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Work Motivation, Discipline, and Organizational Culture as Predictors of Junior Officer Performance: Evidence from an Indonesian Air Squadron

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Abstract

Military personnel performance depends on individual work orientations and the organizational environment, yet their relative associations remain insufficiently understood within specific operational units. This study examined work motivation, work discipline, and perceived organizational culture as predictors of self-reported performance among junior officers at Air Squadron 33, Sultan Hasanuddin Air Force Base, Indonesia. A cross-sectional questionnaire survey covered all 60 junior officers in the defined population. The instrument contained 32 items across four constructs. Item-level responses were used to recompute composite scores, internal consistency, ordinary least squares regression, and HC3 sensitivity estimates. The regression model was significant, $F(3, 56) = 27.376, p < .001$, explaining 59.5% of performance variance. Organizational culture was positively associated with performance ($\beta = .754, p < .001$), whereas work motivation ($\beta = -.066, p = .471$) and discipline ($\beta = .138, p = .124$) were not significant after mutual adjustment. HC3 estimates preserved these significance decisions at the .05 level. Interpretation is constrained by low internal consistency of the motivation scale, identical response columns in parts of the instrument, and reliance on a single unit and self-reported measures. The findings identify perceived organizational culture as a promising correlate of officer performance, while indicating that motivation and discipline require more precise measurement and contextual examination before their practical contribution can be established.

Keywords: work motivation; work discipline; organizational culture; junior officers; military personnel performance; Indonesian Air Force.

1. Introduction

Junior officers occupy an important position in military organizations because their individual work contributes to the coordination and execution of unit tasks. Understanding performance at this level requires attention to both personnel

characteristics and the conditions under which they work. Performance research in the Royal Navy has examined intelligence, personality, and motivation as predictors of officers' performance and advancement, demonstrating the value of distinguishing individual predictors within a military setting

(Young & Dulewicz, 2024). Indonesian evidence has also brought organizational culture and work discipline into the study of army personnel performance (Aryanto et al., 2026). However, findings from senior naval officers or army personnel cannot automatically be transferred to junior officers in an air squadron.

Human resource management provides an initial basis for considering motivation, discipline, and culture together. Motivation concerns the direction and persistence of work effort, discipline concerns compliance with work requirements, and culture concerns shared expectations that give meaning to acceptable behavior. These concepts are discussed in Indonesian human resource and organizational management literature (Edison et al., 2016; Hasibuan, 2016; Sutrisno, 2016; Torang, 2016). Performance, in turn, concerns the work accomplished by individuals in relation to their assigned responsibilities and expected standards (Mangkunegara, 2017, 2018; Sinambela, 2018; Wibowo, 2016). This study treats the constructs as related but analytically distinct and examines their unique associations with individual performance.

Recent motivation research offers a more differentiated account of why people expend effort. Self-determination theory distinguishes motivation experienced as autonomous from motivation arising from external or internal pressure and emphasizes psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Gagné et al., 2022). Reviews and meta-analytic evidence connect these motivational processes with workplace outcomes, while identifying contextual and methodological qualifications (Hagger & McAnally Star, 2026; McAnally & Hagger, 2024). Military research on mission command also links leadership practices with needs satisfaction and autonomous motivation (Knevelsrud et al., 2024). These developments suggest that a general score of need-related motivation may not capture all motivational processes relevant to officer performance.

Organizational culture provides a complementary explanation. Shared norms, values, and beliefs can guide how personnel interpret their responsibilities and interact with colleagues (Wirawan, 2007). A systematic review shows the breadth of organizational culture research across management outcomes (Bogale & Debela, 2024). More specifically, meta-analysis differentiates the performance implications of clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market cultures at individual and organizational levels (Wang et al., 2025). Qualitative evidence further indicates that culture shapes performance expectations and the resources available to meet them (Smollan & Mooney, 2024). Culture is therefore relevant to military performance, but its implications should be examined rather than assumed from the presence of hierarchy.

Available empirical research also indicates that relationships may depend on the mechanism and setting being studied. Michulek et al. (2023) examine culture and work performance through leadership and engagement, while Henderson and Jeong (2024) investigate performance through leader-member exchange, needs satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. In the Indonesian Army, Aryanto et al. (2026) report significant relationships of leadership,

culture, and placement with discipline, but not with performance in the study's abstract. Such evidence creates a specific question about whether motivation, discipline, and perceived culture independently explain performance when entered together within one military unit.

This study addresses that question among 60 junior officers at Air Squadron 33, Sultan Hasanuddin Air Force Base. Its contribution is contextual and empirical: it estimates the relative associations of three commonly discussed human resource constructs with individual performance within a defined officer population. It also reports measurement limitations alongside coefficient estimates, allowing the substantive findings to be evaluated against the quality of the measures. The study aims to describe the constructs, assess their joint statistical contribution, and estimate each predictor's association with performance after adjustment for the others. The cross-sectional design supports associational conclusions rather than definitive causal claims.

1.1 Conceptual framework and hypotheses

Work motivation was operationalized through perceived fulfillment of physical, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. The general expectation is that personnel who perceive stronger motivational conditions will report better performance, consistent with human resource accounts of effort and performance (Hasibuan, 2016; Mangkunegara, 2017). Contemporary self-determination research provides an interpretive lens for this relationship, but the present instrument does not separately measure autonomous and controlled motivation (Gagné et al., 2022). Accordingly, H1 proposes a positive association between work motivation and junior officer performance after adjustment for discipline and culture.

Work discipline was defined as adherence to time requirements, institutional rules, and behavioral expectations, following the operational approach associated with Sutrisno (2016). Compliance may support consistency in task execution, particularly in an organization with formal command arrangements. Recent army research confirms the relevance of examining discipline alongside organizational conditions, although its findings do not justify assuming uniformly positive direct performance effects (Aryanto et al., 2026). H2 therefore proposes a positive association between work discipline and junior officer performance after adjustment for motivation and culture.

Perceived organizational culture was assessed through norms, values, and organizational beliefs or philosophy (Wirawan, 2007). These dimensions may support coordinated behavior and clarify expectations for work quality and responsibility (Smollan & Mooney, 2024). Because culture-performance relationships vary across cultural types and levels of analysis, an individual survey should be interpreted as a measure of perceived culture rather than a comparison of organizational cultures (Wang et al., 2025). H3 proposes a positive association between perceived organizational culture and junior officer performance after adjustment for motivation and discipline. H4 proposes that the three predictors jointly explain a nonzero proportion of performance variance.

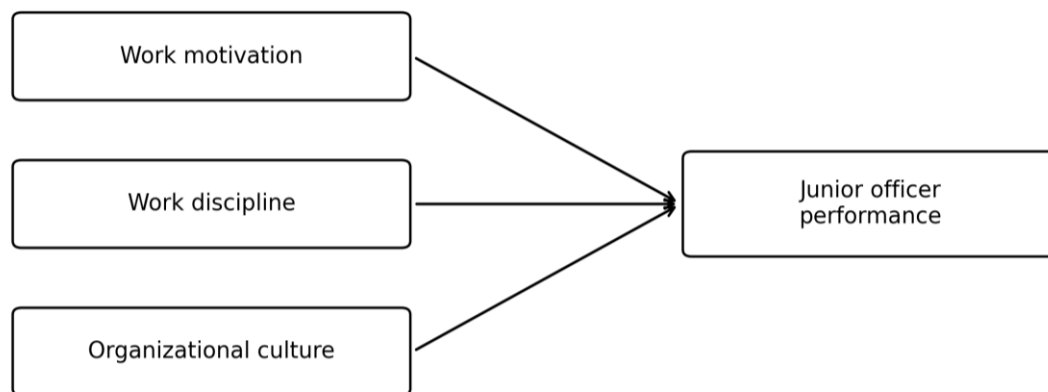


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

Arrows represent the regression relationships examined. They do not establish causal direction. All constructs were measured at the individual respondent level.

2. Methods

2.1 Design and participants

The study used a quantitative, cross-sectional explanatory survey at Air Squadron 33, Sultan Hasanuddin Air Force Base, Indonesia. The defined population consisted of 60 junior officers: 19 second lieutenants, 14 first lieutenants, and 27 captains. All members of this population were included through a census approach. The available questionnaire records contained 60 observations for each construct. Coverage of the defined population does not establish representativeness for other ranks, squadrons, or the Indonesian Air Force as a whole.

The numerical analysis in this article was recomputed from the item-level questionnaire tables supplied in the study records. Each

construct table contained 60 rows. For every row, the sum of the item responses matched the accompanying total score. The four tables were aligned according to their recorded row order. Because unique respondent identifiers were unavailable in the extracted tables, this matching assumption remains a limitation that should be checked against the original respondent-level dataset. No response values were imputed, reverse-coded, or altered.

2.2 Measures

The questionnaire comprised 32 positively worded statements: 10 motivation items, six discipline items, six culture items, and 10 performance items. Responses were coded from 1 to 5. The available instrument descriptions differ in their label for the midpoint, identifying it as either neutral or somewhat disagree; consequently, the analysis retains the numerical coding without assuming an unambiguous midpoint meaning. Total scores were used for regression, and mean item scores were used for descriptive comparison across scales of different lengths. Table 1 summarizes the construct definitions and measurement domains.

Table 1. Construct operationalization

Construct	Domains	Items	Basis
Work motivation	Physical, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs	10	Need hierarchy used in the study instrument; Hasibuan (2016) as supporting HR literature
Work discipline	Time requirements, institutional rules, and behavioral expectations	6	Sutrisno (2016)
Perceived organizational culture	Norms, values, and organizational beliefs or philosophy	6	Wirawan (2007)
Self-reported performance	Quality, quantity, responsibility, cooperation, and initiative	10	Mangkunegara (2017, 2018); Sinambela (2018)

Note. The motivation measure was based on a need hierarchy, not a validated self-determination theory scale. Each domain was represented by two items. Supporting literature is distinguished from instrument provenance.

Several measurement features require caution. One discipline item addresses perceived continuity of employment, which is conceptually closer to job security than time compliance. Another concerns absence of conflict rather than compliance itself. Some culture items describe the respondent's own honesty or norm compliance, creating possible overlap with individual discipline. Performance was self-reported and was not independently verified against supervisor ratings or operational records. These features are

retained to preserve the administered instrument and are evaluated as limitations rather than corrected retrospectively.

2.3 Analysis

Internal consistency was estimated using Cronbach's alpha on the constituent items only; aggregate scores were excluded from the item set. Corrected item-total correlations were computed to characterize item coherence. No item was removed on the basis of its association with the outcome. A multiple ordinary least squares regression was then estimated as $\text{Performance} = b_0 + b_1(\text{Motivation}) + b_2(\text{Discipline}) + b_3(\text{Culture}) + \text{error}$. Unstandardized coefficients, standardized coefficients, t statistics, two-sided p values, and 95% confidence intervals are reported. Statistical significance was evaluated at .05.

The model's joint contribution was assessed using the F test, R^2 , and adjusted R^2 . Variance inflation factors assessed collinearity among the predictors. Residual normality was examined with the Shapiro–Wilk test, and residual variance was assessed through a Breusch–Pagan auxiliary regression. HC3 standard errors were calculated as a sensitivity analysis, with t-based intervals and p values using 56 residual degrees of freedom. The joint F test evaluates whether at least one slope differs from zero and does not establish that every predictor is significant. Because the population was enumerated, inferential statistics are interpreted as model-based quantities rather than uncertainty generated by random sampling from the 60 officers.

3. Results

3.1 Participant characteristics

The available records describe 45 men and 15 women. Twenty respondents held a bachelor's degree, while 30 reported more than five years of service. Table 2 presents these characteristics. Service duration refers to the categories reported in the questionnaire; the labels 1–3 and 3–5 years overlap at three years and should not be interpreted as precisely defined intervals.

Table 2. Characteristics of the 60 respondents

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Rank	Second lieutenant	19	31.7
	First lieutenant	14	23.3
	Captain	27	45.0
Sex	Male	45	75.0
	Female	15	25.0
Education	Senior high school	15	25.0
	Diploma	15	25.0
	Bachelor's degree	20	33.3
	Postgraduate	10	16.7
Reported service duration	Less than 1 year	10	16.7
	1–3 years	10	16.7
	3–5 years	10	16.7
	More than 5 years	30	50.0

Note. Descriptive counts reproduce the study records; percentages were calculated or rounded to one decimal place. Rank totals identify the census population.

3.2 Descriptive statistics and measurement quality

Mean item scores were 4.362 for motivation, 4.486 for discipline, 4.256 for culture, and 4.343 for performance (Table 3). These

values indicate responses concentrated toward the upper end of the numerical scale. They describe perceived conditions and self-rated performance, rather than externally verified effectiveness. Motivation showed particularly limited dispersion across respondents, with an SD of 0.264 for its mean score.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and internal consistency

Construct	Items	Mean	SD	α	Corrected item–total r
Motivation	10	4.362	0.264	0.516	0.032 to 0.596
Discipline	6	4.486	0.404	0.853	0.556 to 0.701
Culture	6	4.256	0.397	0.688	0.311 to 0.552
Performance	10	4.343	0.450	0.885	0.437 to 0.763

Note. $N = 60$. Mean and SD refer to respondent-level mean item scores. Alpha was recomputed from individual items without including total scores. The final column gives the range of corrected item–total correlations.

Internal consistency differed substantially across constructs. Motivation had $\alpha = .516$, indicating weak coherence of the aggregate score. Discipline had $\alpha = .853$, culture $\alpha = .688$, and performance $\alpha = .885$. Motivation's corrected item–total correlations ranged from .032 to .596, indicating that some items

contributed little to the common score. Culture's internal consistency was also modest, so neither scale should be treated as a fully validated measure of a single latent construct.

An item-level check identified identical response columns for discipline items 1 and 5 and items 2 and 6, and for performance items 1 and 3 and items 2 and 10. The corresponding statements differ in content. These exact response matches may reflect redundancy, transcription, or another feature of the recorded data; the available material does not establish their cause. They may

inflate apparent internal consistency and reduce the effective diversity of the measures. They were therefore retained but explicitly flagged, and all results remain conditional on the accuracy of the recorded matrix.

3.3 Regression estimates

The regression model explained 59.5% of performance variance, $R^2 = .595$, adjusted $R^2 = .573$. The joint test was significant, $F(3,$

56) = 27.376, $p < .001$, supporting H4. The residual standard error was 2.941 performance total-score points. Table 4 reports the mutually adjusted predictor estimates. The fitted equation, using total scores, was $\text{Performance} = 5.064 - 0.113(\text{Motivation}) + 0.256(\text{Discipline}) + 1.425(\text{Culture})$. The intercept has limited substantive meaning because zero values fall outside the observed questionnaire ranges.

Table 4. Ordinary least squares estimates predicting performance

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI for B
Intercept	5.064	9.106	—	0.556	.580	-13.177 to 23.306
Motivation	-0.113	0.155	-0.066	-0.725	.471	-0.424 to 0.199
Discipline	0.256	0.164	0.138	1.563	.124	-0.072 to 0.585
Culture	1.425	0.166	0.754	8.570	< .001	1.092 to 1.758

Note. $N = 60$; residual $df = 56$. B = unstandardized coefficient; β = standardized coefficient; CI = confidence interval. $R^2 = .595$; adjusted $R^2 = .573$; $F(3, 56) = 27.376$, $p < .001$. Coefficients use summed item scores.

Organizational culture was positively associated with performance ($B = 1.425$, $\beta = .754$, $p < .001$), supporting H3. Its 95% confidence interval excluded zero. Motivation was not significant ($B = -0.113$,

$\beta = -.066$, $p = .471$), and the negative point estimate does not provide evidence that motivation harms performance. Discipline was positive but not significant ($B = 0.256$, $\beta = .138$, $p = .124$). H1 and H2 were therefore not supported. Culture had the largest standardized point estimate, but this comparison was not a formal dominance analysis or a statistical test of differences between coefficients.

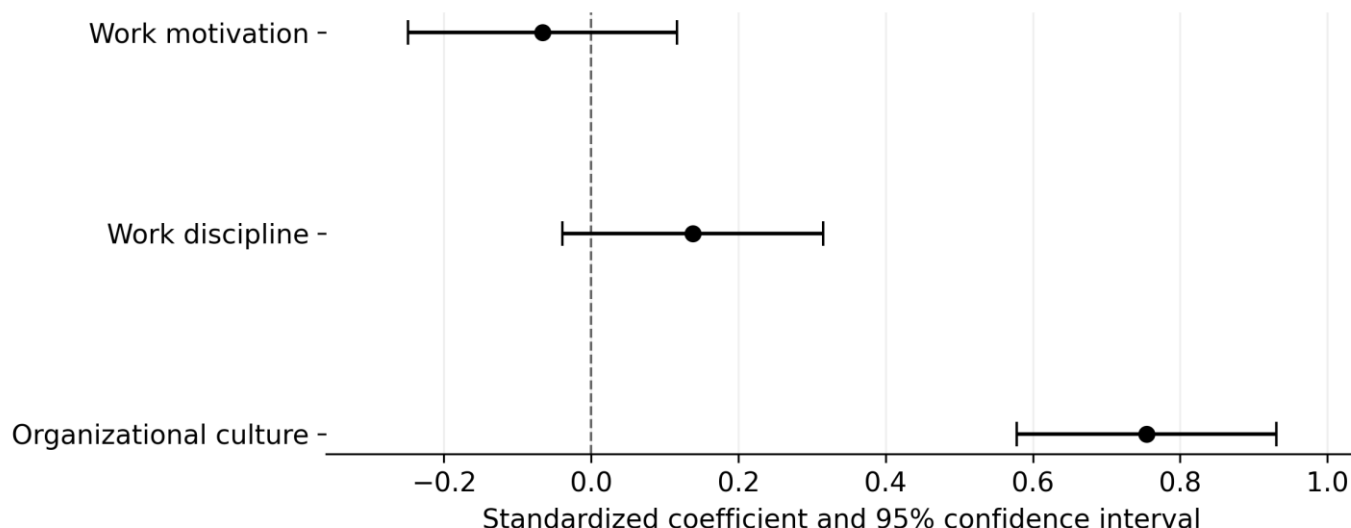


Figure 2. Standardized regression coefficients with 95 percent confidence intervals

Intervals were obtained by rescaling the ordinary least squares intervals for B to the standardized metric. Motivation and discipline intervals cross zero; the culture interval does not.

3.4 Diagnostics and sensitivity analysis

Variance inflation factors were 1.146 for motivation, 1.080 for discipline, and 1.070 for culture, indicating little collinearity in this matrix. The Shapiro–Wilk residual test yielded $W = .983$, $p = .586$, and the Breusch–Pagan test yielded $LM = 4.363$, $p = .225$. These tests did not detect departures from their respective assumptions, although the sample size limits diagnostic power and neither test verifies independence of observations.

Table 5. Sensitivity estimates using HC3 standard errors

Predictor	HC3 SE	HC3 p	95% HC3 CI for B
Motivation	0.170	.509	-0.453 to 0.227
Discipline	0.130	.053	-0.003 to 0.516
Culture	0.203	< .001	1.019 to 1.831

Note. Regression point estimates are unchanged. HC3 intervals and p values use a t reference distribution with 56 df. Results are sensitivity estimates, not an independent validation dataset.

HC3 estimates preserved the .05-level decisions: culture remained significant, motivation remained nonsignificant, and discipline remained nonsignificant. Discipline's HC3 p value was .053, close to the decision threshold; its interpretation is therefore sensitive to the uncertainty estimator even though the threshold decision is unchanged. The strong culture association cannot be regarded as

fully validated by this sensitivity check because measurement and transcription concerns are unaffected by changing standard errors.

4. Discussion

4.1 Organizational culture and officer performance

The principal finding was a positive association between perceived organizational culture and self-reported performance after adjustment for motivation and discipline. This relationship is consistent with an interpretation in which shared norms and values help personnel understand expected work behavior. Wirawan (2007) provides the conceptual basis for these cultural dimensions, while Torang (2016) situates culture within organizational behavior and structure. The association concerns variation in officers' perceptions within one unit; it does not show that Air Squadron 33 possesses an objectively stronger culture than another unit.

The finding can be situated alongside wider culture research without assuming all forms of culture are equivalent. Bogale and Debela (2024) synthesize culture as an organizational construct across management research, and Wang et al. (2025) differentiate the performance implications of distinct cultural types. The present measure addresses norms, values, and beliefs but does not classify respondents or the unit into the competing values framework. Consequently, the result does not establish that hierarchical culture is the most effective military culture. It indicates that respondents who rated the selected cultural attributes more positively also tended to report better performance.

Smollan and Mooney (2024) offer a useful explanation through the formation of performance expectations: norms can clarify acceptable quality, workload, and interpersonal conduct. Michulek et al. (2023) also examine leadership and engagement as mechanisms connecting culture and work performance. Such mechanisms could help explain the observed relationship, but leadership and engagement were not measured here. Shared wording and self-evaluation tendencies provide alternative explanations, particularly because some culture items concern the respondent's own conduct. Both substantive and measurement explanations should therefore remain open.

Aryanto et al. (2026) provide a particularly relevant comparison because their study addresses culture, discipline, and performance among Indonesian Army personnel. Their abstract reports significant relationships with discipline but not performance for the organizational predictors examined. This differs from the present culture coefficient and supports a contextual research gap rather than a universal culture effect. Differences in personnel composition, instruments, model specification, and organizational setting are plausible explanations, but none can be isolated using the current data. Comparative studies across units would be needed to test them.

4.2 Why motivation was not independently significant

The motivation coefficient did not support a positive unique association with performance. This should not be interpreted as evidence that motivation is irrelevant to military work. The score was based on perceived fulfillment of several needs and showed low internal consistency. Respondents may evaluate pay, protection, social relations, recognition, and self-development differently, limiting the interpretability of their combined score. Its

high mean and relatively low dispersion also leave limited information for detecting associations among these officers.

Contemporary motivation research reinforces the need to distinguish the content and quality of motivation. Gagné et al. (2022) and Hagger and McAnally Star (2026) examine needs support and differentiated motivational processes, rather than treating all motivational experiences as interchangeable. Henderson and Jeong (2024) similarly place needs satisfaction and intrinsic motivation between leader-member relationships and performance. These studies inform interpretation but cannot validate the current need-hierarchy instrument. The nonsignificant estimate may reflect measurement limitations, restricted variation, contextual factors, or a genuinely small adjusted association; the present design cannot distinguish among them.

Military evidence also cautions against relying on a generic motivation score. Knevelsrud et al. (2024) examine motivation in relation to mission command, while Young and Dulewicz (2024) consider motivation alongside intelligence and personality in senior naval officers. These designs address processes and populations different from the current study. For future air force research, motivation measures should separate internally endorsed professional commitment from reward-related or pressure-related effort and should be validated before assessing their contribution to performance. McAnally and Hagger (2024) further support longitudinal and intervention designs when researchers intend to infer motivational mechanisms.

4.3 Discipline and its conditional contribution

Discipline had a positive point estimate, but its confidence interval included zero. High reported compliance may be necessary for routine task execution while providing little differentiation among respondents within the same organizational system. That possibility is compatible with the high discipline mean, but a ceiling effect or a necessary-condition relationship was not formally established. The conceptual distinction between adherence to rules and work results remains important: compliance concerns how work is conducted, whereas performance includes output quality, quantity, cooperation, and initiative (Sutrisno, 2016; Mangkunegara, 2018; Wibowo, 2016).

The measurement concerns also matter. Job continuity and absence of interpersonal conflict do not directly establish behavioral compliance, and identical response columns can make a scale appear more consistent than its distinct content warrants. Aryanto et al. (2026) demonstrate the usefulness of examining organizational conditions and discipline together, but the present coefficient does not identify discipline as a mediator or as an independently established cause of performance. The HC3 *p* value of .053 makes an absolute claim of no relationship particularly inappropriate. A more defensible conclusion is that this dataset did not provide sufficiently precise evidence of a unique discipline association at the chosen threshold.

4.4 Practical implications

The culture finding gives commanders a basis for examining how unit norms and values are communicated and reflected in everyday work. Clear task expectations, consistent examples from supervisors, and constructive discussion of work standards are reasonable areas for attention. Their effectiveness should be evaluated using documented work outcomes rather than assumed from the regression coefficient. Recommendations should also

avoid increasing pressure without considering personnel resources and reasonable expectations, an issue emphasized by Smollan and Mooney (2024).

Motivation and discipline should remain part of personnel management, despite their nonsignificant adjusted coefficients. General human resource literature recognizes the importance of managing work conditions and employee conduct (Edison et al., 2016; Hasibuan, 2016). Performance evaluation should combine such information with defined responsibilities and multiple sources of evidence (Mangkunegara, 2017; Sinambela, 2018; Wibowo, 2016). For this unit, the immediate research priority is improving the measurement and record verification that underpin managerial conclusions. The study cannot justify reallocating resources away from motivation or discipline on the basis of significance tests alone.

4.5 Limitations and future research

The study is limited to a census of 60 junior officers in one air squadron. Its findings do not generalize statistically to other units or ranks, and observational data collected at one time cannot establish temporal or causal direction. Model-based p values also require assumptions that census coverage does not remove. Demographic variables were not available as matched individual covariates, so rank, education, and service duration were not adjusted for in the regression.

Measurement quality is a major limitation. The motivation scale had low internal consistency, culture had modest consistency, and several item contents overlap with neighboring constructs. Identical response columns in discipline and performance require comparison with the original completed questionnaires or data file. Row matching across the four recorded tables also needs verification using respondent identifiers. No retrospective deletion of problematic items was used to improve statistical significance. Self-reporting of predictors and performance may introduce common response tendencies, and no independent operational or supervisor performance measure was available.

Future studies should verify item-level records, validate the instruments in the intended officer population, and clarify response anchors. Surveys across several units could distinguish individual perceptions from unit-level culture and examine whether associations vary by rank or role. Repeated measurements and independently rated performance would improve the assessment of directionality. Differentiated motivation measures could also test the processes highlighted by Gagné et al. (2022), Knevelsrud et al. (2024), and Hagger and McAnally Star (2026). The methodological agenda proposed by McAnally and Hagger (2024) is useful for designing such extensions.

5. Conclusion

Among the 60 junior officers studied, perceived organizational culture was positively associated with self-reported performance after adjustment for motivation and discipline. The three-predictor model explained 59.5% of performance variance, but motivation and discipline were not individually significant at .05. These results support a contextual focus on shared norms and values while leaving the contribution of motivation and discipline unresolved. Low motivation-scale reliability, identical response columns, and the limitations of a single-unit cross-sectional survey restrict the strength of interpretation. The findings should guide more precise measurement and further evaluation of personnel

management practices rather than be treated as evidence of causal effects.

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