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AUTHOR                     Johnsrud, Linda K.; Heck, Ronald H.; Rosser, Vicki, J.  
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ABSTRACT

                           This study developed an empirical construct for the term  
 "morale," and applied the resulting structural model in an investigation of  
 the impact of morale on administrators' reported intentions to leave their  
 positions. The paper identifies three common sources of frustration in these  
 administrators: the midlevel nature of their role; the lack of recognition  
 for their contributions; and limited opportunity for career growth or  
 advancement. It proposes a structural model of administrator intentions which  
 includes morale as well as demographic and structural variables. A  
 questionnaire covering these areas (as well as intent to leave, the dependent  
 variable) was given to mid-level administrators (n=869) at a 10-campus  
 university system. The morale component was comprised of three interrelated  
 dimensions: institutional regard, mutual loyalty, and quality of work. The  
 study found that perceptions of worklife and morale were individually held,  
 as opposed to collective organizational perceptions; it also established the  
 construct validity of the notion of "morale," and found that perceptions of  
 organizational process (morale and worklife) explained the "intent" of  
 midlevel administrators to leave their current position. Demographic and  
 structural variables had only a limited effect on morale and intent to leave.  
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**MORALE MATTERS: MIDDLELEVEL ADMINISTRATORS  
AND THEIR INTENT TO LEAVE**

By

Linda K. Johnsrud

Ronald H. Heck

Vicki J. Rosser

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

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## MORALE MATTERS: MIDDLELEVEL ADMINISTRATORS AND THEIR INTENT TO LEAVE

The “morale” of faculty and staff is often used to characterize the quality of academic life within a particular campus or institution. Typically those commenting on morale have an intuitive sense that an individual’s morale is “high,” or the morale of the administrative staff is “low,” or that the faculty’s morale has “plummeted.” These comments often refer broadly to the level of well-being that an individual or group is experiencing in reference to their worklife (Johnsrud, 1996). We frequently hear references to “morale,” but it is not a well-defined or precisely measured concept.

Nor is it clear what effect morale has on behavior. Again, it makes intuitive sense that the higher the morale, the higher the performance, but there is little empirical data. Lindgren (1982) has argued that administrators increase their effectiveness when they are personally affirmed. Similarly, Johnsrud and Rosser (1997) have shown that morale is related to administrators’ intent to leave their positions. Despite the seeming efficacy of morale, however, there is little agreement as to its definition or understanding of its impact. The purpose of this study is: (1) to define the construct of “morale” empirically, and (2) to further investigate its construct validity by proposing and testing a structural model concerning the impact of morale in administrators’ reported intentions to leave their positions.

### Morale

Previous researchers have defined morale in a variety of ways. Baynes (1967) defines morale as “a quality of mind and spirit which combines courage, self-discipline, and endurance.” In a similar vein, Doherty (1988) suggests that “low” psychological morale implies that the

individual sees him- or herself as one who is powerless or socially unimportant. Lack of clarity in such definitions of morale has led to its confusion with other related constructs. Morale is often used in conjunction with, or in place of, other attitudinal dimensions such as satisfaction and commitment. For example, Benge & Hickey (1984) make a connection between satisfaction and morale. They contend, first, that job satisfaction is the net result of various attitudes held by an individual employee at a given time; job satisfaction is usually fairly stable, but is subject to swings; and second, that morale is the net result of the job satisfaction of employees in a specified group.

In contrast, Kanter (1977) argues that the relationship between satisfaction and morale is not necessarily in the same direction. She suggests that persons could feel reasonably satisfied with the content of a job, but at the same time, frustrated about their potential for growth or mobility within the organization. Thus, their satisfaction could be high and their overall morale, low. Kanter further contends that job satisfaction is not the same as commitment, which refers to overall attachment to the organization and is shaped in a major way by opportunity.

Morale has also been described as an attitudinal response to work conditions that has an impact on behavior of individuals within the organization (Kanter, 1977). More specifically, high morale is manifested when an individual shows determination to do his or her best under any circumstance (Baynes, 1967). Similarly, Lindgren (1982) suggests that if administrators feel their importance as individuals is recognized and accepted, they will respond by increasing their effectiveness. Westbrook (1980) also argues that morale, as measured in terms of satisfaction with one's work environment, is significantly related to proficiency and discipline, particularly for those with extremely high or low morale.

Researchers have also debated whether organizational constructs like morale are individual perceptions or collective properties of the organization (e.g., Des Jarlais, 1995; Hox and Kreft, 1994; Lindgren, 1982; Zeitz, 1983). Zeitz suggests that a significant conceptual problem exists in choosing the proper level of analysis of morale (i.e., individual, group, or individuals within groups). Zeitz, for example, defines morale as a collective trait describing members' affective responses to the organization. In contrast, others have conceptualized morale as an individually-held set of beliefs (Baynes, 1967; Westbrook, 1980). Whether morale is conceptualized as an individual or group property, until recently, there were few options for analyzing the data. In past studies, morale was typically measured at the individual level and then aggregated to the group level to create a single morale score for each unit or institution.

Aggregating individuals' responses to create a group morale score ignores, however, the individual variation that contributes to morale. In contrast, treating morale as an individual perception ignores the likelihood that individuals within the same organization may share common beliefs and values, at least to some extent. For example, if everyone within each organization holds the same perception about morale (i.e., the morale in one organization is a "10," and in another it is a "3"), all of the variance in morale will be due to between-organization differences. We would then say that morale is a group property (i.e., because 100 percent of the variance lies between organizations). On the other hand, if almost all of the variance in morale were due to differences between individuals within each organization (e.g., 90 percent), we would conclude that morale is largely an individual perception.

While some also have conceptualized morale as having group and individual components (Child, 1941; Gal, 1986), newer data-analytic approaches such as multilevel regression now allow

the simultaneous definition and measurement of organizational constructs as both individual and group properties. In one empirical test of the debate over the definition of morale, Des Jarlais (1995) used multilevel regression (i.e., an approach that partitions the variance of constructs into their individual and group components) to determine that faculty morale is best conceptualized and measured at the individual level. More specifically, variance in morale was found to result almost entirely from individuals' own perceptions (regardless of their organization), as opposed to differences in groups' "collective" perceptions.

The sum of the theoretical work to date suggests that morale is best conceived of as a multidimensional construct consisting of individual perceptions of a variety of worklife issues. To sufficiently reflect this theoretical complexity, Johnsrud (1996) concludes that morale represents an "umbrella" notion that includes, in addition to satisfaction with the work environment, such attributes as enthusiasm, commitment or loyalty to the institution, willingness to work, and dedication to common goals. She suggests that this expanded definition is more in keeping with the powerful role morale is thought to play in the workplace. No direct test of this hypothesis exists yet, however, in the empirical literature on higher education administrators.

#### Midlevel Administrators' Worklife and Morale

Efforts to measure the morale of administrators are rarely seen in the literature, but midlevel administrators have a distinct worklife experience that could well affect their morale. In a review of the literature on midlevel administrators, Johnsrud (1996) identifies three sources of frustration: the midlevel nature of their role; the lack of recognition for their contributions; and their limited opportunity for career growth or advancement.

Their midlevel role. Midlevel administrative staff often provide the necessary information for decisions, but are rarely involved in the actual decision making. They hold classic “middle” positions. Most midlevel administrators know a great deal about their particular function but are rarely involved in the decision making most important to that function. As a result they often feel as if they have no authority for decisions that are made, and yet they are held responsible for outcomes (Johnsrud and Rosser, 1998). Midlevel administrators also feel as if they have no relevant participation in governance activities (Henkin and Persson, 1992). Midlevel positions are tough to occupy, and the reality of being in the middle when it comes to administrative decision making may well affect morale.

Lack of recognition. What may be even worse about the midlevel role is that these administrators feel they are not appreciated (Rhoades, 1995). They are a well-educated group who are asked to work hard in demanding areas, but their efforts frequently go unrecognized (Johnsrud and Rosser, 1998). The need for administrative services grew markedly during the 1970's and 80's; nonetheless, those who depend on those services do not seem to recognize the administrative skill, background, or depth of expertise required. The lack of recognition for midlevel administrators' hard work and competence may be the result of poor supervisory skills among senior administrators, but faculty also contribute to the problem. According to Austin and Gamson (1983), faculty show little respect for administrators and resist accepting them as full members of the academic community. During the growth period of the 1970's and 80's, colleges and universities hired more than twice as many administrators as faculty--a 62 percent increase in midlevel administrative positions over a ten-year period (Grassmuck, 1990, 1991). Faculty are more likely to criticize the increased numbers for administrators than to give credit to those who

spend much of their time directly interacting with students and external constituents.

Limited opportunity. In addition, the lack of career opportunity and professional development is a persistent source of criticism from midlevel administrators (Austin and Gamson, 1983; Bess and Lodahl, 1969; Johnsrud and Rosser, 1998; Scott, 1978). Promotion (or change of position) is considered the primary means of advancement for administrators, and most expect to move within their institution (Sagaria and Moore, 1983). Few administrators enjoy the opportunity that faculty have to remain in their positions while advancing through the ranks (from assistant to associate to full professor) with increased salary and status. Administrators must change positions to advance, but the pyramid-like structure of the organization hampers such upward mobility; there are more employees than positions available (Sagaria and Johnsrud, 1992).

Moreover, a substantial proportion of administrative vacancies will be filled from outside the institution, limiting opportunity within. Barriers between functional areas (e.g., between student affairs and academic affairs) and institutional types (e.g., between the liberal arts college and the community college) further exacerbate the situation. As Twombly (1990) has noted, the administrative marketplace is characterized by ill-defined career paths, multiple entrance points, and lack of explicit criteria for determining mobility. When mobility is limited or difficult, it becomes all the more important to enhance professional growth within the institution.

Unfortunately, the opportunity for professional development for midlevel administrators also is limited (McDade, 1990).

These worklife issues--midlevel roles, lack of recognition and limited opportunity--are important to midlevel administrators. In a study of 1,293 midlevel administrators within a ten-campus system, Johnsrud and Rosser (1998) examine administrators' perceptions of their worklife



on overall morale. They include demographic, structural and perceptual variables in their analysis. Their findings indicate that individual perceptions regarding recognition, discrimination, external relations (relationships with faculty, student and the public) and perceived opportunity for mobility are significant factors in explaining overall morale.

Thus, there is some evidence suggesting that certain worklife issues affect midlevel administrators' morale, either positively or negatively. As we have suggested, there is not only a need to develop the construct validity of morale, but also further research is needed to investigate its relationship with subsequent organizational behavior. One response might be to leave a job or organization; that is, morale may affect administrative mobility.

#### Midlevel Administrator Mobility

Mobility in most studies encompasses the upward, downward, and lateral movement within and between organizational structures. What the literature suggests is that administrative mobility, through organizational advancement and position change, is the means by which individuals accumulate skills and knowledge, experience, and build careers. The extent to which institutions promote from within or hire from external markets determines individual opportunity for advancement within an institution. For example, Johnsrud, Sagaria, and Heck (1992) show that within one university there is a slight tendency to promote from within for all administrative positions. This pattern varies, however, by administrative unit and level of position. For example, in business affairs, the majority of positions at all levels are filled from within; while in student affairs, there is a tendency for the highest positions to be filled by external candidates.

Such findings suggest that administrative staff have to determine their opportunities for

advancement by looking at the level of their position, the unit within which it resides, and their willingness to move between institutions. Similarly, institutions need to recognize that decisions to promote from within or to hire externally have an impact on the opportunities for employees within their institutions. Turnover decisions may reflect the perceptions held by employees regarding their current work situation as well as their opportunity for future advancement.

Blum's (1991) survey of 3,500 two- and four-year public and private colleges and universities includes 34,500 administrators in 32 job categories and compares persons who held positions in 1987 with those in 1988. The result is a 24% turnover rate for administrators. Blum contends that when such a large proportion turns over, the institution experiences inefficiencies, instability and increased training time. Brittain and Wholey (1990) argue that the disadvantage of turnover is a less attached and knowledgeable labor force and a greater incidence of behavior problems like absenteeism and tardiness. On the other hand, they suggest the advantage of high turnover is that entry level administrative pay levels are lower and easily replaced, freeing the institution from some of the expenses associated with promotional paths and benefit and pension plans.

Early turnover studies focused on the motives of individuals and their decisions (Caplow and McGee, 1958; Flowers and Hughes, 1973; March and Simon, 1958; McCain, O'Reilly and Pfeffer, 1983; and Steers, 1977). Subsequent studies have shifted to the impact that organizational and structural variables have on work-related attitudes (e.g., Johnsrud and Heck, 1994; Smith, 1979). For example, Smith's (1979) research emphasizes the impact of organizational variables on individuals in organizations. He contends that attributes of the organization, contextual conditions of an individual's work, and characteristics of the external

environment may explain such turnover decisions.

Much of the research on turnover focuses on the intent to leave an organization, rather than actual turnover. The “intent” to stay or leave one’s position has been found to be a good indicator of actual turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Steers and Mowday, 1981; Lee and Mowday, 1987). Lee and Mowday (1987) examine individuals’ job performance and their subsequent intent to stay or leave the organization. Their findings indicate that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement explain the intention to leave, which in turn, predicts actual leaving. Similarly, Bluedorn (1982) posited a model of turnover that included satisfaction (moderated by expectations and perceived opportunity) and commitment to the organization as antecedents to intent to leave. He also anticipated the methodological issue regarding level of analysis of the attitudinal variables within organizational contexts. As we have suggested, these issues can now be more thoroughly addressed through multilevel analysis.

The limited findings to date indicate that a combination of individual and organizational (including both structural and perceptual) variables determines the intention to stay or leave. Many of the variables identified in previous research relate to administrators’ worklives, but most studies lack a clear set of theoretical relations.

### Proposed Conceptual Model

Despite the importance of turnover among administrative staff, there is little understanding of how demographic, structural, and perceptual variables interact with the construct of morale to explain administrative turnover. Such investigations involve confirming the validity of proposed constructs such as morale and also demonstrating their subsequent impact on other variables of

interest such as intent to leave. Our proposed structural model builds on the previous research of Johnsrud and Rosser (1997), which discriminates those midlevel administrators who intended to stay or leave their positions based on demographic, structural, and perceptual factors. Structural equation modeling offers an advancement in the ability to simultaneously define multidimensional constructs such as morale (i.e., through confirmatory factor analysis) and also to test for direct and indirect effects of workplace variables and morale on the intent to leave. Figure 1 represents this proposed conceptual model. In addition to the demographic and structural variables depicted, the effect of morale is hypothesized to directly impact intent to leave. Administrators' perceptions of worklife issues are hypothesized to directly and indirectly (through morale) influence intent to leave.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

### Procedures

#### Data Source

The total population consists of 1293 midlevel administrators within a ten-campus university system (one research university, two baccalaureate II (liberal arts) colleges, and seven community colleges). Midlevel administrators are those non-academic employees classified as administrative, professional and technical staff members, who are in positions below the Dean and Director level. Typical positions include such titles as directors, managers, coordinators, advisors, counselors, technical and other specialists. Confining the population to one university system ensures that the job categories of the midlevel administrators are consistent; at the same time, the ability to generalize beyond the system is limited. The entire population was surveyed

resulting in a response rate of 70 percent, and analyses were conducted 869 respondents who returned useable surveys.

### Instrumentation and Variables

The instrument consisted of items measuring the demographic, structural, and perceptual variables of interest based on previous literature. The observed *demographic and structural variables* were gender (coded male=0, female=1), age, salary, and institution (included 0=four year, 1=two year). Several other demographic and structural variables (e.g., ethnicity, minority by gender or ethnicity within work unit, type of work unit) in preliminary analyses but were dropped from the final structural model because they had no impact on other variables in the model.

To ascertain administrators' *perceptions of worklife*, fifty-three professional and institutional worklife issues were included in the instrument. Respondents indicated on five point Likert scales the degree of impact of each work-related issue on their morale. In order to provide more reliable observed measures, the worklife items were first factor analyzed. Nine observed factors were extracted: gender/ethnic diversity; external relations; working conditions; recognition for competence; career support; and intra-department relations; discrimination; review/intervention; and gender/racial issues. The new variables were all were judged internally consistent with alpha coefficients ranging from .71 to .91.

The proposed dimensions of morale were defined by 10 Likert-type items (5-point scales). Based on exploratory factor analysis (not reported here), the construct of *morale* was conceptualized as three interrelated dimensions. *Institutional regard* consisted of three variables which included caring organization (care), fairness of the institution (fair), and employees'

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(empvalue) value. *Mutual loyalty* consisted of loyalty to the institution (loyal) and perceptions that one's opinions are valued (orgvalue). *Quality of work* consisted of variety in one's job (variety), common purpose of work unit (purpose), freedom on the job (free), satisfaction with work (sat), and anticipating better places to work (work).

In the final structural model investigating the impact of morale on intent to leave, an additional question was used to operationalize the morale construct. This question requested a self-report of the respondent's overall level of morale (self-rpt morale).

*Intent to leave*, the dependent variable in this study, was defined as the extent to which administrators felt stuck in their current position and the extent to which they intended to leave. Both items were also measured on 5-point scales, with higher scores suggesting greater intent to leave.

### Preliminary Analysis

Before analyzing our structural model, we also investigated the multilevel properties of the data. We calculated the intraclass correlations (ICC) for each construct. The ICC describes the percentage of total variance in each variable that lies between groups, and this analysis helps resolve the issue about where variance in organizational perceptions largely reside. We found perceptions of worklife to be almost entirely individual properties (ICC = .01). Similarly, intent is also an individual-level variable (ICC = .01). In contrast, a small amount of variance in morale exists at the group level (ICC = .11). Because over 90% of the variance in morale was within organizations, our findings suggest that morale is largely an individual-level construct (see also Des Jarlais, 1995). Given these preliminary results, we conducted the analysis of our structural

model at the individual level.

## Results

### Morale Model

The first purpose of the study was to confirm morale as a multidimensional construct. Because underlying constructs cannot be directly measured, they must be indirectly defined through a set of observed variables. Three underlying (latent) dimensions of morale: institutional regard, quality of work, and mutual loyalty are hypothesized to comprise the construct of morale. The validity of this proposed three-factor model was examined through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with Amos 3.6 (Arbuckle, 1997) and the maximum likelihood fitting function. In the CFA approach to testing models, one tests the variance-covariance matrix implied by the model against the variance-covariance matrix of the actual data. We assessed the fit of the proposed model using three common indices: the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean squared residual (RMR). The GFI and CFI indices provide indications of the variances and covariances in the data accounted for by the proposed model. In general, values on the GFI and CFI above .95 generally indicate an acceptable fit of the model to the data (depending on the complexity of the data). In contrast, the RMR is the average of the variances and covariances in the model left unexplained. These values should be close to zero for a good fitting model.

Figure 2 summarizes the parameter estimates relating the observed variables to their latent constructs comprising morale, as well as the intercorrelations among the constructs. The values are standardized path coefficients which illustrate their magnitudes. The significance of the



size of the parameter estimates in the model was also tested through t-tests (the ratio of the estimate to its standard error), and all were substantial and statistically significant (i.e., with t-ratios above 2.0), providing evidence that the observed measures serve as reliable indicators of the latent variables. Moreover, the fit indices all indicated a strong fit of the proposed model to the data (e.g., GFI, CFI = 1.0). We can conclude, therefore, that morale may be defined as a multidimensional construct comprised of institutional regard, quality of work, and mutual loyalty.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

### Structural Model

After morale was adequately defined, we created factors scores for each of the underlying dimensions of morale. These three dimensions, and an additional item about respondents' overall morale, became the observed variables comprising the morale construct in the proposed structural model summarized in Figure 3. Further evidence of morale's construct validity can be provided by determining how morale affects administrators' intent to leave their positions.

Insert Figure 3 About Here

The various goodness-of-fit indices all suggested a strong fit of the proposed structural model to the data (GFI, CFI=1.0, RMR=.03). The significance of the parameter estimates was also tested through t-tests (the ratio of the estimate to its standard error), and the majority of the paths included in the final model were found to be significant (i.e., paths  $>.08$  are significant at

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$p < .05$ ). Therefore, we may suggest that the proposed model accurately accounts for the variability observed in the data.

Because the model fit the data adequately, we can now consider the individual parameter estimates. Age was the only demographic variable that had a significant, direct impact on morale (.09) and intent to leave (.11). The effects are weak, however, and age did not have an effect on administrators' perceptions of worklife issues. Demographic variables concerning gender, ethnicity (i.e., race/ethnicity and being a minority by gender or race/ethnicity), and salary had little impact on morale or intent to leave.

Of the structural variables, institutional type, in this model working in a community college, had a direct impact on morale (.14); however, it had no direct or indirect effects on either worklife issues or intent to leave. In our preliminary analyses, we determined that administrative work unit did not have a significant impact on a midlevel administrators' morale or intent to leave, and it was dropped from the model.

Perceptions of worklife had a direct impact on midlevel administrators' morale (.67); however, there was no direct effect of worklife on intent to leave. More importantly, however, we determined the worklife does have a significant impact on intent to leave, but it is almost entirely indirect (.48). We therefore eliminated the direct path between worklife and intent from the final model summarized in Figure 3. As hypothesized, morale had a strong direct and powerful impact (.71) on midlevel administrators' intent to leave their positions, suggesting its construct validity in predicting intended organizational behavior. Moreover, the structural model accounted for 47 percent of variance in morale (with 53 percent unaccounted for as  $Z_1$  in Figure 3). Morale also accounted for 54 percent of the variance in perceptions of intent to leave (i.e., 46% unaccounted

for as  $Z_2$  in Figure 3), providing another indication of the model's construct validity in explaining intentions to leave one's position in the institution.

### Discussion

A structural model was proposed and tested to ascertain the impact of demographic, structural, and perceptual variables on morale, and in turn, the impact of morale on intentions to leave. This study advances our conceptual understanding of "perceptions." Prior studies have indicated the power of perceptions (Johnsrud and Rosser, 1997, 1998), but we can now examine the multilevel properties of the data and be explicit about the nature of perceptual variables. In this study, perceptions of worklife and morale were determined to be individually-held perceptions, as opposed to collective organizational perceptions. This finding supports the contention that individual properties should not be aggregated under the assumption that they represent collective properties of organizations. Doing so may wrongly attribute differences between organizations to collective properties when they are actually individual properties. Perceptions of worklife are largely the result of individual perceptions of the organizational situation. Despite frequent references to morale as a group construct, the findings of our study clearly indicate that morale resides in the individual.

The results of this study also establish the construct validity of the popular notion of "morale." Three dimensions were posited: institutional regard, mutual loyalty and quality of work. These dimensions reflect composites of observed variables that seem to capture the values to which individuals attribute their morale. Institutional regard captures the employee's sense that they are valued and being treated fairly. There is also a reciprocal component to morale that is

reflected in employees' loyalty to the organization as well as their belief that they and their opinions matter to the organization. Finally, quality of work reflects the impact of satisfying, stimulating, and purposeful work on employees. These findings lend credence to a definition of morale that is more encompassing than any one of these dimensions. Morale is complex, but these findings demonstrate that it can be measured.

The results of the full model also indicate that morale has consequences. The set of perceptions about organizational processes (i.e., morale and worklife) explains the "intent" of midlevel administrators' to leave their current position, both directly and indirectly. Demographic and structural variables have only a limited effect on morale and intent to leave. For example, age was the only demographic variable that had a direct effect on administrators' intent to leave their position. As for the structural variables, being employed at a community college had a direct effect on the level of one's morale, but no direct effect on perceptions of worklife or intent to leave the position.

What is important to note is that administrators' perceptions of worklife have a direct and powerful effect on their morale and a moderate indirect effect on their intent to leave or stay in their positions. Similarly, as we hypothesized, the strongest effect on intent to leave was morale. These findings are important in that the exact proportion of the variation in individual behavior accounted for by morale, as opposed to demographic, structural and worklife issues, can now be specified. The position taken here is that perceptions of worklife and the level of morale engendered by those perceptions account for most of the variation in intent to leave. Instead of asking if morale matters, it may be more fruitful to ask, what matters to morale?

That morale plays a mediating influence on the impact of worklife perceptions on behavior

is of interest. This finding is similar to Smart's (1990) finding that the impact of faculty attitudes on their behavior was mediated by satisfaction. There is power in such constructs that deserves further attention. The findings in this study support the conceptual view that a combination of individual, structural, and organizational variables contributes to decisions to stay or leave a position, but the impact is not direct. Perceptions of worklife are mediated by morale. For example, when administrators perceive high levels of career support, their morale tends to be higher, and they are less likely to intend to leave. Similarly, if they do not feel recognized for their contributions, their morale tends to be lower, and they are more likely to think seriously about leaving.

### Conclusion

These results indicate that given simultaneous controls for demographic, structural, and perceptual variables, the construct of morale has major implications for, and a direct impact upon, administrators' intentions to leave. Institutions need to assess and evaluate those worklife issues that impact morale in order to adequately address turnover. Examining administrators' perceptions of work-related issues is important to organizations if the goal is reduce turnover and retain employees. This study suggests that when morale is high, administrators are less likely to leave, and turnover costs will be lower. The relationship between worklife issues and morale highlights the need for both longitudinal and comparative data to better understand individuals' affective responses to organizations.

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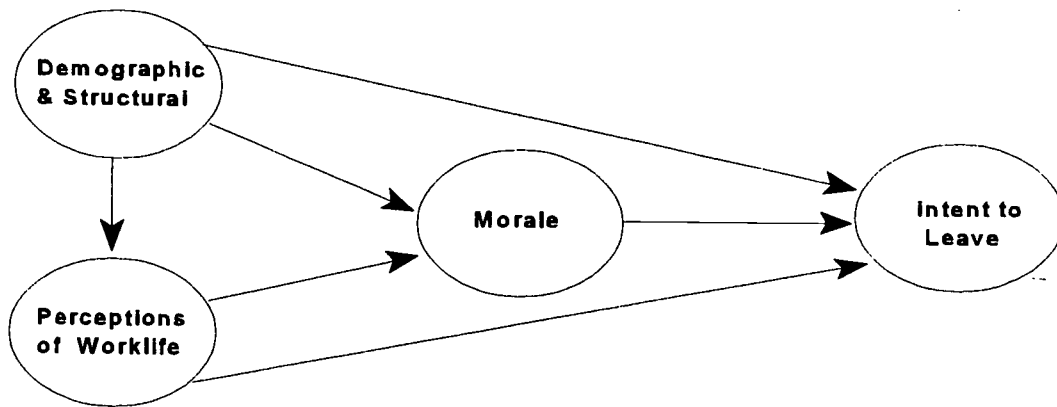


Figure: 1 Proposed Structural Model

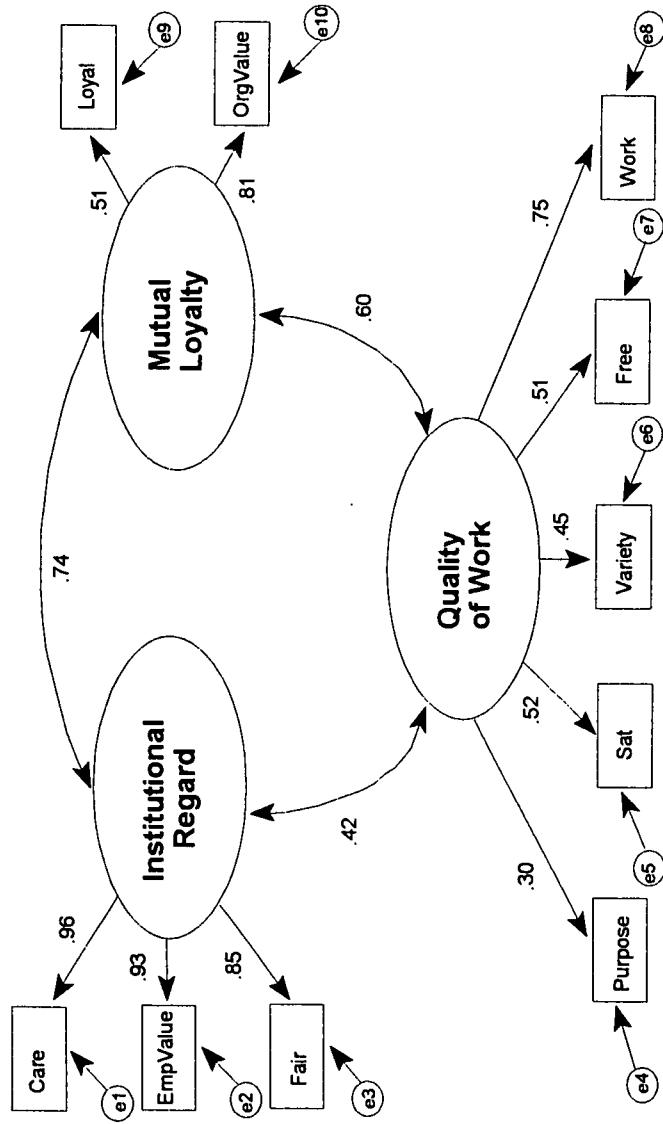


Figure 2: Conceptualizing and Measuring Morale (Standardized LISREL Estimates).

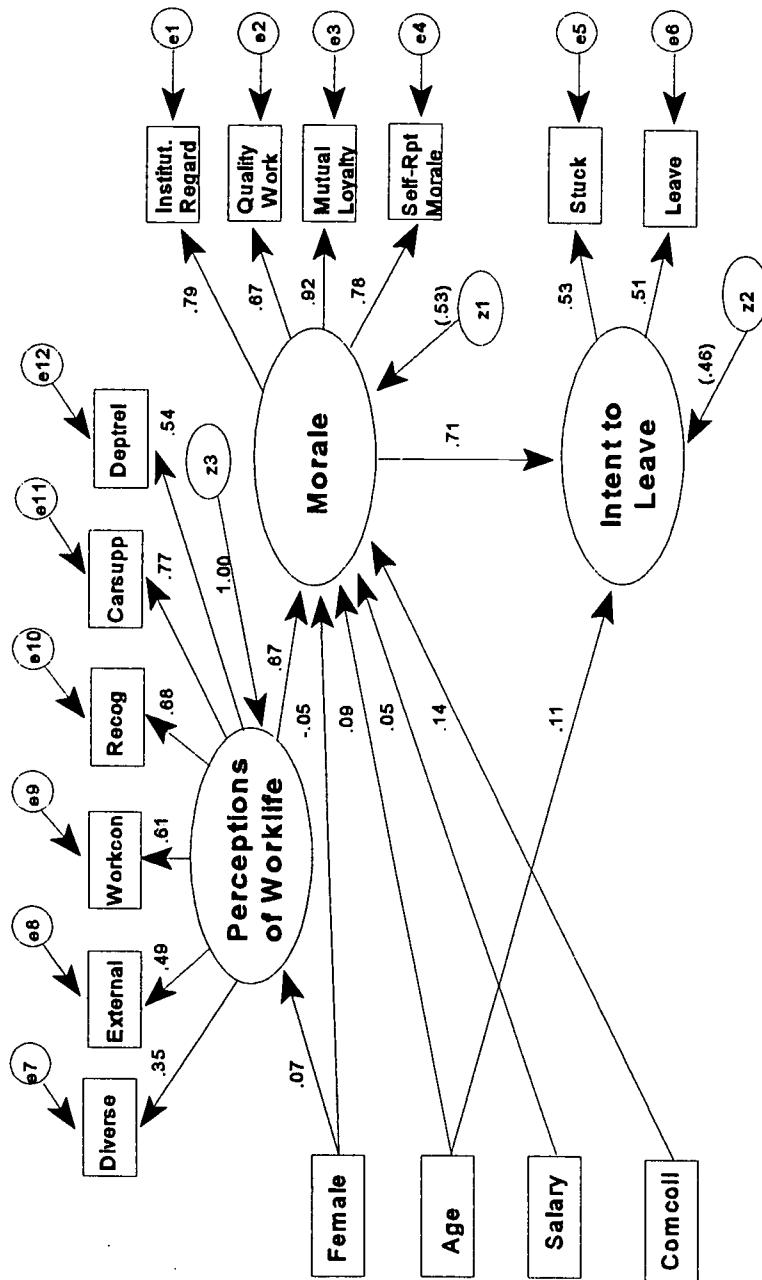


Figure 3. Final Structural Model (Standardized LISREL Estimates).  
Estimates > .08 are significant at  $p < .05$



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Printed Name/Position/Title: Dr. Linda K. Johnsrud, Professor
Organization/Address: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Dept. of Educational Administration, College of Education, Wist Hall #220, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822
Telephone: 808-956-4116
FAX: 808-956-4120
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