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**FACTORS AFFECTING JOB TRANSFER INTENTION OF
TEACHERS IN THE THREE SOUTHERN PROVINCES OF
THAILAND**



PATIPAT KITTICHOKWATTANA

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
2023**

**FACTORS AFFECTING JOB TRANSFER INTENTION OF
TEACHERS IN THE THREE SOUTHERN PROVINCES OF
THAILAND**



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**A thesis submitted to the Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government
In fulfillment of the requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy
Universiti Utara Malaysia**



Kolej Undang-Undang, Kerajaan dan Pengajian Antarabangsa
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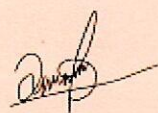
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ABSTRACT

Job transfer refers to the voluntary or self-initiated relocation of work within an organization. In understanding the driving factors behind teachers' job transfer, the regulatory focus theory can be a useful analytical tool. Based on this theory, the emotional and behavioral outcomes of individuals are influenced by how they fit into and react to various psychological states of regulatory failure within the work environment, such as organizational values, scope and workload, and work community support. This study examines the link between regulatory failure and teachers' intentions for job transfer in the selected provinces of southern Thailand. It also investigates how these factors can lead to job burnout and feelings of despair among the teachers due to the failure to meet their goals. Using a quantitative and cross-sectional survey research design, a total of 351 teachers from public primary schools in the three southern provinces of Thailand were randomly selected as the research sample. The required data was collected through a set of questionnaires administered to the participants. The data collected from the survey was analyzed using the partial least square structural equation model. The results show that factors like community, values, regulatory failure, and job burnout had a collective impact on teachers' job transfer intention, but with a relatively low level of predictive accuracy. A mediation analysis reveals an indirect-only mediation effect of job burnout towards the relationship between organizational values and teachers' intention for job transfer. It also identifies a serial mediation effect, where regulatory failure and job burnout play influential roles in the relationship between community and teacher's intention for job transfer. The research findings also reveal that the risk of suffering burnout is much higher for teachers that perceive their profession to be too stressful or demanding. These findings provide a better understanding of the psychological mechanism of regulatory focus of teachers and formulate appropriate interventions to improve teacher retention.

Keywords: Job Transfer Intention, Job Burnout, Person-Environment Fit, Regulatory Focus, Teaching Profession, Thailand

ABSTRAK

Pemindahan kerja merujuk kepada penempatan semula lokasi kerja secara sukarela atau dimulakan sendiri oleh organisasi. Dalam memahami faktor pendorong di sebalik pemindahan kerja guru, teori fokus peraturan boleh menjadi alat analisis yang berguna. Berdasarkan teori ini, hasil emosi dan tingkah laku individu dipengaruhi oleh cara mereka menyesuaikan diri dan bertindak balas terhadap pelbagai keadaan psikologi kegagalan peraturan dalam persekitaran kerja, seperti nilai organisasi, skop dan bebanan kerja, dan sokongan komuniti kerja. Kajian ini mengkaji hubungan antara kegagalan peraturan dan niat guru untuk pemindahan kerja di wilayah terpilih di selatan Thailand. Ia juga menyiasat bagaimana faktor-faktor ini boleh menyebabkan kelesuan kerja dan perasaan putus asa di kalangan guru kerana kegagalan mencapai matlamat yang mereka. Dengan menggunakan reka bentuk kajian tinjauan kuantitatif dan keratan rentas, seramai 351 guru dari sekolah rendah awam di tiga wilayah selatan Thailand telah dipilih secara rambang sebagai sampel kajian. Data yang diperlukan dikumpul melalui satu set soal selidik yang diberikan kepada peserta. Data yang dikumpul daripada tinjauan dianalisis menggunakan model persamaan struktur kuasa dua terkecil separa. Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa faktor seperti komuniti, nilai, kegagalan peraturan dan kelesuan kerja mempunyai kesan kolektif terhadap niat pemindahan kerja guru, tetapi dengan tahap ketepatan ramalan yang agak rendah. Analisis pengantaraan mendedahkan kesan pengantaraan tidak langsung sahaja daripada kelesuan kerja terhadap hubungan antara nilai organisasi dan niat guru untuk pemindahan kerja. Ia juga mengenal pasti kesan pengantaraan bersiri, di mana kegagalan peraturan dan kelesuan kerja memainkan peranan yang berpengaruh dalam hubungan antara komuniti dan niat guru untuk pemindahan kerja. Dapatan kajian juga mendedahkan bahawa risiko mengalami keletihan adalah lebih tinggi bagi guru yang menganggap profesion mereka terlalu menekan atau mencabar. Penemuan ini memberikan pemahaman yang lebih baik tentang mekanisme psikologi fokus pengawalseliaan guru dan merumuskan intervensi yang sesuai untuk meningkatkan pengekalan guru.

Kata Kunci: Niat Pemindahan Kerja, Kelesuan Upaya Kerja, Kesesuaian Individu-Persekitaran, Regulasi Fokus, Profesion Perguruan, Thailand

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LIST OF ABBRIVIATIONS

TRF	Job Transfer Intention
CTL	Control
COM	Community
VAL	Values
REF	Regulatory Failure
BRN	Job Burnout
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio
R²	Coefficient of Determination
f²	f ² Effect Size
Q²	Predictive Relevance
q²	q ² Effect Size
PESAO	Provincial Primary Education Service Area Office
SD	Standard Deviation
SE Mean	Standard Error of Mean
Sig	Significant
VIF	Variance Inflation Faction
CR	Composite Reliability
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CI	Confidence Interval

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Over the past decades, Thailand has made significant progress in basic education by increasing the literacy rate and education accessibility (OECD, 2020). Despite a high investment in education, it does not yield as high student learning outcomes as expected, whether in the national or international assessments. Results from the National Test (NT) of the student in grade 3 and the Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) of the student in grades 6 and 9 consecutively from 2017-2021 were below 40 percent on every subject (Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, 2021, p. 78). Likewise, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2018 reveals that half of the Thai students at the age of 15 scored below the minimum proficiency level in reading, mathematics, and science (World Bank, 2020, pp. 11–14).

Importantly, the national testing result suggests the two-tier inequity in education between a few top-performing students in advantageous schools located in urban areas and many low-performing students in disadvantaged rural schools. Also, PISA 2018 indicates that the education inequity in Thailand was exacerbated considerably in rural schools, students from low socioeconomic status, and ethnic minority students. Students with a background in rural schools (67 percent), from disadvantaged

socioeconomic backgrounds (74 percent) and speak a different language at home (77 percent) scored below the minimum level of proficiency in reading (World Bank, 2020, pp. 18–23).

The teacher shortage is critical when considering equity in education (World Bank, 2020). In Thailand, it found that teacher shortage stems from the high rate of retirement, novice teacher turnover, and early retirement (Phonakorn, 2017). Nevertheless, job transfer is often neglected among the Thai researchers. It is partly because job transfer is viewed as a neutral effect since the overall number of teachers does not change. In fact, it considerably exacerbates education inequity because the job transfer destination concentrates on the advantaged urban schools.

According to the report from the World Bank (2020, pp. 27–29), the Shortage of Educational Staff Index unveiled the severity of education inequality in Thailand. It found that the mean difference in staff shortage index between the advantaged and disadvantaged schools is above 0.6 standard deviation (SD), which is considerably high when compared to less than 0.4 SD of the countries in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCED). Moreover, in terms of qualification, it found that teachers with at least a master's degree were twice as in urban schools (46 percent) than in rural schools (22 percent).

Working in a disadvantaged rural school is unattractive and makes it hard to retain qualified teachers, especially those non-local. Hence, the Teacher and Educational Personnel Law stipulates that teachers can apply for a job transfer unless the years of service in the current school is less than 4. Unfortunately, it could not raise the

retention rate as evidence suggests that the average teacher's experience between urban and rural schools is considerably high. For example, the average teaching experience of teachers in the poor-border province of Mae Hong Son was 10.8 years which is substantially low when compared to the average of 23.5 years of teachers in the capital city of Bangkok (World Bank, 2015, p. 26). Recently, after the years of service were reduced to 2 years, the job transfer rate from disadvantaged rural schools has increased rapidly. A disadvantaged rural school near the Thai and Myanmar border, Kanchanaburi province, lost half of its teachers (38 out of 82) at once after completing the mandatory 2 years of service (MGR online, 2022).

The three southern provinces of Thailand refer to the three provinces located in the deep south of Thailand namely Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat. This area has poor socioeconomic development and high conflict. Ethnic-religious conflicts have taken place in this area for more than a century. In the early 1900s, the central Thai government implemented forced assimilation and promoted Thai-ness policies toward the ethnic groups, including Melayu-Muslim in the deep south (Chambers et al., 2019). The local Melayu language was banned in public offices, Islamic law was overridden by Thai civil law, ethnic Melayu traditions were replaced by the central Thai practices, and the school curriculum was revised to be Thai-centric. Parents view the public government school as antagonistic to their beliefs while adhering more and more to the Melayu-Muslim identities. Denial of the public school system resulted in low literacy, high unemployment, and living below the poverty line (Chongwilaikasaem et al., 2022; Suwanworaboon & Haruthaithanasan, 2019; Thongmark et al., 2018).

The resurgence of violence in 2004 has worsened education quality in the deep south considerably. The education system that is viewed by the insurgents as a symbol associated with the central Thai government has been targeted. It found that insurgents aim to attack and kill soft targets who are unprotected, not even teachers and education personnel ranging from principals to janitors, both Buddhist and Muslim. It usually happens in rural areas where patrol and surveillance are weak and limited. The attacks may be shootings, ambushes, assassinations, bombs, and arson. Some teachers received death threats by letters, phone calls, and social media.

A report from Isranews agency (2019) on the 15 years of southern insurgency, from 4th January 2004 to 4th January 2019, disclosed 9,985 insurgency-related incidents with 4,011 people killed and 10,651 injured. Violence mostly happens against civilians. Not as many as 1,000 security forces were killed, and around 4,000 were injured compared to 3,000 dead and 6,000 injured civilians. Among them, it was 109 teachers dead, 130 injured, and 315 school buildings were arson.

The government has strengthened security measures to prevent attacks against teachers and school arson attacks. The army forts are set on school grounds to prevent arson. Armed security lines the road to protect teachers when commuting to and from schools. Teachers are allowed to buy a handgun and bulletproof vest. The hazardous duty allowance and life insurance benefit are increased for those at risk. Also, a permanent contract is offered to the temporary contract teachers to maintain sufficient staff. However, life and property threats have made teachers unwilling to stay in this area.

Patrawart (2015) states that an average of 140,000 migrations per year were recorded in the deep south between 2004-2014. Almost half migrated within, while an average of 40,000 migrated out of the deep south provinces. Out-migration behavior was found to fluctuate in response to the violence. The rate was up to the highest in 2007, three times higher than the year before the violence took place. It lowered in the following years and climbed up again in 2013. Interestingly, the gravity model of migration demonstrates that people are likely to move from a highly violent area to a destination that is urban with high population density, more peaceful, better socioeconomic environment, and better infrastructure. The high and unceasing rate of out-migration may impact population structure and subsequently restrain political, social, and economic development in the next two decades.

Deep south provinces have approximately 10,000 teachers working in 869 public primary schools (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2018). From 2004 to 2009, when insurgency was highly intense, an average of 844 teachers submitted for a job transfer in each province by a year, but around 230 were approved (Secretariat of the Cabinet, 2010). The number of teachers who submitted for a job transfer varies in correspondence with the number of violent incidents, but the actual job transfer rate has rarely changed. It ranges between 70 to 140 per year in each province (Narathiwat Provincial Education Office, 2021; Pattani Provincial Education Office, 2021; Yala Provincial Education Office, 2021).

Some scholars found that Deep South teachers committed to their work even though the insurgency seemed to have no end. Noosomton and Na Wichian (2015) assert that the ratio between the teachers who continue working in the deep South and those who

desired to migrate out was acceptable at 11:1. Nevertheless, Suwanworaboon and Haruthaithanasan (2019) argue that the qualification of teachers who transferred out of the deep South is more concerned than the number. It can cause an issue of competent deficiency since most of the teachers who transferred out were highly talented and experienced, whereas those with similar qualifications were reluctant to transfer in. Moreover, more than half of the teachers who transferred within the Deep South headed to schools located in the urban area, while less than ten percent went to rural schools. It is likely to exacerbate educational inequity considerably.

Prolonged insurgency and teacher job transfer have detrimental impacts on the Deep South education. Thailand Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) 2012-2018 illustrates that students from the Deep South scored all subjects below the national average and ranked in the lowest ten provinces in Thailand (Bureau of Educational Testing, 2020; Suwanworaboon & Haruthaithanasan, 2019; Thongmark et al., 2018). It indirectly results in a high unemployment rate and a low new business establishment (Chongwilaikasaem et al., 2022). It also worsened economic inequality when the Gross Provincial Product Per Capita was far behind the upper-tier provinces, such as by 17.2 times from the highest 1,067,449 baht per annum of Rayong and 62,066 baht per annum of Narathiwat (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council, 2020).

Job transfers intention is a continuous and repetition process that leads to an action or to postponing and reassessing the associated factors. Teachers who have not requested a job transfer may change their intention when perceived the associated factors are getting worse. It is recognized that teachers will stay in a school that allows them to

reach their full potential, a collaborative atmosphere, supportive supervisor, parental trust, and a safe and non-disruptive learning climate. Contrary, they leave school because of poor working conditions, trailing spouses, minimizing commuting distances, reducing hardship at work, providing care to ill or aging family members, or pursuing higher education opportunities (Allensworth et al., 2009; Cook, 2018; Simon & Johnson, 2015).

Amid the southern insurgency, Noosomton and Na Wichian (2010, 2015) assert that most of the teachers who moved out of the deep south are as committed to the teaching profession as those who did not transfer. But the poor working conditions drain away the engagement with their school. Consistent with much of the research that suggests teachers in the disadvantaged rural area tend to leave school by the poor working conditions (Cook, 2018; Podolsky et al., 2016; Sribayak et al., 2018). Therefore, work conditions are more vital to the management when dealing with the job transfer than the uncontrollable deep South insurgency.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Employees always assess how the fit between personal and environmental attributes. Fit can range from the specific job aspects to the abstraction of organizational values. Within the Deep South context, it apparently should focus on job control, work community, and value (Noosomton, 2016). As job holders, teachers expect autonomy and authority in a responsible job (Faraz, 2017; H.-L. Liu & Lo, 2018; Yamaguchi et al., 2016) to design a suitable pedagogy and deliver better student outcomes. As a part of work community, teachers need emotional support and smooth interpersonal relation with colleagues and supervisors (Ali, 2018; Gordon et al., 2018; Player et al.,

2017) to deliver expected job outcomes and indirectly buffer the adverse impacts of the Deep South insurgency. As school members, teachers expect their beliefs about desirable goals or standards to be congruent with the established values and normative principles (M. S. Hayes & Stazyk, 2019; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017; M. Zhang et al., 2017), which brings about positive attitudes toward work and school and is extremely crucial for retaining teachers in disadvantage rural school.

Previous research suggests that the fit between a person and environment is associated with affective (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), physical (i.e., stress and strain), and behavioral outcomes (i.e., performance and withdrawal) (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Employees may use one or a combination of strategies when aware of or experience misfits, namely coping, adjustment, job-crafting, buffering, distancing, job transfer, or leaving the organization (Dawis, 2005; Edwards, 1992; Follmer et al., 2018; Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Rather than direct impact, substantial studies suggest that person-environment fit indirectly impacts behavioral outcomes through job burnout (Dall'Ora et al., 2020; Ryan et al., 2017; C. K. J. Wang et al., 2017). When misfits emerge, it produces emotional stress and chronic stress causing emotional exhaustion. To mitigate the effect of emotional exhaustion, one tends to exert less effort and less involvement with the job. It results in low job performance and feeling incompetence. These symptoms increase the risk of job burnout. Simultaneously, low job involvement and feeling of incompetence lead to withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and intention to leave (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Nevertheless, human behaviors are complex. For example, close supervision by the management that brings negative outcomes could be positive or neutral for someone on some occasions. The newcomers perceive close supervision as positive because it enhances skill development and ensures work safety while perceiving it as neutral despite high task rigidity and limiting creativity. On the other hand, proficient employees will feel negative because they are fully qualified and competent but can be neutral when it prevents them from making mistakes and negligence. It suggests that fit is dynamic and subjective that varies across individual preferences, context, goals, and momentary situations.

From the regulatory focus theory perspective (Higgins, 1997), fit and misfit vary in whether people are sensitive to the positive or negative outcomes. Fits can arise when positive outcomes are present (e.g., close supervision that enhances skill development) or when negative outcomes are absent (e.g., close supervision that prevents mistakes). It reflects a gain and non-loss psychological state, respectively. Likewise, misfits can emerge when positive outcomes are absent (e.g., close supervision hinders creativity) or when negative outcomes are present (e.g., close supervision produces incompetent feelings). It represents a loss and a non-gain respectively.

It brings the psychological states of success and failure in self-regulatory which play a crucial role in regulating emotional and behavioral responses (Scholer & Higgins, 2013). Self-regulatory success can emerge whether in gain or non-loss situations but with different emotional consequences. Success derives from a gain (e.g., getting an A grade) produces cheerfulness, and success from a non-loss (e.g., not getting an F grade) results in quiescent emotion. Likewise, failure can be about ending with either

a non-gain or a loss, with distinct emotional consequences. A non-gain (e.g., failure to get an A grade) will feel dejected, while a loss (failure to avoid an F grade) will feel agitated. It is worth noting that the psychological states of success because of gain versus non-loss are positive unequally, while failure because of loss versus non-gain are negative unequally.

In addition, Idson et al. (2000) indicate that gain involves hope and aspirations that function like maximal goals (ideal or promotion focus), while non-loss involves obligations and responsibilities that function like minimal goals (ought or prevention focus). Hence, the intensity of pleasure is higher when success in a maximal goal because fulfilling hope and aspiration (promotion success) conveys a sense of accomplishment, mastery, and competence. On the contrary, failure in a minimal goal brings more pain because failure to maintain obligations and responsibilities (prevention failure) brings a feeling of shame, incompetence, and worthlessness.

Researchers assert that different sources of failure in self-regulation bring about different emotional issues. However, the association is not clear, especially on job burnout. On the one hand, some studies indicate that job burnout is originated from job dissatisfaction which involves a failure in attaining aspiration goals or promotion failure (e.g., Dai et al., 2021; Silbiger et al., 2017). On the other hand, some studies argue that a strong focus on avoidance of making mistakes, seeking flawlessness, and making completion which reflects failures in the prevention system are more vulnerable to job burnout (e.g., Meeussen & Van Laar, 2018; Yasuda & Goegan, 2023).

In the context of Thai teachers, much of the research states that teachers in public primary schools are expected to deliver quality student learning outcomes. Meanwhile, the government rarely supports the adequacy of teaching equipment, support staff, or time (Arphattananon, 2018; Ratanasiripong et al., 2022). Altogether with the deep South insurgency situation, it prompts a prevention focus motivation to the teachers by being more sensitive to the negative outcome, constantly checking potential loss, and complying with educational quality standard. It demonstrates that teachers are facing work situations that run counter to safety, obligations, and responsibilities rather than growth, hopes, and aspirations. Thereby, prevention focus seems to be dominant among the deep South teachers, while prevention failure could be a significant source of job burnout.

Rather than burning out, it is possible that those psychological states can disengage from the current goal and find the alternatives. According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), failure in the promotion system is constituted by being stuck in the status quo. It needs eager actions and taking risks to advance beyond that status quo. Failure in the prevention system is constituted by falling below the status quo. It needs vigilant actions and conservative bias to return to that status quo. In addition, Roese et al. (1999) indicate that failure in the promotion system will motivate one to improve self-regulation in the future by considering things that one could have done but fail to do (additive counterfactual), whereas failure in the prevention system will consider things they did but should not have done (subtractive counterfactual). Meaning that promotion failure will motivate one to find new alternatives and take risks, whereas prevention failure tends to adhere to the choice that had already been made and is less likely to quit.

In general, an active strategic means is maintained when experiencing success and is reduced following the failure (Borovoi et al., 2022; Förster et al., 2001, 2003; Pollack et al., 2015). Nevertheless, reaching a certain magnitude of success and failure can shift the behavioral orientation to the opposite. For example, experiencing a series of large gains (high promotion success) can shift risk-seeking individuals to be conservative (Zou et al., 2014), or conservative individuals will choose a risky option when encountering extreme losses (high prevention failure) (Scholer et al., 2010). These behavioral shifts tactically operate in the service of restoring the gain and non-loss respectively.

Therefore, previous evidence suggests that job transfer intention is indirectly affected by misfits between a person and the work environment through job burnout. In the context of the Deep South insurgency, it apparently should focus on control, community, and values. However, misfits are dynamic and subjective depending on situational cues. It entails the psychological state of self-regulatory failure which impacts negative emotional and behavioral responses. These psychological mechanisms intervene in the relationship between misfit and job transfer intention by two means. First, since deep South teachers are associated with obligations and responsibilities which made prevention failure the dominant psychological state, it entails the long serial relationship that starts from misfits, regulatory failure, job burnout, and job transfer intention. Second, since failure in the promotion system motivates one to disengage and find alternatives, a shorter path from misfit, regulatory failure, and job transfer intention is possible.

1.3 Research Questions

According to the problem statement mentioned above, this study aims to find the answer to the following research questions:

- (1) Does work environment influence job transfer intention of teachers in southern Thailand?
- (2) Does work environment influence job burnout of teacher in southern Thailand?
- (3) What are the relationships between work environment, job burnout, and job transfer intention in southern Thailand?
- (4) What are the relationships between work environment, regulatory failure, and job transfer intention in southern Thailand?
- (5) What are the mediating factors in the relationship between work environment and job transfer intention of teachers in southern Thailand?

1.4 Research Objectives

The research objective is to examine the factors affecting the job transfer intention, especially of the teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. The relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables is investigated using a partial least square structural equation modelling analysis method. The specific research objectives are as follows.

- (1) To examine the work environment's influence on job transfer intention of teachers in southern Thailand.
- (2) To examine the work environment's influence on job burnout of teacher in southern Thailand.

- (3) To examine the relationship between work environment, job burnout, and job transfer intention of teacher in southern Thailand.
- (4) To examine the relationship between work environment, regulatory failure, and job transfer intention of teacher in southern Thailand.
- (5) To examine the mediating factors in the relationship between work environment and job transfer intention of teachers in southern Thailand.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study enhances understanding of job transfer by examining the effect of person and work environment fit. This study examines the effect of burnout as well as the mediation effect of job burnout on job transfer intention. Moreover, this study includes regulatory failure as a second mediating variable to offer clarity on the relationship between work environments and job transfer intention.

This study adds further knowledge to the person-environment fit theory of whether the direction of misfit cause different impacts on emotional and behavioral outcomes. Inclusion of the regulatory failure into the study may widen understanding of the person-environment fit theory (e.g., Van Vianen, 2018) because deficiency or excess are associated with positive or negative outcomes which motivate the self-regulation toward emotional and behavioral responses.

In practice, the finding of this study will benefit school principals in disadvantaged rural schools and the Ministry of Education in developing policies and strategies for retaining qualified teachers to work in the school where they are most needed, especially in the three southern provinces of Thailand. As recommended by

Noosomton (2016), the findings will provide a better understanding of the key factors that the school principal and the Ministry of Education should emphasize, especially when dealing with job burnout and job transfer intention. Finally, the findings can provide solutions to improve workplace well-being and work adjustment that fit with the needs of the teacher.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to the government teachers who work in public primary school in the three southern provinces of Thailand namely Patani, Yala, and Narathiwat. This study focuses on the impact of the three work environments namely control, community, and values toward job transfer intention. Thus, control, community, and values are the independent variables while job transfer intention is the dependent variable.

This study focuses on the mediation effect of job burnout and regulatory failure on the relationship between the three work environments and job transfer intention. It also investigates the serial mediating role of job burnout and regulatory failure. This study uses cross-sectional survey research design. The questionnaire will be administered to the teachers who work in public primary schools.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

- (1) Job transfer: “a change in the job accompanied by a change in the place of the job of an employee without a change in responsibility or remuneration (Flippo, 1984, p. 189).”
- (2) Job burnout: “a psychological syndrome emerging as a prolonged response

to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2016, p. 103).”

- (3) Work environments: “the organizational context related to chronic or situational mismatches between people and their work-setting in terms of some or of three areas which are control, community, and value”.
- (4) Control: “employees’ perceived capacity to influence decisions that affect their work, to exercise professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do an effective job (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 96).”
- (5) Community: “quality of social interactions at work, and it includes issues such as conflict, connectedness, social support, or shared values (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 98).”
- (6) Values: “the congruence between individuals’ and organizations’ beliefs and ideals (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 99).”
- (7) Regulatory focus: “two motivation system namely promotion and prevention focus that influent people to adjust or guide their behaviors and attitudes to meet the desire-end state (Higgins, 1998).”
- (8) Promotion failure: “the psychological state that is experienced as the absence of a positive outcome (a non-gain) (Strauman et al., 2015, p. 19).”
- (8) Prevention failure: “the psychological state that is experienced as the presence of a negative outcome (a loss) (Strauman et al., 2015, p. 19).”
- (10) Teacher: government teachers who teach in the public primary school in the three southern provinces of Thailand.
- (11) The three southern provinces: the areas locating in southern most of

Thailand including provinces of Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat.

1.8 Organization of the Thesis

This study consists of five chapters. The first chapter intended to show the background, problem statement, research questions, objectives, scope, significance, and definition of key terms. Chapter two focuses on a review of related literature on job transfer intention, job burnout, control, community, values, and regulatory failure. It addresses person-environment fit and regulatory focus theory in the underpinning theory of the study. The research framework and hypotheses are also indicated in this chapter.

Chapter three presents the research methodology of the study. It describes the research design, operationalization of the variables, measuring instruments, population, sample size, sampling technique, and data collection. It also describes the methods used for data analysis. Finally, the pilot study involving reliability testing is reported.

Chapter four pertains to the findings based on the statistical analysis of the collected data. It begins with data examination, screening, and preliminary analysis. Then, the measurement model and structural model are analyzed and reported. Finally, the results of hypotheses testing are reported.

Chapter five focuses on the discussion of the findings within the objectives and hypotheses of the study. It indicates theoretical and practical contributions and implications of the study. It also describes the limitations and suggestions for future research direction. Finally, it presents the conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews education in Thailand and previous studies relating to job transfer intention, control, community, values, job burnout, and regulatory failure. It covers relationships between those variables, major findings, methodologies, and suggestions from the existing research. Also, the underpinning theory that creates the research model will be explained. Lastly, it presents the research framework and hypotheses.

2.2 Education in Thailand

According to the 1999 National Education Act and 2002 revised (Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, 2021), Thai education consists of formal, non-formal, and informal education. Other types of education are offered to fit the characteristics and needs of the students, such as vocational education, special vocational education, vocational education for specific groups, teacher and nurse education, and so forth. Special education and welfare education is provided for handicapped and disadvantaged students. Nevertheless, formal education is the focus of this study.

In specific to the formal education, it consists of basic education and higher education. Basic education contains pre-primary level, primary level, and secondary level. The pre-primary level (or “Anuban” in Thai) is a compulsory preschool education that starts from the age of three. The primary level is a compulsory 6-year education that starts from the age of six (“Prathom 1-6”). The secondary level is a 6-year schooling which is three years of lower secondary level (“Mathayom 1-3”) and three years of upper secondary level (“Mathayom 4-6”). The higher education (“Mahavidyalaya”) requires four years to complete a bachelor’s degree, and one to three years for a master’s degree and a doctoral degree.

The education institutes, both public and private schools, are overseen by the Ministry of Education, excluding higher education institutes which are under the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation. The Office of Basic Education Commission (OBEC) is responsible for primary and secondary education, the Office of Vocational Education Commission (OVEC) is responsible for vocational and technical education, while higher education is under the administration of the Office of the Higher Education Commission (OHEC).

According to the educational statistics (Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, 2021), as of December 2021, a total of 12,467,290 of 66,171,439 Thai citizens enrolled in formal education. Among that, around 1.6 million students are in pre-primary education, 4.7 million in primary education, 4.3 million in secondary education, and 1.9 million in higher education. A total of 634,148 teachers in 37,648 public and private educational institutions ranging from pre-primary schools to universities.

Since the promulgation of the 1997 constitution and the 1999 National Education Act, a series of education reforms have been implemented (Punyasavatsut, 2019). It is an obligation to the government to offer a 9-year compulsory education to Thai citizens free of charge (“Prathom to Mathayom 3”). Later, the 2017 constitution postulates that 3-year preschool education should be included making a total of 12 years of free education (“Anuban to Mathayom 3”).

Table 2.1

Learning Achievement of Students in Academic Year 2017-2021

Subjects and Grade	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Grade 3					
Literacy	52.67	53.18	46.46	47.46	56.14
Numeracy	37.75	47.19	44.94	40.47	49.44
Grade 6					
Thai	46.58	55.90	49.07	56.20	50.38
Mathematics	37.12	37.50	32.90	29.99	36.83
English	36.34	39.24	34.42	43.55	39.22
Sciences	39.12	39.93	35.55	38.78	34.31
Grade 9					
Thai	48.29	54.42	55.14	54.29	51.19
Mathematics	26.30	30.04	26.73	25.46	24.47
English	30.45	29.45	33.25	34.38	31.11
Sciences	32.28	36.10	30.07	29.89	31.45

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology (2021, p. 78).

The education reform has made a significant expansion in the total budget for education by as much as 27 percent from 2009 to 2017 (OECD, 2020). Despite a high investment in education, it does not yield as high student learning outcomes as expected. Table 2.1 above presents the learning achievement results from the National Test (NT) of the student in grade 3 and the results from the Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) of the student in grades 6 and 9 consecutively from 2017-2021. All scores were disappointing. Especially, students scored in mathematics,

English, and sciences far below 40 (Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, 2021, p. 78).

Likewise, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2018 reveals that half of the Thai students at the age of 15 scored below the minimum proficiency level in reading, mathematics, and science (World Bank, 2020, pp. 11–14). Table 202 presents the average performance in reading, mathematics, and science was significantly lower than students in the OECD countries. It also shows that China was the first in all subjects and followed by Singapore. Thailand ranked fourth among ASEAN countries following Singapore, Malaysia, and Brunei Darussalam and followed by Indonesia and the Philippines.

Table 2.2
Mean Score in PISA 2018

Country/territorial	Reading	Mathematics	Science
China	555	591	590
Singapore	549	569	551
Hong Kong	524	551	517
Korea	514	526	519
Japan	504	527	529
OECD average	487	489	489
Malaysia	415	440	438
Brunei Darussalam	408	430	431
Thailand	393	419	426
Indonesia	371	379	396
Philippines	340	353	357

Source: World Bank (2020, p. 11).

Importantly, the national testing result suggests the two-tier inequity in education between a few top-performing students in advantageous schools located in urban areas

and many low-performing students in disadvantaged rural schools. World Bank (2020) indicates that the education inequity was exacerbated considerably in rural and disadvantaged schools in Thailand. It found almost three-fourths of the students from rural schools, students with a disadvantaged socioeconomic background, and students who speak a different language at home scored below the minimum level of proficiency in reading.

Moreover, the World Bank's (2020, p. 28) Shortage of Educational Staff Index unveiled the severity of education inequality in Thailand. Figure 2.1 demonstrates the mean difference between the advantaged and disadvantaged schools and between urban and rural schools in Thailand (THA). The greater the mean difference, the higher the education inequality, and a value above 1 SD indicates serious actions should be taken. It found that the mean difference between the advantaged and disadvantaged schools was near 1 standard deviation (SD). Sadly, the mean difference between urban and rural schools was above 1 standard deviation (SD). It demonstrates high inequity when compared to the OECD countries and East Asia and Pacific countries (EAP) that far less than 1 SD.

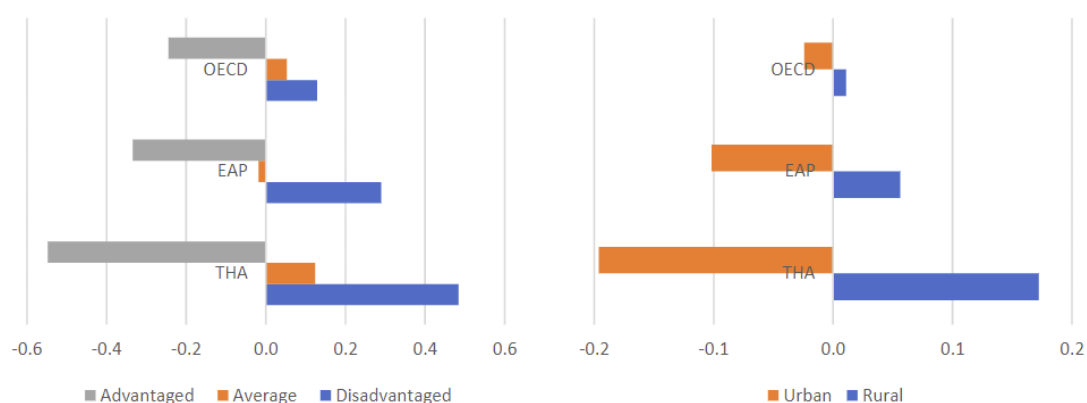


Figure 2.1 Shortage of Educational Staff Index (World Bank, 2020, p. 28)

The teacher shortage is the heart of education inequity, especially in primary schools. Lathapipat and Goyal (2020) indicate that teacher migration brings an adverse impact on teachers' allocation. It found that large schools are concentrated in urban areas, while smaller schools are overwhelmingly in rural areas. According to Table 2.3, More than half (57 percent) of the schools under OBEC are considered small rural schools. The average enrolment size was just 75 students, teacher-student ratio was as low as 9.5, and the average class size was very small with fewer than 9 students. Teachers scattered across many small classes result in more than 76,000 teachers needed to meet the existing classrooms. They suggest merging small schools within a cluster into a hub school to mitigate the teacher shortage.

Table 2.3

Characteristics of Small and Non-Small Schools Under OBEC (2019)

Characteristics	All schools	Small Schools	Non-Small Schools
Schools	29,466	16,657	12,809
Students	6,607,564	1,257,357	5,350,207
Classes	337,513	140,452	197,061
Teachers	467,115	132,157	334,958
Teachers require	542,851	200,441	342,410
Average enrolment	224	75	418
Average class size	19.58	8.95	27.15
Teacher-students	14.15	9.51	15.97
Teacher-class	1.38	0.94	1.70

Source: Lathapipat and Goyal (2020).

In addition, Table 2.4 demonstrates that as much as 76.7 percent of the schools in Thailand are considered disadvantaged schools which serve 42.2 percent of students. Sadly, these schools have an average of 7.6 teachers who are responsible for 91 enrolled students. Noticeably, the low Teacher: students' ratio of 1:12 does not mean effective teacher allocation but the issue of severely understaff which occurs in a small school with many tiny classes.

Table 2.4

Characteristics of advantaged and disadvantaged Schools Under OBEC (2019)

Characteristics	Advantaged	Above Average	Average	Disadvantaged
Schools	168	731	5,374	20,674
Students	358,334	638,083	1,591,832	1,887,847
Average enrolment	2,133	873	296	91
Average teachers	81.7	34.3	16.0	7.6
Teacher-students	26.11	25.45	18.50	11.97
Teacher-class	1.78	1.56	1.55	1.01

Source: Lathapipat and Goyal (2020).

2.3 Education in the Three Southern Provinces

The three southern provinces of Thailand refer to the three provinces located in the deep south namely Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat. This area has poor socioeconomic development and high conflict. Ethnic-religious conflicts have taken place in this area for more than a century. In the early 1900s, the central Thai government implemented forced assimilation and promoted Thai-ness policies toward the ethnic groups, including Melayu-Muslim in the deep south. The local Melayu language was banned in public offices, Islamic law was overridden by Thai civil law, ethnic Melayu traditions were replaced by the central Thai practices, and the school curriculum was revised to be Thai-centric (Chambers et al., 2019).

Melayu-Muslim parents view the public government schools and the curriculum designed by the central government as antagonistic to their beliefs. They strongly reject and insist more and more on the Melayu-Muslim identities. But denial of the public school system resulted in negative impacts. Evidence suggests that people in the Deep South have low literacy, high unemployment, and live below the poverty line than the other parts of Thailand (Chongwilaikasaem et al., 2022; Suwanworaboon & Haruthaithanasan, 2019; Thongmark et al., 2018).

The resurgence of Deep South violence in 2004 has worsened the education quality considerably. The education system viewed by the insurgents as a symbol associated with the central Thai government has been a prime targeted. It found that insurgents aim to attack and kill teachers and education personnel who are soft targets and unprotected, ranging from principals to janitors, both Buddhist and Muslim. Insurgent attacks usually happen in the area where patrol and surveillance are weak and limited, especially along the way from the city outskirts to rural schools. The attacks may be shootings, ambushes, assassinations, bombs, and arson. Some teachers received death threats by letters, phone calls, and social media.

Table 2.5
Insurgency-Related Dead and Injured From 2004 to 2019

Victim	Dead	Injured
Civilians	2,605	5,943
Military	578	2,735
Police	388	1,599
Railway official	5	42
Community leader	241	170
Religious leader	21	25
Teacher	109	130
Insurgents	64	7
Total	4,011	10,651

Source: Isranews agency (2019).

Table 2.5 presents the 15 years report of Deep South insurgency by Isranews agency (2019), from 4th January 2004 to 4th January 2019. It disclosed a total of 9,985 insurgency-related incidents with 4,011 people killed and 10,651 injured. Sadly, rather than attacks on the police or military force, violence mostly happens against civilians. It found less than 1,000 security officials killed and around 4,000 injured. On the contrary, it was as many as 2,600 civilians dead and 6,000 injured. Among them, it was 109 teachers dead, and 130 injured. It also found 315 school buildings were arson.

The government has strengthened security measures to prevent attacks against teachers and school arson attacks. Small military camps have been set on remote rural school grounds. Armed security lines the road to protect teachers when commuting to and from schools. Teachers are allowed to buy a handgun and bulletproof vest. The hazardous duty allowance and life insurance benefit are increased for those at risk. Also, a permanent contract is offered to the temporary contract teachers to maintain sufficient staff. However, life and property threats have made teachers unwilling to stay in this area.

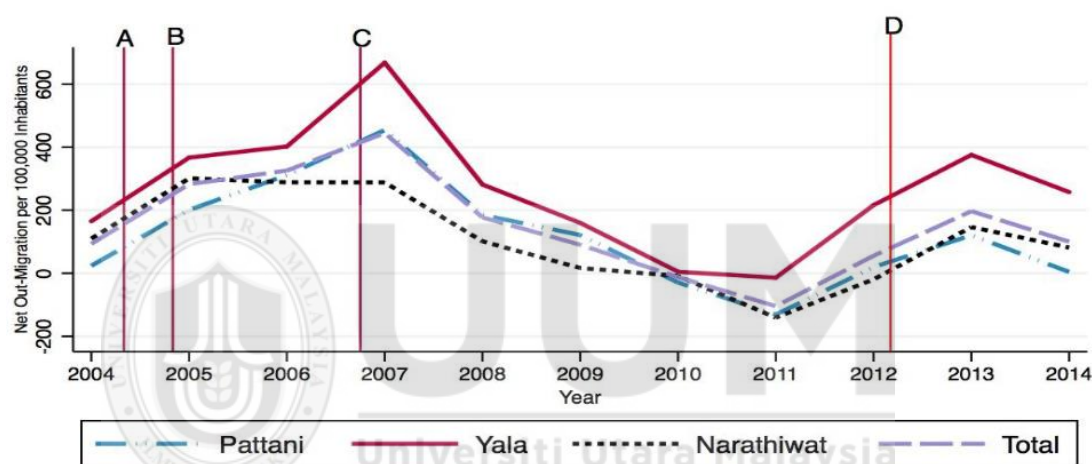


Figure 2.2 Out-migration trend 2004-2014 by the province of origin (Patrawart, 2015).

As illustrated in Figure 2.2, Patrawart (2015) indicate that people's migration behavior was found to be associated with the insurgency. The out-migration rate climbed to the highest in 2007 following the incidents of the 2004 Krue Se Mosque raid (A), the 2004 Tak Bai massacre (B), and the 2006 Hatyai bombs (C) then lowered in the following years and climbed up again in 2013 after the 2012 multi-bomb in Yala and Songkhla (D). It also found an average of 140,000 migrations per year were recorded in the deep south between 2004-2014. Almost half migrated within, while an average of 40,000 migrated out of the deep south provinces. Noticed, the out-migration rate in 2007 was three times higher than the year before the insurgency took place.

Patrawart (2015) also found that the result from the gravity model of migration demonstrates that people are likely to move from a highly violent area to a destination that is urban with high population density, more peaceful, better socioeconomic environment, and better infrastructure. Interestingly, the high and unending out-migration can impact the population structure in the Deep South and subsequently constrains political, social, and economic development in the next two decades.

The migration pattern is consistent with the World Bank's (2020) two-tier educational inequity when the advantaged urban schools get most of the educational resources while leaving scarcity to the disadvantaged rural schools. Those rural schools are chronically short of and have inadequately qualified teachers to provide a quality education. In addition, more than half of public primary schools in Thailand are small rural schools with many tiny classes (Lathapipat & Goyal, 2020). Meaning that it is impossible for small rural schools to fill up teachers for all classes across the different grades. The challenge to solving teacher shortages is to improve teachers' deployment and lower teacher transfer from disadvantaged rural schools.

However, job transfer is often neglected among the Thai researchers. In part, job transfer is viewed as a neutral impact since the overall number of teachers in the system does not change. In fact, it considerably exacerbates education inequity because the job transfer destination concentrates on the advantaged urban schools. In addition, the multiple iterative job transfers can trigger the domino effect which impacts more detrimental to the organization (Dalton, 1997).

In specific to the three Southern provinces, data from the Center for Propelling the Education in Southern Border Provinces (2022) indicates 17,124 teachers are working in 869 public primary schools. In each province, three Provincial Education Service Area Office (PESAO) are set up to oversee the personnel administration job. Noticeably, PESAO 1 is usually located in an urban area, PESAO 2 is in the middle, and PESAO 3 is in the rural area. The following Table 2.6 presents the numbers of schools, students, and teachers by province and education service areas.

Table 2.6
Number of Schools Students and Teachers under OBEC

Province	Education Service Area	School	Student	Teacher
Pattani	PESAO 1	136	28,532	2,627
	PESAO 2	115	20,432	1,739
	PESAO 3	67	11,821	1,204
Narathiwat	PESAO 1	148	33,292	2,960
	PESAO 2	117	28,903	2,595
	PESAO 3	75	19,349	1,628
Yala	PESAO 1	111	23,376	2,126
	PESAO 2	68	15,010	1,514
	PESAO 3	32	7,698	731
Total		869	188,413	17,124

Source: Center for Propelling the Education in Southern Border Provinces (2022).

In the early period when the Deep South insurgency was highly intense, the minister of education delivered the job transfer policy by allowing teachers to move out of the Deep South at will (The Senator's Committee on Armed Forces and State Security, 2020). The temporary contract was issued to the unlicensed teachers who were Deep South residents to replace the vacant positions. Qualitatively, Deep South has lost most of its talented and experienced teachers which cannot recover to the prior level within a short period. Quantitatively, consistent with Lathapipat and Goyal (2020), the teacher-student ratio of 1:11 ($188,413 \div 17,124$) indicates the severity of teacher

shortages in the Deep South public primary school.

Before the violence resurgence in 2003, it was approximately 56 teachers transfer. From 2004 to 2009, when insurgency was highly intense, around 55 to 122 teachers left the Deep South school (Secretariat of the Cabinet, 2010). Though the job transfer rate has fluctuated in correspondence with the violence, the actual number has rarely changed. Recently, it found around 70-150 teachers transferred per year in the Deep South (Narathiwat Provincial Education Office, 2021; Pattani Provincial Education Office, 2021; Yala Provincial Education Office, 2021), as demonstrated in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7
Average Teacher Transfer between 2002 to 2021

Province	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2020	2021
Pattani	43	34	48	46	99	89	110	125	126
Narathiwat	85	68	43	92	37	125	195	152	151
Yala	39	63	86	65	82	62	62	70	73
Average	55.7	55.0	59.0	67.7	72.7	92.0	122.3	115.7	116.7

Source: Pattani Provincial Education Office (2021), Narathiwat Provincial Education Office (2021), Yala Provincial Education Office (2021), Secretariat of the Cabinet (2010).

Teachers transferred out of the three southern provinces have left at least three problems for the government and school administrators. First, shortages of teachers quantitatively and qualitatively. Although becoming a government teacher is one of the desired professions in Thailand, few are willing to work in the high-risk area. Insurgency forces talented and experienced teachers to unwillingly transfer out of the Deep South and deters others' willingness to transfer in as well (Suwanworaboon & Haruthaithanasan, 2019; Thongmark et al., 2018). It could take more time to recruit and get harder to retain a qualified teacher. Though a temporary contract is issued to fill the vacant positions, they tend to move when a safer and better school is available.

Second, less education opportunities. Violence usually happens in rural areas where surveillance from police or security officials is weak and limited. The principal inevitably shuts down the school for safety reasons approximately 30-40 days or 20 percent of the school year (The Senator's Committee on Armed Forces and State Security, 2020). The frequently interrupted classroom can harm students' learning achievement. Sadly, some students drop out of school and become unskilled child workers in rubber tapping (Chongwilaikasaem et al., 2022).

Table 2.8
The 2021 O-NET scores of the Deep South Students

Subject	Pattani	Yala	Narathiwat	National
Thai	37.45	37.57	35.42	50.38
English	31.44	32.03	30.29	39.22
Mathematics	31.06	31.17	29.85	36.83
Sciences	28.60	29.24	28.32	34.31
Average	32.14	32.50	30.97	40.19

Source: Center for Propelling the Education in Southern Border Provinces (2022).

Lastly, the low educational achievement. As a combined result of teacher shortages, Deep South insurgency, school shutdown, and parental denial in public schools, Thailand Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) illustrates the poor learning achievement of students in grade 6 from this area, as demonstrate in Table 2.8. All scores were below the national average and ranked in the lowest ten provinces of Thailand's Education Ranking (Suwanworaboon & Haruthaithanasan, 2019; Thongmark, Neimted, Choosuwan, & Sittichai, 2018).

2.2 Job Transfer

Human resource management scholars view job transfer as a regular management incident in an organization. It occurs when an employee moves from one job to another

at the same job level. Flippo (1984) defines it as “a change in the job accompanied by a change in the place of the job of an employee without a change in responsibility or remuneration”. Similarly, Pinder and Walter (1987) define it as “a relatively permanent reassignment that entails movement of an employee within an organization from one of its operating sites to another”.

Research on job transfer is often neglected despite the high impact on education equity. Indeed, the impact of employee transfer to another worksite within an organization is comparable to turnover. When an employee quits, the vacant position will be replaced by another employee from another worksite which will later be replaced by a new hire successively. From the overall's perspective, only one employee quits. But from the local level perspective, there will be two inexperienced employees. One is the new hire, and the other one is the transferred employee who once is skilful in responsible tasks and familiar with the workgroup at the former worksite. Job transfer that entails multiple iterative can cause a domino effect that impacts the organizational outcome negatively (Dalton, 1997).

In management research, distinguishing the characteristics of teacher mobility is important because the movement reflects the teacher's perception and belief toward the teaching profession and the school context (Ryan et al., 2017). Boe, Cook, and Sunderland (2008) suggest the three types of teacher mobility. First, leaving the teaching profession. It is commonly referred to as “teacher attrition” or turnover. Second, continue teaching profession but move to another school. It is commonly referred to as “school transfer” or job transfer. Finally, continue the teaching profession but change the teaching area to another, such as the change from special

education to general education. It is commonly referred to as “teaching area transfer” or job change.

Dimensions of job mobility are in the scope of study too. Ng, Sorensen, Eby, and Feldman (2007) introduce the three dimensions that distinguish job mobility into 12 types, namely status (upward, lateral, downwards), function (same or changed), an employer (internal or external). Accordingly, job transfer has the characteristics of employee mobility to the new position in a lateral status, has the same function, and is the internal change under the same employer.

Grissom, Viano, and Selin (2015) indicate 15 types of job mobility by considering the place and job roles dimensions. The place dimensions can be the same school-same district, another school-same district, another school-another district, another school-outside public school, and leave the teaching profession. The job role dimensions pertain to still a teacher, non-teaching educator (e.g., principal, supervisor), and non-educator. That is, job transfer is consistent with moving to another school in the same district or another district while still a teacher.

Job transfer could be initiated voluntarily on the part of an employee or based on an administrative decision. Wiernik and Kostal (2019) state that managing career advancement in this present day is becoming more individuals or "protean" rather than by organizations. Personality predispositions and social orientations should be considered when relocation decisions are at stake. In addition, job transfer that requires geographic relocation is likely to be a more complex decision (Weng et al., 2018). It might cause such problems as spouses' loss of employment, changing schools for

children, buying and selling a home, and so forth. Recently, the growing trend of globalization brings about across-the-border job mobility. It found multinational companies and local companies find business opportunities by opening branches in other countries and recruiting employees to work with them. Employee movement to a position abroad at the same hierarchical level is referred to as “expatriate” mobility (Suutari et al., 2018).

Therefore, in this study, job transfer defines as the voluntarily or self-initiated change location of work from one place to another within an organization. It is a lateral movement to the same job level without changing in duties, responsibilities, compensation, and benefits. It is also a relatively permanent relocation.

2.2.1 Job Transfer Intention

Research on job transfer has two approaches (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). First, the retrospective approach which aims at examining adjustment to the past job transfer experiences. The research may focus on, for example, employee stress affected by job relocation, or the time employees take to become proficient after a job transfer. Fisher and Shaw suggest that this approach is problematic because the long interval of time between employee job transfer and the survey makes it hard to verify the association.

Secondly, the intention approach. It aims at assessing attitudes on a future job transfer regardless of a specific new job or location. The research may focus on whether employees will accept or reject job transfer assignments. Fisher and Shaw indicate this approach is unclear on how relevant the survey with the prospective relocation is because there is no actual transfer involved. Interestingly, Brett and Reilly (1988)

suggest the pre-and post-job transfer research to mitigate the drawbacks of the two approaches. However, this method might be problematic if the number of pre-and post-respondents is small.

For the intention approach, job transfer research can be found in terms of employee's willingness to relocate (Eby & Russell, 2000), willingness to accept mobility opportunities (Noe & Barber, 1993), intention to relocate (Fox & Krausz, 1987), likelihood of accepting a transfer (Stilwell et al., 1998), relocation mobility readiness (Andresen & Margenfeld, 2015), migration expectation (McHugh, 1990), and so forth.

According to Weisheit (2018), the intention approach's concepts and definitions can be distinguished into behavioral intention, willingness, and expectation. Behavioral intention relates to a plan to engage in a goal or behavior in a specific time frame in which behavioral choices and consequences are evaluated. Behavioral expectation focuses on estimation of the likelihood of performing a specific future behavior. And behavioral willingness is the anticipation of how an individual might react when confronting a specific situation.

These three definitions have been used interchangeably. De Jong, Root, Gardner, Fawcett, and Abad (1985) suggest using behavioral intention because it includes time, context, action, and target into account. Pomery, Gibbons, Reis-Bergan, and Gerrard (2009) argue that behavioral intention seems less effective when assessing behavior that does not conform to social desirability or values. It is more appropriate to use expectation or willingness for assessing risky or non-rational behaviors. Alternatively, Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) urge that behavioural estimation can

produce higher predictability because environmental factors, abilities, limitations, and nonvolitional factors are taken into consideration. Remhof, Gunkel, and Schlaegel (2014) suggest that using behavioral willingness is suitable because it reflects an individual's openness to opportunities and reaction to situations.

Weisheit (2018) conducted a literature review related to conceptualization and measurement of job transfer intention published in PsychInfo, EBSCO Host, and Social Sciences Citation Index from the past until 2017. In total, 88 articles were found to meet the inclusion criteria. Job transfer intention was constructed into 6 categories namely desire, intention, expectation, willingness, mix, and other. It found that nearly half of the studies ($n = 39$) utilized willingness measure, few studies assess intention ($n = 5$) and expectation ($n = 8$), while others are mixed or cannot be categorized.

Regarding measurement, Weisheit (2018) recommends using the behavioral intention definition in the job transfer study since it involves rational goal-oriented behavior and takes future behavior and its consequences into account, while behavioral expectation and willingness are not. Remhof, Gunkel, and Schlaegel (2014) suggest using the behavioral intention definition because job transfer involves complex planning and decision-making an individual must deal with, especially trailing a spouse, selling and buying a house. Armitage and Conner (2001) recommend using the behavioral intention definition because the result from the meta-analysis found a high correlation with actual behavior. In sum, the behavioral intention definition is appropriate for job transfer studies, while behavioral expectation and willingness definitions are more appropriate for a non-rational behavior and low-necessity decision.

2.2.2 Factors Affecting Job Transfer Intention

In the school context, teachers will stay in the school that fits for them. The fits may concern reaching the full potential, collaborative coworkers, a supportive school principal, a trusting relationship with the student's parents, and a safe and non-disruptive student learning climate. In contrast, teachers leave school to escape from poor work conditions, trailing spouses, minimize commuting distances, reduce hardship at work, provide care to chronically ill or aging family members, or pursue higher education opportunities (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; T. D. Nguyen et al., 2020; Räsänen et al., 2020; Simon & Johnson, 2015).

In Thailand, Phonakorn (2017) indicates that teachers have got to deal with negative work environments, high workloads, and low job resources. While teaching is their priority, paperwork, student activities, school-parental relationship, and internal and external educational quality assurance are their responsibilities too. Kongcharoen et al. (2020) examined the stress of primary school teachers and found the sources of teacher stress originates from occupation (e.g., workload, work obligations), interpersonal relations (e.g., relationship with colleague, lack of collective cohesion), and environment factors (e.g., insufficient supply of equipment, noise).

In the three southern provinces of Thailand, Noosomton and Na Wichian (2015) indicate that teachers who request to move out or intend to work in another province even with a nonpermanent position were the joint effect of the Deep South insurgency and negative attitude toward school. They unveil the critical impact of the relationship with students, relations with colleagues and supervisors, compensation and benefits, safety, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the intention to move out

of the Deep South.

2.3 Work Environments

Teachers cognitively compare personal and environmental attributes to determine fit which leads to subsequent responses. However, the person-environment fit has various concepts (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). It is conceptualized as when an individual possesses personal characteristics that are like other people in the work environment. Furthermore, fit is conceptualized as a state when an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities correspond with job requirements and carry out the tasks properly. These concepts play an important role in recruitment and selection research. Also, fit is the state when employees perceive their needs and preferred values are congruent with those of an organization. It influences research on employee commitment, well-being, and turnover.

Fit is a psychological state that an individual is aware of and is dynamic in which continuously seek congruence with each other to obtain a better fit (Edwards et al., 2006). Better fit brings about superior work outcomes, such as high job satisfaction and high performance. Misfit, in the contrary, brings about physical, psychological, and behavioral strains, which are sources of attitudinal issues such as dissatisfaction, disengagement, and intention to leave (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Mahlasela & Chinyamurindi, 2020; Tolksdorf et al., 2022).

Fit is not simply achieved by putting an employee on a job that fits with knowledge, skill, and ability. This demand-ability fit perspective influences employee selection and recruitment research. The needs-supplies fit perspective, on the other hand, is

critical when examining employee retention and withdrawal. It is about managing the congruence between what employee needs from the job and what the job environment provides for them in return. The person's needs involve goals, desires, preferences, and values, whereas job supplies refer to characteristics of occupation, pay, and other job attributes (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

According to Edwards and Shipp (2007), the content of person and environment dimensions can be distinguished into global, domain, and facet. Regarding the needs-supplies fit perspective, the global level concerns an overall sense of comparisons that is not specific to any dimensions, such as the perception of need fulfillment and values congruence. The domain level relates to a general comparison of fits, such as job enrichment and social relationship. The facet level involves comparing the specific aspects of work, such as autonomy and participation. Taking the content of person and environment into account can enhance understanding of the substantive meaning of fit and mitigate the shortcoming when attempting to predict individual outcomes with the form of person-environment fit relationships (Edwards, 2008).

Nevertheless, the content of the person and environment relationship should comply with the existing theoretically anchored frameworks (Edwards, 2008). Based on job-person fit, Maslach and Leiter (1997) analyzed well-being-related organizational contexts and proposed the Areas of Worklife framework. The framework demonstrates the association of six factors about workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values that cause burnout. In this framework, "person" is defined in terms of emotions or stress responses, "job" is defined in terms of the situation or organizational context, and "fit" is determined when the person has been working in the job context

for some time (Leiter & Maslach, 1999, 2003; Schaufeli et al., 2009) . A better fit between the person and the environment can predict better adjustment, less stress, and low turnover intention.

Hackman and Oldham (1976)'s Job Characteristics model is one of the most well-known work environment frameworks. It indicates five job factors that affect organizational outcomes namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Interestingly, the Job Characteristics model conceptually corresponds to the Areas of Worklife in several aspects (Brom et al., 2015). For example, autonomy corresponds to control, feedback reflects community, task identity is consistent with the workload, task significance corresponds with values, and context satisfaction represents reward and fairness.

Job Demands-Resources theory (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) classified the work environment into two components underlying workplace well-being. Job demands are job aspects that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are associated with physical and/or psychological costs. It involves work pressure, emotional demands, and changes in tasks. Job resources refer to aspects of the job in attaining work-related goals, mitigating job demands and the associated costs, and personal growth and development. It pertains to social support, supervisory coaching, feedback, time control. Gregory (2015) indicates the similarities between job demands-resources and Areas of Worklife in various aspects, such as workload is consistent with job demands, and reward and community correspond with job resources.

Job demand-control model (Karasek, 1979) postulates the demand and control dimensions concerning job stress. Job demand is the psychological stressors in work environments such as the amount of work, time pressure, interruption, reaction time, the pace of work, and role conflict. Job control or decision latitude is the potential control over and execute the task of a working individual. It consists of skill discretion (such as variety of task, repetitiveness, creativity, opportunity to learn new thing) and decision authority (such as autonomy, ability to influence on team or company policy). Gregory (2015) indicates decision authority correspond with workload and control of the Areas of Worklife model.

By incorporating the job demands-resources and values congruence theories, Leiter (2008) proposes the two-process model associated with job burnout. The energy process involves balancing the capacity of the resources to the work demands in terms of control and manageable workload. Excessive demands and insufficient time for recovery result in fatigue and exhaustion. The values process involves judgments on how compatibility between personal values with those of the organization in terms of fairness and values congruence. Values incongruent can increase cynicism, undermine work involvement, and create a low sense of efficacy. Apparently, this model replicates the four factors from the Areas of Worklife.

Similarly, Leiter, Gascon, and Martinez-Jarreta (2010) indicate the key work environments that affect workplace well-being pertain to manageable workload, control, fairness, supervision, and values. Based on the theory of job demand-resource, the manageable workload reflects an employee's ability to utilize energy to meet the work demands. Control derives from autonomy and participation in work decisions of

the job demand-control model. Fairness relates to organizational justice in which organizational procedures are perceived as fairly treated. Supervision involves immediate supervisors who assign tasks and provide resources. And finally, values derived from the person-organization fits.

The frameworks above incorporate a wide range of research on the relationship between the person and the work environment and postulate the comprehensive model for assessing organizational well-being. Also, it has been replicated across occupations, organizations, and countries which yields strong validity and reliable results. However, previous research suggests the corresponding factors among the above frameworks (Brom et al., 2015; Dall'Ora et al., 2020; Gascón et al., 2019; Gregory, 2015). Therefore, the key organizational factors of control, community, and values will be included to propose a model that provides high predictive power with a few predictor variables.

2.3.1 Control

As a jobholder, employees exert control over the responsible job to have a sense of security and predictability. Control refers to “employees’ perceived capacity to influence decisions that affect their work, to exercise professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do an effective job” (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 96). In other words, it reflects the sense of freedom and having capacity to make substantial choices. Misfit in control happens when employees perceive inadequate authority to control the resources needed to do the job in the way they believe is the most effective. Thus, control has a pivotal role in an employee’s work-life.

2.3.2 Community

As a part of a workgroup, employees expect their characteristics to fit in the work community, especially with colleagues and supervisors, to create a sense of inclusion and certainty. The area of community refers to “quality of social interactions at work, and it includes important issues such as conflict, mutual support, closeness, and the capacity to work as a team” (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 98). When work relationships are going well, supportive supervisors and colleagues, and effective means of conflict resolution, employees are more likely to engage with their job. In contrast, when the workplace is losing trust and support from colleagues and supervisors, there is a possibility of leaving the organization. Misfit in community could happen when employee lose a positive sense of connection with their colleagues and supervisors in the workplace.

2.3.3 Values

As organization members, employees expect their beliefs about desired goals or standards to fit with the organization’s established work rules and normative principles to create a sense of clarity and integration. Values refers to “the congruence between individuals’ and organizations’ beliefs and ideals” (Leiter & Maslach, 2003, p. 99). Value congruence is the heart of the relationship between people and work. Values attract people to the job and bind the connections between employee and workplace beyond the exchange for money or advancement. Generally, values fit is determined by comparing personal values with those of an organization. Misfit in values can emerge when an employee's values or standards are incompatible with those of an organization, such as when an employee compromises between the want-to-do and have-to-do job, when an employee is forced to do a job that is inconsistent with

personal's values, and so forth.

2.3.4 The Effect of Work Environments on Job Transfer Intention

Employees and the organizations implicitly and explicitly negotiate to achieve a mutually agreeable fit within the working relationship. The working relationship that changes to a level that employees find unacceptable and unresolvable will engender a sense of misfit. It entails the perceived promises of reciprocal exchange being broken or the psychological contract violation (Leiter & Maslach, 1999). For example, employees give their time, effort, skills, and knowledge to the work but receive less pay, welfare, and career advancement will emerge the sense of violating the psychological contract. The wither-away reciprocal relationship results in employees being less likely to remain in the organization.

According to the meta-analysis conducted by Lesener et al (2020), job control or autonomy was the most studied factor among organizational-level job resources. It is a basic work psychological need that has the most impact on engagement and turnover. Granting an employee freedom to control and organize his job can buffer the adverse impact of job demands, reduce job stress, increase job satisfaction, enhance engagement, promote personal growth, and encourage goal achievement (Bakker et al., 2023; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Karasek, 1979). When work exceeds an employee's ability to control, it increases stress and the likelihood of leaving the job.

Previous research found that job control can predict the intention to leave (Puhakka et al., 2021; Wubetie et al., 2020). In addition, job control is an essential job attribute in some professions. For example, news autonomy is crucial for journalism and is highly

associated with employees leaving the job (H.-L. Liu & Lo, 2018). Likewise, teachers need to control the classroom, plan lessons and curriculum content, and use methods of assessment, to name a few. It is highly associated with satisfaction and retention (Worth & Van den Brande, 2020). Importantly, studies relating to school violence indicate the impact of violence against teachers on turnover. Peist, McMahon, Davis, and Keys (2020) found that in the context of physical and nonphysical violence directed against teachers (e.g., weapon assault or verbal threats to the teacher), lack of control can increase the likelihood of teachers' intention and decision to leave the position.

Community involves social support from supervisors and colleagues and interpersonal conflict (Leiter & Maslach, 1999). Previously, some research focused on supplementary or complementary fit underlying personality traits perspective on behavioral outcomes, such as interpersonal compatibility, and coworker similarity. Also, some research examines the attitudinal content of fit involving goals, values, and preferred work climates (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Community misfit occurs when people lose the sense of positive support, cooperation, integration, and networking with others in the workplace. Misfit with colleagues and supervisors and unresolved conflict can bring hostility and loss of the sense of social support within the workplace.

Previous research asserts community misfit can affect turnover but mixed results on whether the relationship is direct or indirect. On the one hand, some studies found that turnover is directly affected by characteristics of the work community, such as trust in supervisors and colleagues (Hopkins et al., 2019). On the other hand, support from

supervisors and colleagues indirectly affects turnover through attitudinal variables, such as employee engagement, work-life balance (Kaur & Randhawa, 2021), self-efficacy (Afzal et al., 2019), and burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Finally, values derive from the literature relating to job goals, value congruence, and expectations. It is the heart of relationships between employees and their work because the match of “ideals and motivations” can attract them to the organization (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). Employees who committed to an organization is thoroughly consider alignment of organization and individual values. The overlap between personal and organizational values will benefit both parties. The smaller overlap leads to a more trade-off between personal values and those of an organization. Value congruence can reduce psychological distress, increase overall life satisfaction, and eventually reduce intentions to leave.

A misfit in values can undermine the relationship between employees and their organization. Previous studies assert that values incongruence can undermine organizational commitment (Stazyk & Davis, 2021) and increase intention to leave the school (H. Wang & Hall, 2019). In addition, goal congruence has been identified as the significant predictor in the organizational withdrawal studies. Employee who perceived their personal and work goals fit with the goals of organization are less negative work attitudes and low intention to quit (M. S. Hayes & Stazyk, 2019).

2.3.5 The Effect of Work environments on Job Burnout

The interaction between the person and their work environment engenders stress and strain, which is an inevitable part of working life. Edwards (2008) indicates that the

effect of a misfit in demands-abilities and needs-supplies on employee stress is different. That is, the work demands that exceed the employee's abilities (demands-abilities fit) are associated with task performance while the problem in well-being arises when the employee perceived insufficient power to control and organize their job (needs needs-supplies fit).

Misfit will motivate one to resolve misfit by changing either person or environment using coping behavior, defense mechanism, work adjustment, or job crafting. Those behaviors operate through psychological and physical processes. Maladjustment and unable to mitigate misfit bring about psychological, physical, and behavioral strains (Edwards, 2008). Psychological strains include dissatisfaction, anxiety, dysphoria, and restlessness. Physical strains include elevated blood pressure, high cholesterol, and immune system malfunction. Behavioral strains include smoking, overeating, absenteeism, and turnover.

Teaching is a profession that works in an emotional environment (Rajendran et al., 2020). Interpersonal issues with colleagues, supervisors, and students can lead to emotional stress and strain. Chronic stress can produce emotional exhaustion which gradually leads to loss of sympathy and disrespect for themselves. It develops a cynicism on the responsible job, low morale, and job burnout eventually.

By applying the job-person fit model, Maslach and Leiter (2016) postulate the complex relationship between control, community, values, and other organizational factors toward job burnout. The relationship between employees and their work is dynamic and is an ongoing negotiation process to achieve mutually agreeable working

relationships. Employees perceived lack of control over the job, less support from supervisor and colleagues, and incongruence between personal and organizational values can undermine the reciprocal relationship. Prolonged misfit between the person and work environment produces stress and drains emotional resources. It gradually develops negative attitudes and distances oneself from the work and clients. It simultaneously brings about feelings of incompetence and a professional inefficacy crisis. Finally, misfits will increase the risk of experiencing job burnout.

Leiter and Maslach's (2003) model of burnout was evaluated and replicated in various work settings with employees ranging from non-supervisory to management levels and in various countries. The cross-sectional survey found control and community indirectly affect burnout, while a direct effect was found in values. The longitudinal results also supported this relationship. Later, this model was conducted in different contexts, for example, among the service sector in Poland (Chudzicka-Czupala et al., 2019), orthopedic surgeons in the USA (Verret et al., 2021), law enforcement officers in the USA (McCarty et al., 2019).

While most studies were conducted in North America and the European Union, H. T. T. Nguyen et al. (2018) and Saito et al. (2018) investigated this relationship in clinical nurses in Vietnam and Japan, respectively. The results support the effect of control, community, and values on job burnout. However, the study conducted by Mon and Weinstein (2017) in the mental health social workers from the local and international organizations across Myanmar did not show either direct or indirect effect of control, community, and values on job burnout. They indicate the effects of social and culture might constrain this relationship.

2.4 Job Burnout

The word “burnout” emerged around the mid-1970s by a psychiatrist named Herbert Freudenberger. He observed that the volunteers of Mark’s Free Clinic in New York’s East Village gradually experience emotional depletion and loss of motivation and commitment. He borrowed the term burnout from the effect of chronic drug abuse and defined it as “a state of fatigue or frustration resulted from professional relationships that failed expectations of reward” (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Simultaneously, Christina Maslach, a social psychologist, was investigating how human service workers coped with emotional arousal. She found that the workers tend to experience emotional exhaustion and gradually developed negative perceptions about their clients and generated the professional incompetence crisis. She introduced the word burnout and defined it as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Later, researchers and practitioners recognized that job burnout can occur in other professions that require creativity, problem solving, or mentoring. Then, burnout is redefined to a more general form as “...a state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one’s occupation and doubtful of one’s capacity to perform” (Schaufeli et al., 2009). It is usually called the three components definition since the construct involves emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy.

Nevertheless, some scholars define job burnout in a different way. Shirom (2003) indicates burnout is “an affective reaction to ongoing stress whose core content is the gradual depletion over time of individuals’ intrinsic energetic resources, including the expression of emotional exhaustion, physical fatigue, and cognitive weariness”. Pines and Aronson (1988) explain burnout as “the state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in emotionally demanding situations”. Schaufeli and Greenglass (2001) indicate burnout is “a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement in work situations that are emotionally demanding”.

This study adopts Maslach and Leiter’s (2016) burnout and defines it as “psychological response from chronic job stress that brings the state of emotional exhaustion, cynicism (depersonalization), and inefficacy (reduced personal accomplishment)”.

2.4.1 Job Burnout of Teachers in Thailand

In Thailand, a recent study by Ratanasiripong et al., (2022) on teacher well-being found that most teachers had normal levels of stress (65.2 percent), depression (69.7 percent), and anxiety (52.4 percent). Not as many teachers had severe and extreme stress (6.0 percent), depression (3.2 percent), and anxiety (11.2 percent). It also found that relationship quality was a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while resilience and teaching hours were significant predictors of reduced personal accomplishment.

2.4.2 Job Burnout Components

The most recognized burnout definition in the present day is Maslach's three components of job burnout. Each component is reviewed as follows.

2.4.1.1 Emotional Exhaustion

Scholars indicate that emotional exhaustion is a core component that people usually mention when describing job burnout experience. Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001, p. 399) define emotional exhaustion as “feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources”. They further explain that although emotional exhaustion is an important indication, it seems insufficient to capture the job burnout symptom without the two components (Schaufeli et al., 2009). All components reflect and complement diagnose the job burnout phenomenon especially the relationship people have with their work.

Cordes and Dougherty (1993, p. 623) state that emotional exhaustion refers to “a lack of energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are used up”. When people are exhausted, they will feel frustrated, tense, and cannot provide services for the clients as good as they have been in the past. They also state that frequency and intensity of interpersonal interaction with clients can affect the level of exhaustion. Teachers are the profession that is prone to experience a high level of exhaustion because of the high intensity and frequency of interpersonal interaction. They added that employees who must work with “paper people” such as personnel staff or “neutral clients” such as accountants tend to experience low exhaustion.

Shirom (2003) focuses on the sole component of exhaustion and reframed burnout to “emotional exhaustion, physical fatigue, and cognitive weariness”. Emotional exhaustion is defined as “feeling too weak to display empathy to clients or co-workers and lacking the energy needed to invest in relationships with other people at work” (Shirom, 2005, p. 604). While Demerouti, Mostert, and Bakker (2010, p. 210) define exhaustion as “a consequence of intensive physical, affective and cognitive strain, that is, as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands”. They state that physical and cognitive should be included in exhaustion to cover the people who do physical and cognitive work.

2.4.1.2 Depersonalization or Cynicism

In the first version of Maslach Burnout Inventory, depersonalization refers to “an impersonal view of service recipients as impersonal objects”. In the third version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey, which was expanded to cover a more general job, depersonalization was renamed into cynicism with a slightly broader definition. The term cynicism is defined as “an emotionally flat and expedient connection to one’s work” (Leiter et al., 2015).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993, p. 623) describe depersonalization as a symptom of “the treatment of clients as objects rather than people”. They indicate people who experiences depersonalization may detached and demonstrate emotional callousness with clients such as using abstract language, strict separation of professional lives, withdraw from work through longer breaks, dealing “by the book” rather than adjust to the client needs. They may be cynical toward co-workers and the organization too. Consistent with Lee and Ashforth (1990, p. 744) who indicate that depersonalization

is a form of defense mechanism and is defined as “the reactive and protective actions intended to avoid an unwanted demand or reduce a perceived threat”.

Garden (1987, p. 549) indicates that the depersonalization is associated with distancing, hostility, rejection, and unconcern attitudes. It is similar to the “dehumanization” that the service provider exhibits cold indifference to the needs and a callous disregard for the feeling of the service recipients. They may refuse to be courteous with clients, ignore their demand, and fail to provide appropriate service. Thus, depersonalization is defined as “negative reaction to people in general, including hostility, indifference, detachment, and not caring about others.

2.4.1.3 Reduced Personal Accomplishment or Professional Efficacy

In the revised version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory- General Survey, the reduced personal accomplishment component was reconstructed into professional efficacy to cover social and nonsocial dimensions of occupational accomplishment. The former reduced personal accomplishment is defined as “a feeling of incompetence and unsuccessful achievement in one’s work with people”(Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 101). While the later professional efficacy is slightly changed to a broader definition of “feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399).

Lee and Ashforth (1990, p. 744) state that reduced personal accomplishment is a sequent of stress-strain-coping. It is similar to the notion of Bandura’s self-efficacy in the aspect of adjustment to situational demand. When people are trying to achieve the valued outcomes, self-evaluation will be performed and be motivated to control the

progress, which is considered as the method of coping. Consistent with Cordes and Dougherty (1993, p. 623) who define reduced personal accomplishment as “a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively”. People may experience the feeling of inefficacy concerning the ability to make relationships with people and to perform their job. They might perceive a lack of progress which eventually leads to job incompetence and unsuccessful in their work or relationships with people.

2.4.1.4 Relation Between the Three Components

Previous research proposed the relationship between the three components in various ways (Maslach et al., 2001). Some research illustrates a sequential relationship between the three components. An issue that arises in one component can spill over to another. Emotional exhaustion leads to depersonalization and subsequently generates reduced personal accomplishment. It is worth noting that the sequential link from exhaustion to depersonalization is well established, whereas the link between reduced personal accomplishment and the other components is unclear.

On some occasions, reduced personal accomplishment is a result of either exhaustion, depersonalization, or a combination of the two. For example, overwhelming job demands that lead to exhaustion or depersonalization are prone to harm a sense of accomplishment. On some occasions, exhaustion or depersonalization can interfere with personal accomplishment. For example, people may lack a sense of personal accomplishment when feeling exhausted or being depersonalized. On some occasions, reduced personal accomplishment develops in parallel with the other components. For example, lack of resources which contribute to low personal accomplishment can happen at the same time with work overload and social conflict which contribute to

exhaustion and depersonalization.

2.4.3 Job Burnout Measurement

The most popular job burnout measure is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Shoman et al., 2021). The first version is the “Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Service Survey (MBI-HSS)”. It was designed for use in the human services and health care professions. The concern in job burnout of teachers, second version “Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES)” was developed specifically for the education profession. Both versions assess emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment with the same definitions.

The growing interest to examine job burnout in other professions that are not people-focused, the third version of “Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS)” was developed for general usage. Accordingly, the three components are reconceptualized to broader terms regarding the job, not the personal relationship within the job. The same three components are assessed but items were revised to consistent with general construct. Particularly, depersonalization was renamed to cynicism while reduced personal accomplishment was changed to professional efficacy (Maslach et al., 2001).

While the Maslach Burnout Inventory is the most popular, alternative measures have been developed. Among the three components, emotional exhaustion is likely to be the most essential factor making it appear in all the alternative measurements. For example, exhaustion is conceptualized as a single component in the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (Kristensen et al., 2005), the Burnout Measure (Maslach-Pines,

2005), and the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (Shirom & Melamed, 2006). Kristensen et al. indicate that exhaustion is the only component to identify state of burnout. They justify depersonalization as a form of distancing oneself from work stress or a coping strategy, while reduced personal accomplishment could be consequences of long-term stress or an effect of job burnout. Furthermore, they argue that burnout may occur outside work setting such as students, housewives, and pensioners. Then, burnout broadened its scope to work-related burnout, client-related burnout, and personal burnout.

Some scholars suggest using two components is more appropriate. Based on the job demands-resources model, Demerouti et al. (2001) adapted the two components of exhaustion and depersonalization (or cynicism) to develop the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory. They justify that previous evidence indicates exhaustion and depersonalization are strongly associated with organizational outcomes, while reduced personal accomplishment is weak and less consistent. They also state that reduced personal accomplishment corresponds with self-efficacy that reflects a personality trait rather than a symptom of burnout. Moreover, the feeling of reduced personal accomplishment is more likely a consequence of emotional exhaustion.

Using unidimensional or multidimensional construct is debated among researchers. Brenninkmeijer and Van Yperen (2003) suggest the practical advantages of unidimensional job burnout on a better understanding of the work well-being phenomenon and easier for one to decide what additional analyses to provide for those who are interested. Schaufeli, Leiter, and Maslach (2009) argue that the Maslach Burnout Inventory was statistically confirmed on the three components. Emotional

exhaustion is an important component for considering burnout but is not sufficient. The inclusion of depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment components make significant differences between burnout and chronic exhaustion. Until the present day, researchers have not reached a consensus on the measurement construct (Doulougeri et al., 2016; Hiver et al., 2022).

In sum, most studies utilized the three components of the Maslach Burnout Inventory to examine job burnout. Some studies utilized only two components of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Reduced personal accomplishment is often neglected because of a weak association with organizational outcomes. Furthermore, some studies operationalized job burnout as a unidimensional construct despite the multidimensional is suggested. The alternative measurements to the Maslach Burnout Inventory consist of the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory, the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure, and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory.

2.4.4 The Effect of Job Burnout on Job Transfer Intention

Various studies assert the negative effect of job burnout on intention to leave the job across various professions, such as health worker (Dall'Ora et al., 2020; Scanlan & Still, 2019), human resource personnel (Ivanovic et al., 2020), hotel employees (Wen et al., 2020), and so forth. Interestingly, Casely-Hayford et al (2022) found that perceived health state harms intention to remain in school more than work- and socio-organizational-related variables.

In the teaching profession, the meta-analysis conducted by Madigan and Kim (2021) found that job burnout is an important factor in predicting teacher intention to leave the job. The effect is more pronounced than job satisfaction. Consistent with Perrone et al. (2019) who indicate that higher levels of burnout can lower the likelihood of retention for the early career teachers. Recently, Räsänen et al. (2022) conducted a five-year follow-up longitudinal study and found that teachers with persistent turnover intentions experienced high levels of job burnout.

Concerning teacher job transfer, Johnson (2021) asserts the effect of job burnout on teacher turnover and transfer. Interestingly, a study conducted by Ryan et al. (2017) used a single component of depersonalization to reflect job burnout symptom. They justify that the depersonalization component reflects the teacher-student relationships which affects the intention to leave the school. The structural model analysis found that the depersonalization component significantly and negatively affects the intention to migrate and leave the job.

In conclusion, previous studies used the three components of job burnout to investigate the effects on withdrawal behaviors. Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization affect turnover intention positively. Noticeably, the reduced personal accomplishment component has often been neglected since previous evidence shows a weak association with behavioral outcomes. Concerning the effect of job burnout on job transfer intention, few studies were found, and mixed results were reported.

2.4.5 The Mediation Effect of Job Burnout

Based on Leiter and Maslach's (2005) mediation model of burnout, the work attributes (i.e., control, community, and values) that fit well with the personal attributes (i.e., needs, desired, goals), the likelihood of engagement with work is increased. When a misfit arises, the emotional responses produce stress and emotional exhaustion. Employees try to mitigate the overwhelming stress and emotional exhaustion by distancing themselves from the job. Simultaneously, it develops negative attitudes toward the job and the feeling of inefficacy. It results in condemning yourself as a failure and withdrawal behaviors, especially absenteeism and turnover intention.

Furthermore, this working relationship is the same as the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989) that employees and employers mutually develop throughout the course of employment. Psychological contract violation brings about job stress and burnout. As well as the equity theory (J. S. Adams, 1965) which states that employees evaluate the adequacy of reward with the effort they contribute to the work and relative to other people. An imbalance between reward and effort increases the risk of job burnout. The unresolvable issue in the working relationships engender emotional exhaustion, cynicism views toward the work, and feeling of inefficacy. It subsequently causes negative attitudes toward the organization and the intention to leave.

In a similar vein, based on the job demands-resources theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), job demands are the cause of stress and job resources support employee's work and maintain their well-being. Adequacy of job resources can buffer the adverse impact of job demands and reduce job stress which later increases job satisfaction and engagement. On the contrary, high job demands cause emotional exhaustion, and low

job resources cause job disengagement. Therefore, the issues in working relationships are associated with job burnout and the turnover intention.

Past evidence asserts the mediation effect of job burnout in the relationship between misfit work environments and the intention to leave. For example, job burnout mediates the effect of role stress (Wen et al., 2020), workload (Rajendran et al., 2020), administrative climate (Perrone et al., 2019), and professional identity (T. Zhang et al., 2021) toward the turnover intention. Furthermore, the review literature by Dall'Ora et al. (2020) confirms the effect of work-related factors (e.g., job control, autonomy, supervisor support, team relationship, and value conflict) on the three components of job burnout and job burnout effect on employee outcomes (e.g., intention to leave, turnover, performance, and absenteeism).

2.5 Regulatory Focus

According to Higgins (1997), regulatory focus refers to “a distinction of two orientations that individuals adjust their behaviors and self-conceptions with desired goals”. Promotion focus involves advancement and achievement needs. Progress or achievement of a goal brings happiness and enjoyment, while lack of progress or missing of a goal cause sadness and discontent. Prevention focus involves security and safety needs. Failing to avoid loss can bring anxiety and fear, whereas success in avoiding loss results in feelings of quiescence and relief.

Regulatory focus theory derives from the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 2015) which postulates that discrepancies between the self-concept and the self-guides create negative psychological situations and activate emotional responses. Self-concept

comprised of actual/own and actual/other while self-guide pertaining to ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own, and ought/other. Negative psychological situations comprised of the absence of positive outcomes and the presence of negative outcomes that stimulate dejection and agitation emotional responses respectively.

People approach pleasure and avoid pain following their needs, self-guides, and psychological situations. When promotion focus is the prime motivational state, people are satisfied with growth and development needs. They try to reduce the discrepancy between actual-self and ideal-self that emphasizes accomplishment and aspirations. The presence of positive outcomes brings about the pleasure of gain and produces cheerfulness emotions. The absence of positive outcomes brings about the pain of non-gain that generates dejection emotion. The eagerness strategic means are applied to achieve the desired end-states. They focus on possible solutions while having low concern for wrong solutions.

Under prevention focus, people are satisfied when achieving safety and security needs. They try to reduce the discrepancy between actual-self and ought-self which emphasizes obligations and responsibilities. The absence of negative outcomes brings about the pleasure of non-loss which produces quiescent emotions. The presence of negative outcomes leads to the pain of loss and generates agitation emotions. To avoid their undesired end-states, vigilance strategic means are used. They tend to insure correct rejections and insure against the error of commissions.

In sum, regulatory focus refers to a motivation system that influences people to adjust or guide their behaviors and attitudes to meet the desired-end state. Under the promotion system, people tend to regulate themselves by growth and development needs and striving for an ideal self through aspiration and accomplishment using eagerness strategic means. Under the prevention system, people tend to regulate themselves in response to security and safety needs and fulfilling their ought-self through responsibilities and obligations by vigilance strategic means.

2.5.1 Regulatory Success and Failure

According to regulatory focus theory, congruence between people's chronic regulatory focus and the regulatory focus of the events produces regulatory success while incongruence conveys regulatory failure which affects an individual's emotions and actions (Higgins, 1997; Idson et al., 2000). Regarding psychological situations, the promotion-focused individual is sensitive to positive outcomes, while negative outcomes are salient to the prevention-focused individual. The outcome experiences derived from the presence of positive outcomes (gain) represent promotion success whereas the absence of positive outcomes (non-gain) represent promotion failure. In contrast, the outcome experiences derived from the absence of negative outcomes (non-loss) represent prevention success whereas the presence of negative outcomes (loss) represent prevention failure.

In addition, Higgins, et al. (2001) indicate that an individual who experienced success using promotion-related eagerness means would have promotion pride while an individual who experienced success using prevention-related vigilance would have prevention pride. In a similar vein, it expects that an individual who experienced

failure in promotion goal attainment would have promotion shame whereas an individual who experienced failure in prevention goal attainment would have prevention shame. Those regulatory shame would energize and direct behavior to avoid a new task goal differently.

Based on the principle of goal supportiveness, Higgins (2018) indicates that the outcome experience is judged to support or impede the satisfaction of a goal pursuit. Perceived goal support produces a judgement of positive valence, goal impediment generates negative valence, and staying at the status quo has either positive or negative valence. Promotion motivational state concerns the ideal-self-guide which perceives advancement or gain (+1) as success that one should strive for and lack of progress or non-gain (0) as a failure that must be avoided. Prevention motivational state concerns ought-self-guide which perceives status quo or non-loss (0) as success that one should strive for and falls behind or loss (-1) as a failure that must be avoided. Being at status quo (0) is not treated as a neutral state. It entails positive valence in the prevention system because of success in attaining positive outcomes but has negative valence in the promotion system since it fails to achieve positive outcomes.

2.5.2 Regulatory Focus Assessment

Regulatory focus is conceptualized and operationalized in the way motivation on adjustment of behaviors and attitudes toward the desired end-state. Previous studies assessing a person's regulatory focus in a different way of construct and measurement albeit the same theory. Summerville and Roese (2008) and Hodis (2017) indicate that the self-guide definition and the reference point definition have been utilized in the previous studies. The self-guide definition is defined centering on internal or external

standards an individual adheres to. Promotion focus adheres to internal standards while prevention focus follows external or socially based standards. The reference-point definition, on the other hand, is defined centering on the two possible desired end-state used in goal pursuit. Gains and non-gains representing promotion focus success and failure while non-loss and loss representing prevention focus success and failure, respectively.

In addition, people tend to use strategic means corresponding to the regulatory system. Promotion focus prefer approach matches the desired end-states while prevention focus is prone to avoid mismatches the desired end-states. Therefore, Ouschan, Boldero, Kashima, Wakimoto, and Kashima (2007) proposed “the regulatory focus strategies scale” to assess how individuals use strategic means in pursuing desired goals. Promotion focus was assessed by the items relating to eager means for achieving success while prevention focus contains items relating to vigilant means for avoiding failure. Similarly, Greifeneder and Keller (2012) proposed the “Regulatory Concerns Questionnaire” to assess the likelihood of utilizing eagerness and vigilance strategic means when forming judgments and decisions. This measurement relies on the notion that promotion and prevention focus tend to collect information that congruent with regulatory concerns.

The measurement developed by Wallace and Chen (2006) to capture employees’ regulatory focus in the work setting. Promotion focus is determined by ideal self, advancement, and accomplishment, while prevention focus is determined by ought self, obligations, and responsibilities. Later, Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, and Roberts (2008) developed the “Work Regulatory Focus Scale” that examines the three

elements of regulatory focus namely needs, self-guides, and psychological outcomes. Promotion focus is conceptualized as achievement need, ideals self, and gains, whereas prevention focus relates to security need, ought self, and losses.

Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002) developed the “Regulatory Focus Questionnaire” that aims to measure the chronic promotion and prevention goals. Promotion goals relating to the ideal self that pursues achieving hopes, wishes, and aspirations goals. Prevention goals involve the ought self that adheres to safety, security, and responsibility goals. They also created the “Dominant Regulatory Focus” method to gauge the relative strength of either promotion or prevention goals that drive one’s behavior. To find dominant regulatory focus, the scores on promotion focus subscale will be subtracted by the scores on prevention focus subscale. A high score reflects a relatively greater promotion focus than a prevention focus. This method has been used in subsequent studies such as Toyama (2022), Wang and Huang (2019), and Zarouali, Poels, Walrave, and Ponnet (2018).

To sum up, regulatory focus measurements are mostly developed to assess chronic regulatory goals in generic contexts. Assessing chronic promotion goals relies on fulfilling hopes, aspirations, and the ideal self while chronic prevention goals involve responsibilities, obligations, and the ought self. Some measurements focus on the strategic means to achieve regulatory goals. It examines the inclination to use eagerness or vigilance as a means of goal attainment. Few measurements are emphasized on regulatory outcomes. Within this definition, gains and non-gains represent success and failure of promotion focus, while non-loss and loss represent success and failure of prevention focus. Not as many measurements are designed to

assess the work-specific regulatory focus.

2.5.3 The Effects of Situational Cues on Regulatory Failure

Regulatory focus pertains to chronic and situational properties (Higgins, 1997). Chronic regulatory focus is a long-term personality predisposition that slowly developed in early life socialization. Situational regulatory focus is a short-term personality inclination influenced by the specific work situation and task frame information. People whose chronic promotion- or prevention-focused can be conditioned by situational factors to think or act the opposite of their inherent focus. The situation cues that emphasize possible benefits are prone to bring promotion motivation, while possible losses are prone to bring prevention motivation.

Previous studies investigated how changing work situational cues can shift employee's regulatory focus, but the effect of the work situation (i.e., control, community, and values) on regulatory failure is less emphasized. The studies that contribute to these associations are reviewed below.

2.5.3.1 Control and Regulatory Failure

Control involves freedom and discretion to do the job on their own belief about effectiveness and efficiency. Perceived adequate (inadequate) control over the job which is associated with success (failure) in avoiding negative outcomes leads to a sense of non-loss (loss) or prevention success (failure). In contrast, perceived adequate (inadequate) control over the job which is associated with success (failure) in attaining positive outcomes leads to a sense of gain (non-gain) or promotion success (failure). Therefore, misfits in control that bring a non-gain state can generate promotion failure,

whereas a loss state brings prevention failure.

Parker (2014) and Parker and Ohly (2008) state that job design concerns job autonomy, job variety, and job challenges which affect employees' regulatory focus. They indicate that job enrichment leads to a promotion focus because it adds advancements, growth, and accomplishment to the job while minimizing discrepancies with the ideal self. In contrast, a narrow job design generates a prevention focus because it concerns maintaining security, safety, and responsibility while minimizing discrepancies with the ought self. For example, an employee who experienced more job autonomy will have a stronger promotion focus, whereas low autonomy will be more prevention focus.

Later, researchers indicate job crafting as the way employees use to balance job demands and resources to achieve job fit that engenders the motivational state of gains or non-loss (Bindl et al., 2019; Tims et al., 2022). When an employee actively seeks more job resources, such as job autonomy, for attaining desired positive outcomes, it represents a state of "gain" or promotion crafting. When an employee changes the existing job aspects to avoid undesired outcomes, it represents a state of "non-loss" or prevention crafting. Hence, changes in job aspects that produce non-gains bring promotion failure, while losses bring prevention failure.

C. Zhang et al. (2021) investigated the role of regulatory focus in the relationship between self-construal (independent vs. interdependent) and willingness to disclose personal health information. Independent self-construal refers to "a motivation to being distinct from others" while interdependent self-construal refers to "a motivation

to conform with others”. The results show the significant effect of independent self-construal on promotion focus while interdependent self-construal had significant effect on prevention focus. Suggesting that motivation to strive autonomy or independent can induce promotion focus whereas conformity induces prevention focus.

2.5.3.2 Community and Regulatory Failure

Community refers to support from supervisors and colleagues. It involves interpersonal relations that entail trust, conflict, mutual support, closeness, team, to name a few. Changes in the relationships with supervisors and colleagues that constrain growth, advancement, and ideals reflect the absence of the desired end-state. It leads to a state of non-gain or promotion failure. Likewise, the relationships that bring the issues of responsibility and obligations reflect the presence of the undesired end-state. It leads to a state of loss or prevention failure.

P. Zhang et al. (2023) and K. E. Adams and Tyler (2020) assert that the issue in relationships is a threat to the fundamental needs. It can activate the sense of social non-gain or social loss. In specific, being rejected or ignored by others can influence people's regulatory focus. Park and Baumeister (2015) and Molden et al. (2009) found that people who actively rejected by others will activate prevention focus strategies to protect the loss of social connections, whereas passively ignored by others can trigger promotion focus strategies to pursue missed gains of social opportunity. Consistent with Bindl et al. (2019) who indicate that relatedness needs are associated with the promotion-oriented form of job crafting.

The work community definition found emphasizes the role of social support from supervisors to some extent. The leader's role, leaders' expectation, and leader's communications are important cues that influence regulatory orientation. A leader is "the meaning maker" who influences follower's regulatory focus through language and symbol. When leaders emphasize the importance of "ideal" by communicating on hopes, aspirations, and gains, the followers tend to be in the state of promotion focus. Likewise, when leaders emphasize "ought" by communicating on obligations, responsibilities, and non-loss, the followers tend to be in the state of prevention focus. This suggests the association between leadership and the follower's regulatory focus.

Kark, van Dijk, and Vashdi (2018) found that transactional and transformational leadership can influence the situational regulatory focus of the followers. They indicate that transformational leaders tend to influence followers' promotion focus since they inspire followers to move toward a new standpoint, be more creative and innovative, and go beyond the status quo. In contrast, the transactional leader who oversees the jobs in the "right way," sets standards and procedures, and monitors obligations tend to evoke followers' prevention focus. Likewise, Shang et al. (2019) found that authentic leadership of postgraduate supervisors can influence the promotion focus of the students because it shares the common characteristics with transformational leadership on creativity and new ideas.

2.5.3.3 Values and Regulatory Failure

Values are fundamentally based on congruence between an individual's desired goals or standards and those of an organization. On the one hand, setting value on pursuing hopes and aspirations goals is associated with a promotion motivation. Congruence of

individuals' hopes and aspirations with their organization will produce a state of gain or promotion success, else is non-gain or promotion failure. On the other hand, value on responsibilities and obligations goals engender a prevention motivation. Values congruence in responsibilities and obligations between employees and their organization will activate a non-loss psychological state or prevention success, and vice versa.

Previous studies assert the association between work values and regulatory focus. For example, Rich, Baugh, and Batchelor (2022) and Rich, Rich, and Hair (2018) indicate that organizational and personal values have two dimensions. On the one hand, values that are associated with positive outcomes, such as innovation, aggressiveness, and outcome orientation. It contributes to the promotion focus motivation and behaviors. On the other hand, values that are associated with negative outcomes, such as attention to detail, stability, team, and respect for others. It contributes to the prevention focus motivation and behaviors. In this regard, incongruence between personal and organizational values will entail the state of regulatory misfit and failure eventually.

The study of sustainable entrepreneurship conducted by Fischer, Mauer, and Brettel (2018) found that the regulatory focus of entrepreneurs can be changed throughout the entrepreneurial process by the temporal motivational values dynamics. When conceiving ideas, the social or ecological problems induced the entrepreneurs to pay attention toward sustainable development attitudes and engage in prevention focus. When rollout, the entrepreneurs concentrated on growth attitudes and increasingly engaged in promotion focus.

Hall, Yip, and Doiron (2018) and Hofstetter and Rosenblatt (2017) state that employees' work values can activate regulatory goals and generate approach or avoidance strategic means. They demonstrated that work importance can activate ideal self-guide while work alternatives can activate ought self-guides which in turn triggered eagerness or vigilance strategic inclination to adopt boundaryless career attitudes, respectively. Work importance evokes promotion focus because it showed congruent between employee's needs of growth and achieve and work values. On the other hand, work alternatives raised prevention focus because it motivated to avoid negative outcomes and enhance career security.

2.5.4 The Effect of Regulatory Failure on Job transfer Intention

People are motivated to approach pleasure and avoid pain. However, approaching because it matches the desired end-state differs from approaching because it mismatches the undesired end-state (Higgins, 2018). For example, the situation that ends up with the presence of positive outcomes or gain (+1) is not equal to the absence of negative outcomes or non-loss (0). The positive emotion stemming from a gain is more profound than a non-loss and impacts subsequent behaviors differently. Also, the situation that ends up with the presence of negative outcomes or loss (-1) is not equal to the absence of positive outcomes or non-gain (0). That is because negative emotion stemming from a loss is more profound than a non-gain which impacts subsequent strategic means differently.

This regulatory mechanism elaborates regulatory success and failure on the underlying motivation of approach and avoidance behavior. Regarding psychological outcomes originating from goal pursuit, the perceived gain will activate cheerful emotions and

bring the psychological state of promotion success, whereas perceived non-loss activates quiescence emotion and bring prevention success. Success in the promotion system will be more eagerness, whereas success in the prevention system will be less vigilance. On the contrary, the perceived non-gain activates dejection emotion and brings the psychological state of promotion failure, whereas perceived loss activates agitation emotions and brings about prevention failure. Failure in the promotion system will be less eagerness, whereas failure in the prevention system will be more vigilance.

The influential work conducted by Roney, Higgins, and Shah (1995) indicate that the former success or failure outcome experiences can induce regulatory focus which in turn affect performance and influence motivation to persist on the task. In their study, the participants who experienced failure from unsolvable anagrams can solve more anagrams when given positive outcome feedback (e.g., you will get to play the liked task if you can solve 22 out of 25 anagrams) than in the negative outcome feedback (e.g., you will get to do the disliked task if you get 4 out of 25 wrong). Moreover, the participants who were given negative outcome feedback tended to quit the task before the time was up than participants who were given the positive outcome feedback.

Another influential work conducted by Crowe and Higgins (1997) found that the people who experienced failures under the prevention focus condition tend to increase vigilance while failures under the promotion focus condition are more eagerness. They added that people in the state of eagerness tend to find possible hits and insure against omitting any possible hits while people in the state of vigilance tend to avoid possible mistakes and insure against committing any possible errors. In the anagram task, for

example, participants who failed under the promotion focus condition were eager to produce more solutions and generated more distinct alternatives, whereas failures under the prevention focus condition were more vigilance by repeating a few alternatives already used and inclined to quit before time was up. In addition, failure in a promotion focus condition can induce advancement tactics and demonstrated a risky response bias while failure in a prevention focus condition induced precautionary tactics and brought about conservative response bias.

Recent studies assert the effects of gain and loss situations on behavior. For example, van Swol, Polman, Paik, and Chang (2022) found that people in a gain situation tends to lie by omission or withholding important yet true information and people in a loss situation are likely to lie by commission or disclose something false as true. Likewise, Polman, van Swol, and Hoban (2020) found that promotion focus football players tend to cheat more when losing while prevention focus players committed more cheat when winning.

Hence, outcome experiences that signify non-gain valence can induce the state of promotion failure while loss valence can induce the state of prevention failure which motivates avoidance behaviors respectively. Information from the supervisors, for example, that communicates failure to attain the expected revenue growth will convey the non-gain outcomes (0) or promotion failure. It produces pain from the absence of positive outcomes in which subsequent behavior to avoid the further non-gain will be activated. Contrary, information that specifies failure to maintain market share can convey the loss outcomes (-1) or prevention failure. It engenders pain from the presence of negative outcomes and subsequently activates the behavioral inclinations

to avoid further loss.

Moreover, occasional regulatory failure helps people to adopt more effective strategic means to pursue a goal while chronic failures might engender negative self-evaluation which withdrawal from the committed goal. People who experienced pain from loss (prevention failure) would be feeling of being at risk or in danger. They tend to be sensitive to negative outcomes and focus on avoiding further loss. The vigilance state would be activated which results in strengthening engagement in obligation and responsibility goals. In contrast, pain in non-gain (promotion failure) causes people to reduce optimism which results in a decrease in motivation and evokes negative self-evaluation. It can weaken engagement and see the promotion goal are less likely to attain. Therefore, they are less likely to pursue them.

2.5.5 The Effect of Regulatory Failure on Emotional Experience

According to Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 2018), promotion focus people perceive advancement (+1) as success and lack of progress (0) as failure causing the emotional response on a cheerful–dejected dimension. In contrast, prevention focus people perceive maintain status quo (0) as success and fall behind (-1) as failure causing the emotional responses on a quiescence–agitation dimension. Occasional regulatory failure engenders a negative affective state which in turn helps people to adapt more effective means to pursue their job goals. Chronic self-regulatory failure, on the other hand, can increase the risk of job stress, emotional exhaustion, and job burnout eventually.

Idson, Liberman, and Higgins (2000) distinguished regulatory focus into minimal and maximal goals by self-guides definition. Prevention focus concerns ought self-guide that give priority to duties and obligations. It emphasizes standards or goals that must be met which represent a minimal goal. Promotion focus, on the other hand, concerns ideal self-guide that emphasizes hopes and aspirations. It emphasizes standards and goals that one hopes to meet which represent a maximal goal. Success in promotion goal tends to experience more intense emotion than prevention success because the aspiration and maximal goal is achieved. In contrast, failure in prevention goal tends to experience more intense emotion than promotion failure because it fails to achieve an obligation and minimal goal.

Furthermore, Klenk, Strauman, & Higgins (2011) indicate that chronic failure cause promotion focused people to reduce optimism and likely to believe that the possibility of an expected positive outcome is rather small or insignificant. It evokes negative self-evaluation and produces “hypo-eagerness” in which vulnerable to the depressive symptom. Contrary, chronic failures cause prevention focused people to feel being at risk and tend to interpret situations as threats to avoid. Chronic prevention focus failures can produce “hyper-vigilant” that stimulates an individual to constantly check for potential threats. It brings about irritability, feeling weary, and fatigue. Hyper-vigilant does not increase the effectiveness in pursuing prevention goals but intensifies emotional responses related to anxiety symptoms.

However, no previous studies investigated the effect of failure in promotion or prevention systems on job burnout. Moreover, the studies relating to the effect of regulatory focus on job burnout found mixed results. Zivnuska, Kacmar, and Valle

(2017) who conducted a study with Caucasian sample found a direct effect between regulatory focus and job burnout. Promotion focus negatively relates to job burnout while prevention focus positively relates to job burnout. Pérez-Fuentes et al. (2020) found only promotion focus has a negative effect on job burnout in healthcare workers. Dai, Altinay, Zhuang, and Chen (2021) found that promotion and prevention focus was negatively related to job burnout, where prevention focus accounted for more variance than promotion focus. Interestingly, Petrou, van den Heuvel, and Schaufeli (2017) found a non-significant relation between regulatory focus and job burnout for either manager or non-manager groups. They indicate that employees may protect their well-being by seeking help from others or developing creative problem-solving. Hence, regulatory focus does not necessarily affect employees' well-being.

2.5.6 The Mediation Effect of Regulatory Failure

Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 2018) states that promotion focus concerns with ideal self-guide which perceive advancement or gain (+1) as success that one strives for and lack of progress or non-gain (0) as a failure that must be avoided. Prevention focus involves ought self-guide which perceive status quo or non-loss (0) as success that one seeks for and fall behind or loss (-1) as failure that must be avoided. In addition, being at status quo (0) is not treated as a neutral state. It has positive valence for prevention focus because the success of attaining a positive outcome but has negative valence in promotion focus since it fails to attain a positive outcome.

Changes in the person-environment fit that signify non-gain or loss valence can induce regulatory failure and motivate subsequent strategic means of goals pursuit. Information from supervisors, for example, that communicates failure to attain the

expected revenue growth will convey the non-gain outcomes (0) or promotion failure. It produces pain from the absence of positive outcomes in which subsequent behavior to avoid the further non-gain will be activated. Contrary, information that specifies failure to maintain market share can convey the loss outcomes (-1) or prevention failure. It engenders pain from the presence of negative outcomes and subsequently activates the behavioral inclinations to avoid further loss.

Regulatory focus theory also states that success and failure in the promotion system bring emotional responses of cheerful and dejection. Prevention system success and failure bring the emotional responses of quiescence and agitation. Therefore, failure in goals pursuit engenders distinct emotional responses depending on regulatory focus. For example, failure in the promotion system (unmet reward or aspiration) will experience dejection emotions, whereas failure in the prevention system (unmet responsibilities or security) will experience agitation emotions. The issue of emotion at work is associated with emotional well-being and job burnout.

Previous studies assert the mediating role of regulatory focus in many perspectives. Hofstetter and Rosenblatt (2017) demonstrated the mediating role of regulatory focus (promotion growth needs and prevention security needs) in the relationship between work cognition (work importance and work alternatives) and career preferences (protean and boundaryless career). They justify that cognitive and behavioral intentions are mediated by affective aspects of promotion-ideal and prevention-ought fulfillment.

Some studies suggest the mediating role of promotion ideal and prevention ought. Shang et al. (2019) and Kark, van Dijk, and Vashdi (2018) found transformational leadership that emphasize accomplishment will activate promotion motivation which in turn led to eager behaviors. The followers will be more creative. Transactional leadership that emphasizes compliance will activate prevention motivation and brings about vigilant behaviors. It further inhibits follower's creativity.

In case of gain and loss scenarios, To, Kilduff, Ordonez, and Schweitzer (2018) found that, in the National Football League (NFL), appearing of rivalry can trigger promotion gain and prevention loss motivational state which later influences the tendency to embrace risk-taking behavior. Liu and Li (2017) found that the way of giving rewards that reflect gain (adding a reward for achievement) and non-loss (deducting a reward for errors) will affect employee's regulatory focus and influences sharing behavior.

2.6 Underpinning Theory

There are numerous theoretical approaches for investigating work environment fit, well-being, and turnover. This study adopted the person-environment fit theory and the regulatory focus theory to explain the relationship between job transfer intention, job burnout, regulatory failure, and work environments.

2.6.1 The Person-Environment Fit

The person-environment fit theory is one of the most prominent theories used when investigating job stress and organization withdrawal. It is defined as “the compatibility between and individual and a work environment that occur when their characteristics are well matched” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). When a person fits well with their

environment, it will lead to positive outcomes. When fit disappears, job stress will arise and harm job satisfaction and organizational commitment which consequently affect turnover intention.

2.6.1.1 The Basic Principle of Fit

According to Edwards and Shipp (2007), the person-environment fit theory relies on three basic principles. Firstly, fit between person and environment leads to positive outcomes. This assumption brings about numerous studies in the association between fit/misfit and job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Secondly, the effects of fit are similar despite different constructs of the person and the environment. This assumption is asserted by the studies that used different types of fit measures which demonstrated the same results. And thirdly, the effects of fit are similar regardless of the levels or the direction of fit.

Likewise, van Vianen (2018) identifies similar basic principles of fit. Firstly, the person and the environment work in concert to influence behavioral outcomes. Examining the fit between the person and the environment yields high predictive power than either of them separately. Secondly, the outcome is optimal when personal attributes and environment attributes is fit regardless of the level of these attributes. The high, medium, low fit produces similar outcomes. And thirdly, misfit is similarly harmful irrespective of the direction of the misfit. The deficiency or excess fit can produce similar outcomes in a negative way.

2.6.1.2 Context and Content of Fit

Person-environment fit emphasizes the contexts of the work environment. Other contexts outside the work are excluded, such as life outside the work (spouses, communities, and national cultures), at the organization level (structure, size, and diversification), and other specific domains (fit between expatriate and host country culture or fit between customers and employees).

In the work context, person-environment fit can be examined through numerous lens. For example, person-vocation fit examines the fit between personal interests and vocational characteristics, person-job fit focus on the fit between knowledge, skills, and abilities and demand of the job, person-organization fit examines the fit between individual values and organizational cultures, person-group or person-supervisor fit examines the fit between individual and their peers or supervisors, and person-role fit examines the role an employee plays are congruent with a team expectation (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

Rather than the context, scholars introduced the content in which a person can fit on (e.g., work autonomy, coworker, and values). Edwards and Shipp (2007) indicates that taking the specific content of fit into account can enhance understanding the substantive meaning of fit and mitigate the shortcoming when attempt to predict the fit relationship. By ignoring content, the meaning and implication will be elusive and yield simplistic generalizations. He further added the continuum that represents global, domain, and facet level of content dimensions. Global level focused on overall attributes. Domain level represents a category of content such as values, personality, and goals. Facet level concerns specific characteristics such as Big Fiver personality

traits.

2.6.1.3 Psychological Mechanisms of Fit

Person and work environments fit have two primary psychological mechanisms (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Firstly, the supplementary fit emerges when a person possesses personal characteristics that are like others in the environment. For example, people are attracted, recruited, and retained in an organization where the members have similar characteristics. The second mechanism is complementary fit which reflects compatibility based on the completion. It comprises of two sub perspectives namely the demand-ability and needs-supplies fit. The demands-abilities perspective involves fit that emerges when employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities commensurate with job requirements or to carry out the tasks. This traditional view usually plays a major role in selection and recruitment research. The needs-supplies fit perspective relates to the fit that emerges when employees' needs are met with the job they perform. The person's needs include goals, desire, preference, and values whereas job supplies involve characteristics of occupation, pay, and other job attributes.

In addition, reality and perceived reality can affect the psychological mechanism of fit. The fit between person and environment that is independent of a person's perception refers to the objective fit while the fit between person and environment that is a person's perception refers to the subjective fit. Since objective reality is filtered through a person's perception and evokes behavioral outcomes, objective fit is the predictor of subjective fit and the subjective fit is the proximal predictor of behavioral outcomes. Interestingly, the association between objective and subjective fit is moderated by the person's contact with reality and accuracy of self-assessment.

2.6.1.4 Consequences of Fit

Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) state that the different aspects of the person and work environment fit will subsequently affect the different behavioral outcome. They justify that job-related fit should be associated with attitudes toward the job, and organization-related fit should be associated with attitudes toward the organization. Hence, job satisfaction, for example, should be associated with person-job fit, and organizational commitment should be associated with person-organization fit. Turnover intentions related to the global work environment are likely to associate with person-organization fit, and job transfer that concerns job-related skill or job characteristics tends to associate with person-job fit.

Edwards and Shipp (2007) indicate the outcomes of fit comprise attitudes, mental and physical health, and task and contextual performance. The attitudes outcome involves affective response to the assessment of fit. It mostly focused on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The mental and physical well-being outcomes have largely been focused on stress research. Stress can be treated as, for example, situational demands that exceed the ability of the person or the supplies that fall short of the person's needs. The performance outcomes concern task and contextual definitions. Individuals must have knowledge, skills, and abilities that fit with the job requirements to achieve task performance whereas contextual performance involves attitudes that correspond to the work role.

Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) summarized the consequences of fit into three groups which are affective outcomes, physiological outcomes, and behavioral outcomes. Affective outcomes of fit concerns emotional state that result from assessment of the

environment. It usually results in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Physiological outcomes of fit rely on work adjustment that maladjustment increase risk of negative physiological outcomes especially stress and strain. And behavioral outcomes of fit concerns behaviors that result from assessment of the expected and beyond expected in one's job. It has largely been found in performance and withdrawal behavior domains. In addition, fit outcomes have been expanded to cover creativity, career success, and deviance behaviors domains.

2.6.2 The Regulatory Focus Theory

Regulatory focus theory refers to two basic motivation orientations that regulate emotions, thoughts, and behaviors (Higgins, 1997). Promotion focus involves advancement and accomplishment in relation to ideal self-guide. The perception of progress or goal accomplishment results in enjoyment and happiness, while perceived absence of progress or advancement results in disappointment and sadness. In contrast, prevention focus involves security and obligation in relation to ought self-guide. Failing to avoid undesired outcome results in anxiety and fear, whereas success in avoiding undesired outcome results in quiescence and relief. Promotion and prevention focus is independent to each other which a person may engage high in both, high in one and low in the other, and even low in both.

2.6.2.1 Factors Influencing Regulatory Focus

Regulatory focus is influenced by three factors that differentiate promotion focus from prevention focus. It includes differences in the needs that people strive for, the goals or standards that people are trying to accomplish, and the psychological situations that influence outcome sensitivities (Brockner & Higgins, 2001).

Firstly, the needs that people are motivated to fulfill. Approaching pleasure and avoiding pain is the general hedonic principle to understand human behaviors. But it fails to elaborate on the psychological mechanism underlying behaviors. Regulatory focus theory states that human behaviors are motivated by the two fundamental needs that are growth and development on the one hand, and safety and security on the other. Growth and development needs predominate the promotion system, while safety and security needs predominate the prevention system.

Secondly, the nature of the goal or standard that people are trying to achieve. It reflects people's beliefs about their desired end-states which are ideal and ought self-guide. The Ideal self represents hopes, wishes, and aspirations that fulfill growth and development needs. The ought self represents duties, obligations, and responsibilities that fulfill security and safety needs. People with a promotion focus try to achieve goals or standards associated with their ideal self, whereas people with a prevention focus try to achieve goals or standards involving their ought self.

And thirdly, the psychological situations that matter to people. The situations related to the presence or absence of positive outcomes are salient to promotion focus. The positive outcomes happen when ideal self-guide is fulfilled which in turn brings about the pleasure of a gain. The positive outcomes disappear when failing to meet the ideal self and the pain of a non-gain will arise. In contrast, the absence or presence of negative outcomes are salient to prevention focus. When the ought self is fulfilled, the negative outcome disappears which in turn brings the pleasure of a non-loss experience. Failing to meet the ought self reflects the presence of negative outcome which produce the pain of loss experience.

2.6.2.2 Situational Regulatory Focus

Regulatory focus theory states that chronic regulatory focus or long-term regulatory focus is the personality tendency that slowly cultivated in early life socialization. Situational or short-term regulatory focus is the personality tendency which can be induced by a situation or task frame information. People whose promotion- or prevention-focused by nature can be conditioned by situational factors to act opposite to their inherent focus. The situation that emphasizes potential gains and non-gains tends to influence promotion focus while potential non-loss and loss can influence prevention focus.

In addition, Bryant and Dunford (2008) indicate the convergent and divergent combinations of chronic and situational regulatory focus. These combinations can occur when chronic and situational regulatory focus simultaneously appear at the same time. Convergent combination occurs when a person possesses the same chronic and situational focus such as chronic promotion focus and situational promotion focus. Divergent combination occurs when a person possesses a different chronic and situational focus such as chronic prevention and situational promotion focus.

2.6.2.3 Three Tiers of Regulatory Focus

Based on the motivation theories, Scholer and Higgins (2008) indicate three-tiered of regulatory focus. Firstly, the system level of regulatory focus refers to a preference for desired end-states or outcomes that tends to be consistent across situations. It is operationalized as a orientation which serve as a general reference point that people view their world. Promotion system tend to approach match desired end-states (gain) and avoid mismatch desired end-states (non-gain) while prevention system prones to

avoid match undesired end-states (loss) and approach mismatch undesired end-states (non-loss).

Secondly, the strategic level involves general means used in goals pursuit. Since promotion focus concerns with growth and development, it tends to make progress by means that insure hit and insure against error of omission. Promotion focus will utilize eagerness strategic means to attain advancement and gain. Prevention focus concerns on safety and security, it tends to insure correct rejections and insure against the error of commission. Prevention focus will utilize vigilance strategic means to assure safety and nonloss.

Lastly, the tactical level involves the specific demands of the situation that determine action in response to serving the strategic means of the goal pursuit. It differs from the strategic level because “tactics enact strategies”. When situations likely produce more loss and less option to maintain the status quo, prevention focus who inherently prefer vigilance strategic means may tactically adopt riskier decisions to prevent further loss and restore the status quo. In contrast, promotion focused people who prefer eagerness strategic means may tactically adopt a more conservative option when the gains are perceived as significantly large.

2.6.2.4 Regulatory Focus and Strategic Inclinations

Regulatory focus theory indicates that promotion focus concerns ideal self, sensitive to positive outcomes, and tends to adopt approach means to obtain the desired end-states. Prevention focus concerns ought self, sensitive to negative outcomes, and tends to adopt avoidance means to obtain the desired end-states. Therefore, the strategic

inclination of promotion focus is to make progress by approaching match to the desired end-states, whereas avoiding mismatch to the desired end-states is the strategic inclination of prevention focus.

Moreover, people with a promotion focus want to attain advancement and gains by insure hits and insure against errors of omission. Making them an inclination to use eagerness strategic means. People with a prevention focus, on the contrary, want to maintain security and non-loss by insure correct rejections and insure against errors of commission. Making them an inclination to use vigilant strategic means.

2.6.2.5 Regulatory Focus and Emotion Experience

People are motivated to reach a condition where self-concept matches with actual self. Experiencing discrepancy is critical for emotional-motivational predispositions. Brockner and Higgins (2001) added that regulatory focus can influence nature and magnitude of emotions in response to the success and failure of regulatory reference point. Promotion success or failure concerns progress toward referent goals or standards, in this case, growth and development. It engenders emotional experiences along cheerful–dejected. Positive outcome or being successful (gain) brings about cheerful emotion on the one hand while negative outcome or failure (non-gain) causes dejection emotion on the other. Success or failure in prevention system involves securing safety and obligations. It produces emotional experiences along quiescence–agitation. Positive outcome or being successful (non-loss) brings quiescence emotion while negative outcome or being failure (loss) brings agitation emotion.

The magnitude of emotions experience depends on negative discrepancy and psychological significance of the goal or standard. The negative discrepancy refers to the gap between actual self and ideal self or ought self. The more negative discrepancy they experienced, the more negative emotion they response. In promotion focus, the magnitude of negative discrepancy depends on the gap between the actual self and the ideal self which influences the degree of dejection emotion. While the magnitude of the negative discrepancy of prevention focus depends on the gap between the actual self and the ought self which in turn elicits agitation emotion. Moreover, magnitude of emotional experience also depends on how significance of psychological goal or standard. The more importance of a goal or standard it is, the more pronounced relationship between the magnitude of negative discrepancy and level of emotionality they are.

2.7 Research Framework

Based on the theories and literature reviewed, this study proposes a framework to examine the effect of control, community, and values, on job transfer intention and the mediation effect of regulatory focus and job burnout. The research framework is composed of three independent variables that represent the contents of fit between person and environments namely control, community, and values. Job transfer intention is the dependent variable, while job burnout and regulatory failure are mediating variables.

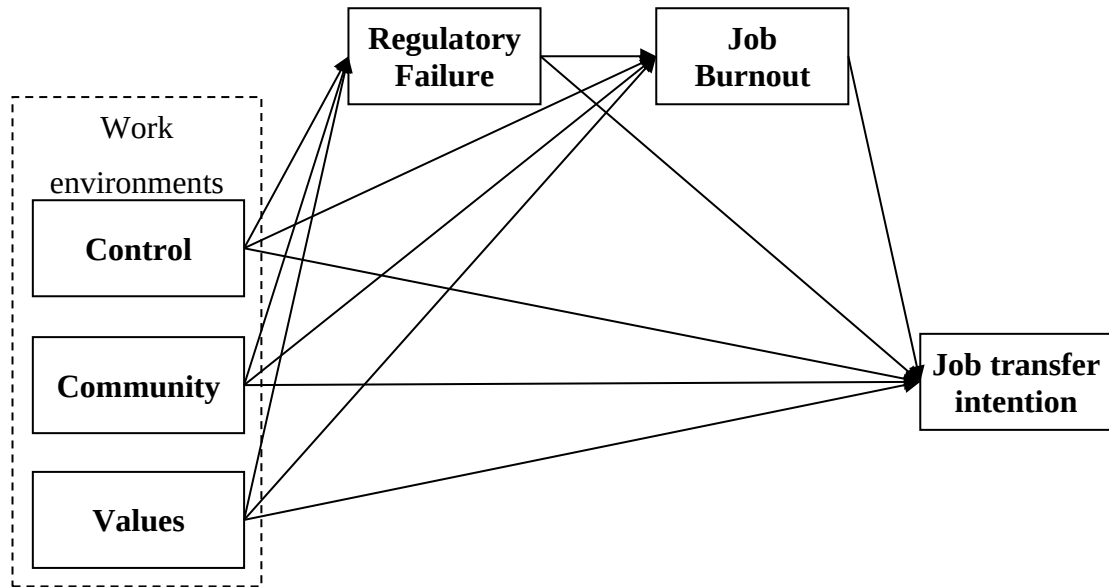


Figure 2. 1 Research Framework

2.8 Hypothesis of the Study

Based on the relevant theories and literature mentioned above, the following hypotheses are developed in accordance with the objectives of the study. The first objective conveys hypotheses H1-H3 concerning the direct association between independent variables and dependent variables. Hypotheses H4-H6 are based on the second objective concerning the association between independent variables and the first mediator variable. The third objective indicates in hypotheses H7-H10 concerning the mediation effect of the first mediator on the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable. The fourth objective delivers hypotheses H11-H17 concerning the mediation effect of the second mediator on the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable. Finally, hypotheses H18-H21 derived from the fifth objective concerning the mediation effect of the first and second mediator in the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables.

2.8.1 The Effect of Work Environments on Job Transfer Intention

Intention to transfer to another school reflects incongruence between teacher and school environment (Player, Youngs, Perrone, & Grogan, 2017; Roch & Sai, 2018). Fit or congruence is a psychological state that an individual is aware of and has a dynamic property (Edwards et al., 2006). Employees and the organizations implicitly and explicitly negotiate to achieve a mutually agreeable fit within the working relationship. The working relationship that changes to a level that employees find unacceptable and unresolvable will engender a sense of misfit. Misfit will undermine the reciprocal relationship between employees and their organization and result in breaking apart.

According to the needs-supplies fit, a person will cognitively compare personal and environmental attributes to determine if their needs and preferred values fit with those of an organization. A person's needs involve goals, desires, preferences, and values, whereas job supplies refer to characteristics of occupation, pay, and other job attributes (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). When employees perceived needs are unmet, it brings about physical, psychological, and behavioral strains, which are sources of attitudinal issues such as dissatisfaction, disengagement, and intention to leave (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Mahlasela & Chinyamurindi, 2020; Tolksdorf et al., 2022).

In the school context, teachers and a school continuously seek congruence with each other to obtain a better fit. Previous studies related to teachers leaving the job found that teachers' job transfer stems from the issues with their job (e.g., workload, control, responsibility), interpersonal relations (e.g., conflict, cohesion, support), and attitude toward school (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, congruence) (Kongcharoen et al., 2020;

Noosomton, 2016).

As a job holder, employees need adequacy of authority and autonomy to control a responsible job. When employees perceived an organization allocates inadequate control over the resources to do the job in the way they believe is the most effective, it triggers a sense of incongruence in control with their organization. In other words, freedom and capacity to make substantial choices are unmet. Job control is essential in organizational life because it shows an employee's contribution of knowledge, skill, and experience to an organization (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). A perceived deficiency in control than one's expecting can reduce self-efficacy, feeling unhappiness, and dissatisfaction, which will result in low commitment to an organization and high intention to leave the job (H.-L. Liu & Lo, 2018; Mahlasela & Chinyamurindi, 2020).

H1: Control negatively relates to job transfer intention.

As a part of a workgroup, employees expect a well fit in the work community, especially with colleagues and supervisors. Supervisors convey organizational values to the daily work that shape the employees' values and actions. Perceived fit with supervisor can promote feeling of inclusion, certainty, and ultimately enhance rewards and career opportunities (Van Vianen, 2018). Moreover, shared beliefs and values with colleagues and quality interpersonal interactions can affect an individual ability and further make contributions to the work group's performance (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). When working in a supportive work environment and effective means of conflict resolution, employees are more likely to engage with their job. In contrast, when a workplace has an unresolved conflict, a lack of trust, and a lack of support from colleagues and supervisors, it will produce frustration, feeling hostility, and harm

social support among employees. Relations with supervisors and colleagues that cannot fulfill the needs for inclusion, certainty, rewards, and career opportunity can increase the likelihood of leaving an organization (Tolksdorf et al., 2022).

H2: Community negatively relates to job transfer intention.

As an organization member, employees expect their beliefs about desirable goals or standards congruent with the organization's established work rules and normative principles. Values congruence attract people to their job and further binding with the workplace beyond the exchange for money or advancement. Employees who committed to an organization is thoroughly consider alignment of organization and individual values. The overlap between personal and organizational values will benefit both parties. The smaller overlap leads to a more trade-off between personal values and those of an organization (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). Employees who perceived values congruence will satisfy with their job, have positive attitudes toward the organization, exert extra-role behaviors, identifies with the organization, and maintain the organization's membership (Edwards & Cable, 2009). On the contrary, a high degree of values incongruence can increase psychological distress, reduce satisfaction, undermine engagement, and eventually increase intentions to leave (M. S. Hayes & Stazyk, 2019; Stazyk & Davis, 2021).

H3: Values negatively relate to job transfer intention.

2.8.2 The Effect of Work Environments on Job Burnout

Interaction between people and their work environment inevitably brings stress. It can lead to psychological, physiological, and behavioral outcomes stress and strain (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

When a person and job fit well, the likelihood of engagement with work is increased. When a misfit arises, emotional stress emerges. Chronic stress can deplete one's emotional and physical resources which results in emotional exhaustion. To mitigate emotional exhaustion, it prompts a person to distance oneself emotionally and cognitively from the work. While they gradually lose sympathy for others, a cynical attitude emerges. Meanwhile, exhaustion and cynicism altogether reduce feelings of competence and efficacy at work. Finally, the experience of being burned out emerges.

According to Leiter and Maslach (2003), this working relationship is the same as the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989) which employees and employers mutually develop the psychological contract throughout the course of employment. Psychological contract violation brings about job stress, and chronic stress leads to job burnout symptoms. Furthermore, the association between job stress and burnout can be described by equity (J. S. Adams, 1965) which employees evaluate their effort and reward received and in relative to other people. Imbalance between reward and effort can increase the risk of job burnout.

Likewise, Edwards (1992)'s cybernetic theory of stress indicates that stress, coping, and well-being are critical components of a negative feedback loops. A discrepancy between the perceived and desired states brings about stress which in turn damages psychological and physical well-being. As well as job demands-resources which indicate that incongruence between job demands and job resources can impair job motivation and evoke work well-being problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Having the ability to control and make choices and decisions on the job that are accountable for is crucial in working life. Misfits in control can originate from the inability to participate in decisions making, the low opportunity to exercise professional autonomy, and the inaccessibility to the resources needed to perform the job (Karasek, 1979). The demands of the job that exceed the capacity to manage the job thoroughly will produce stress and drain emotional resources (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). It gradually develops negative attitudes and distances oneself from the work and clients. It simultaneously brings about feelings of incompetence and a professional inefficacy crisis. Finally, low fit on control will increase the risk of experiencing job burnout.

H4: Control negatively relates to job burnout.

The quality of social interaction, especially with supervisors and colleagues, in the workplace is an essential factor that affects the employee's well-being. They always assess how the interaction congruent with their expectations. The relationship becomes stressful when they lose the trust and support of or are neglected by colleagues and supervisors. It reflects the incongruence between perceived social support from supervisors and colleagues and their expectations. Prolonged stress drains emotional resources, increases depersonalization view, reduced personal accomplishment, and burned out (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Furthermore, support from supervisors and colleagues is viewed as an important resource when dealing with the demands of work (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). This interaction can predict burnout/engagement of the employees.

H5: Community negatively relates to job burnout.

Employees expect their beliefs about desired goals or standards will fit with the organization's established work rules and normative principles. Values fit create a sense of clarity and integration. It results in meaningful work and more engagement (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). Misfit in values can emerge when an employee's values or standards incongruence with those of an organization. Incongruence can arise when employees must trade-off between the want-to-do and have-to-do job, are forced to do a job that is inconsistent with personal values, or a discrepancy between the mission statement and actual practice. Values incongruences are stressful and deplete emotional resources. It causes an employee to view the work as meaningless, which leads to cynicism views and reduces a sense of efficacy (Leiter & Maslach, 1999).

H6 Values negatively relate to job burnout.

2.8.3 The Relationship Between Work Environment, Job Burnout, and Job Transfer Intention

Teaching is a people-oriented profession that the nature of the work is highly emotional (Yin et al., 2019). It makes teachers exposed to emotionally drained and discouraged that resulting in emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion prompts to distance oneself emotionally and cognitively from recipients and work. They gradually lose sympathy for others and develop a cynical attitude. Meanwhile, exhaustion and cynicism reduce the feelings of competence and productivity at work. They are prone to experience job burnout, eventually.

In specific, the three components of job burnout have complex associations with turnover intention. The demands of the job that exceed the capacity to manage the job thoroughly will generate stress and drain emotional resources. Being emotionally overextended and exhausted will prompt one to protect one's well-being by distancing

oneself from service recipients and work. Meanwhile, it develops a cynicism attitude or depersonalization from the job which undermines work relationships and a sense of belonging (Ryan et al., 2017). Furthermore, depersonalization and poor adjustment can result in a professional inefficacy crisis. It leads to judging oneself for failure. Job burnout symptoms are associated with various forms of job withdrawal such as absenteeism and turnover intention (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Rajendran et al., 2020; Räsänen et al., 2022). However, people who experienced job burnout but must stay on the job will produce low productivity and less effectiveness, which ultimately leads to low job satisfaction and low organizational commitment.

H7: Job burnout positively relates to job transfer intention.

Based on person-environment fit, people seek for fit and fit leads to affective, attitudinal, and behavioral outcomes such as engagement and satisfaction. In contrast, when people found themselves misfit with the environment, negative outcomes tend to arise such as absenteeism and turnover intention (Edwards, 2008; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Van Vianen, 2018). Fit experience stems from the psychological process of evaluation by views of a supplementary or complementary. The cognitive comparison between one's needs and an organization's support can produce stress. The unresolved stress will drain emotional resources and cause a feeling of emotional exhaustion. People who feel emotionally exhausted tend to distance themselves from service recipients and their work which likely undermines performance. Prolonged exhaustion and poor adjustment can bring crises in professional competence. Job burnout is associated with judging themselves for failure and various forms of job withdrawal, such as absenteeism and turnover intention (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Despite evidence asserting the mediation role of job burnout, Leiter and Maslach (2005) expand the job-person fit theory to justify the sophisticated mediation effect of job burnout. The problematic relationship between the person (i.e., needs, expectations, desires) and organizational factors (i.e., workload, control, community, fairness, rewards, and values) will impact the three components of job burnout by the different pathways. Then all three components of job burnout can predict negative behavioral outcomes. Recently, the meta-analysis conducted by Dall'Ora, Ball, Reinius, and Griffiths (2020) found support for the mediation model of job burnout.

Control is a crucial job attribute that one needs in a working life. It concerns the sense of freedom and autonomy to make choices and access the resources needed to perform the job. The issue in the relationship between the person and the work environment that bring the feeling of lack of control will intensify the adverse impact of job demands on emotional exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Karasek, 1979). It prompts one to protect emotional well-being by distancing oneself from the job. This self-protective mechanism can turn into a cynicism attitude. Meanwhile, the growing sense of discouragement and inefficacy may result in judging themselves for failure. Experiencing job burnout brings frustration, deprivation, and inability to achieve the valued goals. It will begin the exit intention (Follmer et al., 2018; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

H8: Job burnout mediates the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention.

Relationships with others in the workplace are focused primarily on social support from supervisors and colleagues. In the dynamic and ongoing work-life, employees always assess whether the interpersonal relationships are congruent with their expectations, especially in trust, support, neglect, and conflict. When one is aware of a misfit, it brings stressful emotions. Misfit is subjective and varies across individual preferences, context, goals, and momentary situations. The issues of interpersonal that leave unresolved will intensify emotional exhaustion. It will initiate the self-protecting mechanism to protect well-being by distancing oneself from others and the work. Meanwhile, it develops a cynicism attitude which undermines work relationships and a sense of belonging (Ryan et al., 2017). Maladjustment will result in a feeling of being incompetent in the job they did. It leads to judging oneself as a failure and ultimately demonstrating an intention to leave the job.

H9: Job burnout mediates the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention.

Employees expect beliefs about desired goals or standards will fit with those of an organization. Perceived values fit will bring a sense of clarity and integration. It results in meaningful work and more engagement (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). Values misfits emerge when an employee must compromise between the want-to-do and have-to-do job, or when an employee is forced to do a job that is inconsistent with personal values. It undermines job meaningfulness and leads to a cynical attitude toward the job. Meanwhile, it increases discouragement and reduces a sense of efficacy. Feeling exhausted, detached, and inefficacy lead to burned out. It leads to judging oneself as a failure and intention to withdraw from the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

H10 Job burnout mediates the negative relationship between values and job transfer

intention.

2.8.4 The Relationship Between Work Environments, Regulatory Failure, and Job Transfer Intention

Regulatory focus refers to “a distinction of two orientations that individuals adjust their behaviors and self-conceptions with desired goals” (Higgins, 1997). It is the child of self-discrepancy theory. It proposes that the promotion focus concerns with ideal self which perceive advancement or gain (+1) as success that one strives for and lack of progress or non-gain (0) as a failure that must be avoided. Prevention focus involves ought self which perceive status quo or non-loss (0) as success that one seeks for and fall behind or loss (-1) as failure that must be avoided. In addition, being at status quo (0) is not treated as a neutral state. It has positive valence in prevention focus because of success in attaining a positive outcome but has negative valence in promotion focus since it fails to attain a positive outcome (Higgins, 2018).

Congruence between people’s chronic regulatory focus and the regulatory focus of the events can bring the psychological state of regulatory success, whereas incongruence leads to regulatory failure. People who pursue growth and development goals will experience the pleasure of being in this state while feeling the pain of not being in this state. The presence of the desired end-state (fulfill growth and development goals) reflects the pleasure from a gain or promotion success, while the absence reflects the pain from a non-gain or promotion failure. On the contrary, people who adhere to responsibilities and obligations goals will anticipate the pleasure of being in this state, whereas anticipate the pain of not being in this state. The absence of the undesired end-state (not missing responsibilities and obligations goals) reflects the pleasure from a non-loss or prevention success, while the presence of the undesired end-state reflects

the pain from a loss or prevention failure.

Accordingly, changes in the relationships between the personal and environmental attributes that signify the pain of non-gain can induce the psychological state of promotion failure. Changes in the relationships that signify the pain of loss can activate the psychological state of prevention failure. These failures state affect the inclination to approach and avoidance differently. People who experienced the pain from a non-gain or promotion failure tend to use the more eagerness strategic means. They eagerly find ways to make possible hits and make sure not to miss any possibilities. They tend to be risky in finding new solutions and alternatives. On the contrary, experiencing pain from a loss or prevention failure tends to use the more vigilance strategic means. They vigilantly avoid doing the things that bring possible mistakes and correctly reject the distractors. They incline to use conservative behaviors, such as repeating the way that is proven right and not committing further mistakes.

Specific to the work environment, changes in job attributes influence the regulatory focus motivation. Tims et al. (2022) and Bindl et al. (2019) indicate job crafting as the way employees use to balance job demands and resources to achieve a better job fit. It can activate the psychological state of gain and non-loss. When an employee actively seeks more job resources (i.e., job autonomy and control) to attain the desired job outcomes, it concerns the promotion-oriented job crafting behavior. The motivation underlying promotion job crafting is to fulfill growth and development needs. When an employee changes the existing job aspects to avoid undesired outcomes, it concerns the prevention-oriented job crafting behavior. The motivation underlying prevention job crafting is to fulfill safety and security needs. Success in promotion job crafting

brings the pleasure of a gain or promotion success, whereas failure brings the pain of a non-gain or promotion failure. Success in prevention job crafting brings the pleasure of a non-loss or prevention success, whereas failure brings the pain of a loss or prevention failure.

H11: Control positively relates to regulatory failure.

Employees need quality social interaction in the work community, especially with colleagues and supervisors. It creates a sense of inclusion and certainty. Interpersonal relationships that constrain growth, advancement, and ideals fulfillment reflect the absence of the desired end-state. It leads to a state of non-gain or promotion failure. The relationships that bring the issues of responsibility and obligations reflect the presence of the undesired end-state. It conveys the state of loss or prevention failure.

P. Zhang et al. (2023) and K. E. Adams and Tyler (2020) assert that the issue in relationships is a threat to the fundamental need for belonging and relatedness which leads to failure in the promotion and prevention systems. That is, being explicitly and directly rejected from a social activity is interpreted as a social loss. It emerges the failure in promotion focus motivation. Being left out of social activity, on the other hand, is interpreted as social non-gain. It will activate the failure in prevention focus motivation. Consistent with Park and Baumeister (2015) who found that people who actively rejected by others will activate prevention focus strategies to protect the loss of social connections, whereas passively ignored by others can trigger promotion focus strategies to pursue missed gains of social opportunity.

H12: Community positively relates to regulatory failure.

Employees expect their beliefs about desired goals or standards to fit with the organization's established work rules and normative principles. Employees who find their values align with those of an organization will develop a sense of clarity and integration. In general, values have two dimensions (L. Rich et al., 2022). Values relating to positive outcomes, such as innovation and aggressiveness, are associated with promotion focus. Values relating to negative outcomes, such as stability and attention to detail, are associated with a prevention focus.

When setting values on positive outcomes (represents a promotion focus motivation) that are congruent with those of an organization will produce a state of gain or promotion success, else is non-gain or promotion failure. When valued on negative outcomes (prevention focus motivation) that are congruent with those of an organization will activate a state of non-loss or prevention success, and vice versa.

H13: Values positively relate to regulatory failure.

Congruence between people's chronic regulatory focus and the regulatory focus of the events can bring the psychological state of regulatory success or failure. According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), outcome experiences that signify non-gain can induce the state of promotion failure, while loss can induce the state of prevention failure. These failures motivate approach or avoidance behaviors differently. In addition, people are motivated to approach as close as possible to the desired end-state and stay as far away as possible from the undesired end-state. Therefore, promotion focus inclines to make progress by approaching match to the desired end-states whereas avoiding mismatch to the desired end-states is a propensity of prevention focus. Moreover, the promotion focus wants to ensure advancement and gains, while

the prevention focus wants to make sure that safety and non-loss will be committed. Promotion focus should involve eagerness strategic means while prevention focus should involve vigilance strategic means.

Regarding success and failure experiences, the former success or failure outcome experiences can induce regulatory focus which motivation to persist on the task. People who experienced failure in the prevention focus condition tend to vigilantly avoid mistakes and insure against committing further errors, whereas failure in promotion focus condition tend to be eager to approach hits and insure against omitting any possible hits (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

Occasional regulatory failure helps people to adopt more effective means to pursue a goal while chronic failures may result in negative self-evaluation and disengage from the committed goal. People who experienced pain from loss (prevention failure) will feel at risk or in danger. They tend to be sensitive to negative outcomes and focus on avoiding further loss. The vigilance behaviors will be activated which results in strengthening engagement in obligation and responsibility goals. In contrast, pain from non-gain (promotion failure) causes people to be aware of the missing gains and opportunities. It increases eagerness behaviors by finding alternatives to fulfill missed gains and opportunities. Hence, regulatory failure influence job transfer intention.

H14: Regulatory failure negatively relates to job transfer intention.

There is an indication that regulatory failure intervenes in the relationships between outcome experience and behavioral tendency. The perceived congruence between people's chronic regulatory focus and the regulatory focus of the events will affect

gain-loss cognitions (Higgins, 2018). The outcome experience that signifies advancement or gain (+1) is perceived as a success in promotion focus system, while lack of progress or non-gain (0) is perceived as a failure. In contrast, the outcome experience that maintains the status quo or non-loss (0) is perceived as success in prevention focus system, while falling behind or loss (-1) is perceived as a failure. Being at the status quo (0) is interpreted as positive in the prevention system because non-loss is the desired outcome. On the contrary, the status quo is interpreted as negative in the promotion system because it fails to avoid the undesired outcome.

People are motivated to approach as close as possible to the desired end-state and stay as far away as possible from the undesired end-state. Therefore, promotion focus inclines to make progress by approaching match to the desired end-states whereas avoiding mismatch to the desired end-states is a propensity of prevention focus. Moreover, promotion focus wants to ensure advancement and gains while prevention focus tends to make sure that safety and non-loss will be committed. Promotion focus should involve eagerness strategic means while prevention focus should involve vigilance strategic means. Taken together, it unveils the relationship between work environment fit, regulatory failure, and job transfer intention.

Previous studies supported the mediating role of regulatory focus in the relationship between work environments and work behavior. In case of control, the need for control and autonomy is crucial for working life but the organization's top-down job design can bring an issue of control misfit. When employees experience a job for a while, they tend to shape, mold, and redefine their relationships with the job to meet their own needs and attain better job outcomes. Perceived incongruence between an

individual's regulatory focus and the regulatory focus of the event is the matter that will activate self-initiate changes to obtain an optimal balance. In this regard, job crafting is the way employees use to address misfits (Tims et al., 2022).

An employee who seeks more job resources (i.e., job control and autonomy) for attaining desired positive outcomes represents a state of “gain” or promotion crafting. An employee who changes the existing job aspects to avoid undesired outcomes represents a state of “non-loss” or prevention crafting. It creates a tendency to approach or avoid corresponding to regulatory focus, such as innovation (Bindl et al., 2019).

H15: Regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention.

The working relationship that changes to a level that employees find unacceptable and unresolvable will cause a sense of misfit. It is the same as promises of reciprocal exchange being broken. Importantly, the issue in working relationships is a threat to relatedness needs. It can activate the sense of social non-gain or social loss (K. E. Adams & Tyler, 2020; P. Zhang et al., 2023). That is changes in the relationships with supervisors and colleagues that hinder growth, advancement, and ideals reflect the absence of the desired end-state. It leads to a state of non-gain or promotion failure. Likewise, the relationships that bring the issues of responsibility and obligations reflect the presence of the undesired end-state. It leads to a state of loss or prevention failure.

The regulatory failure experiences will activate one to do something to mitigate the issue in the working relationship. Failure in the promotion system will use eagerness strategic means to pursue missed gains of social opportunity. Failure in the prevention

system will use vigilance strategic means to protect against the loss of social connections. Previous evidence confirms the effect of interpersonal relationships on regulatory focus and behavior responses (K. E. Adams & Tyler, 2020; Park & Baumeister, 2015; P. Zhang et al., 2023) as well as the effect of supervisor on follower regulatory focus and the subsequent behaviors (Kark et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2019).

H16: Regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention.

Value congruence is the heart of the relationship between people and work. Values attract people to the job and bind the connections between employee and workplace beyond the exchange for money or advancement. Setting values on pursuing hopes and aspirations goals is associated with promotional motivation. Congruence of individuals' hopes and aspirations with their organization will produce a state of gain or promotion success, else is non-gain or promotion failure. On the other hand, setting values on responsibilities and obligations goals engenders a prevention motivation. Values congruence in responsibilities and obligations between employees and their organization will activate a non-loss psychological state or prevention success, and vice versa (L. Rich et al., 2022; L. L. Rich et al., 2018).

People who experienced pain from loss (prevention failure) will feel at risk or in danger. They tend to be sensitive to negative outcomes and focus on avoiding further loss. The vigilance behaviors will be activated which results in strengthening engagement in obligation and responsibility goals. In contrast, pain from non-gain (promotion failure) causes people to reduce optimism which results in a decrease in motivation and weakens engagement. It brings a belief that the promotion goals are

less likely to be attained and reduce their intention to pursue them (Hall et al., 2018; Hofstetter & Rosenblatt, 2017).

H17: Regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between values and job transfer intention.

2.8.5 The Mediation Factors in the Relationship Between Work Environment and Job Transfer Intention

Regulatory focus theory postulates the association between regulatory failure and emotional consequences (Higgins, 1997). On the one hand, promotion failure concerns the presence or absence of positive outcomes. Progress or achievement of a goal brings happiness and enjoyment, while lack of progress or missing of a goal cause sadness and discontent. On the other hand, prevention failure concerns the presence or absence of negative outcomes. Failing to avoid negative outcomes can bring anxiety and fear, whereas successful in protecting the negative outcomes results in feelings of quiescence and relief. Occasional regulatory failure engenders a negative affective state which helps people to adapt more effective means to pursue their goals. Chronic regulatory failure can increase the risk of job stress, emotional exhaustion, and ultimately mental health problems.

Moreover, achieving regulatory goals can be distinguished into minimal and maximal goals (Idson et al., 2000). Prevention focus concerns ought self-guide that give priority to duties and obligations. It emphasizes standards or goals that must be met, which represent a minimal goal. Promotion focus, on the other hand, concerns ideal self-guide that emphasizes hopes and aspirations. It emphasizes standards and goals that one hopes to meet, which represent a maximal goal. Success in promotion goal tends to experience more intense emotion than prevention success because the aspiration and

maximal goal is achieved. In contrast, failure in prevention goal tends to experience more intense emotion than promotion failure because it fails to maintain obligations and responsibilities or minimal goal.

The study that investigates the effect of regulatory failure on job burnout is scarce. Moreover, previous studies on the association between regulatory focus and job burnout found mixed results, albeit the association was identified (e.g., Dai et al., 2021; Pérez-Fuentes et al., 2020; Zivnuska et al., 2017). However, failure in the prevention focus system involves obligations and responsibilities goals (minimal goals) that bring more intense emotions. In this regard, a negative relationship between regulatory failure and job burnout is expected. Failure in the promotion focus system involves hopes and aspirations goals (maximal goals) that are less intense. An association should not be found.

H18: Regulatory failure negatively relates to job burnout.

It is worth noting that the work environment indirectly affects job transfer intention through regulatory failure and job burnout. On the one hand, a misfit between an individual's need for control and the control-related work outcomes can increase the intention of a job transfer through job burnout. That is, experiencing prolonged misfit brings the symptoms of emotional exhaustion, detachment from the job, a feeling of inefficacy, and eventually burned out. Job burnout increases the intention to withdraw from the job.

On the other hand, a misfit in control can be either the absence of positive outcomes or the presence of negative outcomes. When positive outcomes are absent, it brings a psychological state of non-gain or promotion failure. When negative outcomes are present, it brings a state of loss or prevention failure. Failure in the promotion system tends to increase eager behaviors by finding alternatives to fulfill the missed gains and opportunities. It is likely to leave the job. Failure in the prevention system will be more vigilant by avoiding distractions and not making further errors. It is likely to persist on the job.

Moreover, regulatory failure is associated with job burnout. Failure to attain regulatory goals pertains to minimal and maximal goals (Idson et al., 2000). Minimal goals involve obligations and responsibility, while maximal goals involve hopes and aspirations. Failure in minimal goals entails pain from a loss, while maximal goal failure causes pain from a non-gain. Pain from a loss brings a more intense emotional experience than pain from a non-gain because the minimal goal is not achieved. It depletes emotional resources, discouragement, and a sense of incompetence. Finally, they are vulnerable to job burnout.

According to Hayes (2013), the multiple mediators included in the same model may play either parallel or serial mediation. When the two mediators illustrate association to each other, it can be considered as a serial mediating role. Hence, it expects the serial mediation effect of regulatory failure and job burnout in the relationship between control and job transfer intention.

H19: Regulatory failure and job burnout mediate the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention.

In a similar vein, the relationship between community and job transfer intention is mediated by regulatory failure and job burnout. The working relationship that changes to a level that employees find unacceptable and unresolvable will cause a sense of misfit. Community misfit is a threat to related needs which activates the sense of social non-gain or promotion failure and loss or prevention failure (K. E. Adams & Tyler, 2020; P. Zhang et al., 2023).

Failure in the prevention system is intense because it fails to maintain obligations and responsibilities. It increases the risk of job burnout because chronic failures can deplete emotional resources, feel discouragement, and lose a sense of competence. Finally, people who experienced job burnout will evaluate themselves as a failure and have more intention to a job transfer. Therefore, community indirectly affects job transfer intention through regulatory focus and job burnout.

H20: Regulatory failure and job burnout mediate the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention.

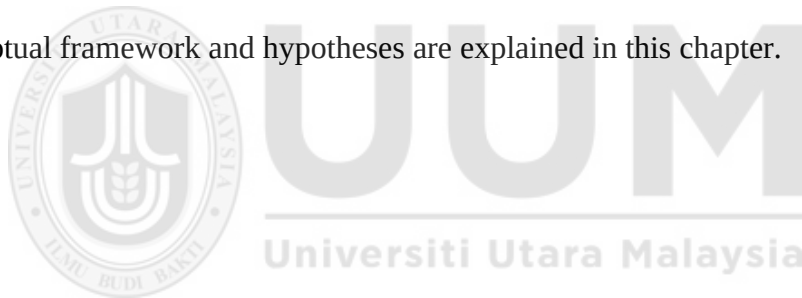
Value congruence is the heart of the relationship between people and work. The incongruence of individuals' hopes and aspirations values with their organization will produce a psychological state of non-gain or promotion failure. The incongruence between employees and their organization on values related to responsibilities and obligations will activate a non-loss state or prevention failure (L. Rich et al., 2022; L. L. Rich et al., 2018). Failure in the prevention system is more intense than promotion system because it fails to maintain obligations and responsibilities. It increases the risk of job burnout because chronic failures can deplete emotional resources, feel discouragement, and lose a sense of competence. People who experienced job burnout

will evaluate themselves as a failure and intention to a job transfer. Hence, values indirectly affect job transfer intention through regulatory failure and job burnout.

H21 Regulatory failure and job burnout mediate the negative relationship between values and job transfer intention.

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature concerning definitions, conceptualizations, dimensions, and measures of the key variables. Literature and past studies on the job transfer intention, work environments, job burnout, and regulatory focus are discussed as well as the extent to which it linked to job transfer intention. Moreover, the conceptual framework and hypotheses are explained in this chapter.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research methods to attain the objectives of the study specified in chapter one. It describes the research design, population and sample, instruments, data collection and analysis, and pilot study.

3.2 Research Design

This study follows a quantitative methodology that aimed to determine the relationship between independent and dependent variables in a population. The quantitative data are collected and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. By doing that, it can examine the association between independent and dependent variables as well as create the structural equation model (Saunders et al., 2016). A cross-sectional study is appropriate for this study since it collects data for population-based surveys. The major advantages of this technique include the ability to describe the characteristics of the population at a specific point in time and can collect a great deal of information relatively fast and inexpensive (X. Wang & Cheng, 2020).

This study utilizes a survey method and questionnaire as an instrument for data collection. The survey method is the most popular technique in management and social sciences. It collects the primary data from the respondents and allows researchers to

assess attitudes, opinions, and motives about a given situation (Neuman, 2014). This method provides the potential anonymity of the respondent, which can lead to more truthful or valid responses (Setia, 2016). When compared to other primary data collection methods, it is an inexpensive and easy method of collecting data from a large sample, especially with observation and interview (Krosnick, 2018). The Likert scale is used to examine how strongly the respondents agree or disagree with a statement. The 7-point Likert scale is applied since it offers respondents choices and capture variability in their attitudes and feelings (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

3.3 Population of The Study

The three southern provinces of Thailand are determined by the government as special areas. Ethnic-religious conflicts have occurred in these areas for more than a century. In 2004, the resurgence of violence caused a direct impact on the Deep South education. Teachers are viewed by the insurgents as an assimilation tool of the central government. They have been targeted for displacement through shootings, bombings, and death threats. From 2001 to 2019, it was 109 teachers dead, and 130 injured in the insurgent related incidents (Isranews agency, 2019). Most of the incidents occurred on the way teachers go to and back from school. Consequently, it causes big waves of teachers' intention to move out of the deep South.

Recently, around 70-140 teachers moved out of each province every year South (Narathiwat Provincial Education Office, 2021; Pattani Provincial Education Office, 2021; Yala Provincial Education Office, 2021). Though the move-out number is at the same level as other provinces due to the vacant position constraint, the fear of death has made experienced and talented teachers move in extremely low. Most of the move-

in teachers were those who returned to their hometowns, entry levels, and were inexperienced. Teacher imbalance has emerged as it found teacher shortage in disadvantaged rural schools, and teacher surplus is in advantaged urban schools. It harms education equity and quality. Hence, the teacher in the Deep South needs high attention.

According to Data management center, Office of the Basic Education Commission (2018), there were 10,741 teachers working in the public primary schools in three southern provinces of Thailand. All of them are under the provision of the Provincial Primary Education Service Area Office (PESAO). The following table demonstrates the number teachers by provinces and PESAO:

Table 3.1
Teachers in the Public Primary Schools under PESAO

Province	Area	Population
Pattani	PESAO 1	1,667
	PESAO 2	1,199
	PESAO 3	716
Narathiwat	PESAO 1	1,824
	PESAO 2	1,641
	PESAO 3	985
Yala	PESAO 1	1,321
	PESAO 2	979
	PESAO 3	409
Total		10,741

Source: Office of the Basic Education Commission (2018).

3.4 Sample Size

From the sampling formula by (Dillman, 2007), Sample size calculate by

$$N_s = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1-p)}{(N_p - 1)\left(\frac{B}{C}\right)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$$

Where: N_s = the actual sample size

N_p = size of population which is 10,741

p = the proportion expected to answer a certain way which is 0.5

B = acceptable level of sampling error at 0.05 (5%)

C = Z statistic associate with confidence interval at 0.05 is 1.96

Therefore, the sample of this study is as following:

$$N_s = \frac{(10,741)(0.5)(1-0.5)}{(10,741 - 1)\left(\frac{0.05}{1.96}\right)^2 + (0.5)(1-0.5)}$$
$$N_s = 370.769$$

The sample of this study is 370.769 or approximately 371 teachers.

3.5 Sampling Method

According to PESAO, schools are grouped together by considering population and school distribution, tradition and culture similarity, geographic and contiguous area coverage, and comply with provincial administration area. In the three southern provinces, there are three PESAOs in each province. Noticeably, PESAO 1 is usually located in an urban area, PESAO 2 is in the middle, and PESAO 3 is in the rural area. To ensure a representative sample of teachers in 3 southern provinces, this survey will follow multi-stage random sampling.

First, schools from each province are grouped into 3 strata in accordance with the PESAO service area. All PESAO will be selected to represent the area's characteristics. Second, the schools in each PESAO are clustered as districts and simple random sampling is used to select a target district within PESAO. Lastly, schools are clustered by Subdistrict and simple random sampling is used to select a target Subdistrict. Based on the calculated sample size, the probability proportional to size sampling technic is conducted to select sample from the teacher's lists.

In this study, the population of each PESAO was considered as stratum and the sample was drawn based on the proportion it represented. The proportionate stratified random sampling is determined by dividing the sample size by the total population ($370 / 10,741 = 0.034$) and multiplying it with the population elements of each stratum. The sample of the study is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Sample of the Study

Province	Area	Population	Proportionate sample
Pattani	PESAO 1	1,667	57
	PESAO 2	1,199	41
	PESAO 3	716	25
Narathiwat	PESAO 1	1,824	63
	PESAO 2	1,641	57
	PESAO 3	985	34
Yala	PESAO 1	1,321	46
	PESAO 2	979	34
	PESAO 3	409	14
Total		10,741	371

3.6 Data Collection Strategy

The data will be collected through a personally distributed questionnaire to the respondents. By doing this, it could help researchers to establish greater understanding and make clarifications to the respondents when introducing the survey. Furthermore, it generates survey quality by improving response rate and nonresponse bias (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). To increase respondents' willingness, an official letter from Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government (GSGSG), that translated to the Thai language, will specify the researcher and the objective of this study. The cover letter is attached to provide background and objectives of the study, questionnaire instructions, and confidentiality of the participants.

The survey will take two parts which are first and second periods. In the first period, all questionnaires will be collected during March 2019. Follow-up phone calls and emails will be sent to the respondents as a reminder. In the second period, the questionnaires will be collected during May 2019. Also, follow-up phone calls and emails will be sent. The questionnaires from these two periods will determine the non-response bias of the survey.

3.7 Measurement of Variables/Instrumentation

The self-administered questionnaires will be used for collecting data. There are four parts of the questions. All of it will be translated into Thai and experts will request to consider the appropriateness of questions. A pilot test will be administered to examine validity and reliability. Cronbach's Alpha will be used to obtain reliability with minimum correlation coefficient value of 0.7 is expected.

3.7.1 Operationalization of Variables

Operationalization of variables refer to “defining the measures of the variables used to represent constructs and how they will be measured” (Hair et al., 2013). Therefore, this section discusses the definition of the constructs and how they are measured.

3.7.1.1 Operationalization of Job Transfer Intention

Job transfer intention refers to teachers’ plan to engage in a self-initiated change location of work permanently in the future. It is a lateral movement to the same job level within an organization without changing duties, responsibilities, compensation, and benefits. Based on the work of Vekeman et al. (2017), in this study, job transfer intention is operationalized in terms of withdrawal cognition including "thinking of a job transfer to another school, searching for vacant positions in another school, and intention to apply for a job transfer to another school”.

3.7.1.2 Operationalization of Job Burnout

Maslach’s three dimensions is the most acceptable definition of job burnout since it covers physical, emotional and relationship people have with their clients and work. However, numbers of scholars suggest using the two components that exclude the reduced personal accomplishment (or professional efficacy) might be more appropriate because it is inconsistent with the two components on the association with organizational outcomes (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Therefore, this study adopts the conceptualization/operationalization of two-factor burnout derives from the job demands-resources model of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001).

In this study, job burnout is operationalized as “the cognitive and physical responses toward work-related negative experiences specifically exhaustion (physical, affective, and cognitive strain) and disengagement (distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work object, work content, or one's work in general)" (Bakker et al., 2004)".

3.7.1.3 Operationalization of Control

This study focuses on work situational misfits between the people and the work environment that affect organizational outcomes. It assesses the level of congruence experienced in the specific areas of control, community, and values.

Control is operationalized as “perceive capacity to influence or participate in decisions making that affect the work, to demonstrate professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do the job effectively (Leiter & Maslach, 2003)".

3.7.1.4 Operationalization of Community

Community refers to “quality of social interactions at work such as conflict, connectedness, social support, or shared values (Leiter & Maslach, 2003)". As to this, community is operationalized as “perceived of cooperative, communication, connectedness, trust, and social support from supervisors and colleagues”.

3.7.1.5 Operationalization of Values

Values refers to “the congruence between individuals’ and organizations’ beliefs and ideals (Leiter & Maslach, 2003)". It is operationalized as “perceived congruence in values or goals between an employee and the organization”.

3.7.1.6 Operationalization of Regulatory Failure

Regulatory failure is operationalized as “the two psychological states of failure in goal pursuit which involve failures to attain hopes and aspiration goals as an indication of promotion failure (or non-gain), and failures to maintain obligations and responsibilities goals as an indication of prevention failure (or loss)” (Klenk et al., 2011). Hence, promotion failure is the psychological state of failure in promotion goal pursuit concerning the absence of positive outcomes or non-gain, whereas prevention failure is the psychological state of failure in prevention goal pursuit concerning the presence of negative outcomes or loss. This study also adapts the dominant regulatory failure which indicate the relative strength orientation that can determine whether promotion or prevention failure is salience and motivate subsequent behavior (Lockwood et al., 2002). It can be measured by “subtracting mean scores on the prevention subscale from mean scores on the promotion subscale”. Positive score indicates dominant promotion focus while negative scores represent dominant prevention focus.

3.7.2 Measurement of Variables

This study adopted relevant measurement instruments developed by previous researchers. Using measurements with different scales, such as the four-point and five-point Likert scale, may confuse the respondents. Krosnick and Presser (2010) indicate that using many and inconsistent scales in a questionnaire can make respondents negligible the differences between each measurement. Therefore, this study utilizes the seven-point Likert scale is adopted to identify the level of agree-disagree on each statement.

3.7.2.1 Measurement of Job Transfer Intention

This study adopts Vekeman, Devos, Valcke, and Rosseel (2017) intention to leave scales to measure job transfer intention. This scale based on a 3-item scale designed by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978). To measure job transfer intention, “the organization” is replaced by “my current school”. The items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A high mean score demonstrates a high job transfer intention.

3.7.2.2 Measurement of Job Burnout

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti et al., 2010) is adopted to the study. It contains two subscales which are exhaustion subscale and disengagement subscale. It includes 8 items of exhaustion and 8 items of disengagement. The items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A high mean score demonstrates a high job burnout. In addition, this study operationalized job burnout as a unidimensional construct. Although the multidimensional construct is acknowledged, the unidimensional construct is more advantageous in the understanding of the symptoms and their associated outcomes than separate dimensions (Brenninkmeijer & van Yperen, 2003).

3.7.2.3 Measurement of Control

The 3 items of Control at Work subscale from the Work-Related Quality of Life (Easton & Van Laar, 2018) is adopted. The items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A higher mean score demonstrates a higher degree of control.

3.7.2.4 Measurement of Community

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017) 6 items of Supportive Relation with Colleagues and Supportive Relation with Supervisors subscales are adopted. All items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A higher mean score demonstrates a higher quality of community.

3.7.2.5 Measurement of Values

The 3 items of Value Consonance scale (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011) is adapted. All items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A higher mean score demonstrates a higher degree of value consonance.

3.7.2.6 Measurement of Regulatory Failure

This measure is adapted from Reference-point scales (Summerville & Roese, 2008). It includes 5 items of promotion failure subscale and 5 items of prevention failure subscale. All items are rated on the 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to strongly disagree and 7 refers to strongly agree. A higher mean score demonstrates a higher regulatory failure. Moreover, this study adapts the “dominant regulatory focus” method suggested by Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002) to identify the relative strength of whether promotion failure or prevention failure is salience and activate behavior. For example, the relative strength of promotion failure over prevention failure implies the inclination of the non-gain over the loss. Dominant regulatory failure assesses by subtracting the mean scores on prevention failure subscale from the mean scores on promotion failure subscale. A positive score indicates dominant promotion failure (non-gain) while negative scores represent dominant prevention

failure (loss). Table 3.3 summarizes the measurement of variables in this study.

Table 3.3
Measurement of Variables

Variable	Items	Source
Job transfer intention	I think a lot about moving out of my current school. I am actively searching for an alternative to my current school. As soon as it is possible, I will move out of my current school.	Vekeman et al. (2017)
Job burnout	I always find new and interesting aspects in my work. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically. I find my work to be a positive challenge. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well. I feel more and more engaged in my work. When I work, I usually feel energized.	Demerouti et al. (2010)
Regulatory failure	Right now, I am concerned about missing out on positive outcomes. I frequently worry that my future will be less successful than I hope.	Summerville and Roese (2008)

Variable	Items	Source
	I frequently imagine how I might fall short of my hopes and aspirations. When good things fail to materialize, it affects me strongly. I see myself as someone who has trouble reaching my "ideal self" (fulfilling my hopes, wishes, and aspirations). I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations. Right now, I am focused on avoiding negative outcomes. I worry about making mistakes. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things.	
Control	I feel able to voice opinions and influence changes in my area of work. I am involved in decisions that affect me in my own area of work. I am involved in decisions that affect members of the public in my own area of work.	Easton and van Laar (2018)
Community	In educational matters, I can always get good help from my colleagues. The relations among the colleagues at this school are characterized by friendliness and concern for each other. Teachers at this school help and support each other. In educational matters, I can always get help and advice from the school leadership. My relationship with the school leadership is characterized by respect and trust. The school leadership is supportive and helpful.	Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017)
Values	My educational values are in accordance with the values which are emphasized at this school. My colleagues and I have the same opinion about what is important in education. I feel that this school shares my view of what constitutes good teaching.	Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011)

3.7.3 Validity Test

Validity refers to the goodness of measures in which the instrument, technique or process appropriately measure the concept intended to measure (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Different terms and several types of validity are used to determine the goodness of measures such as content validity, predictive validity, concurrent validity, construct validity, face validity, criterion-related validity, discriminant validity, and convergent validity. This study conducts content validity to ensure the items that are intended to measure a concept covering the concept it supposed to measure while construct validity test is used to make sure that the items reflect the operationalized constructs.

Content validity is assessed by consulting with a small sample of respondents and a couple of experts to determine the appropriateness of items. Experts composed of three academics who specialized in human resource management namely Assistant Professor Dr.Kanon Trichandhara from Prince of Songkla University, Assistant Professor Dr. Aniwat Kaewjomnong from Taksin University, and Assistant Professor Dr. Woraluck Lalitsasivimol from Hatyai University. Moreover, three senior professional level teachers were consulted for their input namely Miss Wanida Kittichokwattana from Ban Yi-ngo school, Miss Vipada Vaewthongkum Ban Yi-ngo school, and Mister Methi Duriyarathakarn from Ban Salalookkai school. The items were corrected by rewording or rephrasing to cover the defined content. It took two weeks, in May 2019, to complete this process.

Based on the criterea suggested by Polit and Beck (2006), Table 3.3 demonstrates the item-level content validity index (I-CVI) ranged from 0.83 to 1.00 which meet the criteria of above 0.78 for six experts. Therefore, no item was deleted. The scale-level

content validity index, averaging calculation method (S-CVI/Ave) was 0.98 above the threshold of 0.90 and the scale-level content validity index, universal agreement calculation method (S-CVI/UA) was 0.88 above the threshold of 0.80. It confirms the content validity of the instrument.

Table 3.4
Content Validity

Construct	Item	Expert in agreement	I-CVI	UA
Control	CTL1	6	1.00	1.00
	CTL2	6	1.00	1.00
	CTL3	5	0.83	0.00
Community	COM1	6	1.00	1.00
	COM2	6	1.00	1.00
	COM3	6	1.00	1.00
	COM4	6	1.00	1.00
	COM5	6	1.00	1.00
	COM6	6	1.00	1.00
Values	VAL1	6	1.00	1.00
	VAL2	6	1.00	1.00
	VAL3	5	0.83	0.00
Portion failure	REF1	6	1.00	1.00
	REF2	5	0.83	0.00
	REF3	6	1.00	1.00
	REF4	6	1.00	1.00
	REF5	6	1.00	1.00
Prevention failure	REF6	5	0.83	0.00
	REF7	6	1.00	1.00
	REF8	6	1.00	1.00
	REF9	6	1.00	1.00
	REF10	6	1.00	1.00
Job burnout	BRN1	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN2	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN3	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN4	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN5	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN6	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN7	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN8	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN9	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN10	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN11	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN12	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN13	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN14	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN15	5	0.83	0.00
	BRN16	6	1.00	1.00

Construct	Item	Expert in agreement	I-CVI	UA
Job transfer intention	TRF1	6	1.00	1.00
	TRF2	6	1.00	1.00
	TRF3	6	1.00	1.00

Note: S-CVI/Ave = 0.98, S-CVI/UA = 0.88

3.8 Translation of Questionnaire Questions

This study deals with Thai people who use the Thai language as a medium of communication. Adapting and validating an original measure to different language and country needs a very careful translation. Researchers can use various techniques to validate measure translation such as One-way translation, Back-Translation, Bilingual Technique, Committee Approach, Pretest Procedure, to name a few. The One-way translation is the most frequently used while the Back-Translation is the most preferred and recommended technique (Sousa & Rojjanasrirat, 2011; Spector et al., 2015; Weeks et al., 2007). The Back-Translation technique is a multistep procedure that re-translates the translated questionnaire back into the original language (Brislin, 1970). Items that are not properly back translated will be fixed until both versions are comparable.

Following Back-Translation procedure suggested by Brislin and Freimanis (2000), a bilingual translator who familiar with human resource management concept and terminology was employed to forward translation from the original to Thai language. Next, blind back-translation of the Thai version into original language was conducted by another bilingual translator who familiar with human resource management as well. Yet, the back translator must have no prior knowledge of the measure being translated to avoid the influence of previous knowledge. Then, the original and back-translated versions were compared to find errors that lead to differences in meaning. Errors were modified until both versions were comparable. After the Thai version was approved in

March 2019, it was ready for pilot testing.

3.9 Pilot/Preliminary Test

After the Thai version instrument was approved, the pretest of the questionnaire was performed. A total of 15 teachers in Satri Yala school were invited to participate in the pretest. It wants to make sure that the respondents can understand the direction or questions and respond to it correctly. In addition, it can identify the skipped items, sensitive questions, order of questions, order of response options, and response time. After the pretest was completed, the questionnaire was revised, and continue the pilot testing.

The pilot test managed to evaluate validity and reliability. It aims to assess the feasibility of the study on a small-scale project prior to the main study by testing the methods planned to use in the research such as research procedure, data collection instruments, and sample recruitment strategies. It allows researchers to anticipate potential problems and prepare appropriate adjustments. It should be recognized that successful pilot study is not a guarantee of the success of subsequent main study, for example the likelihood of response rate or statistical results. Nevertheless, the focus of the pilot study should be the validity and reliability of the data collection instrument.

According to Johanson and Brooks (2010), a reasonable minimum of respondents recommended for a pilot study should be 30. However, a total of 60 questionnaires were administered to the teachers in Bannangsata Intarachat Mitrapab school (Yala province), Ban Bacho school (Narathiwat province), and Ban Tabing school (Patani province). These questionnaires were randomly distributed by the researcher and

carried out within the days. All the questionnaires were collected and completed in the month of August 2019.

This study considered the internal consistency to examine homogeneity among the items of the measure using the interitem consistency. The most popular test of interitem consistency concerning to the multipoint measurement scale are Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2013), the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.60 is determined as average reliability, while coefficient of 0.70 or higher indicates a high reliability. As to this, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used with the expected value of 0.7 or higher.

Table 3.5
Reliability Test

Constructs	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Job Transfer Intention	3	0.94
Job Burnout	15	0.71
Regulatory Failure	10	0.83
Control	3	0.79
Community	6	0.90
Values	3	0.73
Total	40	

After running reliability test using SPSS version 22 for Windows, the results revealed that item 13 of Oldenburg Burnout Inventory should be deleted since the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is below the recommended threshold. After deletion, the measures had a high Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ranging from 0.71 to 0.94, as show in table 3.3 reliability test. When compared to the criterion mentioned above, it indicates a high reliability standard of the instrument. In sum, all the constructs in this study are reliable, and no item needs to be removed.

3.10 Method of Data Analysis

The usable questionnaires are coded and keyed into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Data analysis begins with assessing the response rate, non-response bias, and common method bias test. Since this study utilized multivariate analysis, it is important to reach the required conditions before conducting the main analysis. Therefore, it should assess if it meets the multivariate assumptions on the issues of missing values, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity. Then, descriptive statistics are applied to describe the characteristics of the respondents and the latent constructs. Finally, the Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) will be performed by assessing the outer model, inner model, and mediation effect.

In this study, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is used to investigate the cause-effect relationship between observed and latent variables for several reasons. Firstly, PLS-SEM is one of the path modeling methods to analyze the relationships between latent variables for building a complex multivariate model (Hair et al., 2016; Vinzi et al., 2010). A lot of researchers agree on PLS-SEM is a strong, superior, and flexible statistical model-building tool as well as testing and predicting theory (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Secondly, since data in social science studies often deals with normality issue, PLS-SEM is superior to the covariance-based structural equation modeling in handling non-normal data because of a flexible assumption about the normal distribution of variables (Sarstedt et al., 2017). Lastly, it is also appropriate for a complex inter-relationship analysis that contains the mediation effect.

Smart-PLS is the most comprehensive PLS-SEM software for conducting PLS-SEM analysis (Sarstedt & Cheah, 2019). It contains excellent features such as graphic user interface, drag-and-drop items to create new constructs and link the relationship, extensive statistic functions, multi formats output saving, and regularly updating. Therefore, Smart-PLS version 3.3.2 is used to evaluate the measurement model (e.g., reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity) and structural model (e.g., significance of the path coefficients, coefficient determination, the effect size and predictive relevance).

3.11 Control Variables

This study includes gender, age, and teaching experience as control variables. Previous studies indicate that female teacher have higher rates of departure than do men. Mostly because of childbearing and childrearing (Kukla-Acevedo, 2009). Furthermore, the turnover rate is high among the younger and less experienced and for the older and more experienced teachers, producing a U-shape relationship (Grissom et al., 2015).

3.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the methodology including research design, population and sampling method, survey instrument and translation of questionnaire, pilot test, and data collection strategy. In addition, the method for data analysis is highlighted, such as preliminary data analysis, descriptive statistics, measurement model, and structural model assessment.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present research results that include demographics, reliability, validity, and the hypothesis tests. The finding based on data collected from respondent teachers who currently work in public primary schools located in the three southern provinces of Thailand namely Pattani, Narathiwat, and Yala. The following sections of this chapter relate to response rate, non-response bias and common method bias test. The next section explains data examination, preliminary data screening and preparation, and characteristics of the sample. The next section relates to the tests for reliability and validity of the scales which is the measurement model are assessed. Then the structural model assessment is presented with the results of hypotheses testing, coefficient of determination, the effect size, and the predictive relevance and its effect size. Lastly, the control variables are examined.

4.2 Response Rate

The data used in this study were collected from teachers who currently work in public primary schools in the 3 southern provinces of Thailand. According to data collection strategy, personal visited and distributed questionnaires to the respondents established greater understanding and voluntary participated in the survey while consultation provided clarifications to the respondents. An official letter from Ghazali Shafie

Graduate School of Government (GSGSG) that translated into Thai language increased the willingness of the respondents to take part in this survey.

Because of this effort, responses could be collected within a short period of time. In total, 363 out of 371 questionnaires were returned which made the response rate of 97.844 percent. A total of eight questionnaires were not returned or lost, which were identified as a refusal to respond. In addition, 12 questionnaires were considered as not completed and wrongly filled, which were removed from the analysis. Hence a total of 351 questionnaires were usable, with a considerable response rate of 94.609 percent. Because of the above 85 percent of response rate, the additional non-respondents' follow-up was unnecessary (Lindner et al., 2001, p. 51).

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaire

Response	Pattani	Narathiwat	Yala	Total
Number of distributed questionnaires	123	154	94	371
Questionnaires not returned	3	4	1	8
Returned questionnaires	120	150	93	363
Returned and excluded questionnaires	5	3	4	12
Returned and usable questionnaires	115	147	89	351
Response rate (percent)	97.551	97.403	98.936	97.844
Usable rate (percent)	93.496	95.455	94.681	94.609

4.3 Non-Response Bias Test

Non-response is an indication of inability to get information from the respondents for various reasons, such as difficulty in contacting the respondents and refusing to participate in the survey. The problem of non-response exists if the information given by respondents differs in a meaningful way from those who refused to response. The high rate of non-response can create probability of statistical biases in the sample

(Groves & Peytcheva, 2008, p. 183) and does not allow one to indicate that the survey results are the response of the total sample. Hence, a high rate of non-response bias can impact the generalization of the results.

Table 4. 2

Group Descriptive Statistics for the Early and Late Respondents

Variable	Response	N	Mean	S.D.	S.E. Mean	Levene's Test of Equality of Variance	
						F	Sig.
TRF	Early	298	3.128	1.455	0.084	0.173	0.678
	Late	53	3.415	1.405	0.193		
BRN	Early	298	4.484	0.584	0.034	1.620	0.204
	Late	53	4.473	0.639	0.088		
REF	Early	298	4.097	1.106	0.064	0.030	0.862
	Late	53	4.238	1.145	0.157		
CTL	Early	298	4.867	1.154	0.067	0.818	0.366
	Late	53	4.862	0.977	0.134		
COM	Early	298	5.629	0.950	0.055	0.703	0.402
	Late	53	5.711	0.963	0.132		
VAL	Early	298	5.595	0.979	0.057	1.316	0.252
	Late	53	5.711	0.785	0.108		

Although the data collection strategy that utilized personal visits and consultation can handle the problems during the survey and achieve a high response rate, it is only an indication that the average bias would not be large (Brick & Tourangeau, 2017). Hence, it is important to ensure that the non-response bias is not an issue before the main analysis. Various methods can be used to investigate non-response bias such as compare respondent to non-respondents, compare respondents to population, compare early to late respondents, and the double-dip (Lindner et al., 2001). In this study, the non-response bias test is set to compare between early and late respondents.

The respondents were determined into two groups depending on early and late responded. Out of 351 usable responded questionnaires, 298 (84.90 percent) respondents who returned the questionnaires on the same day were grouped as the early respondents while the remaining 53 (15.10 percent) represents the late respondents. The independent t-test and Levene's test for equality of variance were used to identify whether there is a significant difference between the early and late groups at a 0.05 level of significance.

Table 4.2 demonstrates the early and late responses' mean and standard deviation which was not different. The Lavene's test of equality of variance for all variables was greater than the threshold of 0.05 indicating no significant difference between the two groups and the null hypothesis is accepted. The result confirmed that the assumption of equal variance between the early and late respondents was not violated. In conclusion, non-response bias was not considered as a problem.

4.4 Common Method Bias Test

Common method bias refers to inflation of relationships by shared method variance. It represents spurious correlation among the variables that caused by utilizing the same method to measure each variable (Tehseen et al., 2017). It threatens the validity and reliability of the conclusion about relationship between measures of different constructs. It may arise from common rater effects, item characteristics effects, item context effects, and measurement context effects.

Prevalent techniques and procedures used to deal with common method bias are Harman's single-factor test, partial correlation procedure, controlling for the effects of a directly measured latent method factor, controlling for the effects of an unmeasured latent method factor, and multiple method factors (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This study collected data at a single time and used the same instrument which might potentially cause common method bias and consequently distort the data collected and yield the misleading conclusion. It should conduct a test to ensure that the effect of the measurement method does not cause spurious variance in observed scores and inflate the correlation.

This study applied Harman's single-factor test to determine if a single factor accounts for the majority of the covariance in the variables by loading all items into an exploratory factor analysis with the unrotated factor solution (Tehseen et al., 2017). With 40 items of all constructs, the result unveiled that the variance generated by a single factor was less than 50 percent. As high as 23.592 percent of the total variance was accounted for by a single factor. In sum, the result indicated that common method bias is not an issue in this study.

4.5 Initial Data Examination, Screening and Preparation

The essential step before entering a main analysis is data examination, screening, and preparation. It allows deeper understanding of the data collected and identify low quality response. The violations of the basic assumption in the multivariate analysis will be examined and treated accordingly (Hair et al., 2013).

4.5.1 Analysis of Missing Data

The conventional statistical analysis presumes that all variables are measured for all cases. If any missing data of the interested variable emerged, it simply deletes that case out of a certain analysis. But disposing of data that spent a lot of time, money, and effort in collecting is undesirable. Moreover, deletion large number of cases can affect the statistical problem. It undermines statistical power and originates biased estimates that lead to wrong conclusions of the study. Hence, this study adopted protective action by checking incomplete answers immediately at the collecting point and asking the respondent to correct the questionnaire accurately. Consequently, none of the cases contain more than 50 percent of missing data.

When using PLS-SEM, the acceptable limit of missing data should be less than 5 percent per indicator, while replacing missing data with plausible values should be considered rather than discarding the entire case (Hair et al., 2016). Via using SPSS version 22 missing value analysis, it revealed none of the indicators had above 5 percent of missing value. It ranged from 0.85 percent to 3.13 percent. The MCAR test demonstrated a non-significant ($p = 0.840$) indicating the randomness of missing values. Thus, the existing missing values were replaced through the series mean replacement function in SPSS.

Table 4. 3
Total and Percentage of Missing Values

Variable	Number of Missing Values
TRF	4
BRN	11
REF	6
CTL	4
COM	8
VAL	3

Variable	Number of Missing Values
Total	36 out of 14,040 data points
Percentage	0.256 percent

4.5.2 Analysis of Outliers

The outlier data is frequently found in a sample survey in which some data records are extremely differ from all others. It may originate from either correct data captured in skewness distribution or from erroneous data captured in the coding process. Investigating outliers is important since it increases the variance and distorts the mean of the data. Outliers can be detected by simple sorting function, visualize data using scatter plot or histogram, and using statistical method. The statistical method will create a statistical distribution model of the data and identifies the data points that have more than 3 standard deviations as an outlier. Researchers subsequently decide to keep, remove, or recode outliers. However, this method examines one attribute at a time or univariate. Instead, the Mahalanobis distance method is recommended for multivariate outlier detection (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

This study followed Mahalanobis distance using SPSS version 22 with linear regression method and evaluated each case by the Chi-square distribution with probability of $p < 0.001$. A total of 40 items were used in which 39 represent the degree of freedom. Chi-square result indicated that any case containing Mahalanobis distance value of 72.055 and above was an outlier and should be handled appropriately. Since the presence of outliers can potentially corrupt the estimation while removing a small number of outliers would not compromise statistical power (Leys et al., 2019), the cases that were found to be 73.402 and above were removed from the analysis. As a result, 22 cases were removed which makes the total of 329 remaining in this study.

4.5.3 Normality Test

PLS-SEM is a non-parametric statistical method that normal distribution does not require. However, recent studies recommended it is essential to check if the data is not too far from being normal prior to the main analysis (Hair et al., 2016). Extremely non-normal data can inflate standard errors obtained from bootstrapping which consequently decreases the likelihood of significance in some relationships.

There are several statistical methods to assess normality. This study applied Skewness and Kurtosis as recommend by Hair et al. (2016). In general, absolute skewness and kurtosis values greater than 1 indicate non-normal data. However, Curran, West, and Finch (Curran et al., 1996) argue that the moderately Skewness and Kurtosis should be less than 2 and 7 while severely Skewness and Kurtosis are 3 and 21 respectively. Similarly, Kline (2016) states that the Skewness value greater than 3 and Kurtosis value greater than 10 indicate normality problem. Therefore, this study determines that Skewness and Kurtosis thresholds should be less than 2 and 7 respectively. Table 4.4 shows that the skewness and Kurtosis were in the acceptable range.

Table 4. 4
Skewness and Kurtosis Analysis

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
TRF	3.281	1.523	0.401	-0.445
BRN	4.422	0.540	0.480	-0.055
REF	-0.641	1.044	-0.610	1.079
CTL	4.933	1.019	-0.716	0.949
COM	5.637	0.909	-0.912	1.374
VAL	5.626	0.849	-0.764	1.169

4.5.4 Multicollinearity

According to Hair et al. (2013), multicollinearity is the situation when independent variables in the model are highly correlated. When independent variables are highly correlate, it creates unnecessary information and error especially standard error of the affected coefficients. These coefficients tend to be large and may change the sign of parameter estimates and result in less reliability. Including independent variables with high multicollinearity to the model will reduce predictive power. Therefore, an independent variable should have a high correlation with a dependent variable but has low multicollinearity with the other independent variables.

To identify multicollinearity, on the one hand, it initially uses the correlation matrix to examine collinearity of the independent variables. According to Hair et al. (2013), the correlation value of 0.9 and higher is the indication of a multicollinearity issue. However, Hinton, McMurray, and Brownlow (2014) suggest that independent variables can be correlated with each other as much as 0.8 before it causes collinearity problem. Moreover, examinations of tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) are the most suggested and reliable statistical tests to assess multicollinearity issues. According to Hair et al. (2013), a threshold value of tolerance greater than 0.1 and a threshold value of VIF lower than 10 denotes that multicollinearity is not an issue.

Table 4.5
Correlations Matrix of the Independent Variables

Variables	BRN	REF	CTL	COM	VAL
BRN	1.000				
REF	-0.291	1.000			
CTL	0.217	-0.044	1.000		
COM	0.321	-0.209	0.532	1.000	
VAL	0.444	-0.128	0.469	0.683	1.000

In this study, the independent variables were first examined using the correlation matrix to find out any indication of high correlation among them. The result demonstrated that none of the independent variables correlated with the other independent variables to a high degree. The correlation matrix indicated in Table 4.5 was below the threshold value of 0.8. Therefore, no collinearity problem exists among the independent variables.

Table 4. 6
Multicollinearity Test based on Tolerance and VIF Values

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
BRN	0.746	1.340
REF	0.884	1.131
CTL	0.691	1.446
COM	0.460	2.174
VAL	0.460	2.172

To ensure multicollinearity is not an issue, the examination of tolerance and VIF were implemented using linear regression with collinearity diagnostics function in SPSS version 22. Table 4.6 demonstrates that the tolerance value ranged between 0.460 and 0.884 that greater than the threshold value of 0.1, whereas the VIF value ranged between 1.131 and 2.174 lower than the threshold value of 10. The results did not exceed the threshold values that indicate the multicollinearity issue of the study.

4.6 Respondent Characteristics

This section describes the background information of the respondents (teachers) who participated in the survey. In the last section of survey questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate personal data namely gender, age, marital status, religion, education level, teaching experience in the current school, total teaching experience, teaching career level, province, and area of PESAO. Table 4.7 shows the summary

characteristics of the respondents.

Table 4. 7
Summary of Respondents ' Characteristic

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	79	24.012
Female	250	75.988
Age		
Less than 30 years	37	11.246
30-40 years	132	40.122
41-50 years	98	29.787
More than 50 years	62	18.845
Marital status		
Single	88	26.748
Married	229	69.605
Divorced	10	3.040
Other	2	0.607
Religion		
Buddhism	120	36.474
Islam	206	62.614
Christian	1	0.304
Other	2	0.608
Education level		
Bachelor or equivalent	254	77.204
Master or equivalent	74	22.492
PhD or equivalent	1	0.304
Teaching career level		
Contract teacher	51	15.502
Assistant level	25	7.599
Practitioner level	27	8.207
Professional level	146	44.377
Senior professional level	76	23.100
Expert level	3	0.912
Advisory level	1	0.304

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Teaching experience in the current school		
Less than 4 years	95	28.875
5-10 years	121	36.778
11-19 years	77	23.404
20-29 years	25	7.599
More than 30 years	11	3.343
Total teaching experience		
Less than 4 years	50	15.198
5-10 years	70	21.277
11-19 years	125	37.994
20-29 years	60	18.237
More than 30 years	24	7.295
Area of PESAO		
PESAO 1	145	44.073
PESAO 2	115	34.954
PESAO 3	69	20.973
Province		
Pattani	113	34.347
Narathiwat	134	40.729
Yala	82	24.924

As mentioned above, the sample of this study came from 329 teachers who currently work in the public primary school of the three southern provinces of Thailand. Table 4.7 indicated a large part of the respondents were female (75.988 percent) while less than one-fourth were male (24.012 percent). With respect to age, most respondents were relatively young since nearly half were aged between 30-40 (40.125 percent) followed by mid-career aged between 41-50 (29.787 percent). As far as marital status is concerned, most of the respondents were married (69.605 percent). In terms of religion, more than half of the respondents were Islam (62.614 percent) and followed Buddhism (36.474 percent). Regarding education level, as much as 77.204 percent of

the respondents earn a bachelor's degree or equivalent, only one respondent holds a Ph.D. (0.304 percent), while the remaining have a master's degree (22.492 percent).

Followed the professional life cycle of teachers (Huberman, 1989) to classify teaching experience into 5 groups, it found most teachers had less than 10 years of teaching experience in the current school, mostly in 5-10 years (36.778 percent) and less than 4 years (28.875 percent). Total teaching experience was largely concentrated in 11-19 years (37.994 percent) while a group of teachers had more than 30 years of experience (7.295 percent). With respect to teaching career level, nearly half of obtained professional level (44.377 percent), followed by senior professional level (23.100 percent), whereas contract teachers were an interesting number (15.502 percent). The educational area PESAO 1 where schools are in the inner city found to be the most teachers concentration (47.073 percent), followed by PESAO 2 (34.954 percent), and PESAO 3 (20.973 percent) which is the far most area. As well as Narathiwat (40.729 percent) was the most concentrated teacher province, followed by Pattani (34.347 percent), and Yala (24.924 percent) was the smallest province.

4.7 Descriptive Statistics of The Latent Constructs

When the data screening and preliminary analysis produced a satisfactory result, the descriptive statistical analysis was conducted. The mean and standard deviation values derive from the 7-point Likert scale rating from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) to measure all latent constructs. Except for the dominant regulatory failure, the number ranged from minus six (-6) to six (+6). The dominant regulatory failure derived from subtracting the mean scores on the prevention failure from the mean scores on the promotion failure. A positive score (from 1 to 6) indicates the more dominant promotion failure (non-gain), whereas a negative score (from -1 to -6) represents the

more dominant prevention failure (loss).

The descriptive statistics of the latent constructs are shown in Table 4.8. Regarding work environments fit, the mean score of community (5.637) was the highest, followed closely by values (5.626), while control (4.933) was the lowest. It suggests that teachers perceived more fit in community and values than control. With respect to regulatory failure, the mean score of prevention failure (4.468) was higher than promotion failure (3.827) which was consistent with the negative value of dominant regulatory failure (-0.641). It suggests that prevention failure was the dominant motivational system that regulates attitudes, emotions, and behaviors. That is, teachers are more concerned about loss than non-gain. Job burnout was moderately high (4.422) which implies that teachers work in a stressful but tolerable work environment which may entail optimal performance. Lastly, a middling mean score in job transfer intention (3.281) indicates the relative low intention to transfer to another school.

Table 4. 8
Descriptive Statistics of Latent Constructs

Latent Constructs	Mean	Standard Deviation
Control (CTL)	4.933	1.019
Community (COM)	5.637	0.909
Values (VAL)	5.626	0.849
Promotion failure	3.827	1.276
Prevention failure	4.468	1.115
Dominant regulatory failure (REF)	-0.641	1.044
Job burnout (BRN)	4.422	0.540
Job transfer intention (TRF)	3.281	1.523

4.7 Evaluation of PLS-SEM

Model evaluation in PLS-SEM involves assessment of structural model (inner model) and measurement models (outer model). The structural model represents the inter-relationships among constructs, whereas the measurement model represents the relationships between the constructs and the associated indicators. According to Hair et al.'s (2016) recommendation, this study used the systematic two-step procedure that comprised the evaluation of the measurement model and structural model.

4.7.1 The Measurement Model Assessment

Firstly, it is necessary to specify if the measurement model is reflective or formative measures. The reflective measurement model treats measures as outcomes of unobserved latent variables (or effect indicators) while formative measurement specifies measures as causes of constructs (or causal indicators). These two specifications are grounded in different concepts and require different assessment approaches. In the case of reflective measure, it should be tested with internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Formative measure, on the other hand, need to assess with convergent validity, collinearity between indicators, and significance and relevance of outer weights (Hair et al., 2016). In this study, most of the latent variables were reflective measures except for dominant regulatory failure, which was a single indicator obtained by subtracting the scores on the prevention failure subscale from the scores on the promotion failure subscale.

Furthermore, the measurement model should clarify if the construct is a higher-order structure. In some instances, the higher-order structure is beneficial for researchers who must deal with complex and highly correlated constructs. Instead of summarizing

the overall attributes as a single layer construct, it can split the set of indicators and establish the first-order construct that links to a higher second-order construct. Establishing a higher-order structure can entail parsimony and reduce model complexity (Hair et al., 2016). Nevertheless, this study did not contain a higher-order structure and the inner model was conceptualized as first-order constructs.

Evaluation of the measurement model (outer model) aims to ensure that the survey items measure the constructs designed to measure. It examines whether the indicators (items) load theoretically and associate with respective constructs. According to Hair et al. (2016), the appropriate tests for the study using reflective measurement model should be internal consistency reliability via Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) tests, convergent validity via indicator reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) tests, and discriminant validity via Fornell-Larcker criterion and the indicator's cross loadings tests. The results of the measurement model assessment are demonstrated in Figure 4.1, and more details are revealed as follows.

4.7.1.1 Individual Item Reliability

Firstly, individual item reliability involves considering if the outer loading of each construct's indicator exceeds the threshold value. Based on Hair et al. (2016), the satisfying indicator's outer loading value is 0.70 and above, while any indicator with a value between 0.40 - 0.70 should be deleted only when the deletion increases the CR and AVE above the suggested threshold, and the indicator's outer loading value below 0.40 should be deleted from the construct. In this study, eight items were deleted due to the outer loading below the threshold of 0.40. The deleted items were BRN1, BRN5, BRN7, BRN10, BRN14, BRN15, and BRN16. Consequently, the outer loading of the

remaining items lies between 0.461 and 0.962. The details of these items are presented in Table 4.8.

4.7.1.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

According to Hair et al. (2016), the traditional method for evaluating internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha which is a conservative measure that assumes all indicators are equally reliable. Therefore, the number of items in the scale can impact in lowering the reliability values. In contrast, CR does not assume equal indicator loading of the construct which is likely to provide an unbiased reliability value. However, it tends to overestimate and show higher internal consistency reliability. Hence, it should report both criteria since the true reliability value may lie between the two points. Cronbach's Alpha is expected to be 0.70 or higher. The CR values below 0.60 indicate a lack of internal consistency reliability, 0.60 to 0.70 are acceptable, and 0.70 to 0.90 are satisfactory. Yet, values above 0.90 and definitely above 0.95 are not desirable because it implies that those indicators are measuring the same phenomenon.

In this study, the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 or higher was set whereas the CR values above 0.60 and below 0.95 were expected. The results show satisfactory values as presented in table 4.8. The Cronbach's alpha values ranged between 0.769 to 0.898 which exceed the recommended threshold value of 0.70. The CR values ranged between 0.807 to 0.931 in which above 0.60 and below 0.95 recommended threshold. These values indicated that the internal consistency of the measures was reliable.

4.7.1.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity aims to examine if the items or the indicators of a specific reflective construct share a high proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2016). The convergent validity is assessed using outer loading and AVE. As mentioned above, the indicator's outer loading should be higher than 0.70, the value between 0.40-0.70 is acceptable, and below 0.40 should be deleted from the construct. On the other hand, the AVE value of 0.50 or higher means that the construct can explain more than half of the variance of its indicators, while the AVE value less than 0.50 means that more variance remains in the error of the items than in the variance explained by the construct.



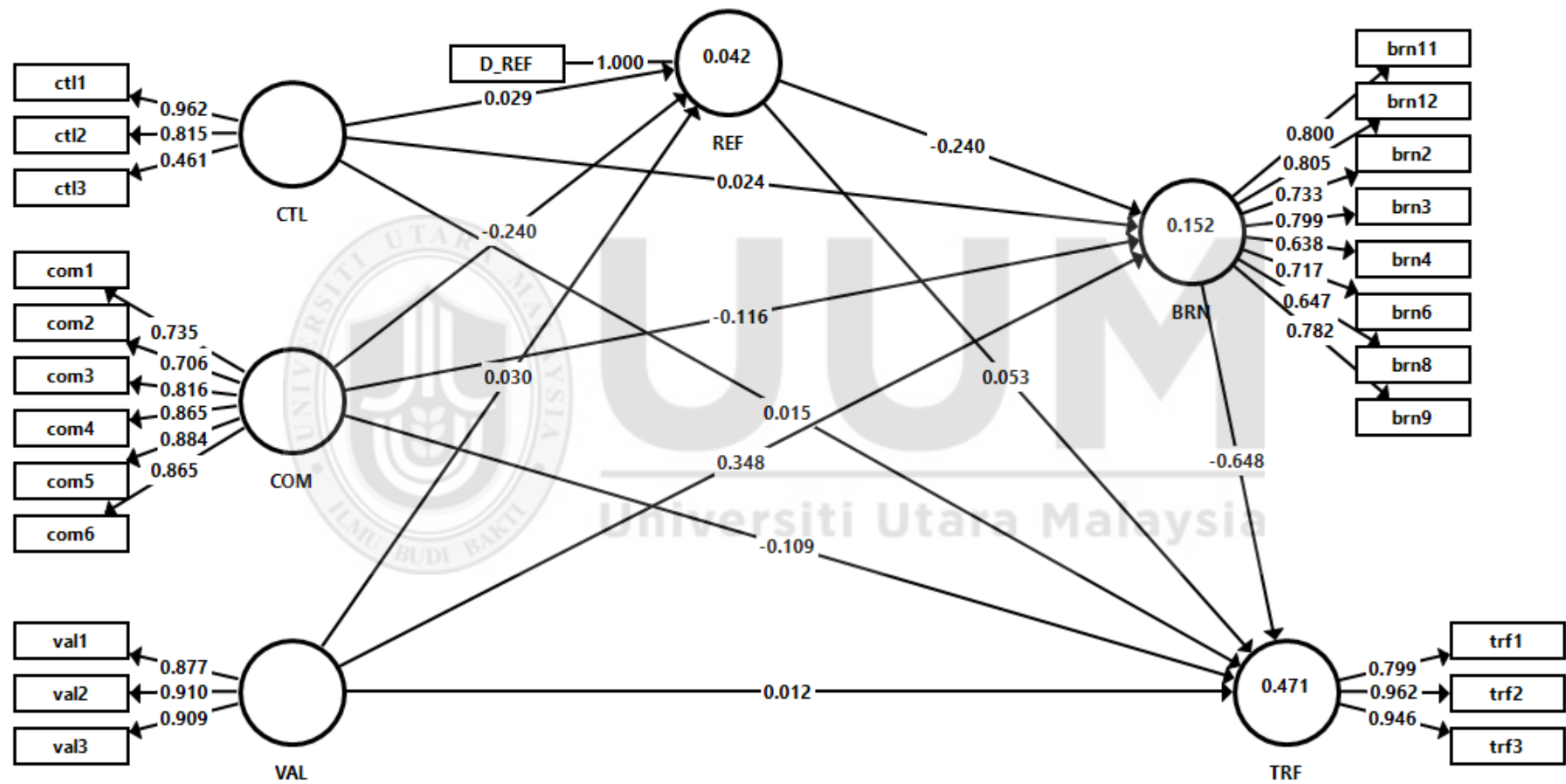


Figure 4. 1 Measurement Model

According to Table 4.9, the outer loading of all indicators high above the 0.40 threshold value. It varied between 0.461 and 0.962. The AVE value of all constructs ranged from 0.552 to 0.819 which exceed the threshold value of 0.50. It can be concluded that convergent validity was established.

Table 4. 9
Loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE

Construct	Indicators	Loading	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
TRF	trf1	0.799	0.887	0.931	0.819
	trf2	0.962			
	trf3	0.946			
BRN	brn2	0.733	0.883	0.907	0.552
	brn3	0.799			
	brn4	0.638			
	brn6	0.717			
	brn8	0.647			
	brn9	0.782			
	brn11	0.800			
	brn12	0.805			
REF	ref	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
CTL	ctl1	0.962	0.769	0.807	0.601
	ctl2	0.815			
	ctl3	0.461			
COM	com1	0.735	0.898	0.922	0.663
	com2	0.706			
	com3	0.816			
	com4	0.865			
	com5	0.884			
	com6	0.865			
VAL	val1	0.877	0.881	0.927	0.808
	val2	0.910			
	val3	0.909			

4.7.1.4 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is the degree to which a construct is distinct from other constructs whose conceptually unrelated and therefore captures phenomena not influenced by other constructs in the model. Fornell-Larcker criterion is the approach used to ensure discriminant validity. It can be done by comparing the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations. The square root of each constructs's AVE should be greater than its highest correlation with any other construct (Hair et al., 2016). The results in Table 4.9 demonstrated the square root of AVE in bold numbers greater than its highest construct's correlation among other latent constructs. This indicated that discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4. 10
Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Variable	BRN	COM	CTL	REF	TRF	VAL
BRN	0.743					
COM	0.194	0.815				
CTL	0.170	0.561	0.775			
REF	-0.262	-0.202	-0.089	1.000		
TRF	-0.677	-0.229	-0.155	0.242	0.905	
VAL	0.308	0.713	0.545	-0.125	-0.264	0.899

In addition, the cross-loading was utilized to examine the indicator's outer loading on the associated construct toward its correlation on other constructs. The presence of outer loading values exceed the cross-loading on other constructs suggest that discriminant validity is established. In contrast, greater value of cross-loading than the indicator's outer loading indicates a discriminant validity problem. Table 4.10 demonstrated the absence of discriminant validity problem since no indicators had a higher value of cross-loading than the one it intended to measure.

Table 4. 11
Cross Loading

Items	BRN	COM	CTL	REF	TRF	VAL
brn2	0.733	0.038	0.100	-0.128	-0.478	0.216
brn3	0.799	0.219	0.241	-0.174	-0.515	0.334
brn4	0.638	0.041	0.012	-0.139	-0.374	0.102
brn6	0.717	0.143	0.024	-0.249	-0.442	0.169
brn8	0.647	0.208	-0.047	-0.322	-0.504	0.079
brn9	0.782	0.222	0.206	-0.190	-0.541	0.319
brn11	0.800	0.157	0.214	-0.135	-0.542	0.302
brn12	0.805	0.095	0.177	-0.228	-0.587	0.243
com1	0.055	0.735	0.351	-0.214	-0.138	0.391
com2	0.043	0.706	0.325	-0.171	-0.135	0.370
com3	0.254	0.816	0.496	-0.109	-0.232	0.707
com4	0.189	0.865	0.524	-0.142	-0.172	0.635
com5	0.162	0.884	0.536	-0.157	-0.198	0.673
com6	0.180	0.865	0.462	-0.214	-0.213	0.611
ctl1	0.179	0.550	0.962	-0.105	-0.168	0.543
ctl2	0.101	0.443	0.815	-0.029	-0.081	0.405
ctl3	-0.014	0.350	0.461	0.021	-0.010	0.224
Ref	-0.262	-0.202	-0.089	1.000	0.242	-0.125
trf1	-0.512	-0.095	-0.049	0.182	0.799	-0.076
trf2	-0.666	-0.244	-0.171	0.259	0.962	-0.287
trf3	-0.648	-0.259	-0.181	0.211	0.946	-0.320
val1	0.234	0.691	0.466	-0.160	-0.203	0.877
val2	0.290	0.606	0.500	-0.059	-0.249	0.910
val3	0.302	0.634	0.502	-0.122	-0.257	0.909

Based on Henseler et al. (2015) and Hair et al. (2016), the cross loading fail to indicate discriminant validity when two constructs are perfectly correlated while the Fornell-Larcker criterion poorly detect discriminant validity when indicator loading differ slightly. They suggest using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) to ensure the discriminant validity. The HTMT value above 0.90 indicates a lack of

discriminant validity while the value above 0.85 represents a more conservative threshold. Table 4.11 demonstrates all HTMT values lower than the conservative threshold value of 0.85. Therefore, it confirms the acceptable discriminant validity of the construct.

Table 4. 12
Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT)

Variable	BRN	COM	CTL	REF	TRF	VAL
BRN	-					
COM	0.228	-				
CTL	0.172	0.648	-			
REF	0.281	0.217	0.071	-		
TRF	0.755	0.241	0.122	0.255	-	
VAL	0.335	0.782	0.574	0.135	0.283	-

After the measurement model achieved validity and reliability tests, evaluation of the structural model or inner model began. Results from the measurement model assessment entail the deletion of eight indicators from the original framework. Fortunately, there were sufficient indicators and none of the construct was removed. After the measurement model was revised, the structural model was assessed.

4.7.2 The Structural Model Assessment

Assessment of the structural model involved assessing the predictive ability and causal relationship between the constructs. In this study, the structural model comprised of job transfer intention as the endogenous variable while control, community, and values are the exogenous variables. In addition, regulatory failure and job burnout are also endogenous variables that serve as mediators between control, community, values, and job transfer intention. Initially, a collinearity test was needed to be examined before proceeding with the structural model assessment though the previous section confirmed

collinearity was not an issue (Hair et al., 2016).

4.7.2.1 Collinearity Assessment

Like a regular multiple regression, the estimation of path coefficients is based on ordinary least square regression which might be biased if the estimation involves collinearity problem among the predictor constructs. Accordingly, all exogenous latent variables were assessed by determining the variance inflated factor (VIF). To do that, each set of predictor constructs were separately examined with the threshold value of VIF below five. If the collinearity problem emerged, it should consider eliminating constructs, merging predictors into a single construct, or using a higher-order construct to solve the collinearity problem (Hair et al., 2016).

Table 4. 13
Collinearity

Constructs	BRN	REF	TRF
BRN			1.179
COM	2.287	2.227	2.303
CTL	1.556	1.556	1.557
REF	1.044		1.112
VAL	2.174	2.173	2.317

The results in table 4.12 show all sets of predictor constructs in each subpart of the structural model. The first set of predictors pertains to control, community, values, and regulatory failure while job burnout serves as the outcome variable. The second set of predictors involves control, community, and values while the regulatory failure serves as an outcome variable. The third set relates to job burnout, control, community, and values as predictor variables while the job transfer intention was an outcome variable. The VIF of all constructs is clearly less than the threshold value of five. Hence, it can be concluded that collinearity among the predictor constructs in the structural model

was not a problem. The next stage of analysis can be carried out.

4.7.2.2 Model Path Coefficient

Assessing a structural model involved the key criteria of significance path coefficient (β), coefficient of determination (R^2), f^2 effect size, predictive relevance (Q^2), and q^2 effect size (Hair et al., 2016). The path coefficient (β) and its significance, coefficient of determination (R^2), and f^2 effect size are obtained by mean of bootstrapping. Blindfolding is applied to assess predictive relevance (Q^2) whereas the q^2 effect size is computed manually since the SmartPLS software version 3.3.2 does not provide. The results from previous blindfolding estimation and re-estimation after deleting a specific predecessor are inputs for computing the q^2 effect size.

After processing the PLS-SEM algorithm and bootstrapping with 5,000 iterations with significance level of 0.5, one-tailed test, 95% bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) via the SmartPLS 3.3.2, the path coefficient and the path significance were revealed. Figure 4.2 shows the path coefficient of the independent variables and a dependent variable. The bootstrapping result in Figure 4.3 reveals five significant paths. Table 4.13 provides more details on path coefficients and statistical values to assess the significance.

The path significance can be reported either t-value, p-value, or confidence interval which eventually present the same significant outcome. However, in the PLS-SEM context, the bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) bootstrap confidence interval is recommended because of the adjustment for biases and skewness in bootstrap distribution (Hair et al., 2016). It provides additional information on the stability of coefficient estimation. The wider the confidence interval of a coefficient is, the lower

the stability it is. The 95% confidence interval (CI) for an estimated path coefficient that does not include zero is an indication of significant effect.

The path coefficients have standardized values (β) range between -1 and +1. The closer to +1 represents the higher positive relations and vice versa for negative values. The closer to 0 represents weaker relations, which is not a significant effect.

Table 4. 14
Model Path Coefficients

Path Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	t Value	p Value	Confidence Interval	Decision
H1: CTL $\rightarrow$ TRF	0.015	0.310	0.378	-0.062, 0.099	Not supported
H2: COM $\rightarrow$ TRF	-0.109	1.647	0.050	-0.217, -0.002	Supported
H3: VAL $\rightarrow$ TRF	0.012	0.186	0.426	-0.095, 0.109	Not supported
H4: CTL $\rightarrow$ BRN	0.024	0.336	0.369	-0.110, 0.130	Not supported
H5: COM $\rightarrow$ BRN	-0.116	1.428	0.077	-0.258, 0.011	Not supported
H6: VAL $\rightarrow$ BRN	0.348	4.739	0.000	0.229, 0.469	Not supported
H7: BRN $\rightarrow$ TRF	-0.648	16.507	0.000	-0.707, -0.578	Not supported
H11: CTL $\rightarrow$ REF	0.029	0.323	0.373	-0.094, 0.204	Not supported
H12: COM $\rightarrow$ REF	-0.240	2.700	0.003	-0.389, -0.101	Not supported
H13: VAL $\rightarrow$ REF	0.030	0.405	0.343	-0.097, 0.150	Not supported
H14: REF $\rightarrow$ TRF	0.053	1.377	0.084	-0.012, 0.116	Not supported
H18: REF $\rightarrow$ BRN	-0.240	4.729	0.000	-0.318, -0.152	Supported

In specific to the relationship between work environment and job transfer intention, only hypothesis H2 was statistically supported as it found a significant negative relationship between community and job transfer intention ($\beta = -0.109$, $t = 1.647$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.217, -0.002]). That is, the higher the support from supervisors and colleagues, the lower the job transfer intention. The expected relationship of H1 control ($\beta = 0.015$, $t = 0.310$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.062, 0.099]) and H3 values ($\beta = 0.012$, $t = 0.186$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.095, 0.109]) on job transfer intention were not supported.

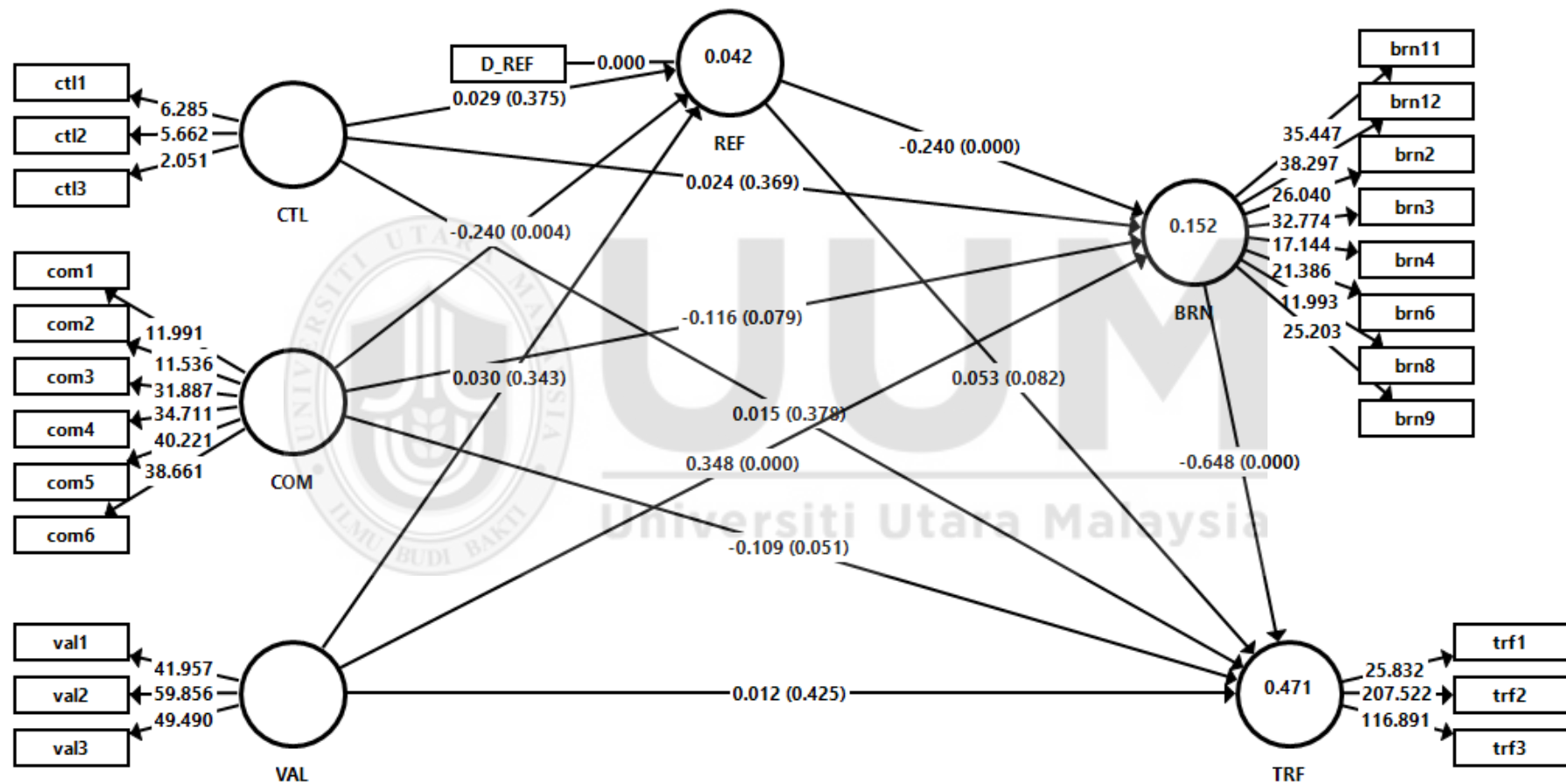


Figure 4.2 Model Path Coefficients and Coefficient of Determination

The expected relationship between work environments and job burnout was not supported in this present study. The results found non-significant relationships between H4 control ($\beta = 0.024$, $t = 0.336$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.110, 0.130]) and H5 community ($\beta = -0.116$, $t = 1.428$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.259, 0.011]) on job burnout. Notably, hypothesis H6 which expected negative relation between values and job burnout was not supported since the result revealed a significant but positive relation ($\beta = 0.348$, $t = 4.739$, $p < 0.05$, CI [0.229, 0.469]) which opposed to the proposed direction. It implied that people concerned more about value congruence tend to have more risk to experience job burnout.

Likewise, the expected positive influence of job burnout on job transfer intention (H7) was not supported since the result opposed the hypothesized direction. The result indicates the significant but negative influence of job burnout on job transfer intention ($\beta = -0.648$, $t = 16.507$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.707, -0.578]) which was the highest path coefficient in this study. In other words, the people whose higher job burnout tend to have lower job transfer intention. It is possible that the emotional exhaustion and disengagement components of job burnout may produce an independent effect on job transfer intention. This will be discussed in the next chapter.

The positive effect of work environments on dominant regulatory failure was partly supported. The effect of control ($\beta = 0.029$, $t = 0.323$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.094, 0.204]) and values ($\beta = 0.030$, $t = 0.405$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.097, 0.150]) on dominant regulatory failure did not find a statistical support. Therefore, hypotheses H11 and H13 were not supported. However, the hypothesis H12 was not supported since it revealed a significant but negative effect of community on dominant regulatory failure ($\beta = -$

0.240, $t = 2.700$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.389, -0.101]). Dominant regulatory failure derived from subtracting the mean scores on prevention failure subscale from the mean scores on promotion failure subscale. Positive score indicates promotion failure while negative scores represent prevention failure. Since dominant regulatory failure reveals a negative score, it implies that a high community fit tends to have a low impact on prevention failures (loss). In contrast, people who have a lower community fit tend to have a higher concern about the failure in the prevention system.

Hypothesis H14 which expected the negative relation between dominant regulatory failure and job transfer intention was not supported since result revealed a non-significance relationship ($\beta = 0.053$, $t = 1.377$, $p > 0.05$, CI [-0.012, 0.116]). Lastly, hypothesis H18 which expected the negative relationship between dominant regulatory failure and job burnout was statistically supported as when the significant negative relationship was revealed ($\beta = -0.240$, $t = 4.729$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.318, -0.152]). Meaning that people who are highly concerned with prevention failure tend to have a lower risk of job burnout.

4.7.2.3 Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

After assessing the structural model path coefficients, the coefficient of determination or R^2 was examined. The R^2 is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy that based on ability of exogenous constructs' combined effect to predict endogenous construct. The value lies from 0 to 1. The higher value indicates the higher level of predictive accuracy. Nevertheless, the degree to which R^2 value depends on the model complexity and research discipline. For example, research focuses on business determines R^2 values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 as substantial, moderate, and weak (Chin, 1998),

whereas research on marketing determines 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 as substantial, moderate, and weak predictive accuracy (Hair et al., 2016). Since this study focused on human resource management, it adopts the recommendation by Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell, and Gudergan (2018) that the R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 represent substantial, moderate, and weak predictive accuracy.

Table 4. 15
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Endogenous Variable	Coefficient of Determination	p Value	Predictive Level
REF	0.042	0.031	-
BRN	0.152	0.000	-
TRF	0.471	0.000	Weak

Table 4.15 presents the R^2 value of the endogenous construct of this study. It represents the percentage of variance in the endogenous construct explained by the exogenous constructs related to it. The R^2 value of job transfer intention indicates 0.471 of the total variances in the job transfer intention. Meaning that control, community, values, regulatory failure, and job burnout explain 47.1 percent of the variance in the job transfer intention. Therefore, the endogenous construct demonstrated an acceptable level of R^2 which is considered a small level of predictive accuracy.

The very small value of R^2 for job burnout ($R^2 = 0.152$) and regulatory failure ($R^2 = 0.042$) indicated the exogenous constructs taken together in the related paths explained slight variance in endogenous construct for 15 percent and 4 percent respectively. Meaning that the predictive accuracy was weak because of the high variability data together with a significant trend in the relationship between the exogenous and endogenous constructs. However, the effect size f^2 should be examined to consider the practical significance of the value.

4.7.2.4 Effect Size f^2

Effect size f^2 refers to the change in R^2 value when an exogenous construct is omitted from the model. It can evaluate how the omitted exogenous construct can impact the endogenous construct. Based on Hair et al. (2016) and Cohen (1988) recommendation, the f^2 value of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 represent small, medium, and large effect of exogenous variable. The f^2 value of less than 0.02 indicates lack of effect. Table 4.16 demonstrates the effect size of an exogenous on endogenous constructs.

Table 4.16
Effect size (f^2)

Effect	f^2 Value	Effect Size
CTL → TRF	0.000	None
COM → TRF	0.010	None
VAL → TRF	0.000	None
CTL → BRN	0.000	None
COM → BRN	0.007	None
VAL → BRN	0.066	Small
BRN → TRF	0.675	Large
CTL → REF	0.001	None
COM → REF	0.027	Small
VAL → REF	0.000	None
REF → TRF	0.065	Small
REF → BRN	0.005	None

Table 4.16 indicates the substantial effect size of job burnout on job transfer intention (f^2 BRN→TRF = 0.675). Meaning that removing job burnout from the model caused a very large impact on the predictive power of job transfer intention. Concerning the effect size of the work environment in the model, it found a less than 0.02 effect size from control (f^2 CTL→TRF = 0.000), values (f^2 VAL→TRF = 0.000), and community (f^2 COM→TRF = 0.010). It implies that the effect of work environments is not large enough to be meaningful on job transfer intention. Regarding job burnout, the results

revealed a small effect size of values on job burnout ($f^2 \text{ VAL} \rightarrow \text{BRN} = 0.066$) whereas control ($f^2 \text{ CTL} \rightarrow \text{BRN} = 0.000$), community ($f^2 \text{ COM} \rightarrow \text{BRN} = 0.007$), and regulatory failure ($f^2 \text{ REF} \rightarrow \text{BRN} = 0.005$) lacked effect. With respect to regulatory failure, it found a small effect size of community ($f^2 \text{ COM} \rightarrow \text{REF} = 0.027$) if remove from the model. Control ($f^2 \text{ CTL} \rightarrow \text{REF} = 0.001$) and values ($f^2 \text{ VAL} \rightarrow \text{REF} = 0.000$) were lacking effect.

4.7.2.5 Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

The predictive relevance (Q^2) is an indicator of the model's out-of-sample predictive power. The Stone-Geisser test is a measure of goodness-of-fit (GoF) commonly used to determine the PLS-SEM model predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2016). Blindfolding is a procedure used to obtain the Q^2 value. It utilizes the sample reuse technique that omits every d^{th} data point in the endogenous construct's indicators to generate the estimation of the parameters. The smaller the difference between predictive and original values, the greater the Q^2 and thus the model's predictive accuracy. The d^{th} data point omission can be set to some value between five to twelve under the condition that it must not produce an integer when dividing the sample size (329) by d^{th} . In this study, the omission distance of eight was used.

The Q^2 can be obtained by two different approaches which are cross-validated redundancy and cross-validated communality. The cross-validated redundancy approach uses the score from measurement and structural models to predict the omitted data points, while the cross-validated communality only uses the score from the measurement model. Hair et al. (2016) suggest using the cross-validated redundancy since it fits the PLS-SEM approach perfectly. The Q^2 value for the endogenous latent

variable that is larger than zero (0) is an indication of model predictive relevance. As indicated in Table 4.17, the predictive relevance (Q^2 statistics) for the endogenous latent variables of job transfer intention, job burnout, and regulatory focus were greater than zero. It reflects the predictive relevance of the model.

Table 4. 17
Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

Endogenous Construct	SSO	SSE	Q^2 Statistics
TRF	987	616.385	0.375
BRN	2,632	2,422.467	0.080
REF	329	324.661	0.013

4.7.2.6 Effect Size q^2

Like f^2 effect size for assessing R^2 value, the predictive relevance can be compared by means of the measure to the q^2 effect size. It assesses an exogenous construct's contribution to an endogenous latent variable's Q^2 value. However, the SmartPLS does not provide q^2 results, it needs to compute manually. The Q^2 values from blindfolding are input for computing the q^2 effect size using the below formula (Hair et al., 2016):

$$q^2 = \frac{Q_{included}^2 - Q_{excluded}^2}{1 - Q_{included}^2}$$

The $Q_{included}^2$ available from previous blindfolding estimation as in Table 4.17, while the $Q_{excluded}^2$ is obtained from a model re-estimation after deleting a specific predecessor of that endogenous latent variable. For example, to determine the q^2 effect size of job burnout on job transfer intention, the blindfolding results indicated endogenous latent variable TRF had an original Q^2 ($Q_{included}^2$) value of 0.376. When BRN was deleted from the path model and the model was re-estimated via blindfolding procedure, the TRF dropped to 0.053 ($Q_{excluded}^2$). These two values were input to

calculate the q^2 effect size of BRN on TRF. The result is as follows:

$$q_{BRN \rightarrow TRF}^2 = \frac{0.376 - 0.083}{1 - 0.376} = 0.470$$

Table 4. 18
Effect Sizes (q^2)

Effect	q^2 Value	Effect Size
CTL → TRF	0.000	None
COM → TRF	0.002	None
VAL → TRF	-0.003	None
CTL → BRN	0.000	Large
COM → BRN	0.003	None
VAL → BRN	0.033	Small
BRN → TRF	0.470	Large
CTL → REF	-0.018	None
COM → REF	0.018	None
VAL → REF	-0.005	None
REF → TRF	0.003	None
REF → BRN	0.032	Small

According to Hair et al. (2016), the q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 is an indication of a small, medium, and large predictive relevance of the exogenous construct, respectively. Results from Table 4.18 show that job burnout contributes large predictive relevance to job transfer intention (q^2 BRN→TRF = 0.470). Lastly, value (q^2 VAL→BRN = 0.033) and regulatory focus (q^2 REF→BRN = 0.032) were found to have small predictive relevance to job burnout.

4.7.3 Testing of Mediation Effect

Sobel test is a recommended method for mediation effect analysis. However, several drawbacks urged researchers to dismiss the Sobel test, especially when using PLS-SEM. According to Hair et al. (2016), Sobel test assumes a normal distribution which

is not consistent with the nonparametric PLS-SEM method. Especially, a study with a small sample size may result in a lack of statistical power since unstandardized path coefficients are input. In contrast to the Sobel test, bootstrapping is suitable for PLS-SEM since it does not need a normal distribution of the statistic and can be applied to small sample sizes. In addition, it yields a higher level of statistical power when compared to the Sobel test. Bootstrapping is therefore suitable for PLS-SEM mediation analysis.

The mediation analysis follows the latest mediation procedure suggested in Hair et al. (2016) in which based on evidence provided by Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) and Nitzl, Roldan, and Cepeda (2016). It requires a two-step procedure for testing the mediation effect in the model. In contrast to the traditional approach, the first step involves testing whether the indirect effect is significant. If the indirect effect is not significant, the mediation effect does not exist, and the mediation hypothesis is not supported at all. The second step involves testing if the direct effect is significant or not. If the indirect effect is significant and the direct effect is non-significant, the indirect-only mediation or full mediation is present. When both the indirect and direct effects are significant, it corresponds to the concept of partial mediation. Moreover, partial mediation that the direct and indirect effects have the same direction will represent a complementary mediation, whereas different directions indicate a competitive mediation.

4.7.3.1 The Significance of Indirect Effect

When evaluating a structural model that contains multiple mediating variables, one may run a simple mediation analysis for each proposed mediator. Preacher and Hayes

(2008) argue that this approach is problematic for 2 reasons. Firstly, the mediators in a multiple mediation model are correlated and cannot simply add up several simple mediations to obtain the total indirect effect. By doing this, the specific indirect effects and the total indirect effect would be biased. Secondly, omission of other mediating variables may falsify the hypothesis test and confidence intervals of specific indirect effects, especially in complementary and competitive mediation. Hence, considering all mediators simultaneously in one model can produce a more understanding of the mediation effects.

Assessing the indirect effect can be done using SmartPLS bootstrapping with 5,000 iterations and significance level of 5% one-tailed test to estimate the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval as shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4. 19
Specific Indirect Effect

Path Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	p Value	Confidence Interval	Decision
H8: CTL→BRN→TRF	-0.016	0.371	-0.085, 0.073	Not supported
H9: COM→BRN→ TRF	0.075	0.080	-0.006, 0.172	Not supported
H10: VAL→BRN→ TRF	-0.226	0.000	-0.316, -0.150	Supported
H15: CTL→REF→ TRF	0.002	0.396	-0.003, 0.018	Not supported
H16: COM→REF→ TRF	-0.013	0.115	-0.036, 0.000	Not supported
H17: VAL→REF→ TRF	0.002	0.373	-0.003, 0.014	Not supported
H19: CTL→REF→ BRN→TRF	0.004	0.376	-0.013, 0.036	Not supported
H20: COM→REF→ BRN→TRF	-0.037	0.015	-0.074, -0.015	Supported
H21: VAL→REF→ BRN→TRF	0.005	0.342	-0.013, 0.025	Not supported

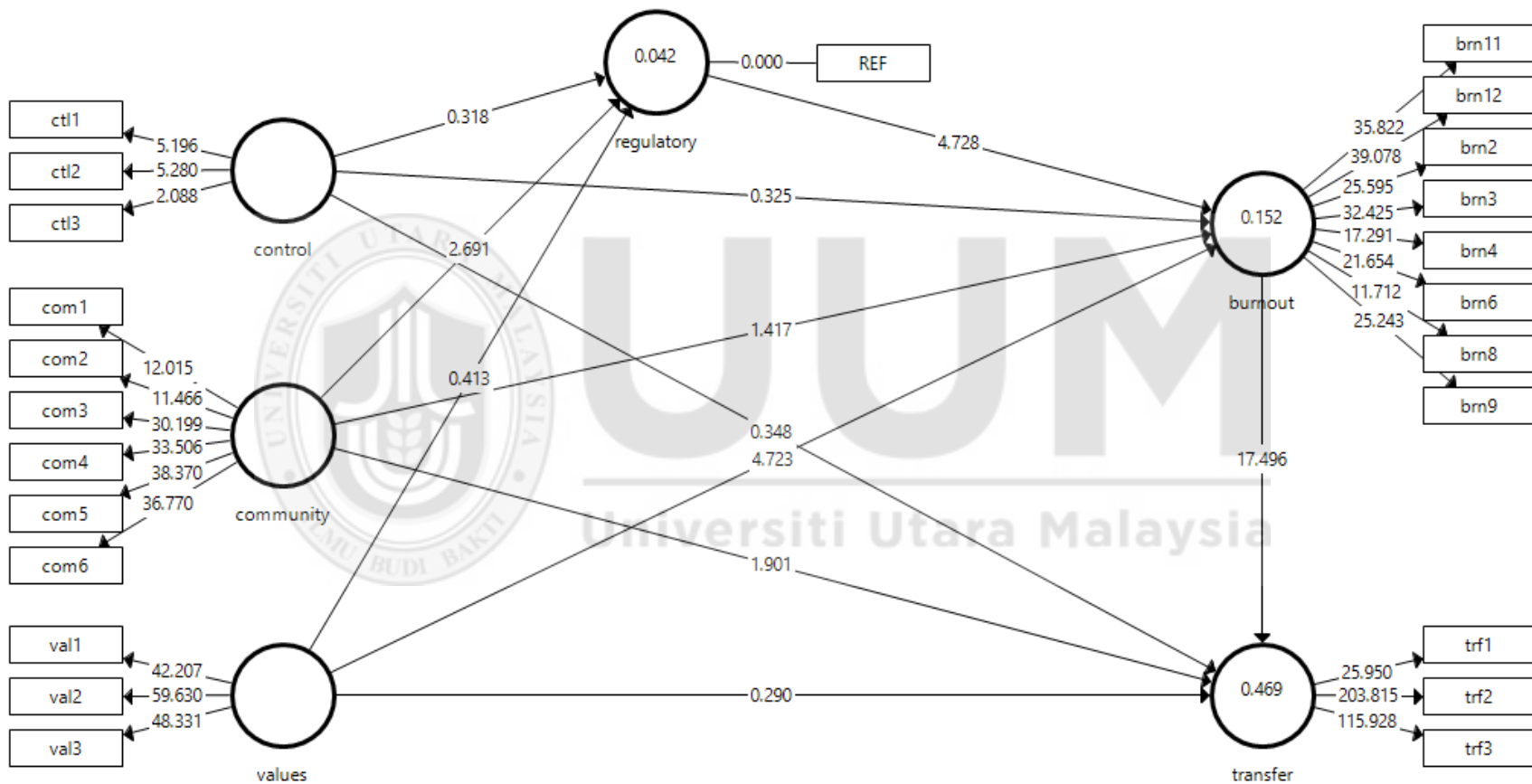


Figure 4. 3 Bootstrapping Results

Concerning Table 4.19, the specific indirect effects of the work environment on job transfer intention in hypotheses H10 and H20 were significantly supported. The hypothesis H10 was supported since the specific indirect effect from values through job burnout on job transfer intention revealed a significant negative indirect effect ($VAL \rightarrow BRN \rightarrow TRF$ $\beta = -0.226$, $t = 4.448$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.316, -0.150]). The hypothesis H20 was supported since the specific indirect effects of community on job transfer intention through the dominant regulatory failure and job burnout was significant ($COM \rightarrow REF \rightarrow BRN \rightarrow TRF$ $\beta = -0.037$, $t = 2.175$, $p < 0.05$, CI [-0.074, -0.015]). Unfortunately, other specific indirect effects of hypotheses H8, H9, H15, H16, H17, H19, and H21 were not supported.

4.7.3.2 Determining the Types of Mediation Effects

Zhao et al. (2010), Nitzl et al. (2016), and Hair et al. (2016) distinguish five types of mediation effects. First, the direct-only nonmediation effect emerges when a non-significant indirect effect but a significant direct effect. Second, when neither the direct nor indirect effects are significant, refer to no-effect nonmediation. Third, when both the direct and the indirect effects are significant and both point in the same direction, refer to complementary mediation. Fourth, when both the direct and the indirect effects are significant but point in opposite directions, refer to competitive mediation. Lastly, when the indirect effect is significant but not the direct effect, refer to indirect-only mediation. Like Baron and Kenny (1986) concept of mediation, the indirect-only mediation is corresponding to full mediation while complementary and competitive mediation can refer to as partial mediation.

Following Zhao et al. (2010), Nitzl et al. (2016), and Hair et al. (2016), identifying the type of mediation should first consider if the indirect effect is significant. If the indirect effect is not significant, the mediation hypothesis is not supported at all. Secondly, identifying the type of mediation by considering the direct effect and its direction. The model that contains multiple mediators should follow the same steps as simple mediation. Table 4.20 summarized the specific indirect effects and the direct effects to determine the type of mediation effect of this study.

Table 4. 20
Type of Mediation Effects

Path	Coefficient	p-Value	Type of Mediation
CTL→TRF	0.015	0.378	-
CTL→BRN→TRF	-0.016	0.371	No effect nonmediation
CTL→REF→TRF	0.002	0.396	No effect nonmediation
CTL→BRN→REF→TRF	0.004	0.376	No effect nonmediation
COM→TRF	-0.109	0.050	-
COM→BRN→TRF	0.075	0.080	Direct-only nonmediation
COM→REF→TRF	-0.013	0.115	Direct-only nonmediation
COM→BRN→REF→TRF	-0.037	0.015	Complementary mediation
VAL→TRF	0.012	0.426	-
VAL→BRN→TRF	-0.226	0.000	Indirect-only mediation
VAL→REF→TRF	0.002	0.373	No effect nonmediation
VAL→BRN→REF→TRF	0.005	0.342	No effect nonmediation

Respecting the path between control and job transfer intention, it found neither the direct nor the indirect effect through dominant regulatory failure and job burnout was significant. This indicates no effect non-mediation. Regarding the paths between community and job transfer intention, the simple mediation effect was not found either by dominant regulatory failure (COM→REF→TRF: $\beta=-0.013$, $p>0.05$) or job burnout (COM→BRN→TRF: $\beta=0.075$, $p>0.05$). Instead, the results demonstrated serial

indirect effect through dominant regulatory failure and job burnout. It unveiled the serial complementary mediation effect since the significant indirect effect (COM→REF→BRN→TRF: $\beta=-0.037$, $p<0.05$) and significant direct effect (COM→TRF: $\beta=-0.109$, $p<0.05$) which point in the same direction. Finally, regarding the path between values and job transfer intention, the results illustrated the significant indirect effect of job burnout (VAL→BRN→TRF: $\beta=-0.226$, $p<0.05$), while the direct effect was non-significant (VAL→TRF: $\beta=0.012$, $p>0.05$). It revealed the simple Indirect-only mediation effect from values through job burnout toward job transfer intention.

In sum, the results above suggest the large effect of job burnout on the structural model, while low or no effects from the other variables. Some researchers remove the non-significant paths, and some leave them. However, all variables in the model have a function that serves causal relationships with other variables. Even in the non-significant paths, the function of the variable is not exactly zero. Removing the non-significant paths can bias the effects of the other variables and change the model structure, which should not be done in model testing.

The results from the model assessment presented acceptable values on some indicators such as the measurements model and predictive relevance, but unsatisfying with weak R^2 and f^2 values. Meaning that the model can explain the proposed relationships with a small predictive level. The possible explanation for the low effect or non-significant paths may be the data collected from the teachers in the Deep South school. The expected relationship in this sample did not occur.

For example, the effect on control was not found in the model. The reason may derive from the collectivism that is prominent in the Deep South. It can wither away the direct or indirect effect of control in the model. The result is in line with the study by Mon and Weinstein (2017) in Myanmar. They found that the younger employees tend to keep compliance with the management rather than ask for more control, as a show of humbleness. Hence, low control did not impact burnout and job transfer intention.

The nature of the teaching profession is working independently, and student outcome is the important performance criteria. Support from supervisors and colleagues may not be necessary when compared to other professions that require a team or workgroup. Andela and van der Doef (2019) suggest that job interdependency may weaken the effect of social support in the workplace. The study's findings will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

4.8 Control Variables

In addition to the testing of the proposed relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables as shown in the structural model, three control variables were also examined. In this study, gender, age, and teaching experience were included as control variables that linked to job transfer intention in the final model. It aimed to assess whether the exogenous variables account for any relationship with the endogenous variable rather than any of the control variables. In other word, it examined potential confounding effects in the model (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

Bootstrapping was utilized to test whether the three control variables relate to job transfer intention. The results in Table 4.21 indicate that all control variables did not show a significant relationship. It implied that gender, age, and teaching experience did not increase job transfer intention.

Table 4. 21
Control Variables

Control Variables	Path Coefficient	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value	Confidence Interval
Gender→TRF	0.054	1.338	0.091	-0.014, 0.119
Age→TRF	-0.067	1.379	0.084	-0.144, 0.015
Experience→TRF	0.038	1.012	0.156	-0.018, 0.105

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter demonstrates the results of the statistical analysis. From the data collected through a survey questionnaire, the response rate, and non-response bias test were presented. Later, the initial data examination and data screening were conducted comprised of the analysis of missing value, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity. Then, the measurement model and structural model were assessed with PLS-SEM using SmartPLS 3.3.2. The results from hypotheses testing based on the evaluation of the inner model were reported. Finally, effects of control variables on the job transfer intention were presented.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research findings derived from the research objectives, research questions, and hypotheses presented in previous chapters. Furthermore, this chapter presents how the study contributes to the managerial, theoretical, and practical aspects. Also, this chapter reveals the limitations and suggests directions for further research. The last section pertains to the conclusion of the study.

5.2 Summary of the Thesis

This study focusses on the job transfer intention of the teachers who work in the public primary school in the three southern provinces of Thailand. In specific, three independent variables including control, community, and values were hypothesized to have a negative effect on job transfer intention. Job burnout and dominant regulatory failure were hypothesized to have a mediation effect in the relationship between the three work environments and job transfer intention. In addition, it expected that dominant regulatory failure and job burnout were associated with each other. Hence, the three work environments indirectly affect job transfer intention through dominant regulatory failure and job burnout in a serial manner.

The framework was supported by person-environment fit theory and regulatory focus theory. The person-environment fit theory postulates the misfit between the person and the environment is the antecedent of job stress and job burnout, while the job transfer intention is an organizational withdrawal attitude resulting from job burnout caused by chronic job stress and maladjustment. However, misfits because of deficiency or excess differ from one another. Regulatory focus theory distinguishes the psychological states of failure within the promotion and prevention system. Promotion failure relates to the discrepancy that occurs when the desired attributes are absent (non-gain), while prevention failure occurs when the dislike attributes are present (loss). It unveils the association between misfits because of deficiency and excess with promotion and prevention failures. Moreover, emotional consequences from failure in the prevention system (loss) are more intense than failures in the promotion system (non-gain). Taken together, the serial mediation of regulatory failure and job burnout was hypothesized on the relationship between work environment and job transfer intention.

Twenty-one PLS-SEM hypotheses were proposed and tested using SmartPLS version 3.3.2. The results revealed that control, community, values, dominant regulatory failure, and job burnout explain 47.1 percent of the variance in the job transfer intention, or a small level of predictive accuracy. In addition, two direct effects and two indirect effects were significantly supported. The two direct effects comprised of the paths from community to job transfer intention and dominant regulatory failure to job burnout. The two indirect effects comprised the indirect-only mediation effect from values through job burnout toward job transfer intention, and the complementary mediation effect from community through dominant regulatory failure and job burnout

toward job transfer intention.

5.3 Discussion

For a better understanding, the following section will be presented corresponding to the specific objectives of the study.

5.3.1 The Effect of Work Environments on Job Transfer Intention

The first objective of the study is to examine the negative relationship between work environment and job transfer intention of teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. Therefore, three hypotheses were established representing the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention (H1), community and job transfer intention (H2), and values and job transfer intention (H3). The result found only hypothesis H2 was statistically significant, as mentioned in Chapter Four. Each relationship is discussed next.

5.3.1.1 Control and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H1 proposed that control negatively relates to job transfer intention. Control is defined as perceived capacity to influence or participate in decision making that affects the work, to demonstrate professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do the job effectively. Based on the person-environment fit theory, people need control because having the ability to control their life can reduce uncertainty and ultimately brings happiness and life satisfaction (Van Vianen, 2018). In the work context, employees experience control misfit when they perceive inadequate authority to control the resources needed to do the job effectively. In the school context, teachers need sufficient control and autonomy to design methods of

instruction or sanction power to maintain an orderly classroom. Experiencing misfit in control tends to develop negative attitudes and behaviors.

However, the result was contrary to the expectation when the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention was not significant. It suggests that perceived control misfit did not influence the intention to transfer out of the current school. A similar result is indicated by Djonko-Moore (2016) and Kukla-Acevedo (2009) that teachers' perception of control over their classroom did not affect the decision to move from the current school. Kukla-Acevedo justifies that the control misfits caused by the pressure from education accountability policy that has been implemented countrywide. Changing schools cannot mitigate the effect of misfit, which results in no association with job transfer intention.

In Thailand, the national education quality assurance is the duty and obligation of all teachers and principals. However, it causes unintended impacts by generating centralized and rigid work procedures that constantly demand tons of paperwork and eventually take teachers apart from the classroom. It reflects the work situation that contains high job demand but low control. Although the policy was relaxed in the latter, the control misfit had not been satisfied yet. Avoiding an undesired work environment by requesting a job transfer to another school is unlikely to correspond and unattainable. It is because matching the vacant position and teaching subject are prerequisites. Besides, leaving the government teachers is not a better solution since being a government employee obtains more satisfied welfare and privileges when compared to the private sector. It suppresses the intention of a job transfer and simultaneously motivates them to adjust the expectation and importance of control to

align with the work situation.

Ingersoll and Collins (2017) indicate that when the US federal has implemented the school accountability reform and the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) act, scholars expect the increasing trend of teachers who request a job transfer to avoid the accountability pressure. But the empirical evidence shows the contrary result. In addition, the study conducted by Sun, Saultz, and Ye (2017) found similar results. They justify that, in the early, teachers might be shocked by the accountability pressure and causing them to request a job transfer intention. Later, they gradually get familiar with and adjust to the pressure causing them to reduce their intention of a job transfer. It results in non-association between control and job transfer intention.

Another possible explanation may be the notion that people will develop coping behaviors when they experience a discrepancy between the expected and actual situations. According to the transactional theory of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), people constantly check the fit or discrepancy between their needs and the work environment. Misfits bring about stressful emotions that arouse one to initiate a coping strategy to mitigate emotions or stressors. Coping with a stressful emotion can result in a favorable, unfavorable, or unresolved outcome. When unfavorable or unresolved, it activates individuals to find coping options. The coping options consist of changing the relationship between person-environment directly. If the action fails or the situation is uncontrollable, the indirect option of avoiding that situation is determined. Rather than avoidance, however, they can adjust their expectation to align with the situation or minimize the importance of the perceived misfit instead.

Hence, when teachers perceived control misfits, they will evaluate the resources and options to cope with the unwanted situation. On the one hand, transfer to another school is a favorable option but hard to attain, which is considered the least attainable option. On the other hand, adjustment of the expectation by lowering the importance of control correspond with the work situation is considered the possible option. By taking the coping behavior into account, adjustment of expectation and importance can wipe out the impact of control on job transfer intention.

5.3.1.2 Community and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H2 proposed that community negatively relates to job transfer intention. Previous studies assert that perceived cooperation, communication, connectedness, trust, and social support can reduce the intention to transfer to another school. In this study, community refers to perceive support from supervisors and colleagues that fit the employee's needs. Supervisors convey organizational values to the daily work that shape the employees' values and actions. Supervisor fit can promote feeling of inclusion, certainty, and ultimately enhance rewards and career opportunities (Van Vianen, 2018). In addition, employees need colleagues who have shared beliefs and values. It brings about a quality interpersonal interaction that affects an individual ability and makes distinctive contributions to the workgroup performance (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). When employees experience misfit in community, it results in workplace conflict, poor performance, and raise intention to transfer.

This study proposed that high congruence or fit between personal and community can reduce job transfer intention to another school. As expected, there is a significant negative relationship between community and job transfer intentions. The result is in

line with the previous studies that indicate a negative relationship between community fit and intention to leave (Gordon et al., 2018; Grissom et al., 2015; Hopkins et al., 2019; Perrone et al., 2019; Tolksdorf et al., 2022). Interestingly, although Grissom et al. indicate this effect is more salient to the new teachers, this study did not find a significant influence on job transfer intention when age and teaching experience are controlled in this model. It implied that age and teaching experience does not increase the likelihood of job transfer intention when one perceived misfit in community.

This finding confirms the influence of supervisors and colleagues on the mobility intention of teachers in the public sector. Since the Thai government is the biggest employer that offers lifelong employment, the employee turnover is considerably low when compared to a job transfer, undoubtedly. That is, when perceived misfits with supervisors and colleagues, it prompts teachers to change schools instead of leaving government employment. The finding is consistent with the study of Ali (2018) who found that perceived support from supervisors and colleagues is the most critical factor that affects the job transfer intention of the US federal employees. It also found that job transfer within the government is far more prevalent than leaving the government. It confirms that support from supervisors and colleagues can strengthen a person-environment fit and reduce the intention to transfer to another school.

5.3.1.3 Values and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H3 proposed the negative relationship between values and job transfer intention. The degree to which the values fit is comparing personal values with those of the organization (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Personal values refer to general beliefs concerning the importance of desirable behaviors and desired end-states which

guide decisions and actions. Organizational values are norms that specify how members should behave and how resources should be allocated. When an employee holds values that fit the values of their organization, they will satisfy with the job, enhance positive attitudes, promotes extra-role behaviors, identify with the organization, fulfillment from work roles, and maintain the organization's membership (Edwards & Cable, 2009). This study expected that perceived fit between personal values and organizational values can reduce job transfer intention of teachers.

Contrary to the expectation, the result is not supported the hypothesis. A possible explanation may derive from Dawis (Dawis, 2005)'s theory of work adjustment. The theory indicates that values are relatively permanent and can be changed over time under certain conditions either by employer or employees. When changes occur, it creates misfits that lead to the emotional stress that prompts an employee to begin work adjustment behaviors. The degree of misfit tolerable affects the continuance of adjustment behavior and the tenure. When misfit becomes intolerable, the adjustment behavior ends and urges an employee to escape from that work situation. However, the degree of employees' perseverance affects how long they will try to reduce misfit before giving up and leaving that work situation. The higher perseverance, the lower job transfer intention. Therefore, teachers who perceived misfits in values might not immediately show their intention to move to another school. The degree of misfits tolerable and perseverance may shift the association between values misfit and job transfer intention.

Furthermore, people can hold a lot of values at the same time but can attend to a few (Rokeach, 1973). Likewise, employees may value salary, privileges, participation, and competition, but the few dominant values can influence an employee's intention. Accordingly, government officials who prioritize the values and beliefs about promoting people and social development may suppress their job transfer intention and embrace the adjustment behavior instead. In addition, teaching is a profession that emphasizes humanistic commitment. The "do good" for others and society has been disseminated and become an essential value among government teachers.

Based on the principles of substitution and satiation, Vogel, Rodell, and Lynch (2016) demonstrate that job crafting and leisure activity act as a buffer to offset the negative impact of values misfit. When employees' needs are not fulfilled by a particular source, they tend to change to other sources that serve as a substitution. Rather than simply react, employees may alter the work environment to substitute for the unmet needs to buffer the motivational consequences of values misfit. They suggest job crafting as a means that task characteristics and social environment are tailored to meet the employee's preferences. The changes can result in enhancing the job meaning.

They also indicate that the nonwork activities play an important role in work experiences. Leisure activities can be considered as an alternative option to buffer the negative consequences of values misfit and offer different opportunities to fulfill needs. It can provide a sense of autonomy, competence, and involvement as well. The finding indicates that values misfit will not negatively affect job engagement when an employee is provided more job crafting and performing leisure activities. In contrast, values misfit is more likely to show a negative effect on job engagement when an

employee is provided a lower level of job crafting and fewer leisure activities. Hence, perceives values misfit may not result in job transfer intention since the effects of job crafting and leisure activities.

5.3.2 The Effect of Work Environments on Job Burnout

The second objective of the study is to examine the negative relationship between work environment and job burnout of teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. Three hypotheses were established representing the negative relationship between control and job burnout (H4), community and job burnout (H5), and values and job burnout (H6). The results are present in Table 4.13 of Chapter Four. Each relationship is discussed next.

5.3.2.1 Control and Job Burnout

The hypothesis H4 proposed that control negatively relates to job burnout. Control can impact job burnout because it involves employee participation and professional autonomy that affect employee well-being (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The impacts of job control on employees' stress and job burnout were investigated underlying the theories of stress. The demand-control theory, for example, indicates that the degree of fit between the job demands and the ability to control over one's work is associated with employees' stress (Karasek, 1979). Low job control and high job demand can produce job stress, mental strain, and ultimately job burnout. Based on person-environment fit, perceived misfit between the person and the work environment can evoke emotional responses of stress and strain (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Likewise, job demands-resources theory indicates that job resources (e.g., autonomy, participation, decision making) that incongruence with job demands can produce

health impairment and job motivation problem (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Contrary to expectation, the results unveil a non-significant relationship between control and job burnout. In other words, either perceived fit or misfit in control is not associated with job burnout of the teacher in the three southern provinces of Thailand. A possible explanation derives from the study conducted by Matthews, Beeler, Zablah, and Hair (2018) who unveils that control can increase, decrease, or even have no effect on job burnout depending on the nature of the task at hand and prevailing conditions. On the one hand, control serves as a beneficial resource that alleviates the negative impacts of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization while increasing the feeling of personal accomplishment. On the other hand, control can be a deleterious job demand that produces negative impacts on depersonalization, whereas the association with emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment was not found.

Another possible explanation is the organizational culture of individualism and collectivism that entangle the relationship. Organizational culture is a characteristic of “overlearned” that once a group has learned some shared assumption, it results in automatic patterns of perceiving, thinking, and behaving (Schein, 1990). The study conducted by Mon and Weinstein (2017) to investigate the relationship between control and job burnout of the mental health social workers from local and international organizations across Myanmar found supported evidence. The results found a non-significant relationship between control and job burnout, neither direct nor indirect effects. Their explanation underlines the culture that intervenes in this relationship. They found that the younger employees tend to keep compliance with the management rather than ask for more control, as a show of humbleness. Instead of an

adverse effect on job burnout, collectivism diverted the effect that low job control tends to increase high job satisfaction. A little chance of control can raise job satisfaction for people who grow up in a work environment that gives a few opportunities to take control of their work-life.

Interestingly, the perceived fit is a weak construct when the personal and environmental attributes process into the perception of fit by a broad measure. De Jonge, Dollard, Dormann, Le Blanc, and Houtman (2000) assert that the broader measure can result in less meaningful analysis and low predictive power. For example, nurses and teachers are the jobs that require employees to express their emotions than natural to get the job done, while judges need to suppress emotions. Therefore, the broader measure provides insufficient data to justify the association between control and job burnout. In other words, it captured the ambiguity characteristic of job control regardless of the distinct work situation.

5.3.2.2 Community and Job Burnout

In this study, community is focused on supervisor and colleague support. When the relationship is going well, employees are more likely to engage with their job. When there is a lack of trust, employees are vulnerable to job burnout. Similar characteristics of an employee to supervisors and colleagues can create homogeneity at work, which promotes the feeling of inclusion and certainty (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). In addition, support from supervisors and colleagues that congruent with employee's needs can alleviate the impacts of job stress and burnout. Likewise, the congruence between social aspects of the job demands (i.e., competition and challenges) with the social aspects of job resources (i.e., social support and performance feedback) can

enhance engagement and mitigate the impact of job burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Hence, the hypothesis H5 expected negative relation between community and job burnout.

The results did not support hypothesis H5. A possible explanation concerning a teaching profession that works independently and the performance is linked to students. Support from supervisors and colleagues in the independent work environment may not obtain the same results as the work that requires employees to work in a team. Consistent with the study conducted by Andela and van der Doef (2019) which found that the person and group fit was not significantly associated with job burnout. They state that a good person-group fit may not be equally important for every occupation. It depends on the interdependency nature of the job which weakens the effect of colleague's support on job burnout.

Another possible explanation is that the non-work social activities can influence the effect of community on job burnout symptom. Findings from Boland, Mink, Kamrud, Jeruzal, and Stevens (2019) indicate that non-work-based social support, especially religious practices, is a critical resource in dealing with occupational stress and job burnout. Obviously, majority of the people in the three southern provinces of Thailand are Muslims who strictly adhere to Islamic practices. Participating in religious activities such as praying with colleagues daily can reduce emotional burden (Günüşen et al., 2018), alleviate job stress, improve subjective well-being (Achour et al., 2019), improve interpersonal sensitivity, and ultimately enhance the social support resource (Henry, 2015).

Moreover, some personal characteristics can buffer the effect of misfit, including both work-related and non-work-related characteristics. Previous studies found it can create positive interpersonal relationships and mitigate the effect of community misfit on job burnout. The study conducted by Kainzbauer and Hunt (2016) identifies “Sanuk” (“fun” in Thai) as a critical attribute of Thai culture that can enhance a positive school environment. As well as Ho (2016) indicates that having a good sense of humor can enhance interpersonal relationships, reduce social distance, accommodate conflict, obtain more social support, and alleviate the risk of job burnout.

5.3.2.3 Values and Job Burnout

Hypothesis H6 expected the negative relationship between values and job burnout. Values are the ideals and motivations underlying employees’ behaviors toward the organization. The greater the fit between personal values and those of the organization, the greater engagement with the job. When values misfit arise, emotional stress emerges. Chronic stress produces emotional exhaustion and prompts coping behavior by distancing oneself emotionally and cognitively from the work. It gradually loses sympathy for others and develops a cynical attitude. Emotional exhaustion and cynicism reduce the feelings of competence and efficiency at work. Finally, emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficiency lead to job burnout. As to this, perceived values fit is expected to have a negative relation with job burnout. However, hypothesis H6 was not supported since the result revealed a significant but positive association that was opposite to the proposed direction. In other words, perceived high values congruence are likely to experience job burnout.

A possible explanation may be that excessive homogeneity can create negative outcomes. The study conducted by Tatar and Horenczyk (2003) found that job burnout can be predicted by teachers' assimilationist ideology and perceived of school's assimilative orientation. It found the likelihood of diversity-related burnout in the teachers categorized as assimilationist ideology working in schools perceived by them to be assimilationist orientation. Recently, the study conducted by Dubbeld, de Hoog, den Brok, and de Laat (2019) in the ethnic and cultural diversity schools show similar results. It revealed that the more assimilative teachers' attitudes, the less perceived pluralistic school climate, and the higher degree of job burnout. These studies indicate the possibility of a variable obscuring the association between values congruence and job burnout.

Although multicultural and diversity are gaining more attention on educational grounds, teachers are not well prepared to deal with ethnic and cultural diversity. They prefer teaching style and a classroom setting in the same way they grew up. Besides, schools are prone to cultivate assimilationists than pluralists, too. It expects its students to acquire the dominant culture of the school and society. Hence, the assimilationist ideology within a multicultural society inevitably produces negative impacts on the classroom. The teacher-student relationship is getting worse which results in students' poor academic achievement and negative behavior. These stressors can lessen teacher self-efficacy, reduce personal accomplishment, develop depersonalization, and cynical attitudes about students. These negative relationships lead to job burnout symptoms. Historically, in Thailand, education was used by the state to promote "Thainess" in the period of nationalist ideology. It successfully achieved the unification of the Thai people while, on the contrary, suppressing the ethnic and religious identity of

minorities within the state. Currently, as multicultural is going global challenge, the Thai government encourages multicultural education countrywide. Schools and teachers are likely to accept cultural diversity but, unfortunately, in the form of assimilationism.

Arphattananon (2018) indicates that most education personnel are not well prepared to deal with multicultural education. They are unable to move away from the assimilationist attitude and teaching style. Schools keep carrying on teaching their students to adhere to the dominant culture of Thainess. It is inconsistent with the identity of the southern provinces of Thailand where culture, religion, and races are more diverse. Teachers and schools that hold onto the assimilationist ideology in the more pluralist society can cause adverse effects on classrooms. When the teacher-student relationship is getting worse, the academic achievement of the students is disrupted as well. Teachers who are unable to handle the multicultural challenge properly may be at risk of job burnout.

5.3.3 The Relationship Between Work Environment, Job Burnout, and Job Transfer Intention

The third objective of the study is to examine the relationship between work environment, job burnout, and job transfer intention of teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. Therefore, four hypotheses H7-H10 were established. Each relationship is discussed next.

5.3.3.1 Job Burnout and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H7 expected the positive relationship between job burnout and job transfer intention. Teaching is a profession that needs managing feelings and emotional

expression to manage others. It requires a good relationship with colleagues, supervisors, principal, students, and guardians. In addition, the relationship with the job could be stressors, such as workload, time pressure, and autonomy. Chronic stress engenders emotional exhaustion causing teachers to gradually lose sympathy and respect for themselves. It brings about a cynical attitude which in turn reduced professional competence and job burnout eventually. Teachers who experience job burnout tend to judge themselves as fail and initiate job withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and turnover intention (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Hence, this study expected a positive relationship between job burnout and job transfer intention.

The hypothesis H7 is not supported since the relationship was opposite to the expected direction. It found a significant but negative relationship between job burnout and job transfer intention. That is, teachers who experience high job burnout are likely to have a low job transfer intention. Contrary to the previous research that indicates a positive association between job burnout and turnover intention. The finding emphasizes the different concept between job transfer and turnover. Turnover is a situation when a person leaves the teaching profession. Changing from one to another school while remaining in the teaching profession refers to a job transfer. It reflects the differences in attitudes that teachers have toward the school and the teaching profession.

The possible explanation may derive from Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth (2012) who indicate “reluctant stayers” and Hughes (Hughes, 2001) who specifies “involuntarily staying in a position” to highlight the complex mechanism in situations that teachers who suffer burnout but remain in a position. They state the complexities of turnover decisions that impact teachers to accept the consequences of job burnout

and remain in the current school. The turnover decision can be constrained by the availability of alternative employment, barriers to exit (e.g., student loans, geographic immobility), and even waiting for retirement. However, involuntarily staying in a position is problematic because of the adverse impact on teachers' performance and students' learning achievement.

Likewise, Dworkin (1987) indicates the "entrapment" to explain the situation that teachers who suffer from their unpleasant job, but stay is higher in numbers than teachers who suffer and leave. Teachers who experience job burnout do not necessarily show intention to leave despite feelings of alienation from the school. Instead, the findings found the likelihood of increasing attachment to the job. The study justifies that teachers remain in an unpleasant job because of their unsaleable skills. Recently, Maslach (2017) indicated the beliefs that label job burnout as a sign of weakness or incompetence can cause one to be reluctant to disclose the job burnout symptoms. They tend to hide the true feeling and present themselves as "I'm doing fine". It may suppress the effect of job burnout on job transfer intention.

In the three southern provinces of Thailand, transferring out of the high-risk area is in the teachers' thoughts, but it does not easily attainable. Past evidence shows that, in the year 2005-2011, as most as 80 percent of teachers who requested a job transfer was not approved (Thai Public Broadcasting Service, 2014). The possibility to transfer to the desired school depends on whether the vacant position and the teaching subject match the requirements of the targeted school. It constrains the job transfer intention and triggers defensive coping behaviors to alleviate the effect of job burnout. Hence, the negative association between job burnout and job transfer intention emerges as the

reasons mentioned above.

Previous research suggests that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are consistent with and reinforce each other. But inconsistent patterns are possible (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). For example, hotel staff may feel emotionally exhausted during a period of high season but not necessarily cynicism or negativism if cope with it effectively. Also, employees may feel negative or discouraged with the work when treated unfairly but not necessarily lead to high emotional exhaustion. Consistent with Lee and Ashforth (1996) who indicate that the three components of job burnout correspond to the distinct aspects of strain, stress coping, and the self-evaluation process. Emotional exhaustion is a form of strain, depersonalization is a form of defensive coping strategy, and personal accomplishment corresponds to self-evaluation. Depersonalization involves reactive and protective actions intended to avoid unwanted demands or reduce perceived threats. Likewise, the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) indicates that people will utilize coping behaviors by shifting the focus of attention and re-evaluating resources to avoid or minimize the loss of valued resources.

Ryan, et al. (2017) assert the crucial role of depersonalization on job transfer intention because the teaching profession depends heavily on interpersonal relationship. It impacts the overall work climate and sense of belonging in a school. People who experience high emotional exhaustion may increase their distance from work or service recipients and do things strictly by the book. These defensive coping behaviors provide emotional relief (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) and reduce the intention for a job transfer.

5.3.3.2 The Mediation Effect of Job Burnout in the Relationship Between Control and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H8 states the mediation effect of job burnout in the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention. Regarding person-environment fit (Edwards, 1991; French et al., 1982; Kristof-Brown, 1996; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011), when people perceived misfits between personal attributes and work attributes, it produces emotional stress and strain. In line with job burnout research (Maslach & Leiter, 2016) which indicates chronic stress causes emotional exhaustion and evokes disengagement to avoid unwanted demands. Simultaneously, it diminishes a sense of professional efficacy. The maladjustment between the person and the environment results in job burnout symptoms. Employees who experience job burnout tend to exert less effort and low involvement with the job. The disengagement negatively affects job performance. It results in judging oneself a low self-efficacy and incompetence. Finally, it emerges negative organizational behaviors, especially absenteeism and turnover.

The results revealed that job burnout did not mediate the relationship between control and job transfer intention. Hence, the hypothesis H8 is not supported. In addition, since the direct effect (H1) and the indirect effect (H8) were non-significant, it represents the no-effect non-mediation (Hair et al., 2016).

According to Leiter and Maslach's (2005) mediation model of burnout, job burnout mediates the complex interrelationship between the work environment factors on organizational outcomes. Control is stipulated to be the starting point that indirectly affects job burnout through the other organizational factors namely workload, reward, fairness, community, and values. The replicate studies confirm that control was not

directly affect job burnout but indirectly through the other organizational factors (Gascón et al., 2019; H. T. T. Nguyen et al., 2018). Meaning that control is intervened by other variable and no longer affect job burnout and organizational outcome.

Another possible explanation may involve the disengagement is associated with the coping behaviors that mitigate the effect of control misfit and the subsequent job transfer intention. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) indicate that when a misfit is perceived as a stressful event that could produce a substantial threat to well-being, the cognitive process starts to evaluate coping resources, situation variables, and coping styles to determine a coping action to manage or resolve the misfit and improve well-being.

Coping action can be directly done by changing the situation or can be indirectly done by symptom reduction, avoidance, accommodation, and devaluation if the situation is perceived uncontrollable (Edwards, 1992). Folkman (2008) added that when stressors are perceived as highly unfavorable and uncontrollable, it can trigger a meaning-focused coping strategy. The focus can be manipulated by means of benefit finding, benefit reminding, adaptive goal processes, reordering priorities, and infusing ordinary events with positive meaning. It can result in positive emotion, restore resources, sustain the coping effort, and relieve distress.

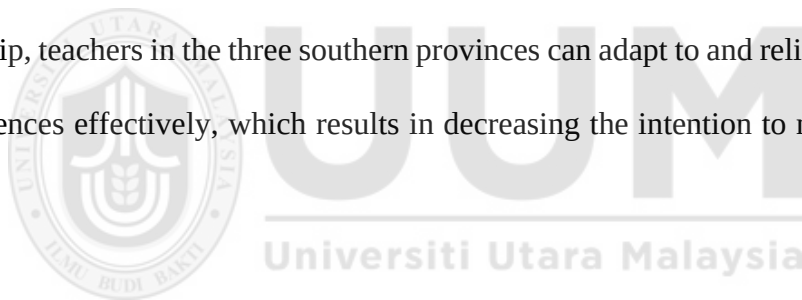
5.3.3.3 The Mediation Effect of Job Burnout in the Relationship Between Community and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H9 states that job burnout mediates the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention. Incongruence between supervisors and colleagues supports and employees' needs can increase vulnerability to experience job stress (Edwards, 1991; French et al., 1982; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Moreover,

chronic stress can potentially develop emotional exhaustion which later activates depersonalization to avoid unwanted demands and simultaneously reduce a sense of personal accomplishment. This cynical attitude toward clients, especially students, is detrimental to self-efficacy, professional competence and eventually generates job burnout. Teachers who experience job burnout tend to show negative organizational outcomes especially turnover intention and leaving the teaching profession. However, hypothesis H9 is not supported since the mediation effect of job burnout is not significant. In conjunction with the significant direct effect earlier revealed in the hypothesis H2, it represents the direct-only non-mediation effect (Hair et al., 2016).

Regarding Leiter and Maslach (2005)'s mediation model of job burnout, mixed results were revealed in the replication studies. Many studies found that community did not significantly contribute to explaining variance in job burnout and was removed from the model. The explanation points to the possibility that community may not be an important issue in some professions, especially nurse (e.g., Leiter & Maslach, 2009; Leiter & Shaughnessy, 2006). Recently, Mon and Weinstein (2017) investigated mediation effect of job burnout in the relationship between the six Areas of Worklife and job satisfaction in Myanmar health social worker sample. Similarly, they found a non-significant mediation effect of job burnout in the relationship between community and job satisfaction. Their explanation emphasizes the prolonged difficulty and distress experiences in Myanmar make them more resilient when confronting stressful events. Hence, it withers away the relationship between community, job burnout, and job outcomes.

Living in times of insurgency, teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand may experience life threatening events from time to time. In these stressful situations, ones can turn into depression while others can develop the ability to regulate themselves in dealing with hardships. This trait-like characteristic can help people overcome stressful events. Resilience, for example, is an individual ability to evaluate the changing environment and adapt oneself accompanied by maintaining well-being. Resilience involves a mental quality that holds an ability to bounce back from adversity and hardship and to flexibly adapt to shifting demands. This characteristic is an important resource to handle stressful experiences and protect the well-being (Shin et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013). It helps people view the challenges more optimistically, reduces stress, and prevents burnout. Accordingly, rather than avoiding adversity and hardship, teachers in the three southern provinces can adapt to and relief from stressful experiences effectively, which results in decreasing the intention to move out of this area.



Moreover, job burnout is far more than a symptom arising from a misfit between a person and the environment. It concerns a complex mechanism of self-regulation that regulate oneself to be in line with the desired goal or standard (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). Discrepancy from goals or standards can result in positive, negative, or neutral depending on how well the progression is. The discrepancy can be alleviated by adjusting the thoughts, emotions, motivation, and task performances. Success in reducing discrepancy will create relief and calm while failure will produce sadness and depression. The negative emotional experiences tend to have an impact on the avoidance system while the approach system links to the positive emotional experiences. Based on self-regulatory and regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), a

misfit in community may not directly generate job burnout, but possible through the underlying effect of the self-regulation mechanism.

5.3.3.4 The Mediation Effect of Job Burnout in the Relationship Between Values and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H10 states that job burnout mediates the negative relationship between value and job transfer intention. The hypothesis was supported since the result revealed a significant mediation effect of job burnout. Values play a major role in the decision that shapes the day-to-day work life. When employees embrace the organization's values as personal values, values congruence can generate a positive relationship with work-life or engagement. When employees perceived incongruence between organizational and personal values, it affects the work-life experience by generating stress and job burnout symptoms. The degree of job burnout can predict how well the employees do the job, how they feel about their organization, and especially subsequent intention to turnover or transfer to another school. Hence, the mediation effect of job burnout in the relationship between values congruence and organizational outcomes is expected. Furthermore, in conjunction with a non-significant direct effect in the hypothesis H3, the mediation effect of job burnout can be considered as indirect-only mediation (Hair et al., 2016) or Baron and Kenny(1986)'s concept of full mediation.

The result confirms Leiter and Maslach (2005)'s mediation model of job burnout that found the mediating role of job burnout in the relationship between values and organizational outcomes. Recent studies assert that values congruence is the predictor of job burnout and the subsequent impact on turnover intention among various occupation samples, such as nurses, nurses' assistants, teachers, hospitality workers,

and secretaries (Andela & Van der Doef, 2019; Boamah & Laschinger, 2016; Moloney et al., 2018). Interestingly, Andela and van der Doef (2019) justify that the occupationally heterogeneous sample may embed the different cultural contexts on interpreting work situations that result in a partial mediation effect of job burnout.

However, the present study found that the indirect path between values and job transfer intention through job burnout operates in opposite directions. That is, high values fit produce high job burnout which leads to lower job transfer intention. It is possible that excessive homogeneity can create high stress and job burnout, but the complex situations impact teachers who experienced job burnout to involuntarily stay (Dubbeld et al., 2019; Hom et al., 2012; Hughes, 2001; Tatar & Horenczyk, 2003). Moreover, the inconsistent patterns of job burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008) may impact teachers to feel high exhausted but not necessarily high depersonalization because the effective coping behavior. Rather than a request for a job transfer to another school, teachers can protect the work well-being by distancing themselves from service recipients. These defensive coping behaviors provide emotional relief amid high job demands (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). As a result, teachers who experience job burnout tend to show less job transfer intention.

5.3.4 The Relationship Between Work Environments, Regulatory Failure, and Job Transfer Intention

The fourth specific objective of the study is to examine the mediation effect of regulatory failure in the relationship between work environments and job transfer intention of teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. Therefore, seven hypotheses H11-H17 were established to test those relationships. The results will be discussed next.

5.3.4.1 Control and Regulatory Failure

Perceived control fit influences how people respond to the work situation, especially in how they regulate behavior toward goals or standards. This psychological state of person-environment fit can produce complex regulatory failures (Higgins, 2018). Since pursuing fits between personal and environmental attributes involves positive, negative, and either positive or negative outcomes. The presence of fit (+1) engenders success in the promotion system, whereas the absence of fit or status quo (0) entails promotion failure. In contrast, avoiding misfit involves negative outcomes. The absence of misfits or status quo (0) engenders success in the prevention system, while the presence of misfits (-1) entails prevention failure. Hence, it is expected that the degree of congruence between person-environment can generate psychological states of regulatory success and failure. The presence of fit engenders success in the promotion system, whereas the absence of fit generates failure. The presence of misfits generates failure in the prevention system, whereas the absence of misfits generates success.

Besides, Lockwood et al.'s (2002) dominant regulatory focus was utilized to capture the relative strength of regulatory failure affected by work environment fit. Subtracting the mean scores on the prevention failure subscale from the mean scores on the promotion failure subscale reveals the dominant failure. A positive score indicates promotion failure (non-gain) while a negative score implies prevention failure (loss). Moreover, prior research indicates that loss is the experience that brings greater psychological impact than gain (Idson et al., 2000) as well as loss loom larger than gain (Gal & Rucker, 2018), it expects a low score on fit can affect prevention failure (-1) than promotion failure.

Control is defined as perceived capacity to influence or participate in decision making that affects the work, to demonstrate professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do the job effectively. When employees perceive they have less opportunity to participate in decision making or inadequate authority to control over the resources they need to do the job, it produces control misfit. Since control fit involves approaching positive outcomes while control misfit involves avoiding negative outcomes, fail to pursue control fit produce pain of non-gain or promotion failure while fail to avoid control misfit produce pain of loss or prevention failure. Accordingly, hypothesis H11 expects that control is positively related to dominant regulatory failure.

Contrary to expectation, the result did not support hypothesis H11 since it revealed a non-significant relationship between control and dominant regulatory failure. Meaning that, less opportunity to participate in decision making or inadequate authority to control over the resources does not affect pain from non-gain or pain from loss. A possible explanation may be the nature of valence that previous success or failure can determine the preferences of the next events. In general, promotion focus inherently wants to move away from the status quo (non-gain, 0) to obtain the desired end-state of gain (+1). But when large gains are made, promotion focus will shift to a more conservative tactic to preserve gains and avoid falling into the status quo (Zou et al., 2014). As well as prevention focus that inherently wants to avoid undesired end-state of loss (-1) are more likely to choose the risky tactics to restore the status quo (non-loss, 0) when they are in the state of substantial loss (-1) (Scholer et al., 2010).

Shah and Higgins (1997) indicate that people are capable to switch between the two regulatory systems and disengage from a specific goal when it is likely unattainable. This notion reflects flexibility and efficiency in goal pursuit. But changing to the opposite orientation is activated under some condition, not all cases. Scholer et al. (2010) found that prevention focus people will adopt the risky option only if it can potentially restore the status quo that the conservative options do not. Zou et al. (2014) added that promotion focus people will adopt a conservative option only when the prior experience is in the large gain condition. Higgins and Cornwell (2016) suggest the “tactical switching effect” that motivates an individual to approach or avoid from status quo at a tactical level, not a change in their underlying motivational system.

5.3.4.2 Community and Regulatory Failure

In this study, community reflects supportive relationships from supervisors and colleagues. Belonging to or exclusion from a social group can activate cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses. It expects that high community fit is associated with a psychological state of gain, whereas low community fit is associated with a state of loss. Hence, hypothesis H12 proposed a positive relationship with dominant regulatory failure.

Contrary to expectation, the result was not supported since it revealed a significant but negative relationship between community and dominant regulatory focus which is opposite to the proposed direction. Since dominant regulatory failure revealed a negative value which reflects prevention failure, this means that high community fit decreases prevention failure, while low community fit increases prevention failure. The results confirm the findings from previous research that indicate misfit experience

is associated with increases in prevention motivation system. Being rejected from the work community can activate a sense of uncertainty and become more vigilance to prevent further rejection in the next event (Higgins et al., 1994). It also found that being rejected is associated with an increase in prevention motivation than ones who experienced acceptance condition (K. E. Adams & Tyler, 2020; Molden et al., 2009; Park & Baumeister, 2015).

5.3.4.3 Values and Regulatory Failure

The degree of congruence between the personal values and those of the organization can determine the person-organization fit (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). When people hold values that fit the values of their organization, they will satisfy with the job, enhance positive attitudes, promotes extra role behaviors, identify with the organization, fulfillment from work roles, and maintain the organization membership (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Incongruent between an individual and organization values can produce the experience of contextual dissonance (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). It results in a feeling of not belonging or a feeling that one does not fit. Since dominant regulatory failure is utilized in this study, hypothesis H13 proposes the positive association between values and dominant regulatory failure.

The results did not support the hypothesis H13 as it reveals a non-significant relationship between values and regulatory failure. The finding is inconsistent with previous research such as Rich, Baugh, and Batchelor (2022), Rich, Rich, and Hair (2018), Hall, Yip, and Doiron (2018), and Hofstetter and Rosenblatt (2017). The possible explanation for the inconsistent results might be a difference in values that are held in the teaching profession. Being a teacher adheres more to humanistic

commitment values (Simon & Johnson, 2015) than a secure living when compared to the other professions. When the desired end-states are perceived as unmet, they can tolerate the pain and wait before taking any action.

In addition, the teaching profession gives priority to the values and beliefs about “do good” for others and society. These values and beliefs are grounded on the duties and responsibilities which correspond to the prevention motivation system. Previous research indicates that the prevention motivation tends to reject changes than the promotion motivation (Higgins & Cornwell, 2016). It also found that the prevention focus are willing to accept the changes only when more concrete and detailed support evidence is presented (Lieberman et al., 1999). In this regard, the prevention motivation embedded in the teaching profession motivates teachers to tolerate failures on duties and responsibilities.

5.3.4.4 Regulatory Failure and Job Transfer Intention

According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), promotion focus perceived advancement (+1) as success and lack of progress (0) as failure whereas prevention focus perceived maintaining status quo (0) as success and fall behind (-1) as failure. Success on the promotion system brings pleasure in the gain, whereas success on the prevention system brings pleasure in the non-loss. In contrast, failure on the promotion system brings the pain in non-gain, whereas failure on prevention system brings the pain in the loss. Occasional regulatory failure helps people to adopt more effective strategic means to pursue a goal while chronic failures might engender negative self-evaluation that triggers withdrawal from the committed goal.

People who experienced pain from loss or prevention failure will feel at risk or in danger. They tend to be sensitive to negative outcomes and focus on avoiding further loss. The vigilance strategic means are activated which results in strengthening the grip on the obligation and responsibility goals (Klenk et al., 2011). In contrast, pain in non-gain or promotion failure causes people to reduce optimism which results in a decrease in motivation and more negative self-evaluation. It can weaken engagement and see the promotion goal are less likely to attain. Therefore, they are less likely to pursue them.

Hence, hypothesis H14 expects the negative relation between dominant regulatory failure and job transfer intention. That is, prevention failure impacts low job transfer intention, whereas promotion failure activates higher intention to transfer. Unfortunately, the hypothesis H14 was not supported since the result revealed a non-significant relationship.

A possible explanation might be the notion of three tiers of regulatory focus (Scholer & Higgins, 2008). The systemic and strategic tiers are relatively stable while the tactical tier is more flexible depending on the specific demands of the situation. It is possible that the psychological state of non-gains or promotion failure tactically adopts a more conservative option. When a teacher recognizes that the gain from continuing to stay is large enough while the barrier to a job transfer is high, they may tactically switch to a more conservative option. On the other hand, the psychological state of loss or prevention failure may tactically use riskier decisions to prevent further loss and restore the status quo. Teachers may be willing to stay in the high-risk area to maintain their job. Hence, tactical switching withers away the association between

dominant regulatory failure and job transfer intention.

The psychological mechanism of tactical switching is in line with the effect of coping behaviors when people experience a discrepancy between the expected and actual outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping action can be directly done by problem-solving and avoidance or indirectly by regulating emotional responses such as accommodation and devaluation (Edwards, 1992). As well as the theory of work adjustment (Dawis, 2005) which indicates that an individual might not leave the unfit job immediately but initiate the adjustment behaviors instead. The degree of tolerable and perseverance can affect the continuance of adjustment behavior and the tenure. When it becomes intolerable, the adjustment behavior stops and initiates avoidance behaviors. The degree of perseverance also affects how long an individual will try before giving up. These mechanisms can lessen the pain from failure experiences.

5.3.4.5 The Mediation Effect of Regulatory Failure in the Relationship Between Control and Job Transfer Intention

Experiencing misfit is similarly harmful whether the direction of discrepancy is positive or negative (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Van Vianen, 2018). The positive discrepancy emerges when the favorable attribute is absent while the negative discrepancy arises when the unlikable attribute is present. Thus, misfit has two folds: the experience of failure in achieving desired end states and the failure in avoiding undesired end states. According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), goals discrepancy impacts the regulatory reference point and subsequent behaviors. The absence of positive outcomes entails pain from the non-gain (0) or promotion failure. The presence of negative outcomes entails pain from the loss (-1) or prevention failure. On the one hand, chronic failure in promotion goal pursuit can reduce optimism and

disengage from the promotion tasks. It expects the association between promotion failure and high job transfer intention because of the effects of disengagement and seeking alternatives that fulfill hopes and aspirations. On the other hand, failure in prevention goal pursuit will increase pessimism and emphasize more safety and responsibility task. It expects the association between prevention failure and low job transfer intention because it increases the sense of necessity to maintain obligations and responsibilities.

Hypothesis H15 proposes dominant regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention. Unfortunately, the result did not support the proposed hypothesis. In conjunction with the non-significant direct effect revealed in the hypothesis H1, it can be determined as the no effect non-mediation type (Hair et al., 2016). It contrasts with previous studies by Hofstetter and Rosenblatt (2017), Baltes et al. (2014), and Koopmann et al. (2016) that found regulatory focus mediates the relationship between work control and behavioral outcomes.

The possible explanation derives from the study conducted by Matthews, Beeler, Zablah, and Hair (2018) who found that control is not created equal. Based on the job demands-resources model, they argue that control can act as either job demands or job resources depending on the nature of the job task. Control is more likely to be a beneficial resource when it provides an opportunity for growth and development. In contrast, it becomes a detrimental demand when the task brings about adverse consequences for others. Hence, granting high job control might not be a success, as well as failure is not by obtaining low job control.

In addition, the status quo is perceived as a failure in promotion focus but a success in the prevention focus condition. Allocation of control and autonomy to an employee can entail either promotion failure or prevention success depending on the situational regulatory cues. When the status quo generates a pain of non-gain or promotion failure, it triggers avoidance behaviors and seeking alternatives that better serve the aspiration goals. On the contrary, when the status quo engenders pleasure of non-loss or prevention success, it consequently produces approach behavior and maintaining the tenure. Accordingly, when the status quo emerges, the dominant regulatory failure possibly does not mediate the relationship between control and job transfer intention.

5.3.4.6 The Mediation Effect of Regulatory Failure in the Relationship Between Community and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H16 expected dominant regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention. Unfortunately, the results revealed a nonsignificant association. However, as hypothesis H2 revealed the significant direct effect between community and job transfer intention, the mediation effect was considered as direct-only, non-mediation (Hair et al., 2016). The results contrast to the studies conducted by Shang et al. (2019), Kark, van Dijk, and Vashdi (2018), and Kark, Katz-Navon, and Delegach who found the mediation effect of regulatory focus in the relationship between supervisor and work outcomes.

This finding demonstrates the direct effect of supervisors and colleagues on job transfer intention while rejecting the indirect effect through the dominant regulatory failure. The possible explanation may be the combined effects of chronic and situational regulatory focus (Bryant & Dunford, 2008; Higgins & Spiegel, 2004). Chronic regulatory focus is influenced by former goal achievement experiences, while

the situational regulatory focus is influenced by problem framing. Both are uncorrelated and can occur in convergent or divergent combinations. A divergent combination occurs when a person possesses chronic promotion focus and situational prevention focus, and vice versa. For example, the person who inherently focuses on the gain/non-gain in a situation that is framed in terms of the non-loss/loss reflects a divergent combination. A divergent combination can result in weakened motivational strength and more ambiguous goals (Förster et al., 1998; Idson et al., 2000). Thus, it likely obscures the mediation effect.

In addition, it is possible that the promotion focus person may embrace a prevention behavior when they perceived the gain is substantial large (Zou et al., 2014). Hence, when a teacher perceives that continuing to stay generates large gains when compared to the barrier to a job transfer, they may tactically adopt a more conservative option and less intention to transfer. On the other hand, when the prevention focus person is in a state of massive loss, they may tactically adopt riskier decisions to prevent further loss and restore the status quo (Scholer et al., 2010). Thus, prevention focus teachers may be willing to stay in the high-risk area if they perceive leaving the teaching profession can bring adverse impacts during a time that fewer options are available. In other words, the indirect effect of self-regulation is suppressed at the tactical level.

5.3.4.7 The Mediation Effect of Regulatory Failure in the Relationship Between Values and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H17 proposed dominant regulatory failure mediates the negative relationship between values and job transfer intention. Promotion failure is the situation when the desired end-state is absent while prevention failure occurs when the undesired end-state is present. Unable to adapt personal values to those of the

organization generates pain from the absence of desired end-state (non-gain) and constitutes promotion failure. Unable to avoid misfit between the personal values and those of the organization generates pain from the presence of desired end-state (loss) and constitutes prevention failure. The experiences that generate pain are highly associated with avoidance behaviors.

The hypothesis did not support since the result revealed a non-significant mediation effect of dominant regulatory failure in the relationship between values and job transfer intention. In conjunction with a non-significant direct effect between values and job transfer intention (H3), it represents the no-effect non-mediation type (Hair et al., 2016). That is, dominant regulatory failure does not convey the effect of values fit toward job transfer intention.

The possible explanation may derive from the notion that people often belong to multiple social groups to fulfill diverse individual needs (Rokeach, 1973). Social group values are cultivated and influence work attitudes and behaviors. Occupational groups play an important role in nurturing the self-concept, especially in a teaching profession. When the work situation is ambiguous and brings about values conflict, a teacher tends to rely on self-concept. A strong self-concept serves as a buffer that protects positive attitudes toward the job. Since the teaching profession is cultivated to priority on the values and beliefs about humanistic commitment, it can suppress job transfer intention and navigate to the work adjustment behavior (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

5.3.5 The Mediation Factors in the Relationship Between Work Environment and Job Transfer Intention

The fifth objective of the study is to examine the serial mediation effect of dominant regulatory failure and job burnout in relationship between work environment and job transfer intention of teachers in the three southern provinces of Thailand. Therefore, four hypotheses were established (H18-H21). Each relationship is discussed next.

5.3.5.1 Regulatory Failure and Job Burnout

Klenk, Strauman, and Higgins (2011) state the association between regulatory failure and mental health especially, depression and anxiety. They identify that occasional failure helps people to adjust to a more effective means of pursuing goals, while chronic failures increase vulnerability to anxiety and depression symptoms. Chronic promotion failure causes people to reduce optimism and see a promotion goal as less likely to be attained. As a result, hypo-eagerness behaviors are likely initiated to ensure no further failure. Chronic prevention failure causes people to interpret situations as dangerous and must be avoided. It produces “hyper-vigilance” that increases safety-related and responsibility-related behaviors in any situation. If these failures are not mitigated appropriately, it can become a self-perpetuating cycle of low motivation and negative self-evaluation.

Regulatory failure is associated with the symptoms of job burnout, especially prevention failure. According to Klenk, Strauman, and Higgins (2011), people who experienced pain from loss (prevention failure) tend to be sensitive to a negative outcome and focus on avoiding further loss. This behavior does not increase opportunities in achieving prevention goals. Instead, it produces distractions by stimulating an individual to constantly check potential threats. It subsequently brings

about symptoms of worry, feeling keyed up, muscle tension, fatigue, irritability, and anxiety. It is prone to be at risk of job burnout. Promotion failure, on the other hand, is less likely to experience job burnout since it involves the pursuit of the maximum goals. But repeated promotion failures create the belief that a positive outcome is either zero or insignificant. It increases the risks of depression symptoms. However, the pain from promotion failure is less intense than prevention failure (Idson et al., 2000).

Hypothesis H18 proposes the negative relationship between dominant regulatory failure and job burnout. As mentioned above, regulatory failure is operationalized as dominant regulatory failure. The positive score indicates promotion failure, while the negative score reflects prevention failure. As expected, the result revealed a significant and negative association between dominant regulatory failure and job burnout. That is, people who experience high prevention failure tend to have a low risk of job burnout, while lower prevention failure tends to have a higher risk.

The finding is consistent with Dai et al. (2021), Zivnuska et al. (2017), Klenk et al. (2011) (2011), and Idson et al. (2000) (2000) on the association between prevention focus and job burnout. In addition, this study extends to the concept of regulatory failure and demonstrates how the pain from loss produces more harm to work well-being than the pain of non-gain. Loss events motivate individuals to constantly check for potential threats which produce fatigue, stress, worn-out and drained, and emotional exhaustion. In addition, people who are in a state of high vigilance tend to interpret situations more negatively to avoid adverse events. It entails a cynicism view of one's work, reduces professional efficacy, and job burnout symptoms.

5.3.5.2 The Mediation Factors in the Relationship Between Control and Job Transfer Intention

This study proposes two mediators in the mediation model. Generally, the mediation can be distinguished into simple mediation, parallel mediation, and serial mediation (Demming et al., 2017). Serial mediation composes one long-way mediation and two shortcut mediation. If the two mediators are causally related to each other and form the long-way chain, serial mediation exists. If only one shortcut mediation is statistically significant while the long-way mediation is not, it indicates the simple mediation. And if both shortcut mediations are found significant while the long-way mediation is not, the parallel mediation emerges.

Serial mediation provides a more comprehensive view of the causal chains compared to another multiple mediation model (A. F. Hayes, 2013). It uncovers the indirect causal chains of all mediators which might be constrained in the parallel multiple mediations (Wongpakaran et al., 2016). The same as simple mediation, the two-step procedure is used in the serial mediation model analysis (Cepeda et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2016; Rucker et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2010).

Hypothesis H19 proposes that dominant regulatory failure and job burnout serially mediate the negative relationship between control and job transfer intention. Unfortunately, the result does not support the expected relationship. In addition, concerning the non-significant direct effect in the hypothesis H1, it indicates the no-effect non-mediation type. The possible explanation may be the distinct attributes of control that affect the job outcomes and the expected serial mediation effect. On the one hand, control serves as a job resource that employees use in achieving job goals. For example, autonomy to design instruction and evaluation methods for the

responsible class. It reduces job stress and provides opportunities for professional growth. On the other hand, control can increase job demands that require physical and psychological effort to comply with the standards and goals of the school. For example, given autonomy to punish the misconduct of students in the classroom can increase teacher's responsibilities and obligations toward school disciplines. It is a potential cause of physical and mental issues.

In line with the study conducted by Matthews, Beeler, Zablah, and Hair (2018) who revealed that the autonomy granted to the employees has diverse effects on job burnout. It can create either desirable or undesirable effects on employee well-being and job outcomes, depending on the nature of the job. Hence, the nature of control at work can obscure the influences on work well-being and job outcomes of the teachers. In addition, teachers recognized that misfits in control cannot be improved by simply changing school. They initiate coping behaviors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to mitigate the effect of regulatory failure by adjusting their expectation to align with the situation or minimize the importance of the goal.

Another possible explanation may involve flexibility when confronting constraints or perceiving the goal is unattainable. People can initiate tactical switching (Higgins & Cornwell, 2016) that shifts the orientation to the opposite to avoid the undesired situations. This psychological mechanism is activated in response to the strategic means of the goal pursuit, not a change in the underlying motivation system. It aims to stay away from further regulatory failure. The result is partly in line with Petrou, van den Heuvel, and Schaufeli (Petrou et al., 2017) that found non-significant relation between regulatory focus and job burnout in manager and non-manager groups. They

explain that regulatory goal failure does not necessarily affect employees' well-being but motivates individuals to create effective means of goal pursuit and mitigate the negative outcome experiences.

5.3.5.3 The Mediation Factors in the Relationship Between Community and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H20 proposes that dominant regulatory failure and job burnout serially mediate the negative relationship between community and job transfer intention. As expected, the results show the serial mediating role of dominant regulatory failure and job burnout. In addition, since the significant direct effect of hypothesis H2 revealed the same direction, it indicates complementary serial mediation (Hair et al., 2016; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Importantly, regulatory failure has an operational definition as dominant regulatory failure (Lockwood et al., 2002). A positive score indicates promotion failure (non-gain), while negative scores represent prevention failure (loss). Meaning that high community fit generates a low prevention failure which increases a high risk of job burnout and results in a low level of job transfer intention. In contrast, low community fit engenders high concern for prevention failure that generate a low risk of job burnout which in turn activate a high level of job transfer intention.

The results unveil a complex mechanism of regulatory failure and job burnout in the relationship between community and job transfer intention. First, it asserts that situational cues can induce an individual to shift the motivation state to the opposite independent from the underlying needs. The explanation derives from Higgins and Cornwell's (2016) tactical switching that a person can shift to the opposite orientation to avoid undesired situations while fulfilling the underlying needs. This psychological mechanism emerges in response to the strategic means of the goal pursuit, not a change

in the regulatory motivational system. It aims to stay away from further regulatory failure.

Second, different levels of prevention failures can affect job burnout in a different manner. On the one hand, a high level of prevention failure engenders the psychological state of loss. Chronic prevention failures generate the feeling of being at risk and try to avoid further loss. It stimulates one to switch to the opposite regulatory system to restore the status quo and well-being. Attempt to avoid loss and restore the status quo are associated with the depersonalization component. It motivates the coping actions to avoid unwanted demands, reduce perceived threats, and provide emotional relief (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Therefore, high prevention failure is associated with lower job burnout.

On the other hand, a low level of prevention failure engenders the psychological state of non-loss and impacts a high level of job burnout. The propensity might be a result of the inhibitory mechanism (Higgins, 1998) that emerges when one system is blocked, interrupted, or unavailable. The state of non-gain or promotion failure is activated to compensate for the availability and accessibility of the prevention system. The state of promotion failure tends to decrease optimism and develop a belief that the positive outcome is so small to be insignificant (Klenk et al., 2011; Strauman & Eddington, 2017). The feeling of inability to make progress produces negative self-evaluation and contributes to depressed emotion. Hence, it is associated with high job burnout.

Third, it unveils the inconsistent patterns of job burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Teachers may feel highly exhausted during a period of high workload but not necessarily highly cynicism. Effective coping behaviors can generate emotional relief and less intention for a job transfer. Coping behaviors involve reactive and protective actions intended to avoid unwanted demands or reduce perceived threats (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In addition, complexities of job transfer decisions such as vacant positions, unsaleable skills, student loans, geographic immobility, and waiting to retire can impact teachers to accept the consequences of job burnout and remain in the school. It engenders “entrapment (Dworkin, 1987)”, “involuntarily staying in the position (Hughes, 2001)” and “reluctant to stay (Hom et al., 2012)”.

5.3.5.4 The Mediation Factors in the Relationship Between Values and Job Transfer Intention

Hypothesis H21 proposes that dominant regulatory failure and job burnout serially mediate the negative relationship between values and job transfer intention. Unfortunately, the result was not supported since it revealed a non-significant serial mediation effect. In addition, as the direct effect hypothesis H3 is non-significant, it represents the no-effect non-mediation (Hair et al., 2016; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

The possible explanation may be the psychological mechanisms of the dominant values depend upon socially or personally desirable domains (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The socially desirable values pertain to obligations and responsibilities toward others. Failure to conform to the dominant social value results in social sanctions (e.g., shame and punishment). The personally desirable values involve pursuing growth and advancement of themselves. Inconsistency with these values brings self-sanction (e.g., guilt and self-depreciation). Obviously, the teaching profession is valued the duties

and responsibilities that give priority to promoting students learning growth and social prosperity. It reflects the ought-self of the prevention focus. The “oughtness” exert its role on teachers to conform to the dominant socially desirable values. The potential social sanctions impact teachers to suppress their intention for a job transfer.

Furthermore, Liberman, Idson, Camacho, and Higgins (1999) indicate that the messages that emphasize promotion or prevention merit can influence teachers to stay or leave. Teachers are reluctant to leave if the message describes a new alternative prevention-related drawbacks such as job transfer produces a loss of educational opportunities to the students who live in the low-income and high-risk areas. Contrary, staying will be chosen when it demonstrates the old alternative promotion-related advantages such as staying in the position can increase an opportunity to gain career advancement.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The finding of this study has important implications for the policymakers, practitioners, and researchers in workforce management and work well-being. Specifically on the well-being that impacts the government’s personnel retention and performance. The following subsections will discuss the practical, theoretical, and methodological implications of the findings.

5.4.1 Managerial Implications

From the literature review, this study expected that control, community, and values are the essential organizational environment that affects job transfer intention. Rather than control, the results point to the effect of community and values on job transfer

intention. A low fit in control neither direct nor indirect affects job transfer intention. The issue stems from the support from supervisors and colleagues, and values conflict. In other words, it highlights the effect of the social environment (i.e., supervisors, colleagues, and values) than job attributes (i.e., control).

Government should emphasize building good interpersonal relationships in the school. The findings indicate that teachers who fit well with colleagues and supervisors are less intention to transfer to another school. They tend to pay more attention to prevent undesired toxic work relationships that may happen in the future. The quality of interpersonal relationships will increase group cohesion and reduce job transfer intention. However, the reactive and protective actions to prevent potential loss can increase job stress which is associated with a higher risk of job burnout. It should provide workplace support programs to mitigate the effects of job stress, such as leisure time and mentoring.

In addition, the school management should pay attention to the congruence between teachers' values and the values held by the school. It indirectly impacts job transfer intention through job burnout. Meaning that evaluating the fits between their values and those of the school can impact work well-being by engagement or job burnout. Values congruence increases engagement with the job, while values incongruence will transform into job stress. Chronic values incongruence brings about emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment and eventually leads to job burnout. The degree of job burnout can determine how well teachers do their job, how they feel about their school, and their intention to transfer to another school.

School management should recognize the importance of workplace well-being. This study found that depersonalization or disengagement is the salient component that generates job transfer intention. Teachers who are vulnerable to job burnout might not leave their school by the effects of entrapment, reluctance to stay, and involuntarily stay. They stay in the position but lower engagement with their obligations and responsibilities. They may ignore student's demands, do things by the book, adhere to the rules and regulations rather than adjusting to the student's needs, and fail to provide appropriate instructions. It finally affects the learning achievement. In the three southern provinces where student learning achievement is ranked below the national average, teachers' burnout can produce more impact than in other areas.

5.4.2 Theoretical Implication

This study provides empirical evidence for the theoretical relationship hypothesized in the research framework. Specifically, it highlights the mediation effect of regulatory failure and job burnout in the relationship between community and values on job transfer intention. Firstly, this finding contributes to the person-environment fit theory by confirming the notion that the congruence between individual and social environment is associated with emotional stress and strain and subsequent behavior outcomes (Edwards, 1991; French et al., 1982; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Particularly, the findings assert that stress occurs when fit concerns adapting to the social environment (i.e., supervisors, colleagues, and values) than job attributes (i.e., control). Consistent with fit literature that found job attributes demonstrate a weaker effect in the culture that value conformity than autonomy, high power distance culture, and strength of social hierarchy (Mon & Weinstein, 2017).

Secondly, this study contributes to supporting the suggestion by Edwards (2008) to take the content of person and environment dimensions into account. Furthermore, the content of person-environment dimensions in the present study adapts from Maslach and Leiter's (1997) organizational contexts of job burnout which draw on the research on job stress and theoretically based on job-person fit. With this framework, it provides a more specific content of fit dimensions. Indicating the content dimension such as job control, support from supervisors and colleagues, and school values congruence can provide more understanding of the person-environment fit relationship.

Thirdly, it highlights the effects of person-environment fit from the regulatory focus theory perspective. Particularly, the proposition that misfits because of deficiency or excess are similarly harmful and impact outcomes equally negatively. The finding asserts the distinct psychological state between promotion failure and prevention failure. The promotion failure constitutes the pain of non-gain is less intense when compared to prevention failure reflecting the pain of loss. Accordingly, it supported the regulatory focus theory which states the negative discrepancy is more intense than the positive discrepancy. That is, outcome experiences that entail failure of non-gain produce less suffering than outcome experiences that entail failure of loss (Idson et al., 2000).

Lastly, it supports the notion that the discrepancy of regulatory goal (i.e., regulatory failure) has a different effect on the emotional experience. The experiences of positive or negative discrepancy derive from comparing experience with the ideal or ought referent point. It generates the evaluative valence of regulatory failure that determines emotional responses. Chronic prevention failure can increase pessimism, intensify

reactions to potential threats and produce vigilant behaviors. Chronic promotion failure can reduce optimism and develop the belief that a positive outcome is less likely possible. It increases the likelihood of job burnout in the people who deal with the state of promotion failure. This psychological mechanism is consistent with the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1997) which indicates the positive or negative outcome discrepancy is associated with emotional responses. Likewise, the cybernetic theory (Edwards, 1992) which indicates feedback loops derived from comparing sensed environment with the reference value and result in subsequent mental health and behavior.

5.4.3 Methodological Implication

Besides managerial and theoretical, this study contributes methodological implications. Firstly, this study contributes to the use of PLS-SEM. Despite PLS-SEM being superior to Covariance-Based SEM in the ability to handle complex models and limited data, it has often been criticized and caused controversies (Ringle et al., 2018). Especially, not many studies on human resource management have used Partial Least Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) as a method of analysis. Therefore, this study contributes to the use of PLS-SEM in human resource management research to some extent.

In additionally, the measurement scale of the job burnout and regulatory failure variables were adapted from previous studies as discussed in the methodology section. Replicating the measurement of job burnout and regulatory failure in the other context can confirm the reliability and validity. Essentially, results from the measurement assessment indicate that the composite reliability, convergent validity, and

discriminant validity were satisfactory and above the required threshold. Accordingly, this study provides a contribution to the methodology by establishing the validity and reliability of the adapted measurement in Thailand context.

5.5 Limitation and Suggestion for Future Research

Despite the findings and implications highlighted, it has several limitations of the study to be identified. Firstly, this study focused on teachers in the public primary school in the southern provinces of Thailand. It is possible to find a slight difference when teachers from the other types of schools and the other parts of the country are included. Therefore, the finding of this study should be cautious when generalizing to the broader population or situations. Researchers can obtain a more in-depth result if expanding to the teachers in the secondary level, informal education, special education, vocational education, and private school. Researchers should consider examining other professions and organizations too.

This study adopted quantitative research and used a single method of data collection. The self-reported questionnaire was the only instrument used in gathering the data. The responses may not consistently and accurately measure the investigated variables. Moreover, this study adopted the cross-sectional research design that captures the opinions of targeted respondents at a particular time. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the nature of the cross-sectional survey may restrict in proving a causal relationship between variables and might not represent the long-term behavior. It would add more understanding if the future research combines both quantitative and qualitative methods and utilize a longitudinal study to gain more in-depth investigation and validate the finding from the cross-sectional study.

Finally, this study applied the regulatory referent point definition that compares the desired end-state to the current goal progress. Regulatory failure was utilized to reflect the psychological states of loss and non-gain as indicated in the previous chapters. Furthermore, the dominant regulatory failure method (Lockwood et al., 2002) was used to examine the relative strength of promotion or prevention failure. Subtracting the prevention failure scores from the promotion failure scores reflects the dominant regulatory failure that stimulates emotional and behavioral responses. However, it will obtain more information if future research utilizes a multi-dimensional regulatory referent point measure. Including regulatory success and failure into the model can provide more understanding of the nature of regulatory referent and its influences.

5.6 Conclusion

The main purpose of this research is to examine the structural equation model of job transfer intention. It focused on the teachers who work in public primary schools in the three southern provinces of Thailand. The results provide empirical evidence that community and job burnout were the significant predictors of job transfer intention. Job burnout was predicted by regulatory failure and values. And regulatory failure was predicted by community. It also examines the mediation effect of job burnout and regulatory failure in the relationship between work environment and job transfer intention. Job burnout was attested to be the indirect-only mediation between values and job transfer intention. And regulatory failure and job burnout were significant serial complementary mediation between community and job transfer intention.

Moreover, this study provides managerial, theoretical, and methodological contributions in terms of the influence of person-environment fit and regulatory focus theories. Based on the limitations of the study, several directions for future research are outlined. Conclusively, this study has added valuable implications, practically, theoretically, and methodologically in the job transfer intention literature.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Survey Instrument

Cover letter

Dear Participant,

The purpose of the attached survey is to understand the work environments and job transfer intention of teachers in public primary school. This questionnaire is designed to assess your perception of work environment, and the extent to which it affects your attitude and behavior at work.

There is no right or wrong answer in this survey. All your answers will reflect your opinion. Individual responses to this survey will be kept CONFIDENTIAL and will NOT be disclosed. Your institution will NOT have access to the information you have provided herein. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. Only grouped data will be reported in the results.

Please carefully read the instruction at the beginning of each section and answer all the statements as accurately as possible. Your time and cooperation will be greatly appreciated. Please take a few minutes to fill out this survey questionnaire.

Your sincerely,

Patipat Kittichokwattana

Tel: 016-406-1051, email: patipat@gsgsg.uum.edu.my

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INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements and indicate the extent of your agreement with the statements on a 7-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree). Please mark ✓ or ✗ your answer.

Control

1.	I feel able to voice opinions and influence changes in my area of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I am involved in decisions that affect me in my own area of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I am involved in decisions that affect members of the public in my own area of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Community

4.	In educational matters, I can always get good help from my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	The relations among the colleagues at this school are characterized by friendliness and a concern for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Teachers at this school help and support each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	In educational matters, I can always get help and advice from the school leadership.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	My relationship with the school leadership is characterized by respect and trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	The school leadership is supportive and helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Values

10.	My educational values are in accordance with the values which are emphasized at this school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	My colleagues and I have the same opinion about what is important in education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I feel that this school shares my view of what constitutes good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Regulatory failure

13.	Right now, I am concerned about missing out on positive outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I frequently worry that my future will be less successful than I hope.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I frequently imagine how I might fall short of my hopes and aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	When good things fail to materialize, it affects me strongly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I see myself as someone who has trouble reaching my "ideal self" (fulfilling my hopes, wishes, and aspirations).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Right now, I am focused on avoiding negative outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I worry about making mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I often imagine myself experiencing bad things. that I fear might happen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Job burnout

23.	I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29.	I find my work to be a positive challenge.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I feel more and more engaged in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	When I work, I usually feel energized.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Job transfer intention

38.	I think a lot about moving out of my current school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	I am actively searching for an alternative to my current school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	As soon as it is possible, I will move out of my current school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographic Information

INSTRUCTIONS: Please **Tick (√)** in the appropriate box that is suitable to you.

41. Gender:

☐ Male

☐ Female

42. Marital status:

☐ Married

☐ Not married

☐ Divorced

43. Age:

☐ Less than 30 year

☐ 30 - 40 year

☐ 41 to 50 year

☐ More than 50 year

44. Religious:

☐ Buddhist

☐ Muslim

☐ Christian

☐ others (Please specify):

45. Your present position in this school:

☐ Contract Teacher

☐ Assistant Teacher

☐ Practitioner Level teacher

☐ Professional Level Teachers

☐ Senior Professional Level Teachers

☐ Expert Level Teachers

☐ Advisory Level Teachers

46. Your highest educational level attained:

☐ Bachelor or equivalent

☐ Master or equivalent

☐ PhD or equivalent

☐ If others (Please specify):

47. How long have you been working for this school (approximately):

48. Total teaching experiences including current experience (approximately):

49. Specify your school's name:

50. Specify the Primary Education Service Area Office (PESAO):

☐ PESAO 1

☐ PESAO 2

☐ PESAO 3

51. Province:

☐ Pattani 1

☐ Narathiwat 2

☐ Yala 3

Thank you for your time and efforts

แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย
เรื่อง ความตั้งใจที่จะย้ายของครูในสามจังหวัดชายแดนภาคใต้

คำชี้แจง

วัตถุประสงค์ของแบบสอบถามนี้คือเพื่อทำความเข้าใจสภาพแวดล้อมในงานและความตั้งใจที่จะย้ายของครูผู้สอนใน 3 จังหวัดชายแดนภาคใต้ เพื่อศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความสอดคล้องระหว่างบุคคลกับสภาพแวดล้อมในงานกับความตั้งใจที่จะย้าย และอิทธิพลของการมุ่งกำกับตนเองและความเหนื่อยหน่ายในงาน

แบบสอบถามนี้มี 5 ตอน จำนวนคำถามรวมทั้งหมด 51 ข้อ

ตอนที่ 1 สภาพแวดล้อมในงาน จำนวน 12 ข้อ

ตอนที่ 2 การมุ่งกำกับตนเอง จำนวน 10 ข้อ

ตอนที่ 3 ความเหนื่อยหน่ายในงาน จำนวน 15 ข้อ

ตอนที่ 4 ความตั้งใจที่จะย้าย จำนวน 3 ข้อ

ตอนที่ 5 ข้อมูลด้านประชากรศาสตร์ จำนวน 11 ข้อ

แบบสำรวจนี้ไม่มีคำตอบผิดหรือถูก คำตอบทุกข้อเป็นสิ่งสะท้อนถึงความเห็นของท่าน คำตอบแต่ละข้อจะถูกเก็บรักษาเป็นความลับ และจะไม่ถูกเปิดเผยหน่วยงานของท่านจะไม่สามารถเข้าถึงข้อมูลที่ท่านตอบในแบบสอบถามนี้ การอ้างอิงไม่ว่าจะเป็นโดยลายลักษณ์อักษรหรือโดยวาจาจะไม่เชื่อมโยงไปถึงตัวท่าน ผลสำรวจของงานวิจัยนี้จะถูกนำเสนอในรูปของข้อมูลที่จัดกลุ่มเท่านั้น

โปรดอ่านคำแนะนำในช่วงต้นของแต่ละตอนให้ละเอียดและตอบคำถามทุกข้อให้ถูกต้องที่สุดเท่าที่จะเป็นไปได้

ขอขอบคุณที่สละเวลาและให้ความร่วมมือ

นายปฏิพัฒน์ กิตติโชควัฒนา
นักศึกษาปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิตทางรัฐประศาสนศาสตร์
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คำแนะนำ: โปรดอ่านคำถามต่อไปนี้อย่างระมัดระวังระดับความเห็นของท่าน โดยทำเครื่องหมาย **X** หรือ **O** ตามตัวเลขที่ตรงกับระดับความเห็นของท่านใน 7 ระดับ ดังนี้

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
ไม่เห็นด้วยที่สุด ไม่เห็นด้วย ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย เฉยๆ ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย เห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยที่สุด

ตอนที่ 1 สภาพแวดล้อมในงาน

การควบคุม

1 ฉันสามารถแสดงความคิดเห็นและสามารถเปลี่ยนแปลงสิ่งต่าง ๆ ที่ทำในงานของฉันได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 ฉันมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อฉันในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 ฉันมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อบุคคลอื่นในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

การร่วมงาน

4 ฉันได้รับความช่วยเหลือที่ดีจากเพื่อนร่วมงานอยู่เสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 ความสัมพันธ์กับเพื่อนร่วมงานเป็นไปฉันที่มีมิตรและห่วงใยซึ่งกันและกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 สมาชิกในที่ทำงานช่วยเหลือและสนับสนุนซึ่งกันและกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 ฉันได้รับความช่วยเหลือและคำแนะนำจากผู้บริหารอยู่เสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 ความสัมพันธ์กับผู้บริหารเป็นไปอย่างให้เกียรติและไว้วางใจกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 ผู้บริหารคอยสนับสนุนและช่วยเหลือเกื้อกูล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ค่านิยม

10 ค่านิยมทางการศึกษาของฉันสอดคล้องกับโรงเรียนนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11 ฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานเห็นตรงกันเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่สำคัญในทางการศึกษา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12 โรงเรียนนี้มีมุมมองที่ตรงกับฉันเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนที่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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ตอนที่ 2 ความบกพร่องในการกำกับตน

1 ฉันเป็นกังวลว่าจะละเลยบางสิ่งบางอย่างที่ทำให้ไม่ได้รับผลปร 3. ะโยชน์ที่ต้องการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ฉันมักกังวลว่าอนาคตของฉันจะประสบความสำเร็จน้อยกว่าที่ 4. หวังไว้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ฉันมักจะเห็นภาพว่าตัวเองไม่สามารถบรรลุความหวังและควา 5. มไฝ่ฝัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 เมื่อสิ่งดี ๆ ที่ทำไปไม่เห็นผล ฉันจะเศร้าเสียใจเป็นอย่างมาก 6.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ฉันเห็นตัวเองเป็นคนหนึ่งที่ไม่อาจไปถึง “ตัวตนตามอุดมคติ” 7. (ตัวตนที่มุ่งหวัง ปรารถนา และไฝ่ฝันที่จะเป็น)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ฉันมักจะคิดหาวิธีที่จะสามารถป้องกันความล้มเหลวในชีวิต 8.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ฉันกังวลว่าจะบกพร่องในหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบ 9.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 ฉันให้ความสำคัญกับการหลีกเลี่ยงผลในด้านลบที่อาจจะเกิดขึ้น 0. น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 ฉันกังวลว่าฉันจะสร้างความผิดพลาดให้เกิดขึ้น 1.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 ฉันมักจะเห็นภาพตัวเองกำลังประสบกับปัญหาที่เคยคาดไว้ว่า 2. มันจะเกิดขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 3 ความเหนื่อยหน่ายในงาน

23 ฉันมักจะพบแง่มุมใหม่ๆ และน่าสนใจในงานที่ทำอยู่เสมอ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24 มีบางวันที่ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยล้าไปจากบ้านก่อนจะถึงที่ทำงาน .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25 ฉันพูดถึงงานในทางลบบ่อยขึ้นเรื่อย ๆ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26 หลังเลิกงาน ฉันต้องใช้เวลามากขึ้นในการที่จะทำให้ตัวเองรู้สึกผ่อนคลาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27 ฉันสามารถทนต่อความแรงกดดันในที่ทำงานได้ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28	ฉันใช้ความคิดในการทำงานน้อยลงและทำงานเหมือนตัวเองเ . ป็นเครื่องจักร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	ฉันคิดว่างานที่ทำเป็นงานที่มีความท้าทาย .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	ในระหว่างเวลาทำงาน ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยหน่ายไม่ยากทำงาน .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	ในอนาคต ฉันอาจจะถอนตัวเองออกจากงานนี้ได้ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	หลังเลิกงาน . ฉันมีพลังเหลือเฟือพอที่จะทำกิจกรรมเพื่อการพักผ่อนหย่อน ใจต่าง ๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	บางครั้งฉันรู้สึกเบื่อและเหนื่อยหน่ายจากภาระงานที่ต้องทำ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	หลังเลิกงาน ฉันมักจะรู้สึกเหนื่อยล้าและหมดเรี่ยวแรง .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	ฉันสามารถจัดการปริมาณงานให้เสร็จทันเวลาที่กำหนด .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	ฉันรู้สึกยุ่งอยู่กับงานที่ทำนี้มากขึ้นเรื่อย ๆ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	ฉันรู้สึกกระปรี้กระเปร่ามีพลังในการทำงาน .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 4 ความตั้งใจจะย้าย

38	ฉันคิดมากเกี่ยวกับการย้ายออกจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ในปัจ . จุบัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	ฉันกำลังค้นหาหนทางที่จะย้ายไปจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	ทันทีที่เป็นไปได้ ฉันจะย้ายออกไปจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 5 ข้อมูลด้านประชากรศาสตร์

โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ หรือ ✗ ในช่องคำตอบ ☐ ที่ตรงกับตัวท่าน

41. เพศ

☐ ชาย

☐ หญิง

42. สถานภาพสมรส

- ☐ สมรส ☐ โสด ☐ หย่าร้าง
43. อายุ
☐ น้อยกว่า 30 ปี ☐ 31-40 ปี ☐ 41-50 ปี
☐ 51 ปีขึ้นไป
44. นับถือศาสนา
☐ พุทธ ☐ อิสลาม ☐ คริสต์
☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)
45. ตำแหน่งปัจจุบัน
☐ ครูอัตราจ้าง ☐ ครูผู้ช่วย ☐ ครูปฏิบัติการ (ค.ศ.1)
☐ ครูชำนาญการ (ค.ศ.2) ☐ ครูชำนาญการพิเศษ (ค.ศ.3) ☐ ครูเชี่ยวชาญ (ค.ศ.4)
☐ ครูเชี่ยวชาญพิเศษ (ค.ศ.5)
46. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด
☐ ปริญญาตรีหรือเทียบเท่า ☐ ปริญญาโทหรือเทียบเท่า ☐ ปริญญาเอกหรือเทียบเท่า
☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)
47. ระยะเวลาที่ปฏิบัติงานในโรงเรียนแห่งนี้ (โดยประมาณ).....ปี
48. ประสบการณ์การสอนทั้งหมด รวมที่สอนอยู่ปัจจุบัน (โดยประมาณ).....ปี
49. ชื่อโรงเรียนที่สอนในปัจจุบัน (โปรดระบุ).....
50. สังกัดเขตพื้นที่การศึกษา
☐ เขต 1 ☐ เขต 2 ☐ เขต 3
51. จังหวัด
☐ ปัตตานี ☐ นราธิวาส ☐ ยะลา

.....
ขอขอบคุณอย่างสูง

Appendix 2 Instrument Validation

Invitation to become an expert for instrument validation

Dear Expert,

I am a Ph.D. student at School of Government, College of Law, Government, and International Studies, Universiti Utara Malaysia under the supervision of Associate Professor Dr. Azhar Harun and Dr. Zawiyah Mohd Zain. I am Conducting a thesis entitled Job Transfer Intention of Teachers in Southern Provinces of Thailand.

Currently, I am doing a pretest in the process of validating questionnaire instrument. As part of the validation process, experts in the field of management, organizational behavior, and human resource management are required. You are being invited because you have been identified as one of the experts that can help the process of validation.

We would appreciate your kind assistance in making the study success.

Yours sincerely

Patipat Kittichokwattana
Ph.D. student



School of Government,
College of Law, Government, and International Studies,
Universiti Utara Malaysia.
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Content Validity Assessment Form

Title: Job Transfer Intention of Teachers in Southern Provinces of Thailand

Please check (✓ or X) in the appropriate box by the following scale:

1 = not relevant; 2 = somewhat relevant; 3 = quite relevant; 4 = highly relevant

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	Comments
Work Control (perceive capacity to influence or participate in decisions making that affect the work)						
1.	In educational matters, I feel able to voice opinions and influence changes in my area of work.					
2.	I am involved in decisions that affect me in my own area of work.					
3.	I am involved in decisions that affect members of the public in my own area of work.					
Work Community (perceived of cooperative, communication, connectedness, trust, and social support)						
4.	In educational matters, I can always get good help from my colleagues.					
5.	The relations among the colleagues are characterized by friendliness and a concern for each other.					
6.	Teachers at this school help and support each other.					
7.	In educational matters, I can always get help and advice from the school leadership.					
8.	My relationship with the school leadership is characterized by respect and trust.					
9.	The school leadership is supportive and helpful.					
Work Values (perceived congruence of values or goals between employees and the organization)						
10.	My educational values are in accordance with the values which are emphasized at this school.					
11.	My colleagues and I have the same opinion about what is important in education.					
12.	I feel that this school shares my view of what constitutes good teaching.					
Promotion Failure (the psychological state of failure in promotion goal pursuit concerning the absence of positive outcomes or non-gain)						
13.	Right now, I am concerned about missing out on positive outcomes.					
14.	I frequently worry that my future will be less successful than I hope.					
15.	I frequently imagine how I might fall short of my hopes and aspirations.					
16.	When good things fail to materialize, it affects					

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	Comments
	me strongly.					
17.	I see myself as someone who has trouble reaching my "ideal self" (fulfilling my hopes, wishes, and aspirations).					
Prevention Failure (the psychological state of failure in prevention goal pursuit concerning the presence of negative outcomes or loss)						
18.	I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.					
19.	I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.					
20.	Right now, I am focused on avoiding negative outcomes.					
21.	I worry about making mistakes.					
22.	I often imagine myself experiencing bad things. that I fear might happen to me.					
Job Burnout (work-related negative experiences concerning exhaustion and disengagement from work)						
23.	There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work. (Reverse)					
24.	After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better. (Reverse)					
25.	I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.					
26.	During my work, I often feel emotionally drained. (Reverse)					
27.	After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.					
28.	After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary. (Reverse)					
29.	Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.					
30.	When I work, I usually feel energized. (Reverse)					
31.	I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.					
32.	It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way. (Reverse)					
33.	Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically. (Reverse)					
34.	I find my work to be a positive challenge.					
35.	Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work. (Reverse)					
36.	Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks. (Reverse)					
37.	This is the only type of work that I can imagine					

No .	Statements	1	2	3	4	Comments
	myself doing.					
38.	I feel more and more engaged in my work.					
Job transfer intention (withdrawal cognitive process of thinking of leaving, searching for an alternative, and intention to leave)						
39.	I think a lot about moving out of my current school.					
40.	I am actively searching for an alternative to my current school.					
41.	As soon as it is possible, I will move out of my current school.					



การประเมินความเที่ยงตรงเชิงเนื้อหา

เรียน ผู้เชี่ยวชาญ

กระผมเป็นนักศึกษาปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชารัฐประศาสนศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุทรา
ป ร ะ เ ท ศ ม า เล เ ชี ย (Universiti Utara Malaysia)
กำลังทำการวิจัยเรื่องความตั้งใจที่จะโอนย้ายของครูในสามจังหวัดชายแดนภาคใต้
เพื่อทำความเข้าใจผลกระทบของสภาพแวดล้อมในงานที่มีต่อความตั้งใจที่จะโอนย้ายและอิทธิ
พลของตัวแปรคั่นกลางด้านความล้มเหลวในการมุ่งกำกับตนและความเหนื่อยหน่ายในงาน

ในการนี้ ความเห็นของผู้เชี่ยวชาญด้านการจัดการ พฤติกรรมองค์กรการ
ก า ร จั ด ก า ร ท ร ั พ ย า ก ร ม นุ ษ ย์
และผู้มีประสบการณ์ที่เกี่ยวข้องมีความจำเป็นเพื่อให้แบบสอบถามการวิจัยมีความสมบูรณ์
ข้อมูลการประเมินของท่านจะถูกนำไปคำนวณดัชนีความเที่ยงตรงเชิงเนื้อหา
เพื่อปรับปรุงแบบสอบถามที่จะใช้ในการวิจัยต่อไป

ขอขอบคุณที่สละเวลาและให้ความร่วมมือ



นายปฏิพัฒน์ กิตติโชควัฒนา

นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีบัณฑิตทางรัฐประศาสนศาสตร์

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แบบประเมินความเที่ยงตรงเชิงเนื้อหา

ความตั้งใจที่จะโอนย้ายของครูใน 3 จังหวัดภาคใต้

(Job Transfer Intention of Teachers in Three Southern Provinces of Thailand)

กรุณาที่เครื่องหมาย ✓ หรือ X ในช่องคำตอบที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่าน

1 = ไม่สอดคล้อง 2 = สอดคล้องบางส่วน 3 = ค่อนข้างสอดคล้อง 4 = สอดคล้องมาก

ข้อ	คำถาม	1	2	3	4	หมายเหตุ
การควบคุม (Control):						
การรับรู้ความสามารถในการมีอิทธิพลหรือมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจที่ส่งผลกระทบต่องานที่ทำ						
1.	ฉันสามารถแสดงความเห็นและสามารถเปลี่ยนแปลงสิ่งต่าง ๆ ที่ทำในงานของฉันได้					
2.	ฉันมีส่วนในการตัดสินใจที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อฉันในการทำงาน					
3.	ฉันมีส่วนในการตัดสินใจที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อบุคคลอื่นในการทำงาน					
สังคมที่ทำงาน (Community): การรับรู้ถึงความร่วมมือ การสื่อสาร ความผูกพัน ความไว้วางใจ และการสนับสนุนทางสังคมของสมาชิกในที่ทำงาน						
4.	ฉันได้รับความช่วยเหลือที่ดีจากเพื่อนร่วมงานอยู่เสมอ					
5.	ความสัมพันธ์กับเพื่อนร่วมงานเป็นไปอย่างฉันมิตรและห่วงใยซึ่งกันและกัน					
6.	สมาชิกในที่ทำงานช่วยเหลือและสนับสนุนซึ่งกันและกัน					
7.	ฉันได้รับความช่วยเหลือและคำแนะนำจากผู้บริหารอยู่เสมอ					
8.	ความสัมพันธ์กับผู้บริหารเป็นไปอย่างให้เกียรติและไว้วางใจกัน					
9.	ผู้บริหารคอยสนับสนุนและช่วยเหลือเกื้อกูล					
ค่านิยม (Values):						
การรับรู้ถึงความสอดคล้องของค่านิยมหรือเป้าประสงค์ระหว่างพนักงานและองค์กร						
10.	ค่านิยมทางการศึกษาของฉันสอดคล้องกับโรงเรียนนี้					

ข้อ	คำถาม	1	2	3	4	หมายเหตุ
11.	ฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานเห็นตรงกันเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่สำคัญในการศึกษา					
12.	โรงเรียนนี้มีมุมมองที่ตรงกับฉันเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนที่ดี					
ความล้มเหลวในการก้าวหน้า (Promotion Failure): สถานะทางจิตวิทยาของความล้มเหลวในการบรรลุเป้าหมายที่จะก้าวหน้าไปจากสถานะปัจจุบันซึ่งเกิดจากการหายไปของผลลัพธ์เชิงบวกหรือไม่ได้รับประโยชน์เพิ่มเติม (non-gain)						
13.	ฉันเป็นกังวลว่าจะละเลยบางสิ่งบางอย่างที่ทำให้ไม่ได้รับผลประโยชน์ที่ต้องการ					
14.	ฉันมักกังวลว่าอนาคตของฉันจะประสบความสำเร็จน้อยกว่าที่หวังไว้					
15.	ฉันมักจะเห็นภาพว่าตัวเองไม่สามารถบรรลุความหวังและความใฝ่ฝัน					
16.	เมื่อสิ่งดี ๆ ที่ทำไปไม่เห็นผล ฉันจะเศร้าเสียใจเป็นอย่างมาก					
17.	ฉันเห็นตัวเองเป็นคนหนึ่งที่ไม่อาจไปถึง “ตัวตนตามอุดมคติ” (ตัวตนที่มุ่งหวัง ปรารถนา และใฝ่ฝันที่จะเป็น)					
ความล้มเหลวในการป้องกัน (Prevention Failure): สถานะทางจิตวิทยาของความล้มเหลวในการป้องกันไม่ให้เกิดถอยไปจากสถานะปัจจุบันซึ่งเกิดจากการปรากฏขึ้นของผลลัพธ์เชิงลบหรือการสูญเสีย (loss)						
18.	ฉันมักจะคิดหาวิธีที่จะสามารถป้องกันความล้มเหลวในชีวิต					
19.	ฉันกังวลว่าจะบกพร่องในหน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบ					
20.	ฉันให้ความสำคัญกับการหลีกเลี่ยงผลในด้านลบที่อาจเกิดขึ้น					
21.	ฉันกังวลว่าฉันจะสร้างความผิดพลาดให้เกิดขึ้น					
22.	ฉันมักจะเห็นภาพตัวเองกำลังประสบกับปัญหาที่เคยคาดไว้ว่ามันจะเกิดขึ้น					
ความเหนื่อยหน่ายในงาน (Job Burnout): ประสบการณ์ในงานเชิงลบที่เกี่ยวข้องกับความอ่อนล้าจากการทำงานและการแยกตัวออกจาก						

ข้อ	คำถาม	1	2	3	4	หมายเหตุ
าน						
23.	ฉันมักจะพบแง่มุมใหม่ๆ และน่าสนใจในงานที่ทำอยู่เสมอ					
24.	มีบางวันที่ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยล้าไปจากบ้านก่อนจะถึงที่ทำงาน					
25.	ฉันหลุดถึงงานในทางลบบ่อยขึ้นเรื่อยๆ					
26.	หลังเลิกงาน ฉันต้องใช้เวลามากขึ้นในการที่จะทำให้ตัวเองรู้สึกผ่อนคลาย					
27.	ฉันสามารถทนต่อความแรงกดดันในที่ทำงานได้					
28.	ฉันใช้ความคิดในการทำงานน้อยลงและทำงานเหมือนตัวเองเป็นเครื่องจักร					
29.	ฉันคิดว่างานที่ทำเป็นงานที่มีความท้าทาย					
30.	ในระหว่างเวลาทำงาน ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยหน่ายไม่อยากทำงาน					
31.	ในอนาคต ฉันอาจจะถอนตัวเองออกจากงานนี้ได้					
32.	หลังเลิกงาน ฉันมีพลังเหลือเฟือพอที่จะทำกิจกรรมเพื่อการพักผ่อนหย่อนใจต่าง ๆ					
33.	บางครั้งฉันรู้สึกเบื่อและเหนื่อยหน่ายจากภาระงานที่ต้องทำ					
34.	หลังเลิกงาน ฉันมักจะรู้สึกเหนื่อยล้าและหมดเรี่ยวแรง					
35.	นี่คืองานชนิดเดียวที่ฉันคิดว่าฉันสามารถทำได้					
36.	ฉันสามารถจัดการปริมาณงานให้เสร็จทันเวลาที่กำหนด					
37.	ฉันรู้สึกยุ่งอยู่กับงานที่ทำนี้มากขึ้นเรื่อยๆ					

ข้อ	คำถาม	1	2	3	4	หมายเหตุ
38.	ฉันรู้สึกกระปรี้กระเปร่ามีพลังในการทำงาน					
ความตั้งใจที่จะโอนย้าย (Job transfer intention): กระบวนการทางความคิดของการถอนตัวซึ่งประกอบด้วยความคิดที่จะโอนย้าย การค้นหาทางเลือก และความตั้งใจที่จะโอนย้าย						
39.	ฉันคิดมากเกี่ยวกับการย้ายออกจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
40.	ฉันกำลังค้นหาหนทางที่จะย้ายไปจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ที่นี่					
41.	ทันทีที่เป็นไปได้ ฉันจะย้ายออกไปจากโรงเรียนที่สอนอยู่ที่นี่					



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Content Validity Index

Construct	Item	Expert in agreement	I-CVI	UA
Control	CTL1	6	1.00	1.00
	CTL2	6	1.00	1.00
	CTL3	5	0.83	0.00
Community	COM1	6	1.00	1.00
	COM2	6	1.00	1.00
	COM3	6	1.00	1.00
	COM4	6	1.00	1.00
	COM5	6	1.00	1.00
	COM6	6	1.00	1.00
Values	VAL1	6	1.00	1.00
	VAL2	6	1.00	1.00
	VAL3	5	0.83	0.00
Portion failure	REF1	6	1.00	1.00
	REF2	5	0.83	0.00
	REF3	6	1.00	1.00
	REF4	6	1.00	1.00
	REF5	6	1.00	1.00
Prevention failure	REF6	5	0.83	0.00
	REF7	6	1.00	1.00
	REF8	6	1.00	1.00
	REF9	6	1.00	1.00
	REF10	6	1.00	1.00
Job burnout	BRN1	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN2	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN3	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN4	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN5	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN6	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN7	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN8	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN9	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN10	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN11	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN12	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN13	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN14	6	1.00	1.00
	BRN15	5	0.83	0.00
	BRN16	6	1.00	1.00
Job transfer intention	TRF1	6	1.00	1.00
	TRF2	6	1.00	1.00
	TRF3	6	1.00	1.00

S-CVI/Ave = 0.98

S-CVI/UA = 0.88