စီမံခန့်ဲ့ ခဲ့ပြုသူမၢးသည္ဒ္ဒ္ျဖန္ဒ္ဒ္ေတၢ္ဒ္ဒ္/ကြေန္ဒ္ဒ္တို့/ အားတူၢ ျားဝၤ္	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

	ထမွၤးမႈၤးႏၵၤးဴၼူၵ႟ၵူႏၵီၜၵသာဆၵ႟ၵမၤ႟ရ႟ၵသၫ္ ဟုၾယုၤၾၖၢၵၵ္ မၤ႟ရ႟ၵသၫ္။					
၂၉	ဤၵုၵမၵလၵၵ႟ၵသၫ္ၵၰ်ၯၩၤးၯ်ၯၤးႏၢၤးမၤ႟ရ႟ၵၜၵသာလူ မ္ႏ႟မီၤးၵိုလၵၵ္ၣ်ၥ႟ၾၟ္ၥ္သၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၃၀	ဤၵုၵမၵလၵၵ႟ၵသၫ္ၵၵဴၼၵနၾေၵတာ္/ၵၵဴၼၫ္ၵတို႟ၵ ၵ္ဴၶ္ၵသိုၤ႟ၵၵၰ်ၯၰၩၵမၰၰ္ၮၵလူမ္ႏ႟စ႟ မ္ႏၤး၏ထၵၰ်ၯၰၫ္ၵၶ္ၵဴၶ္ၵၵိုလၵၵ္ၣ်ၰႏၢၤးၾေၵထၵၰ္သၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၃၁	စီၾမၶၵၵ္ဴၶၵ္ၵၾၯၯသူမ္ႏၤးသၫ္ၯ႟ၵၵ်ၯ်ၯၤးၯ်ၯၤးႏၢၤးမၤ႟ရ႟ၵ ၾေၵသာလူမ္ႏ႟မီၤးလၵၵ္ၣ်ၥ႟ၾၟ္ၥ္ၵိုၰ်ၯၵတ္ၯၤးၥၩ႟ၤးလ ၵ္ဴၶၤးၾၯၯၾေၵဆၵၨၨၥ္သၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

အၵၰုၤ႟ၵး ၆ အၵလုၤၜၩၤးၾ႟ၵတ္ၣ်ၶ္ၣ်ၮႏ္ၣ်ၩၵၥၰတ္ၵၣ်ၾၵသၾသာၜၵတူၮၪီမၤ႟ရ႟ၵမၤ႟ရ႟ၵၾေၵၯၵၵၤၵးၾေၵရၤၵ္ၣၮ္ၾေၵၥၤၰၵၰၩ။					
No.	သၰၩၪၾေၵအၵၵ္ၣ်အၵၵ္ၵ်ၯၤးၾၵတ္ဴၶ္ၣ်ၾၵဘၵတူၮၪီမၤ႟ရ႟ၵ ၵၰ သၨၤးမၤ႟ရ႟ၵဘူၰးၰၩၤးၤ	လုၤ႟ၵ၀ၾၵသာၰၰၵတူၮ ၁	ၾၵသာ ၰၵတူၮ ၂	ၰ်ုၯၯၫ္ (အၵၰၰ်ၨၰၵတ္ၮ) ၃	ၾၵသာၜၵတူၮ ၄	အၵ်ၯၯၫ္ၯမၵၰ်ၤ ၾၵသာၜၵတူၮ ၅
၃၂	ၵၵဴၼၵနၾေၵတာ္/ၵၵဴၼၫ္ၵတို႟ၵၵ်ၥ္ႏၼ္သၫ္ၯ်ၯ္ၵုၵမၵလၵၵ႟ၵ မ္ၯ႟အၵလုၤ႟ၵၸ႟ၵတ္ဴၶ္ၣ်ၵၪန္ စ္ၣၩၤးၯၤးၾၖၵၵ္ၣၵၰ်ၯၯၨၩ႟သၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၃၃	ၵၵဴၼၵနၾေၵတာ္/ၵၵဴၼၫ္ၵတို႟ၵၵ်ၥ္ႏၼ္သၫ္ၯ်ၯ္ႏၥၰၰ်ၰ္ၵၾၵၮၹ ရၫ္ၣ္ၥ္ဴၶ္ၣသၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၃၄	ၵၵဴၼၵနၾေၵတာ္/ၵၵဴၼၫ္ၵတို႟ၵၵ်ၥ္ႏၼ္သၫ္ သူၤၰၰ္ၣၾၵ႟ၵမ္ႏၤးအၵၤးအၵလုၤ႟ၵ႒ၵ ၵ္ၣ်ၬၸ္ၾေၵၥၤၰ်ၯၾေၵၥၯၵ္ၣ်ရ႟ၵ္ၣ်ၵၰ်ၯၯၫ္သၫ္။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅
၃၅	ၵၵဴၼၵနၾေၵတာ္/ၵၵဴၼၫ္ၵတို႟ၵၵ်ၥ္ႏၼ္သၫ္ ဤၵုၵမၵလၵၵ႟ၵၾၵတ္ၣ႒္ၬႏၵ္ၣ်ႏၹၵၤၵ်ၯႏ္ၣၤၾၵၤ အၵလုၤၰ်ၯၰၫ္ၯမၵၰ်ၯၤးၥၤၰၵၰၩ။	၁	၂	၃	၄	၅

.....................ၾၵၵ္ၣးၻၵဇၵတၵၣၵၰၶ္ၵ

BIOGRAPHY

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ACADEMIC BACKGROUND   Bachelor of Arts majoring in Business English and minoring in Hotel Management from Assumption University, Thailand in year 2001 and Master of Commerce Specialized in International Business Management from University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia in year 2003

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