

Analysis of motivation theories of Locke, Galbraith, Bandura and Lancaster and their applicability in the military

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Abstract: *The article discusses some of the process motivational theories, examining their applicability in military organisation. The purpose of the report is to analyse the theories of Locke, Galbraith, Bandura and Lancaster rather than indicate the best approach for motivation. The results of the analysis will contribute to a clearer understanding of military motivation and provide guidance that commanders and chiefs could use to enhance their own motivational style.*

Keywords: MOTIVATION, THEORIES, MILITARY.

1. Introduction

Today, many organisations face the problem of a lack of motivated and skilled labour. According to one of Manpower's latest studies [1], Bulgaria ranks 5th in terms of staff shortages, especially in the fields of economy, business, education, security. The author of the article shares, 'If some time ago the competitiveness of companies was measured by their technological innovation, today the focus is on a new problem – the human factor.' [1]. This requires a study of theories and approaches to motivation in order to use the most effective of them to attract and retain personnel in the armed forces.

Due to the great variety of procedural theories of motivation, we have considered some of them in view of their relevance to the army. This report analyses the procedural theories of motivation of Locke, Galbraith, Bandura and Lancaster, assesses their applicability in military conditions and derives the characteristics of each theory.

In procedural theories, the emphasis is primarily on the mental processes that take place in relation to motivation. Unlike content ones, procedural theories focus on the nature of motivation as a process, that is how behaviour is initiated, directed, maintained, and stopped. From a practical point of view, these theories are often defined as more useful in human resource management because they provide guidance for the use of a wide range of motivational techniques.

According to procedural theories, a person's behaviour is a function of his perceptions and expectations related to a given situation, as well as the possible consequences of the chosen type of behaviour. [2]

2. Procedural theories of motivation of Locke, Galbraith, Bandura and Lancaster

2.1. Locke's goal-setting theory

Published in 1968, Edwin Locke's theory [3] gives us the basis for modern motivation in the workplace. Through it, he links employees' goals, productivity and commitment, showing that they are motivated by clear, well-defined goals and that the challenge of the workplace in reasonable quantities is not superfluous.

The author focuses mainly on setting specific and measurable goals rather than on the results as a whole. With his theory, he demonstrates how a clear goal such as 'increasing sales by 20%' is much more effective than a vague guidance of the type 'improve your performance.' In this way, Locke laid the foundation for modern goal-setting, which is essential for management.

Goals also have a direct impact on work intensity and work behaviour. According to Locke, the strength of motivation is linearly related to the level of difficulty of the goals and the individual commitment to them. The more difficult the goals, the more motivated the employees are. Locke says managers can also use 'impossible' goals to encourage creativity, but employees need

to be reassured that there will be no penalty for not achieving such ambitious goals. If this cannot be achieved, the goals need to be difficult but achievable at the same time. However, the importance of clarity and specificity of objectives must not be forgotten. In addition, it is very important for employees to recognise goals as their own so that they can have a stronger impact on their motivation. For this reason, employees need to participate in the process of formulating goals or to be as close as possible to it. This way they will feel much more empathetic.

Another important issue in the process of achieving goals is feedback. Obtaining accurate, constant and timely feedback on the achieved individual results allows simultaneous control of their implementation and increases the motivation to work.

The goal-setting theory plays an important role in modern management. Today, we increasingly see individualisation at the expense of collectivisation. The individual, the individual personality, comes to the fore at the expense of the team. This leads many organisations to apply the principles of goal management (goal-based management) and to welcome the initiative in individual goal setting and self-determination.

Under the influence of society, this theory is gaining popularity in the military. In the past, the initiative in the army was not very useful, and this trend continues today. But in modern conditions, the classical military approach to management by giving clear and specific orders is beginning to be displaced by management by setting goals and objectives. When defining goals and setting tasks, creative thinking and initiative in subordinates are stimulated. They are motivated to perform their duties, while feeling satisfaction with the achieved collective goals, recognising them as their own.

The use of management through goal setting in the army, of course, does not override the classical approach of giving orders and following instructions exactly. In the absence of time, it is vital to execute the order quickly and accurately, instead of wasting valuable time thinking about how to achieve the goal. In the military, the use of one of these two management approaches is largely determined by the specific level in the hierarchical structure and the time available. The higher the management level (operational and strategic), the command is displaced from the management, and the approach used is by setting goals and objectives. The lower the level (tactical) the management is replaced by the command, and the management approach is by giving clear and specific orders. The dependence between the management levels and approaches is determined by the specifics of the activities performed at the particular levels. At the low levels, they are much more detailed, concrete and specific, while at the high levels they are much more general and integrated.

Given the specifics of targeted motivation, an important aspect is the knowledge of the personal characteristics of subordinates and the ability to set individual goals. In the absence of these abilities, it is appropriate for the commanders and superiors to support this process through personal example, mentoring and implementation of lessons learned in management practice.

2.1. Galbraith's theory of the four motives

A relatively more modern but also more private pragmatic approach to dealing with motivation is that of John Galbraith. [4] He brings out the motivational needs by looking at the individual as workforce. In this sense, at the level of organisation, according to him, there are the following four motives: coercion; financial recompense; identification; adjustment. They can be used individually or in combination as motives for a person's activity. The author calls their joint impact on the individual influence of the system of motives.

Coercion is a negative motive, expressed in the form of a certain punishment for non-compliance with established rules and obligations. Financial recompense leads to compliance with organisational goals by using positive rewards in the form of cash. Identification, on the other hand, is seen as the recognition of organisational goals as one's own, as a result of which they displace personal ones and become more important than them. In adapting, one can serve the organisation not because he identifies its goals as his own interests, but because he hopes to bring them to the service of his own goals. This motive is closely related to the desire for power, but it is given very little recognition in the theory of organisation.

Looking at economic development in historical terms, Galbraith believes that there is a relationship between the economic factor that dominates in the period and the various motives. For example, when it is land, the motive for participation in the economy is coercion, in the domination of capital – financial recompense, and in modern conditions, in the domination of technostucture – identification and adaptation.

The strength of each motive or system of motives needs to be measured according to the degree of connection of the individual with the organisation. In turn, the systems of motives differ significantly depending on what motives are included in them and in what interrelations they are. Some motives collide with each other and neutralise each other, some motives combine poorly, but others significantly reinforce each other, making the organisation effective, achieving its goals in the best way.

According to the author of the theory, the connection between the different motives is important. He considers that coercion is to varying degrees compatible with financial recompense, but is incompatible with identification and adjustment. The following statement is also of great importance for the functioning of modern economy: 'If the element of coercion is significant, then the financial motive is incompatible neither with identification nor with adaptation. If it is insignificant, then the other motives are fully compatible.' [4] This in turn means that the system of motives will be different in poor and rich countries, as well as among poor and rich people. And the quantitative difference eventually turns into a qualitative difference. In a poor country and among low-paid people, the attitude towards work in general is characterised by intolerance and resentment, which in combination with coercion alienates the worker from the employer. In rich countries and among wealthier people, relationships are based on more benevolence, pushing coercion into the background. As a result, alienation is small or absent, and the employee perceives the goals of the organisation.

In his research, Galbraith found that a paradox related to the financial motives arose: 'The higher the level of wages, the lower its value compared to other motives.' [4] He finds the explanation for this not in the diminishing and insignificant value of money, but in the fact that the increase of income in most cases decreases the dependence on the specific job. At the same time, the element of coercion will also decrease, which will lead to identification and adjustment with goals and devaluation of money as a motive.

According to Galbraith, the structure of a modern corporation can be represented as concentric circles depending on the influence that different motives have on the different categories working in

the organisation and its shareholders. In the peripheral circles are the ordinary shareholders, who are influenced only by the financial motive and the maximum dividends and are not in solidarity with the organisational goals. The next circle is the production workers. According to their position in the organisation and the degree of their participation in the management, their motives represent a kind of combination between the financial motive and the identification with the organisational goals. As you approach the center, the next circle is gradually filled by fewer and fewer employees directly involved in production/work (foremen, supervisors, technicians, engineers, workshop/department heads, specialists, etc.) until you reach the center of the circle where the leaders are. As we move from the periphery to the center, the role of identification and adjustment to goals increases, pushing out coercion.

The considered theory is characterised by flexibility and applicability in modern conditions. In the context of military environment, it corresponds to some extent to the military organisational structure. Just as Galbraith suggests using different motives from the periphery to the center, so in the military they could be used from the base to the top of the pyramid at different levels in the military organisation. However, the question arises as to the appropriateness of using coercion as an adequate motive, even at the lowest army levels. In today's professional army, this motive would not be applicable except in emergencies. Rather, the combination of the other three, depending on the position held, can turn them into an effective incentive system that would help increase the overall motivation of servicemen and interest in the military profession.

2.3. Socio-cognitive theory of Albert Bandura

In his social cognitive theory, the psychologist Albert Bandura emphasises that human behaviour is formed and controlled on the basis of environmental influences or internal motives. Socio-cognitive theory explains the functioning of the human psyche as a result of the 'Triad reciprocal determinism.' In this determinism, cognitive, behavioural, personal factors, as well as those related to the environment act as interrelated determinants that interact with each other and in both directions forming motivation and behaviour. [5] The triad is determined by three interrelated determinants – behaviour, personal characteristics and environmental influence (see Fig. 1). Reciprocity neither means that different sources of influence are equally powerful, nor that reciprocal influences occur simultaneously. It takes time for the stimulus to get activated and then for it to activate reciprocal influences. Due to the bilateral impact, people are both products of their environment and its producers.

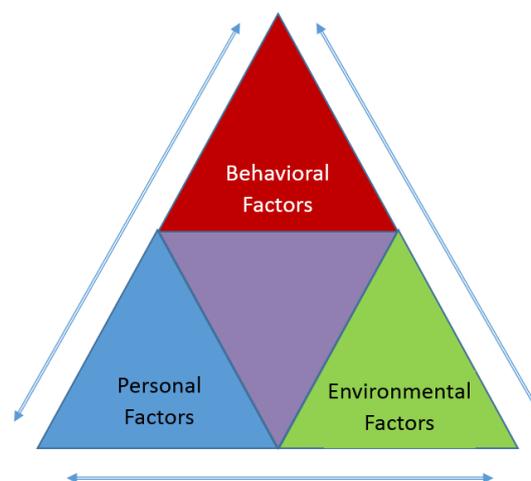


Fig. 1 Bandura's Triad Reciprocal Determinism

In socio-cognitive theory, the self-regulation of motivation and achievement in performance is managed by several mechanisms that act together. One of the mechanisms playing a central role in this regulatory process works through people's beliefs in their own

self-efficacy. [6] Self-efficacy refers to people's beliefs in their abilities that they can mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources, and ways of acting needed to control events in their lives. There is a difference between having skills and using skills well in difficult circumstances. To be successful, one must not only have the necessary skills, but also be confident in their ability to exercise control over events in order to achieve the desired goals. Therefore, capable people may perform poorly, moderately, or exceptionally, depending on their beliefs in self-efficacy, which may increase or worsen their motivation to solve problems. The author believes that 'Whatever other factors serve as motivators, they are rooted in the basic belief that one has the power to produce change through his actions.'

According to Badnura, one can strengthen faith in self-efficacy in four main ways: positive experience, observation, persuasion, and physical strength. [5]

The best way to develop a strong sense of effectiveness is through positive experience. Success at work strengthens confidence in one's abilities, while failures raise doubts about self-confidence. However, when people have only easy successes, they expect quick results and in case of failure, they are easily discouraged. In order to gain a lasting sense of efficacy, one needs to constantly gain experience in overcoming difficulties.

Modeling through observation is the second way to strengthen self-confidence. This way influences the human belief in self-efficacy through a model of social comparison. People often judge their abilities by comparing them to others. Observing success based on hard work increases faith in one's own abilities, while observing failures, despite great efforts, reduces self-confidence.

Social persuasion is a third way to increase a person's confidence. If he is encouraged, he will probably put more effort into success than if he doubts himself. However, if his idea of self-efficacy rises unrealistically, he risks failing, which will lower his perception of his own effectiveness. In order to increase a person's faith in his abilities, it is appropriate to initially set him such tasks and goals that will lead to success. Setting more difficult tasks should be done only after gaining enough experience through self-perfection.

The fourth way to change a person's self-confidence is by improving his physical condition. One often evaluates one's abilities by relying on someone's judgment of his physical condition. In cases when he is tense, agitated or exhausted, he loses confidence in his own abilities. For this reason, it is necessary to improve the person's general physical condition, which in turn will reduce stress levels, feelings of incapacity and increase self-confidence.

Refracted through the prism of military environment, the social-cognitive theory is a serious challenge not only to commanders but also to subordinates. Despite the growing popularity of this theory in the scientific community, there is still insufficient data on the results of its practical applicability. This requires its careful use in practice compared to the theories discussed so far. The options proposed by the theory for increasing self-efficacy are largely applicable to the military. Some of them, such as mentoring, persuasion and physical training, are still used today. The most effective way to increase self-confidence – gaining positive experience – is also an interesting approach, but given the importance of tasks and the cost of failure, it is difficult to apply in a real environment. However, it can be successfully implemented in training and preparation while using the experience already gained in the system 'Lessons learned'.

2.4. A theory based on generational differences

The theory was developed by Lynn Lancaster in collaboration with David Stillman. The author of the theory conducted a number of studies examining generational differences and became popular with her book 'The Clash of Generations' [8]. The concept described in her work is based on the understanding that each

generation has its own characteristics that, used properly, can increase the efficiency of the organisation. Used improperly, these differences would lead to reduced income, staff turnover, career failures, customer rejection, wasted human resources, and health problems caused by stress.

Lancaster examines four main generational groups:

- Traditionalists (builders) – born in the period 1920-1945;
- Baby-boomers – 1946-1964;
- Generation 'X' – 1965-1980;
- Generation 'Y' (new millennium) – 1980-1995.

The author's research draws attention to the growing importance for proper management and motivation of employees from different generations working in one place. The analysed results of the research of the generations show that '... the differences between the generations can strengthen and not harm the organisations' and '... that the companies that learn to take advantage of the weaknesses of the generations, and not just manage or support them, are likely to be the desired employers in the future, able to attract and retain skilled workers.' [8] In other words, successful organisations will be those that are able to realise, understand and use the strengths of all generations, as well as their perceptions of immediate and future needs. For this reason, it is vital for managers to understand the value system of each generation and to discover their individual differences if they want to create and maintain work atmosphere that encourages and motivates.

Other proponents of the theory of generational differences also offer similar approaches to the study and application of generational determinism. Mark McCrindle believes that 'The key to business success is to understand human traits, change in attitudes, social trends and the thinking of ever-changing customers and employees.' Although McCrindle generally accepted Lancaster's ideas, in contrast he developed the theory by adding two more generations:

- Generation 'Z' – those born in the period 1995-2009;
- Generation 'Alpha' – those born after 2010.

He draws attention to the younger generations (especially the 'Y' and 'Z'), arguing that in order to attract and retain younger workers in their busy lives, companies and enterprises need to be aware and adapt to the changing needs of the workforce. [9] Employers need to use creative approaches to attract young workers, to advertise and interview to show how they will meet their needs.

McCrindle's example with the Australian Armed Forces is indicative of the strength of a quality advertising campaign. Following the onset of one of the largest recruitment crises, the Australian Army launches a new advertising campaign aimed at Generation Y. Instead of the old approaches, the campaign uses various new technologies and social media such as Facebook, videos uploaded to YouTube and online gaming sites simulating military action to recruit potential candidates. They attract young people by promising them opportunities beyond pay, with the motto 'you get paid to stay in shape', 'sports entertainment', 'great food – eat like you've never eaten before' and 'see Australia and the world' [9]. In contrast, the Generation X campaign in the early 1980s read, 'You'll be wet, you'll be nostalgic and scared – but you'll be the pride of the Navy.'

This example aptly embodies the skillful use of different approaches, according to the needs of different generations. To attract and retain new generations, employers and managers must keep their promises and respond to their changing needs. Research on different generations reflects that people's needs in the workplace are changing. Increasingly, when looking for a job, the balance between work and life, workplace culture, various work activities, management style and training come to the fore.

The application of the theory of generational differences has invariably become increasingly important not only in civilian life but also in military circles. Given the growing shortage of troops in recent years, Lancaster's theory is quite adequate in the military. It corresponds to the growing age difference between the military, due to the increasing length of military service and the retirement age in the army. Therefore, it is necessary to research, analyse and know the needs of servicemen of different generations. This will, on the one hand, improve the working climate in the organisation with a large age range, and on the other hand, it will help increase the interest in the military profession and attract and retain personnel.

3. Conclusion

Locke's theory provides the basis for modern work motivation, emphasising the challenges of the workplace by setting clear and measurable goals. This makes it applicable in an army environment, stimulating creative thinking and initiative, which lead to the satisfaction of subordinates with the achieved goals.

Galbraith presents a relatively more modern, but also more private pragmatic approach to the consideration of work motivation. He examines the system of four motives in the work environment and deduces the relationship between them, differentiating the motivating impact of each depending on the position. This makes the theory applicable to some extent in military conditions, giving guidelines for building an effective system of incentives that helps to increase the overall motivation of servicemen.

Bandura's social-cognitive theory considers human behaviour, personal characteristics and the environment as interrelated determinants that form motivation. A key point in the theory is the self-regulation of motivation, carried out mainly through the perception of self-efficacy. Bandura's tools for increasing self-efficacy are still being used in the military, making his theory applicable in a military environment.

In today's age-inhomogeneous work environment, the theory of generational differences is becoming extremely relevant. The challenges faced by modern managers in any environment impose on them the need to know the characteristics and needs of employees of different generations. Knowing and applying this knowledge will help to attract and retain a skilled workforce and create a work atmosphere that is encouraging and motivating.

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