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# The Effects of Ethical Governance on Public Trust

*A Comparative Analysis of Anti-Corruption Policies and  
Procedures in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon*

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<b>Julkaisun nimike</b> Eettisen hallinnon vaikutukset luottamukseen: Vertaileva tutkimus korruption vastaisista toimintapolitiikoista ja menettelytavoista Nigeriassa, Ghanassa ja Kamerunissa.		
<p><b>Tiivistelmä</b></p> <p>Luottamusta voidaan analysoida eri näkökulmista: tässä tutkimuksessa näkökulmana on korruption vastainen taistelu. Vertaileva tutkimuksen kohteena ovat Nigerian, Ghanan ja Kamerunin korruption vastaiset virastot. Valintaa perustelee se, että näiden valtioiden tulokset korruption torjunnassa ja yleisen luottamuksen lisäämisessä ovat erilaisia. Valtioilla on sama tavoite korruption vastaisessa työssä, mutta ne ovat työssään eri kehitysvaiheissa.</p> <p>Tutkimus korostaa eettisen hallinnon tärkeyttä. Se koskee niitä ajatuksia (arvoja) ja elementtejä (mekanismeja), joiden avulla korruption vastainen työ onnistuu. Luottamus julkista hallintoa kohtaan kytkeytyy vahvasti suorituskyykyyn. Eettinen hallinto voi helpottaa korruption vastaisiin virastoihin kohdistuvien toiveiden ja odotusten toteuttamista.</p> <p>Dokumentteja ja haastatteluja on käytetty kvalitatiivisen analysoinnin keinoin. Menettelytapoja on tarkasteltu virallisten dokumenttien pohjalta ja luottamusta on tutkittu asiantuntijahaastatteluilla. Kolmen maan vertailussa Ghana antaa itsestään vahvimman kuvan, koska sen korruption vastainen toiminta on parhaiten linjassa eettisen hallinnon vaatimusten kanssa. Nigeria suoriutuu kohtuullisesti, kun taas Kamerun heikosti. Tätä väitettä tukee luottamus korruption vastaisia virastoja kohtaan kyseisissä maissa. Organisaatioiden kohdalla korkein luottamus kohdistuu CHRAJ:han (Ghana), seuraavaksi sijoittuu ICPC (Nigeria) ennen NACC:ta (Kamerun). 'Riippumattomuus' nousee merkityksellisimmäksi arvoksi, koska se vaikuttaa myönteisesti korruption vastaisen työn onnistumiseen.</p>		
<p><b>Asiasanat</b></p> <p>Eettinen hallinto, arvot, mekanismit, luottamus, korruptio, korruption vastaiset toimintapolitiikat ja menettelytavat, suorituskyyky, Nigeria, Ghana, Kamerun, ICPC, CHRAJ ja NACC</p>		



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<b>Abstract</b> <p>The concept of trust can be analysed or investigated from different perspectives; but in this research, it is investigated from an anti-corruption crusade perspective. The subject of the comparative research are the anti-corruption agencies of Nigeria, Ghana and Cameroon. This is important, because countries differ in their outcomes to reduce corruption and increase public trust. These countries have similar framework for anti-corruption crusade, but realizing different results.</p> <p>The main purpose of this research is to state that ethical governance is important, because it concerns the right thoughts (values) and elements (mechanisms) needed for a successful anti-corruption crusade. Trust in public administration is strongly linked to performance; ethical governance can help in actualising anti-corruption agencies' expected or desired performance.</p> <p>A qualitative analysis of documents and interviews is used in arriving at research results, because policies and procedures are studied through anti-corruption agencies documents and public trust is investigated through expert interview. Ghana represents the strong case and best practices, because it has anti-corruption policies and procedures that agree more with ethical governance, followed by Nigeria, which is the moderate case, before Cameroon, which is the weak case. These positions are further justified through the various levels of common trust for anti-corruption agencies in three countries. Public trust for CHRAJ (Ghana) is the highest, followed by ICPC (Nigeria), before NACC (Cameroon). 'Independence' as an ethical mechanism occupies the strongest position to achieving result in anti-corruption related issues.</p>			
<b>Keywords:</b> Ethical Governance, Values, Mechanisms, Public Trust, Corruption, Anti-Corruption Policies and Procedures, Performance, Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, ICPC, CHRAJ, and NACC			



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## Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	7
1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Research Setting.....	7
1.3 Ethics and Public Administration Research .....	10
1.3.1 Weberian and Riggsian Traditions.....	12
1.3.2 Administrative Ethics as a Doctrine.....	14
1.4 Main Concepts .....	16
1.4.1 Ethical Governance .....	16
1.4.2 Public Trust.....	18
1.5 An Overview of Previous Research .....	20
2 PUBLIC TRUST AS PART OF ETHICAL GOVERNANCE .....	23
2.1 Ethical Governance Defined .....	24
2.1.1 Ethics.....	26
2.1.2 Governance and Management .....	28
2.1.3 Different Aspects of Ethical Governance.....	30
2.1.4 Ethical Values .....	32
2.1.5 Ethical Mechanisms .....	35
2.1.6 Ethical Governance and Rationality .....	38
2.2 Public Trust.....	43
2.2.1 Trust in Public Administration and Management.....	44
2.2.2 Means of Achieving Trust.....	47
2.3 Public Trust and Combating Corruption .....	52
2.3.1 Ideological View .....	53
2.3.2 Institutional View.....	57
2.4 Summary.....	60
3 RESEARCH STRATEGY .....	62
3.1 Qualitative Research.....	62
3.2 Comparative Setting .....	64
3.3 Interviewing and Documentary Analysis .....	66
3.3.1 Interview Nature and Documents Used .....	67
3.3.2 Validity and Reliability of Research Materials .....	68
3.4 The Presentation of Country Cases .....	69
3.4.1 Nigeria.....	70
3.4.2 Ghana .....	73
3.4.3 Cameroon .....	76
4 ORGANIZING ANTI-CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES .....	79
4.1 Main Provisions for Corruption and Unethical Practices from Models Perspective .....	80
4.2 Country-Based Analysis of Anti-corruption Agencies .....	84
4.2.1 ICPC in Nigeria.....	84

4.2.2	CHRAJ in Ghana .....	87
4.3.3	NACC in Cameroon.....	89
4.3	Policies and Procedures of Anti-corruption Agencies .....	92
4.3.1	Policies and Procedures of the Nigerian ICPC .....	92
4.3.2	Policies and Procedures of the Ghanaian CHRAJ .....	97
4.3.3	Policies and Procedures of the Cameroonian NACC.....	102
4.4	A further Analysis of Anti-corruption Policies and Procedures in Three Countries.....	104
4.5	Summary .....	110
5	INVESTIGATING ANTI-CORRUPTION PRACTICES AND PUBLIC TRUST THROUGH INTERVIEW-BASED ANALYSIS .....	114
5.1	Values and Mechanisms .....	115
5.1.1	Values as Guarantors.....	118
5.1.2	Core Instruments .....	119
5.2	Public Trust.....	122
5.2.1	The Issue of Disposition.....	123
5.2.2	Anti-corruption Crusade .....	125
5.2.3	Images of Agencies .....	126
5.2.4	Agencies and Trust.....	129
5.2.5	Citizens and Willingness .....	131
5.3	Corruption and the Challenges of Combating it .....	133
5.3.1	Corruption as a Social Ill.....	134
5.3.2	Rating Corruption .....	134
5.3.3	Challenges .....	136
5.4	Summary .....	138
6	CONCLUSION.....	141
6.1	Main Findings .....	143
6.2	Recommendations and Development Work .....	148
	REFERENCES .....	149
	APPENDICES .....	177

## Figures

<b>Figure 1.</b>	Trust and Ethical Governance in Anti-corruption Context .....	23
<b>Figure 2.</b>	ICPC Organizational (Administrative) Structure .....	95
<b>Figure 3.</b>	ICPC Operational Structure (Committee System) .....	96
<b>Figure 4.</b>	CHRAJ Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures at the Head Office.....	99
<b>Figure 5.</b>	CHRAJ Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures at the Regional and District Offices .....	100
<b>Figure 6.</b>	NACC Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures .....	103

## Tables

<b>Table 1.</b>	Research Overview .....	9
<b>Table 2.</b>	A Selection of Literature on Ethical Governance .....	21
<b>Table 3.</b>	Transparency International Corruption Perception Indices for Botswana, Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria, and Tanzania (2005–2011) .....	80
<b>Table 4.</b>	The Main Provisions for Corruption and Unethical Practices on National and International Modelling Tips .....	81
<b>Table 5.</b>	Relating Models to Some Specifications in Codes of Conduct for Public Officers in Three Countries .....	83
<b>Table 6.</b>	ICPC Performance (2001–2010).....	86
<b>Table 7.</b>	CHRAJ Performance (1994–2008) .....	89
<b>Table 8.</b>	NACC Performance (2007–2011).....	91
<b>Table 9.</b>	Increasing Trust and Decreasing Corruption: A Comparative View.....	112
<b>Table 10.</b>	The Core Ethical Values and Mechanisms Needed for Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)...	115
<b>Table 11.</b>	Ethical Values as Best Guarantors against Corruption: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	118
<b>Table 12.</b>	The Core Instruments for Taming Corruption and Unethical Practices in the Public Services: The Views of Respondents (N=27).....	119
<b>Table 13.</b>	Dispositions toward Anti-corruption Agencies as Instruments for Taming Corruption and Unethical Practices: The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	124
<b>Table 14.</b>	The Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	125
<b>Table 15.</b>	The Weakness of Anti-Corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	126

<b>Table 16.</b>	Images of the Effectiveness of Agencies Internationally: The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	127
<b>Table 17.</b>	Images of the Effectiveness of Agencies Internationally (Closed-ended version): The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	128
<b>Table 18.</b>	Effects of Agencies on Trust Evaluated: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	129
<b>Table 19.</b>	Effects of Agencies on Trust Evaluated (Closed-ended version): The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	130
<b>Table 20.</b>	Citizens' Willingness to Report to Anti-corruption Agencies: The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	131
<b>Table 21.</b>	Rating the Willingness of Citizens: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	132
<b>Table 22.</b>	The Estimation of Corruption and Unethical Practices: The Views of the Respondents (N=27).....	134
<b>Table 23.</b>	The High Prevalence of Corruption: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	136
<b>Table 24.</b>	The Core Challenges of Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27) .....	137
<b>Table 25.</b>	Main Findings of the Study.....	144

## ABBREVIATIONS

ANIF	National Agency for Financial Investigations
AU	African Union
CAM	Cameroon
CHOC	Change Habit Oppose Corruption
CHRAJ	Commission on Human Right Administrative Justice
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crime Commission
GACC	Ghana Anti-Corruption Coalition
GHA	Ghana
HIPC	Enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
ICPC	Independent Corrupt Practices & Other Related Offences Commission
NACC	National Anti-Corruption Commission
NCCE	National Commission for Cooperative Education
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NIG	Nigeria
PRECIS	Prevention, Education, Condition, Incentives, and Sanctions
SUG	Student Union Government
UN	United Nations
US	United States
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNCA	United Nations Convention against Corruption

# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background

There is a need for good anti-corruption policies and procedures to be put in place due to the problems of corruption and low trust. One visible indication of the increasing global awareness about corruption as an administrative, political and economic problem is, because of the threat it poses to humanity (Lou 2005: 119–121). Corruption is no doubt on the increase, one person in four worldwide has paid a bribe during the past year according to Transparency International Survey; in the Survey breakdown, Sub-Saharan African region has the highest number of reported bribery incidence with more than one person in two saying they had made such payments to public officials (Transparency International 2010). According to Acha (2010): “*the World Bank describes corruption as the single greatest economic obstacle to economic and social development.*”

Besides denying a nation growth in social-economic sectors, corruption equally scares off foreign investors and new investments (Natsa 2010). The World Bank's Federal Public Expenditure Review published in 1995, noted that nearly US\$ 200 billion was invested in Nigeria for example like many other developing countries between 1973 and 1993, but with no corresponding development to show (ICPC 2010). With governments committing large sums to fight the world's most pressing problems, from the instability of financial markets to climate change and poverty, corruption remains an obstacle to realizing much needed progress (Transparency International 2010).

Corruption has done great harms to many developing countries, especially African countries compare to their developed counterparts in the Western world. From a moral perspective, it has debased the time-honoured ethical values of uprightness, contentment, industry; and had rather put in place duplicity, crass selfishness, avarice, and indolence. Many became seized by a frenzy to take the short cut to achievement, from students to teachers; labourer to employer; congregation to clergy. From a political point, it had served unfortunate excuse for the military adventures into the arena of power, which brought about years of agonizing assault on the collective psyche in citizens of these countries. A good example is the late former Nigerian Head of state, General Sani Abacha, who stole systematically an estimated sum of US \$3.6 billion. (Ekeanyanwu, Loremikan & Ikubaje 2004: 6 & ICPC 2010.) A more recent example from Nigeria is the one by the former Chairman of Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) in Nigeria, Mallam Nuhu Ribadu, who stated that \$10 billion is freighted monthly from

Nigeria and over \$400 billion, has been squandered since independence (Farotimi 2010).

More generally, corruption in these countries has eroded the institutional capacity of government, because procedures are disregarded, resources are siphoned off, and officials are hired or promoted without regard to performance. Economically, corruption turned these nations to classic study in paradox of grinding poverty in the midst of God-given abundance. The economy went asleep as investors, both local and foreign, lost confidence in the system and existing infrastructure went into serious decay. Massive brain drain resulted as professionals trained with these countries' resources, trooped abroad in their large number to search for greener pastures benefiting other societies with their expertise to the detriment of their fatherland. (USAID 2003: 81 & ICPC 2010.) International Donor and Lending organisations like World Bank and European Unions for examples have adopted stricter anti-corruption standards into lending and donating policies to these corrupt entities (nations) (OECD 1997). For short, corruption is the development problem in most developing countries, especially the resources-rich ones (Kolstad & Søreide 2009: 215).

Corruption is the most frequently discussed global problem in most developing countries, according to the British Broadcasting Corporation World Speaks Poll (Ijeoma & Agency Report 2010). Many observers have noted that the problem with persistent underdevelopment in most Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) countries especially Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon is due to poor governance which has increased the problem of loss of trust towards state actors (public personnel) and institutions (Adamolekun 2002: 3). The poor governance, which has a link to corrupt practices, is the main reason governments in these countries decided to set up anti-corruption agencies to arrest the social monster called 'corruption'. Under pressure from the international community, the Cameroonian government for example incorporated the fight against corruption into its political formula under an initiative of good governance via a National Programme of Governance and in addition to this, is a recommendation to develop and finance anti-corruption policy that educates the citizens (Mebenga, Nguini, & Zibi 2007: 8 & 12).

Due to corruption, governments have extended the scope of their engagements beyond the traditional tasks of defence, maintenance of law and order, and the collection of taxes (Asibuo 2010: 2). The challenge of governance in recent times has been one of institutional renewal. Setting the right framework for both public and private sector activities under conditions of increasing corruption has become imperative. This requires a reappraisal of the rationale for government intervention and re-examination of public sector institutions, their programmes and regu-

latory activities in order to restore lost public confidence. (OECD 1995: 7.) Public service accountability and transparency in governance have become two elements of good governance, which have attracted the attention of the international community in recent times (Asibuo 2010: 2).

Research has become necessary because, anti-corruption procedures and policies are major determinants of public trust especially, when a country invites the public to take an active role in monitoring the performance of its Government and public agencies (Fink 1995), because of their preventive, investigative, prosecutorial, and oversight functions (Comstock 2001). To address present challenges that militate against the good global vision for humanity, governments need to integrate anti-corruption measures in all spheres (Transparency International 2010). Policies and procedures are often in charge of setting the stage within which individuals have to act (Goodpaster 1984: 306–311). The root causes of corruption can be solved with right policies, procedures and institutions in place (CHRAJ 2004: 50). Policies are stated guiding philosophies; while procedures can be of a dual representation, because the setting up of anti-corruption agency can represent a procedure to eradicate or reduce corruption, and the process via which the policies are articulated and executed (operational and administrative structures) can also be a procedure.

However, facing a problem demands the ability to study it, conceptualise it, represent it, define it, and then apply the needed tools, values, and mechanisms to (re)solve it; or in other words, analysis and then synthesis (Sabet 2010: 91). Citizens demand clearly and understandably explained decisions, carried out with openness in the spirit of the public interest; a position that then informs ethical sensitivity on the sides of public agents to act in a responsible manner (Salminen 2010: viii; Cooper 2006; & Menzel 2001). Another reason is that citizens' estimation of corruption is one criterion for judging its wideness and harmfulness (Ikola-Norrbacka, Salminen & Viinamäki 2010: 76).

Thus, public trust is part of ethical governance, because ethical values and mechanisms like accountability, independence, transparency, integrity, openness, expertise and motivation, participation and collaboration, and sanction and ethical codes can reduce corruption on one hand and increase public trust on the other. From a more general perspective, integrity has become the basic condition for government to provide a trustworthy and effective blueprint for the economic and social life of their citizens; because institutions and mechanisms for encouraging integrity are viable components of good governance (OECD 2000: 11–16).

Any consideration of ethics, must include organisations themselves, most notably what scholars refer to as organisational cultures and structures; this relationship is

relevant to our understanding, because administrative ethics rests on the structure and culture of organisation to a great extent (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 7 & 98). Successful organizations must consequently, translate the desire for ethicality into concrete institutional policies and practices (Fulmer 2004: 311). According to Cooper, competence in ethical analysis is central to the field of administrative practice if any hope of progress is to be envisioned; policies, procedures, organisational arrangements, training, and sanctions should be designed to enhance public trust (2006: xiii & 59). The ethical context or climate of the organization has the potential to influence a variety of important organizational outcomes; and the formal elements of ethical culture include factors such as policies and structures (procedures) (Gilliland, Steiner, & Skarlicki 2007: 182–183). Sustaining prosperity that corruption can impede involves effective standards of corporate governance; a high degree of corporate transparency and external auditing; legal framework that are efficient and transparent; financial systems that are independent, transparent, and competitive; and a well-resourced, inquisitive, and independent media (Backman 1999: 3).

Ethics has become a high public prominence and concern throughout the world, and as a result, many national and international bodies have become so interested with task of reducing corruption in order to increase public trust (OECD 2000) since the sanctity of public offices depend upon public trust (Wilson 1887: 25). Wilson (1887 25–30), further argues that trust is power in all aspects of life; and as it is the office of the constitutional reformer to make available conditions of trustfulness, so it is the office of the administrative organizer to fit administration with conditions of clear-cut responsibility, which shall guarantee trustworthiness. In summary, ethics should be featured among many others with specified penalties, expression of general principles, and commitment to the public interest (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 28).

Trust means different things to different ideologies; and public trust can be analysed from different perspectives, because several models of trust have been proposed (Dietz, Gillespie, & Chao 2010: 11). Public trust no doubt is attached to many variables. In some countries or situations, public trust goes with economic success and in some others socio-political wellness.

The institutional failures in most Sub-Saharan African countries like Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon led governments in these countries to set up anti-corruption agencies based on ‘national legal’ and ‘international order’ models to help fight the strongly rooted systemic corruption in these countries since good governance is not only a global issue, but also a national issue that needs adequate attention (Asibuo 2010: 18). The national legal focuses on constitutional provi-



sions and the international order focuses on the international provisions like that of the United Nations. A model is pattern through which a phenomenon is understood. Above all, code of ethics for government service has in most instances simplicity and directness that centre on the constitution, law and general standards of work performance (Svara 1997: 22). The legal-institutional model for example, jealously guards popular prerogatives and work out modalities to curtail the abuse of power (Dodel 1999: 8).

These models were of priority, because of the high levels of poverty in these countries (Mebenga et al. 2007: 8 & 12). These agencies were then set up to bring back lost public confidence in the public sectors primarily, and to refocus general developmental order in the entire system of things; in order to achieving the global desired living standard especially, the Millennium Development Target. Automatically, these agencies became the eyes and faith of the citizens. Transparency International (TI) has since raised the alarm about the failure of governments in Sub-Saharan African countries to address the problem of corruption that is threatening the fulfilment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Sowunmi 2010). Any society without a clear framework on tackling corruption cannot fight poverty and enhance rural development (Nonor 2010). It is for this reason Cameroon for example ratified and signed the United Nations Convention against corruption and African Union communiqué on the prevention and control of corruption in 2004 (NACC 2010b).

The setting up of anti-corruption agency is necessary, because a high degree of specialization and expertise can be realised; a maximum level of autonomy can be established to insulate the institution from corruption and other undue influences coming from the external environment and its forces; there are standard policy guides that distinguish them from other agencies; they possess more public credibility; they can be afforded better security protection, because of their special acts of establishment; they tend to have more political, legal and public accountability; the assessment of their successes and failures are easy to ascertain; there will be effective and efficient action against corruption; and they represent political signal that government is serious with anti-corruption crusade. (UN 2004a: 89–90.) As long as human beings are imperfect, corruption will exist; what anti-corruption measures seek to do is drive it out of major area of governance, reduce its scope, lessen its occurrence, and implement fail-safe devices (Caiden 2001: 79).

Although it could be said that the fight against corruption is not just the sole responsibility of anti-corruption agencies in many countries, but other units like civil societies and trade unions also play relative and different roles towards the eradication or reduction of corruption in different countries. The activities of dif-

ferent civil societies and trade unions to make the act of governance more accountable and transparent to the citizens have in many ways helped in the reduction of administrative corruption in many developing countries like Nigeria (See Adamolekun 2002). However, the main problems that militate against the activities of these other anti-corruption units are policy inconsistencies and poor acceptability of their operational procedures by the populace.

Ethical governance in this study therefore, concerns the right thoughts (values) and elements (mechanisms) needed for a successful anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon; and how they affect citizens. Since according to Svava, the key elements in administrative ethics are virtue, principle, realising set goals, and fulfilling desired expectations (1997: 22). These are important, because values should be seen in cycles of interaction together with structures and policies, and not different parts (Clark 1998: 14). It would be difficult to overstate the relevance of being able to trust our government agencies to discharge their responsibilities in a competent and ethical manner, because our trust in governing institutions certainly set the tone for our confidence in the general state figure (Kennedy & Malatesta 2010: 162). Institutional philosophies edify trust and those that work within it.

The need for comparison has become paramount, because different countries have different anti-corruption policies and procedures; and anti-corruption agencies have different levels of efficacies. Countries generally have similar reasons for engaging in anti-corruption crusade, which is the reduction of corruption; but the difference is that countries vary in the regard of affecting public trust.

The main purpose of this research therefore, is to state that ethical governance is important, because it can positively affect trust. According to Salminen, “*Incorruptible behaviour and avoiding abuse of public trust belong to integrity and trustworthiness*” (2006: 183). Increasing public trust within the precept of anti-corruption crusade should include among many other things according to UN (2006: 4): “*accountability (ensuring transparency, being answerable for actions and media freedom); competence (effective policymaking, implementation and service delivery); and respect for law and protection of human rights*”.

## 1.2 Research Setting

Corruption in ethics represents actions and behaviours that fail to comply with normative or ideal standards; and the effect of corruption on trust is most often negative. From the premises of preceding arguments, the questions this research will attempt to answer are:

1. In the framework of ethical governance, what are the natures of anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon?
2. What are the differences of the countries in relation to public trust increase and corruption reduction?
3. What are the core ways of increasing trust and combating corruption in each country?

Countries globally adopt different ways to reduce corruption. Some countries can have zero tolerance policies for corruption and other unethical practices, while others can have moderate tolerance policies for corruption and other unethical practices. The policies and procedures for anti-corruption crusade can play a major role in this regard. Discussing anti-corruption crusade in any country is never without anti-corruption agencies, specifically set up with the responsibility of reducing corruption. When these agencies are able to accomplish the task of reducing corruption, public trust is then positively affected, because they have been able to accomplish citizens' expectations. In the general direction of reducing corruption and other unethical practices is where ethical governance plays a leading role, because of the attachment of its values and mechanisms to trust. This is further to say that ethical values and mechanisms can reduce corruption and increase public trust.

The methodological approach to be adopted in this research will be a qualitative analysis with a comparative premise. The empirical objects to be analysed or described are structured interviews conducted using open ended and closed ended formats at different instances. In addition, to serve as basis of analysis are the reports and other relevant documents of anti-corruption agencies of three countries being studied in this research.

The qualitative method is a crucial part of social science research, especially public management. Research is about finding something new; and collecting and interpreting data are part of it, because they help in giving meaning to a research project and concretizing its result. In public management, literature review, interview, and documents analysis are some special strategies adopted by researchers

in qualitative analysis. Methodology in research helps in answering questions and justifying other relevant positions taken in a research project.

Comparison on its part is about finding differences and similarities among variables or objects. Comparison in public management is different from most other tradition, because it often deals with the questions of 'what,' 'why,' 'when,' 'how,' and 'where' of phenomena. To compare generally, represents a willingness or desire to understand more concretely. The descriptive qualitative analysis with a comparative premise adopted in this research tries to answer the 'what' and 'how' questions of the phenomena of 'corruption' and 'trust' through interviews and documentary analysis in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.

Interview plays different roles in this research. Most importantly, it helps in investigating public trust. Interviews take the shape of conversation between two or more individuals; but normally between a researcher and different respondents in a research work of this nature. The relationship that an interviewer or a researcher enters with interviewee(s) is very important, because questions are asked and answers are given. Documents are analysed in most research project as a strategy to understanding special issues that relate to a research task. The questions of validity and reliability are always there in documents analysis and interview; how valid and reliable are the documents being used in our research analysis? Interviews and documents analysis do play complementary role on each other in a research work. Interviews can help a researcher to understand in more detailed terms the contents and direction of a particular document in various dimensions. However, the general research strategy is described more in chapter 3 of this thesis.

#### An Overview of Wanted Impact and Anticipated Contribution

Table 1 gives a general picture of wanted impact and anticipated contribution of this research work. At the various levels of society, ethical governance, trust, and policies and procedures; desired impact and anticipated contribution of this work differ. Differentiation or similarity relating to these contexts can relate to the issues of choice, discipline, purpose, orientation/belief etc.

**Table 1.** Research Overview

Levels	Wanted/Desired Impact	Anticipated Contribution of this Work
<b>Society</b>	Lower corruption	Achieving a viable anti-corruption crusade for holistic development
<b>Governance</b>		
• <b>Ethical Governance</b>	Understanding right thoughts and necessary elements	Instituting right behaviour and desired performance in anti-corruption related crusade
• <b>Trust</b>	Creating a system/situation where trust exists and are understood as vital part of legitimate governance	Instituting trust increase for anti-corruption related crusade
<b>Policies and Procedures of Agencies</b>	Understanding ethical governance compliant policies and procedures and achieving sound policies and procedures	For the designers, observers, implementers, and students of anti-corruption crusade to have the right understanding concerning success achievement in anti-graft war

The desire to have low level of corruption in order to achieve development is the dream of any good society. Governance is a broad action process; understanding the right thoughts and elements helps in instituting right behaviour and desired performance in anti-corruption related crusade. Creating a system/situation where trust exists can take different dimensions; due to the nature of societal problems like corruption, instituting trust increase for anti-corruption crusade is paramount. Policies and procedures for anti-corruption crusade are more viable when they are ethical governance compliant; and due to this fact, designers, observers, implementers, and students of anti-corruption crusade must recognize and accept ethical governance importance.

### The Plan of the Study

The first chapter deals with the general introduction of this research, which also includes the background; overview of previous research on ethical governance; and ethics and public administration research with sub-headings on the Weberian and Riggsian traditions, and administrative ethics as a doctrine. The second chapter will deal more on the meaning of ethical governance; ethics; ethical values and mechanisms; ethical governance and rationality; public trust; trust in public ad-

ministration and management; public trust and combating corruption (ideological and institutional views). The third chapter will focus on the research strategy choice of method; and the presentation of country cases.

The fourth chapter, which is the first part of the empirical analysis, will focus on how anti-corruption activities are organized and shall include main provisions for corruption and unethical practices from models perspective; country-based analysis of anti-corruption agencies (ICPC Nigeria, CHRAJ Ghana, and NACC Cameroon); policies and procedures of anti-corruption agencies; and critical examination of anti-corruption policies and procedures in three countries. The fifth chapter, which is the second part of the empirical analysis, will focus on the consideration of ethical governance, public trust, corruption, and the operation of anti-corruption agencies through expert interviews. The sixth chapter, which is the conclusion, shall focus on the main findings, and recommendations.

### 1.3 Ethics and Public Administration Research

The ontological and epistemological natures of public administration are quite interesting and relevant. The diversity of authors in public administration also reflects the diversity of the field, because of the representation of many disciplines. Gulick, Simon, and Waldo are products of political science; Mayo is a product of Psychology; Follet is a product of linguistics, political economy, and history; Weber is a product of economics and law; Barnard is a product of economics; Lindblom is a product of economics and political science; and Taylor is product of mechanical engineering. The Classical approach is the theme that covers the self-conscious study of public administration in the United States from a scientific sense, which is normally traceable to Woodrow Wilson's 1887 essay on "the study of administration"; where he argued that administration should be separated from political and policy concerns. Other major thoughts that represent the classical era are scientific management by Frederick Taylor; departmentalism by March and Herbert Simon; administrative management by Frederick Mosher; and bureaucracy by Max Weber. (Fry & Raadschelders 2008: 2–5.)

The Behaviour approach rose as a challenge to the Classical approach, because it focuses on the behaviour, wellbeing of the employee, and organizational structure. The major thought that represents this era is the human relation movement, which Mary Parker Follett, Elton Mayo, Chester Barnard, Robert Merton, Philip Selznick, and Peter Blau were members. The Administration-as-Politics approach like the behavioural approach challenged the classical approach. While the main difference between the Classical and Behavioural approaches concerns the way

organization should be structured and managed, the basic difference between the Classical approach and the Administration-as-Politics approach depends on the varying definitions of the field of public management. In a clear resistant of the Classical approach, the Administration-as-Politics approach maintains that politics and administration are inseparable; which is one reason ascribed to the failure of public administration to gain independent footing among the social sciences. (Salminen 1984: 6 & Fry & Raadschelders 2008: 6–13.)

Any move to define public administration in a single sentence would not be enough, because of the broad nature of the field. To define the concept of public administration is not easy, since it has to avoid being too narrow and too broad; a balance between technicality and what is feasible (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 15). However, it is necessary to start with some common bases upon which it will be possible to continue the discussion. Administration gets job done (Cooper 2001) and the public nature of getting job done is public administration. Individuals that engage in this process are known as public officials, because they hold positions at any level of public authority including anti-corruption agencies (Dodel 1999: 1). For this purpose, let us say that public administration involves the coordination of all organised activity, having as its purpose the implementation of public policy, and all added together is to provide services to the citizens (Hamilton 1977: 3). For a public officer, public administration is principally a tool to execute the needs and wishes of the public (Salminen 2006: 181) that is mainly concerned with the organization of government policies and programmes; including the behaviour of officials formally responsible for their conduct (UN 2006: 5). Public administration is used in dealing with one form of ethics or another (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 121).

In public administration, the standard policy for improving the performance features of administrative agency has rested upon the classical doctrine or principle that the reliability and efficiency of an operating system, man or machine, is premised on the reliability and efficiency of each of its parts, including linkages. Improvement, therefore, calls for a system to be broken down into its most basic units, in order to know strengths and weaknesses. Much success has attended this procedure that it not only constitutes a sound problem-solving paradigm, but is often generalized into a good common-sense rule. (Landau 1967: 305.) The preceding discussions concern the basic and general pictures of public administration as a field of study.

*1.3.1 Weberian and Riggsian Traditions*

Public administration research has a fundamental focus on general societal development and idealness. Citizens who make up the society tend to benefit more from the focus of public administration research, because of the central role they play in the well-functioning of society. For there to be entrenched societal progress, the institutionalization of order and discipline become a priority. However, the central focus of public administration research does not end with the citizen, but also public institutions, civil societies, trade unions and many others that contribute their quotas in unique and collective ways to general societal growth. In addition, most public administration researchers believe that societies differ from one another and societies are generally bound to change in relations with time and development (Riggs 1957).

Weber's ideas on social action and sociological typology, on instrumental and substantive rationality, on formal and material justice, on bureaucracy and charisma, on religious beliefs and economic conduct; have been of great influence to numerous social scientists (Roth 1978: xxxiii). Weber's broad comparisons of society and historical comparisons of bureaucracy are some very old and established social science doctrines. Weber's analyses lean more on economic and political issues; which from an extended perspective concerns administrative issues as well (Ritzer 1992). When the issue of combating or reducing corruption comes to mind, one of the first things experts remember is the Weberian ideal bureaucracy. The ideal bureaucracy in its real meaning can address the issue of corruption from different perspectives, because the Weberian ideal typical bureaucracy is made up of different characteristics like the specialization of tasks and bureau organization, the order of recruitment and tenure of office, the principle of hierarchical structuring, the tradition of full time commitment to duty etc., (Weber 1978: 11 & 954–957).

In Max Weber's scientific research, two fundamental ways of organizing public administration are the patrimonial and the bureaucratic types. In the patrimonial type of administration there is no difference between private and official lives. In a patrimonial system the ruler (a Monarch, a Dictator, or a democratically elected President) enters into an agreement or relationship with various elite groups in order to organize the administration. Simplified, the ruler gets some goods, such as soldiers, social order, or taxes; while the administrator gets a public office and thus can act on behalf of the state. In a completely patrimonial system, the administrator uses the control of office as a personal property. Therefore fees, taxes and other transactions to a smaller or larger degree go directly into the pockets of the administrator, which is accepted by the ruler as long as the goods that were part of



the deal are delivered. The office in itself is also a part of the personal property in such a system. Administrative positions can be sold by the office holder, and even transferred to close associates and family members. However, in a bureaucratic system the opposite is the case. In the bureaucratic system the administrator functions through popular rules (laws or administrative regulations). The career job in a bureaucratic system is based on professional principles like recruitment based on merit, training, fixed-term of employment, specified salary, full-time dedication to duty, specification of duty, promotion, vacation, retirement etc. (See Weber 1978 & Dahlström 2012.)

Fred Riggs like Max Weber's analysis also addresses the issues of corruption and unethical practices, especially through his "Centripetal vs. Centrifugal Pressures theory. In Riggsian analysis, nepotism was highly stressed as one form of corruption that hinders societal growth. The demands of organizations place strong centrifugal pressures upon the governments of both Agraria and industria, but these pressures take various shapes from features analysis. In the Agraria, the demands of primary organizations and aristocratic families support the application of hereditary and nepotistic principles of recruitment. But in the Industria, the family or primary organizations relationships are so minimal that they pose no threat to the integrity of government. (Riggs 1957: 44–45.)

Max Webber and Fred Riggs are some of the pioneering social scientists that largely premised the analyses of their researches on the comparative method. The study of public administration is not complete without comparison, because of the main purpose of finding generalizations, principles that cross national borders, and historical special characteristics (Dahl 1947: 11). Notable scholars like Fred Riggs have stated that the main trend in development of comparative public administration is to try to take contextual factors, which have not been given the desired attention into account; because through this, societies are more understood. In Weber's scientific research, the sociological theory focuses on viewing the Economy and Society from the logical whole of the foundations of social action and types of historical cooperation. In the operational sense proper, Weber adopted different means of comparison in studying individual historical phenomena, which led to different research findings. For example, the relevance of political and administrative structures for the evolvement of modern capitalist states has also been relevant even in the ancient and medieval states (Salminen 1984).

Weber is popularly referred to as the main proponent of the idiographic (single case) comparison. As it is popularly interpreted, the idea of comprehending in Weber's thought is premised on explanation and causality. In the methodological settings, intentional and motivational-based actions are classified and clusterized

historically through the comprehending of single case and comparing them ideographically (See Weber 1978: 10 & 1014). Riggs, from another perspective, has put forward a theoretical approach to the comparison of an evolving society based on the Agraria and Industrial models; from this premise, Riggs was able to study the evolutionary processes with the help of a prismatic model of society, where it was discovered that the functional changes happening in a society are as a result of functional demands (Riggs 1957: 23–39).

The acceptable practice in the studies of comparative government and administration has been to put forward a holistic analysis of governmental and administrative phenomena as case studies. To a large extent, the method has been of a great benefit in helping researchers to account for what they observe in relations to the unique historical, geographic, social, and intellectual setting of each society studied. To formulate generalizations researchers need to adopt and appreciate the comparative method, which assembles more than one item of a class of phenomena and then tries to discover similarities of behaviour and to account for the diversities that appear. (Riggs 1957: 23–24.) Defining public administration can sometimes inform different generalizations, but the fact remains that public administration as an aspect of a more generic concept of administration is concerned with the actions taken in achieving collective purpose. From a broader perspective, public administration deals with the formulation, implementation, evaluation, and modifications of public policy. (Heady 1996: 1–10.) In regard to the latter definition, the need for comparison becomes imperative in order to understand the side by side placement of different societies and the need for reformation and restructuring among different societies.

From the Weberian and Riggsian point of views, studying the ways social phenomenon like corruption can be combated or reduced is most suitable with the adoption of the comparative method in order to understand how different societies fare in their attempt to reduce or combat corruption. In addition, comparison would help a less effective society in relation to this task to understand ways a more effective society in relation to this task, adopted in achieving success.

### *1.3.2 Administrative Ethics as a Doctrine*

In the field of public administration and government in general, the ethical dimension has become significant; this has mostly been stressed in the ‘ethics decade’ of the 1970s, which is also known as the ‘ethics era’ (Kernaghan 1996). Of all the various eras in public administration, from politics-administration dichotomy (1880s to 1920s) to reinvention and reformation (1990s to date) analyses, attention has been on the development/improvement of science of public admin-

istration. The pioneering discussion on public administration and ethics by Professor Carl J. Friedrich emphasises the needs of having moral and upstanding public officials who can be trusted to demonstrate responsibility, because of their own conscience and personal moral codes in government and public agencies (Finer 1941).

Due to the fact that corruption is the main obstacle to societal development and threat to well-functioning society, public administration research gives a good preference to the issue of corruption. In the late 20<sup>th</sup> and beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> centuries, comparative public administration has focused more on combating or reducing corruption, due to its key emphasis on ethical issues and development administration (Heady 1996: 1–10). The main questions public administration researches have tried to answer are: 1) why is corruption at different levels in different countries, 2) why is corruption a major issue in developing countries, 3) what are the best strategies of reducing or combating corruption e.tc. In an attempt to answer these questions, administrative ethics has become a paramount doctrine in public administration research.

Administrative ethics is a species of political ethics that applies moral principles to political life more broadly; in the order of respects for the wellbeing of other individual and society, and conditions that collective practices and policies should satisfy when they similarly affect the well-being of other individuals and society (Thompson 1985: 79). Administrative ethics as a special field has links to corruption, trust, ethical education, code of ethics, professionalism, constitutionalism, values, discretion, public policy etc. For those interested in corruption as a social phenomenon, the traditional approach, which treated it as a moralistic manner is not enough; but social scientists in recent times demand that a precise definition, objectivity, and some relationship between the working of society and existence of corruption must be prerequisites (Caiden & Caiden 1977: 177).

Administrative ethics as a new doctrine of public administration research, tries to develop practicable and applicable concepts and tools, skills and expertise to deal with the rapid change in the world, especially the ones relating to growing unethical problems in both public and private lives (Richter and Burke 2007: 9). Ethics is taken to be concerned with providing the framework for action and defining efforts to systematize theoretical and operational matters (Lawton 1998: 36). Administrative ethics to a large extent discusses the issue of administrative responsibility in public agencies. The indispensable functions of values in public administration have been emphasized from different backgrounds; the main concern about values in public administration in civilized societies is for administrative

agencies to be responsible and accountable through their policies and actions to the citizens (Sayre 1951: 59).

The research focus on the policies and procedures of anti-corruption crusade is scientifically classified under the big umbrella of public administration research, but with specification under the sub-doctrine of administrative ethics. This is, because it addresses the issues of corruption, policies and procedures of public agencies, trust, values, professionalism etc. In addition, comparing anti-corruption crusade from a functional and structural perspective has theoretical certifications in public administration (Salminen 1984: 7).

## 1.4 Main Concepts

The main concepts of this research defined here are “ethical governance and public trust,” because the main arguments centre on them. They are my two main choices, because they are tied to the basic research aim. Such concepts as corruption, performance, rationality, and ethical values may be relevant, but they are not specified here. The main reason these other concepts are not taking into specific accounts here is, because some of these concepts are referred to later in this research especially, in the second chapter.

### 1.4.1 *Ethical Governance*

The addition of ethics and governance gives ethical governance, which is a broad concept. Ethics is defined in Lawton’s (1998: 16), as a set of principles, that acts as a guideline to conduct; this set provides a framework for acting. Ethical principles do not exist merely to restrict and make difficult one’s behaviour, but culmination of human experience regarding special issues (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 43–44). Ethics is generally tied to the term “good”, because it focuses on defining what is good or otherwise. Ethics is better business and good government (Henry 2001: 418). One could further, link the study of ethics to the study, which evaluates what is good or evil in a particular society or organisation. According to Preston (1996: 16): “*Ethics is concerned about what is right, fair, just, or good; about what we ought to do, not just about what is the case or what is expedient*”. Ethics is empathy, because it represents putting oneself in someone else’s position, since ethics in the words of (Winter 1966: 291) is the science of human intentionality.

To state specifically, ethics examines what is the right conduct for promoting the good of others, in preference to self-advantage (Uhr 1994: 176). Traditionally

speaking, ethics in public administration means the obligation to avoid administrative injury (Stewart 1984: 139) and principled sensitivity to the rights of others (Bulmer 2008: 146). In the same administrative sense, ethics can be judged as one of the abilities to formulate and implement good decisions (Lähdesmaki & Salminen 2009: 54). Ethical studies are relevant, because they awaken our consciousness to ‘evil’ for without doubt there is evil in the world. The Indian former civil right leader (Gandhi) said evils are represented by poverty amid plenty; wealth with no work, commerce without morality, politics and administration with no principles, science and technology with no morality, and knowledge without character (Frederickson 2004).

To be ethical starts from doing what society accepts, then to find out what is ethical, one would have to find out what society accepts. Ethics is a well based standard of right and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do, usually in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues (Velasquez, Andre, Shanks & Meyer 2009). However, any discussion on ethics takes place upon shifting sands, because it could vary in cross-cultural or cross-national sense. Even in our modern world, the conditions which virtuous people must put ideals to play have become more complex; ethical issues sometimes appear in stages or different faces (Cooper D. 2004: 18–24), because people differ in many regards (Anzaldúa 2007).

Governance is a framework through which tasks are accomplished. This framework includes anti-corruption agencies, which are set up to fight corruption or bring ethical order to a sector or state. Governance is a broadly used term with different meanings. According to Abdellatif (2003: 3): “*Governance nowadays occupies a central stage in the development discourse but, is also considered as the crucial element to be incorporated in the development strategy*”. Governance as process of order, which focus at bringing coordination and stability in the world, is made up of actors of different sizes and diverse resources (Tiihonen 2005).

The marriage of ethics with governance gives governance an empathic and productive meaning. Ethical governance denotes administrative measures, procedures and policies that fulfil criteria required for the ethically good or acceptable handling of public affairs, such as public administration, public health care, education, and social security. In the context of public administration, ethically good or acceptable behaviour is often defined in terms of justice, fairness, equality, motivation and integrity. (Lehtonen 2010: 31.) Ethical governance in another sense is located within the domain of corporate governance in the public domain; the framework of accountability to users, stakeholders and the wider community,

within which organization take decisions, and lead and control their functions, to achieve their objectives (Fawcett & Wardman 2008: 124). Therefore, ethical governance can be defined as a management and ideological process that takes features of good governance like accountability, integrity, independence, transparency, participation, expertise and many others as essential ingredients.

#### 1.4.2 *Public Trust*

The civic nature of trust gives public trust. Basically, trust is a trait of deserving confidence and trustworthiness is a moral value (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2009: 75). Trust is connected to positive expectation that will not be abused; here the relevant history of the trustor's trust in a trustee is the trustor's perception of the trustee's trustworthiness (Six & Huberts 2008: 68–69). Trust is an attitude that we have towards phenomenon that we hope will be trustworthy, where trustworthiness is a property, not an attitude (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy 2008). Trust is premised on a body of evidence about the other party's motive and character, from which a belief, prediction or faith judgement about that party's future conduct is attained (Dietz et al. 2010: 11). Trust performs the function in social, professional or economic life of allowing order, stability, continuity and, indeed, the maintenance of all kind of life at all (Lawton 1998: 71). According to Arrow (1974: 23):

*“Now trust has a very important pragmatic value, if nothing else. Trust is an important lubricant of a social system. It is extremely efficient; it saves a lot of trouble to have a fair degree of reliance on other people's word. Unfortunately, this is not a commodity which can be bought very easily. If you have to buy it, you already have some doubts about what you've bought. Trust and similar values, loyalty or truth telling, are examples of what the economists would call 'externalities'. They are goods, they are commodities; they have real, practical economic value; they increase the efficiency of the system, enable you to produce more goods of whatever values you hold in high esteem. But they are not commodities for which trade on the open market is technically possible or even meaningful.”*

Popular distrust poses different kinds of burden on economic activities, trust is relevant to civic society, because there lies the economic system; and understanding trust from a social perspective involves the dynamism of institutions like churches, anti-corruption agencies, and schools and how people identify with them (Fukuyama 2005). This position has led to the consciousness re-awakening of the concept of 'Social Capital' by scholars like Robert Putman. From Aristotle to Tocqueville, political and social scientists have emphasised the relevance of building social capital, that is about social networks and the norms of reciprocity associated with them (Putnam & Goss 2002: 3), because participatory democracy depends on a bed of trust, and as we understand, a high level of trust add to citizens' confidence in government (Richter & Burke 2007c: 158). Social capital

informs the need of turning ‘individual choices’ to ‘collective priorities’ (Vidler & Clarke 2005: 35).

To say we trust you, mean you have the right intentions toward us, and that you are competent to do what we trust you to do. The basic intentions vary in what would count as the right intension toward the trustor. One of these is encapsulated interest account, which is grounded on believe that the potentially trusted person has an interest in building a relationship with the trustor; an interest that gives the trusted person potentials of being trustworthy. Other conceptions ground trustworthiness of the potentially trusted person is on moral commitment, or in trustee’s psychological or character disposition to be a relevant person. A strong relationship exists between the governed (trustor) and that who governs (trustee) (Hardin 2006: 17.)

Any discussion on public trust is not complete without a reference to the term citizen. Citizenship defines who is included in a polity and who is not (Isin & Wood 1999). Certainly, citizenship has its legal and democratic connotations. Conceptually speaking, it is wrapped up in rights and obligations, and in owing allegiance to a sovereign state whose power is retained by the citizenry, but with rights that are shared by all members of that state. Citizenship, as it has come down to us via the ancient Greeks and Romans, via the Enlightenment, and the American and French Revolutions, is tied into the emergence of members of a polity with specified privileges and duties. Thus, to talk about citizens is to talk about persons with unique relationships to the state, along with the social status and power these relationships imply. (Lagos 2010: 2.) Citizenship is reflected through voice (Hirschman 1970) and defined obligation.

It is however, easy to say that citizenship has a social status. Every social grouping, irrespective of the primitiveness, maintains channels through which questions and complaints flow. The patriarch whose word is law within his clan, the potentate whose subjects have no voice in their governance, the tribal council that deliberate under holy tree, the formal organizations that exercise power in industrial nations are all interested with the good order of the societies they rule. Understanding the doubts that unsettle stability becomes imperative, because intervening in conflict before it could turn to clash is a quality of a ruler who believes in the good order. (Gellhorn 1966: 1.) Citizens make up an important stakeholder group in any nation (Six & Huberts 2008: 73).

Since trust is dependent upon expectations, the ethical business extremely becomes careful about the expectations and demands in requirement to state legitimacy (Lawton 1998: 130). From this premise, the citizen concept becomes a complex one; complex in the sense that the doctrine of reciprocity could become

a determining factor, because the citizenship concept is surrounded by rights and obligations. Anti-corruption agencies set up to bring order to general system of things must then apply a good and acceptable approach in the fight against corruption. It is predictable therefore, that one common element that can make the system not to function is corruption. Anti-corruption agencies must therefore, have a clear view of the citizenship concept in order to adopt the most suitable formula that would guarantee reciprocation and unbiased results, because public trust is people's trust.

## 1.5 An Overview of Previous Research

Previous research is like an eye opener to a new researcher. Previous research is about understanding conventional or popular and reliable or tested positions about a present research inquiry or work. From previous research, a researcher is able to understand the results, theories, methodologies, components, concepts, tools, values, mechanisms etc., of past similar research projects. The reason for previous research in this thesis is to discover the main contents and components that relate to ethical governance from the perspective of previous research works. Although, literature review is not a key part of the strategy adopted in this research (analysis and interpretation), because the main strategies are documentary analysis and interviewing. However, the review of literature in this research is to show the extent of connections, which this present research have with the outcomes of some selected and related past research works; these in many ways help in giving validity to the scope of this present research work. Table 2 is presented below for this reason.



**Table 2.** A Selection of Literature on Ethical Governance

Author(s) and Publication	Main Content(s) in Relation to Ethical Governance	The Main Components of Ethical Governance
James S. Coleman. <i>Power and the Structure of Society</i> (1974). W.W. Norton & Company Inc: New York.	This book focuses on the importance of a holistic view on society as a vast network or organisation of persons	Legitimacy, Participation, and Performance
F.F. Ridley. <i>The Responsibility of Officials in the Democratic Political System</i> . In: <i>European Group of Public Administration International Institute of Administrative Sciences (The Public's Servants)</i> (1981). Edited by A.F. Leemans and A. Dunn. Finnpublishers Oy: Finland	This piece of article focuses on the ambiguous and relativistic natures of official responsibilities; because of this, public officials should possess good skills in tackling responsibilities	Accountability, Motivation, and Professionalism
Alan Lawton. <i>Ethical Management for Public Service</i> . (1998). Open University Press: Buckingham	This book primarily concentrates on the declining confidence in government and how the ethical doctrine can correct this view and positively affect public trust	Integrity, Objectivity, and Reciprocity
Terry L. Cooper. <i>Citizenship and Professionalism in Public Administration</i> . In: <i>Classics of Administrative Ethics</i> (2001). Edited by Willa Bruce. Westview Press: Colorado.	This Piece of article focuses on the relationship between legitimacy and citizenship. It defines the role of citizenship to public servants and the need to serve and protect the trust of other citizens they work for	Commitment, Cooperation, and Expertise
Joel Slemrod. <i>Trust in Public Finance</i> . In: <i>National Bureau of Economic Research 9187</i> (2002). NBER Working Paper Series: Cambridge.	This article's main focus is about research on the interdependence relationship that exists between citizens and government in tax related issues	Mutual Confidence, Efficiency, and Equity
Christopher Phelan. <i>Public Trust and Government Betrayal</i> . In: <i>Journal of Economic Theory</i> 130 (2006). Elsevier Inc.	This article is about measurement of how citizens see consistency in government policy	Accountability, Honour, and Mutual Optimization
Vladimir Shlapentokh. <i>Trust in Public Institution in Russia: The Lowest in the World</i> . In: <i>Communist and Post-Communist Studies</i> 39 (2006). Elsevier Ltd.	This article is about a research on how Russians see public institutions in relation to other countries, especially Nigeria and Columbia were public trust for public servants and institutions is also very low	Democracy, Transparency, and Reconciliation

Sanjay K. Pandey, Bradely E. Wright and Donald P. Moynihan. Public Service Motivation and Interpersonal Citizenship Behaviour in Public Organisations: Testing a Preliminary Model. In: <i>International Public Management Journal</i> (2008). Edited by Steven Kelman.	The main focus of this article is on public service motivation (PSM) and its relation to desirable organisational attitudes and behaviour with general public service performance	Social Capital, Altruistic Behaviour, and Enlightenment
Steven Van de Walle, Steven Van Roosbroek and Geert Bouckaert. Trust in the Public Sector: Is there any Evidence for a Long-Term Decline. In: <i>International Review of Administrative Science</i> (2008). Edited by Christopher Pollit.	The main focus of this article is on the declining nature of public trust in government and the complexity of measuring the relationship between performance and public trust	Expectations, Scrutiny, and Reliability
Ethical Governance: A Citizen Perspective (2010). Edited by Ari Salminen.	The main focus of this book is on the examination of ethical ideals from citizens' point of view	Trust, Integrity, and Care/Justice
Joe Wallis and Linda McLoughlin. A Modernization Myth: Public Management Reform and Leadership Behaviour in the Irish Public Service. In: <i>International Journal of Public Administration</i> (2010). Edited by Colin Talbot.	The main focus of this article is on public service modernisation, so that transformative vision can be created in the public service to make it more result oriented.	Strategic Management Initiative (SMI)/Reforms, Potentiality, Acceptability

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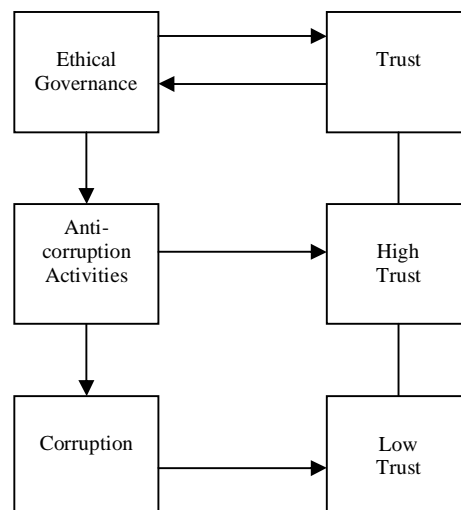
Table 2 shows that different contents and components are tied to ethical governance. Therefore, to talk about ethical governance is to talk about legitimacy, participation, performance, accountability, motivation, professionalism, integrity, objectivity, reciprocity, commitment, cooperation, expertise, mutual confidence, efficiency, equity, mutual optimization, honour, democracy, transparency, reconciliation, expectations, scrutiny, reliability, trust, care, justice, transparency strategic management initiative (SMI)/reforms, potentiality, and acceptability.

## 2 PUBLIC TRUST AS PART OF ETHICAL GOVERNANCE

Theoretical analysis is important in a research task. Conceptualizing the relationship between public trust and ethical governance within an anti-corruption crusade perspective can create the following problems:

- how ethical governance is defined (ethics, governance and management, different aspects of ethical governance, ethical values and mechanisms, and ethical governance and rationality).
- how public trust is defined (trust in public administration and management, and means of achieving trust)
- how public trust relates to anti-corruption activities (ideological and institutional views of combating corruption)

Vigoda (2000), argues that understanding the relationship between ethical governance and public trust in contemporary sense constitutes these facets: (1) a focused examination of human and social elements, (2) a productive dimension of innovation and creativity, and (3) a normative aspect of morality and ethics. A preliminary view of this relationship from a self-perspective is presented in Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** Trust and Ethical Governance in Anti-corruption Context

Figure 1 gives a theoretical overview of this study. Ethical governance and trust have a reciprocal relationship due to the connection of trust to ethical values and mechanisms, which automatically makes public trust to be part of ethical governance. Anti-corruption activities are most viable when they are in agreement with ethical values and mechanisms, and it is through this process high trust is generated. Anti-corruption activities are basically designed to fight or reduce corruption that causes low trust. Trust can be viewed from different perspectives along with uniqueness of types.

Numerous corporate failures supported by poor standards of behaviour or corruption has brought ethical governance into sharp focus; the need to increase public trust and for managers and politicians to account more effectively are re-occurring public debates about public organizations, because low levels of trust are caused or sustained by poor standards of behaviour (corruption and unethical practices) (Fawcett & Wardman 2008: 123). One single factor to explain trust does not exist anywhere, but to a great extent, corruption decreases institutional and state trust; and could remain so if there are ineffective anti-corruption policies and procedures to arrest it; especially when citizens' interests are involved (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2009: 75 & Ikola-Norrbacka et al. 2010: 79).

Citizens' legitimate view of public institutions depends on the un-corrupt and trustworthy outlooks of public institutions. It is a fact that corruption increases if ethical guidelines and codes of conduct for examples are not available, not explicitly stated or if public officers do not obey them (Ikola-Norrbacka et al. 2010: 79). Anti-corruption activities defer cross culturally and nationally. However, from any perspective or background, they represent processes and orientations of waging war against corruption. Ethical values and mechanisms play important roles in anti-corruption related context.

## 2.1 Ethical Governance Defined

The analysis of ethics and governance helps in creating the premise to understanding ethical governance. Ethical governance and good administration/management as concepts are loaded with ethical values and principles, such as trust, transparency, accountability, responsiveness, and participation (Ikola-Norrbacka et al. 2010: 79). Ethical governance therefore, is the processes and orientations that guarantee the most acceptable standards of ethical behaviour and performance. According to UK Audit Commission (2010): "*ethical governance refers to the processes, procedures, culture and values which ensure high standards of behaviour and is recognised as a key element of good governance.*" Transparency

and integrity for examples represent right processes and orientations respectively that are critical to restoring trust and turning back the tide of corruption (Transparency International 2010). Ethical governance is openness, because it confirms trust and credibility in managing by values (Lähdesmäki & Salminen 2009: 54).

Ethical governance is the cumulative actions taken by managers to initiate and implement an ethical sensitive, and consciousness that permeates all aspects of getting things done in a public service agency (Menzel 2001: 355). Thus, ethical governance aims at result realization. Ethical governance can open moral fibre and morale in workplaces, because it helps to encourage ethically sustainable organizational culture in public organization (Lähdesmäki & Salminen 2009: 54). A good take off point for policy learning is the perceived inability of established policy recipes to cure present policy problems and inadequacies; the social learning process is complementary to the social narrative process that depicts social realities in such a way as to provide justification for a particular set of policies (Shaw 2009: 21 & 26).

Researches have shown that the ethical context or climate of the organization has the potential to influence a variety of important organizational outcomes; and the formal elements of ethical culture include factors such as policies and structures (procedures) (Gilliland et al. 2007: 182–183). Sustaining prosperity that corruption can impede involves effective standards of ethical governance; a high degree of corporate transparency; legal framework that are efficient and transparent; financial systems that are independent, transparent, and competitive; and a well-resourced, inquisitive, and free media (Backman 1999: 3).

This definitional context of ethical governance above ties both normative (consequence) and professional (duty) ethics together for result realization (Bowie 1981), because the theoretical and practical are interwoven (Provis 2004: 1). An appreciable organizational performance and productivity lies on solid ethical climate, because ethics–performance linkage demands public managers to advocate and exemplify core values that encourage result realization (See Menzel 2001 & 2005). Ethical governance, which is also part of good governance is about guaranteeing that public bodies are doing the right things, in the right way, for the right people in a timely, inclusive, open, efficient, effective, honest and accountable way; which are the major reasons good governance now specifically goes with ethical governance (Brown 2006: 4). The term ethical governance should be used for actual systems with equality and impartiality (Lehtonen 2010: 31–32).

### 2.1.1 *Ethics*

Ethics goes with good conducts and acceptable actions. Ethics is action, the way we exhibit our values (Bowman 1991). Ethics in the words of Bruce (2001: xiii): “*is the study of the nature of morals and moral choices and the rules governing a profession that define professional conduct.*” The nature of morality is known through ethical judgements (Salminen 2010: viii). Ethics has a part in administrative and personal issues that affect official business (Uhr 1994: 176). According to Cooper D. (2004: 33):

*“The most popular current consensus in ethics maintains that for a moral point of view to be impartial, it must (1) meet publicly acknowledged rational standards, (2) satisfy conditions of universality—that is, in principle be compatible with what all honest people could agree to after deliberation, (3) be self-critical rather than ideological, and (4) promote generalized empathy and respect among all people.”*

Aristotle is one of the classical philosophers that has linked ethical theory to good action. We study ethics in order to improve our lives, and therefore its principal concern is the nature of human well-being. Aristotle followed Socrates and Plato in taking virtues to be central to a well-lived life. Like Plato, he regards the ethical virtues (justice, courage, temperance and so on) as complex rational, emotional and social skills. What is most primary, in order to live well, is a proper appreciation of the way in which such goods as friendship, pleasure, virtue, honor and wealth fit together as a whole. In order to apply that general understanding to different cases, there must be a proper upbringing. (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy 2009.)

Due to the unique and complex natures of ethical studies; contextual, personal, preferential, and conditional meanings of ethics are sometimes emphasized (Richter & Burke 2007a: 3). According to Lawton (1998: 15), what is to count as ethical behaviour will also change over time and between places. Lawton argues further, that the truism has led some commentators to argue that we cannot say anything significant about ethics because of *ethical relativism and subjectivity*; such arguments, depends upon the circumstances or you have to take account of the context or you have to understand phenomena beliefs and values and not impose your own judgements (1998: 15–16). Ethics teaches us that our thoughts and actions must bring forth an acceptable benefit of good over harm (Stewart & Springfield 1994: 334–345). Several factors also influence the differing ways ethics applies under various situations, a doctor, an attorney, a university professor, and a priest may all share the same ethical beliefs, but under different professional orientations (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 15).

Ethics goes with substantive reasoning about obligations, consequences and ultimate ends, its immediate utility for a producing and consuming society is enormous (Cooper 2006: viii). Evaluations of ethics often evoke more emotion than reason and any aspect of a phenomenon that can be improved can also be better, so it is better to preach ethical improvement than ethical perfection (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 43–44). The ethical dimensions that people bring to their professional roles as public administrators or anti-corruption agents depend strongly on how they view and approach as unique human beings (Richter & Burke 2007a: 2). The use of ethics in technical manner refers to the academic discipline that studies the adequacy of the moral values of different groups (Cooper D. 2004: 31).

Understanding ethics from a broader perspective include knowing what are: 1) Ethical Egoism, which stands for everyone promoting his or her best interest; 2) Utilitarianism, which means everyone acting to promote the greatest amount of happiness for everyone; 3) Natural Rights Theory that represents everyone acting in accordance with everyone's inalienable, indispensable natural rights; 4) Social Contract Theory that states the certainty of everyone acting in accordance with principles that would be chosen if free and equal rational people were to enter a social contract to establish a moral community; 5) Kantian Duty Ethics that stands for the certainty of everyone treating people with a good will anchored on duty fulfilment; and 6) Discourse Ethics that states the bringing together in rational discourse all participants to ascertain valid action norms. (Habermas 1996: 107.)

The recognition of an ethical dilemma and introduction to the differences between ends approaches (utilitarian), means approaches (deontological or one of ethical absolutism), and pragmatic approaches (compromises and political realities) make clearer the steps to take in a condition in which mutually exclusive moral actions or choices are binding (Angeles 1981 & Kennedy & Malatesta 2010: 166). The approach, which emphasises that ethical merit of an act to be evaluated by its consequences rather by the virtue or principles of the actor, is termed teleological or consequentialist; it is here the Utilitarian doctrine of Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill finds its grouping, and in general this school of thought raises the means-end question (Richter & Burke 2007a: 3). Richter and Burke further stated that categorical imperative or deontological approach, encourages us to act on the basis of those principles that we might wish everyone to imbibe and people be treated as ends and not just as means to an end as stipulated by the teleological approach; the deontological approach is mainly credited to Immanuel Kant (2007a: 4).

Other popular approaches are relativism and intuitionism. While relativism is often publicly espoused by people who really do not believe in ethics, because no single ethical standard that applies to all people at the same time, and different

societies have different standards against popular belief that there is a universal standard that applies to all; ethical relativist seems to say that everyone should adopt and be measured by his or her own standards, and therefore ethical relativists appear to be open-minded, non-judgemental virtuous, and correct. Intuitionism is the belief that human beings have a moral sense that picture out the moral character of an act; the intuitionist is of the view that moral judgements depend upon feeling rather upon theories. (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 46–58.)

Ethical analysis could further take descriptive and analytical forms. From a descriptive perspective, ethics attempts to demystify the fundamental beliefs and how they are connected to conduct. While from an analytical perspective, ethics attempts to construct viable and defensible arguments for particular course of conduct as being better than others in particular occurrence. Therefore, by engaging in ethics then goes with thinking more rationally and systematically about the values and principles that are planted in the choices we otherwise, would make on practical or political grounds alone. (Cooper 2006: 3–4.) A good critical start of ethical analysis is the normative theory that goes with regime values; social equity; theory of justice; virtue, and citizenship theory (Cooper 2004). Ethical study is indeed engrossed in public and citizens' perspectives.

### 2.1.2 *Governance and Management*

Governance and management are most often used interchangeably. The concept of governance is popularly mentioned in connection with social sciences, economics, and political science, but in practical terms it is applied mostly in discourse of public sector reforms with a focus on reducing corruption (Lähdesmäki 2010: 64). Governance is the self-organising, inter-organisational network represented by interdependence, resource exchange, rule of the game and significant autonomy from the state to achieve a particular set objective (Rhodes 1997: 54–56). Governance could further be defined as management of formal and informal political rules of the game, which includes measures that go with the setting of rules for the exercise of power and settling conflicts over such rules for the collective good (Hyden 1999: 18–24). However, Rhode's definition can be grouped under the public administration and public policy headings, because it involves the management, tasks, organization and accountability of the structure of the public sector (Kjær 2004: 4).

Governance is the deliberation with a political characterised framework for the management of activities to produce the best possible situations for economic development, a good life for citizens, and national success where participation is a must (Lähdesmäki 2010: 64). From a medieval stand point, governance has been



defined as an action process and those that engage in this action process are referred to as specialists with an understanding of ethical principles (Friedman 1987: 4). Governance precisely is the process through which policy is formulated and implemented. It pays attention to the fact that many actors with diverse interests are engaged in policy processes and that a government as a central ruler does not exist. Policy is the result of the interactions between mutual dependent actors in public-private networks. Governance approach, forms an answer upon the ever increasing complexity of our nowadays society where ethical standards are being threatened (Buuren 2009: 1–3).

Governance in modern sense is like management of policy networks. In this network, the selection and activation of actors are relevant. Every proposed network should begin with a scoping phase to explore interests and define expectations for working together. Strategic alliances in the private sector are typically on one partner at a time, but in the public sector every partner is a key to policy success (Creech 2001: 2–3). In the governance process, goals which are aimed at the actualisation of better society are set. In this process, some essential ingredients that help in actualising these set goals are ethical dynamics, which include accountability, integrity, probity, openness or transparency, efficiency and result orientedness in public policy formulation and implementation in whom hands they had been entrusted by the public. They are important, because they help in strengthening and enhancing the trust relationship between the state actors (public personnel) and the citizens.

The term government is quite close to the term governance, but governance is much a broader concept. Governance as the process in which government, public agencies, private actors, citizens, and other stakeholders interact, makes ‘public policy’ complex. The main challenge for governance processes is to reach a deliberate way of co-evolution and achieving set goals through performance. (Smith & Stacey 97, qtd. in Buuren 2009: 4.) Governance in agreement with ethics creates a good management posture for performance.

The identity of one’s government is neither a consequence of fate or nor result of life well led. But, the quality of governance is a portrayer of one’s leaders and laws where policies and procedures set the standard. Both the rulers and the people in a city of good government appear serene, they live together happily; they exit and enter their walls without fear; they engage in exchange and cooperative ventures with ease. Policing and venality the pictures that represent a bad government are hardly observed. The washer or viewer can only assume that good governance signifies a mutual trust between citizens and public actors (governors) and also between citizens themselves. It is no doubt therefore, that trust is an inte-

gral part of good governance and a well-functioning society. (Braithwaite & Levi 1998: 1.) The World Bank has defined governance as the act of exercising political and administrative powers to manage a nation's affair that must positively affect the citizens (Adamolekun 2002: 3).

### 2.1.3 *Different Aspects of Ethical Governance*

Ethical governance has different aspects, because it is a broad concept. Ethical governance can apply in many contexts; from public to private issues, moral and operational issues, and internal and external responsibilities. Ethical governance also applies in leadership issues, because ethical governance as it goes with good governance can be one key ingredient of leadership. Of the different forms of leaders in the world, some reign and some rule. When a leader reigns, it means he is just a figure head of the collectivity over which he presides. The one who rules is the one who puts his stamp on the collectivity over which he presides and has total control of daily business as such that helps in realising the desired goal. (Achobang 2010.) Ethical governance in addition applies in administrative issues, because of general administrative issues like performance, trust, corruption, efficiency, motivation, reform e.t.c.

More interesting is that when ethical governance is adopted within a broader societal perspective; the major focus becomes that of reducing the problem of corruption. This position automatically informs a more narrowed point of view, like the thought of setting up an organization. Organization can be defined as a social entity, where people are systematically structured and managed to meet a set target on an endless basis (Thompson & Jones 2007). The term organization is sometimes referred to as broad coordinative entity with various models existence (Boella & van der Torre 2006). Based on the definitions of organization, it can be said that organization can have different attachments and goals like bureaucratic system based on norms to competitive system based on market. Organization can be driven by profit making or humanitarian interest. Generally, organizations are made up of different internal and external components like, staffs, environment, and tools.

In many occasions, there are broader societal problems like corruption that thereby, informs the need to set up special organizations to help in the reduction of corruption. Organizations set up to fight against corruption can need ethical codes for example, which is a special element of ethical governance. Ethical codes prescribe rights and duties for everyone, no matter what their station or what community they inhabit. It is important, for every profession to have a national organization that can set standards for education entry into the profession and create a

code of ethics that will make the profession to serve the public interest better. Codes of ethics are not different from moral systems; they are part of a general strategy for specifying how universal values supposed to be adopted in local contexts. (Cooper D. 2004: 32 & 62–63.)

Ethical governance can also relate to individual and cultural issues. A perspective on culture as the whole interactive symbolic environment in which humans live and communicate (Donald 2000) makes culture particularly relevant to an understanding of ethical norms and behaviour in public service (Lewis 2008: 46). Understanding policies in relation to culture is important, because trust excels on reciprocity (Dietz 2010: 11).

Everybody carries within him or her patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential acting that were learned throughout their lifetime. The origins of one's mental programs lie around the social environments in which one was brought up and collected one's life experiences. The programming starts around the family; it extends within the neighbourhood, at school, in youth groups, at the workplace, and in the living community. Mental programs differ as much as the social environment in which they were acquired, because culture means the refinement of the mind or civilization in Western sense. (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005: 2–3.) Defining the term culture is quite a hectic challenge, because of its complex nature. However, culture according to Sir Edward Tylor (1832–1917), is that complex whole which is an aggregate of knowledge, belief, art, morals law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits a man gain as a member of society. Culture is learned, evolves with new experiences, and can be amended if one understands the dynamics of the learning process (Schein 1985: 8).

Culture which is seen as complex whole of phenomenon should be acknowledged as tangible resource. Linking culture, rhetoric and public management helps to understand, describe and explain typologies of public organisations and their managements. However, in order to understand the interaction between culture and public sector reform for examples, there is a need to go beyond culture theory and a necessity to take a multi-disciplinary approach. Administrative structure and reformation then may be considered as possessing four discrete, but interconnected aspects. These are environment, content, strategy and dynamics. (Zifcak 1994: 137; Bouckaert 2007: 30–37; Schedler & Proeller 2007: 23–25.) Defining organisation/administrative culture in a proper sense according to Schein (1985: 9) is:

*“A pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.”*

There is every tendency, to become optimally corrupt even with the presence of anti-corruption policies and incentives when there are many corrupt individuals in the society; in this environment, corrupt behaviour becomes the equilibrium behaviour or the social norm. Consequently speaking, only corrupt individuals would survive in a population of corrupt and honest people at the long run. (Mishra 2006: 350–351.) It is a popular belief that the awareness to control behaviour in both negative and positive forms lie on human awareness that comes from individual attributes (London 1971). A general view of ethical governance therefore, is focused on the notions of thinking and executing ideas that bring good and acceptable results that can also positively affect a wider society, organization, and individuals or citizens.

#### 2.1.4 *Ethical Values*

Value is an issue of necessity and perception. Values and ethics are tied (Viinamäki 2009). Values are principles that direct our evaluation on what is good and ideal; it is values that provide the normative control that directs decision making, because they develop grounds for action and reflect conceptions of acceptable or unacceptable actions (Lähdesmäki 2010: 65). It is through values we understand the needs for trust and the evil of corruption. Integrity, professionalism, caring, teamwork, and stewardship are often necessary to be included in a vision; because they tell what a nation, organization, and people represents. The quest for greatness and transformation must start with personal commitment within each individual in a society or group to pursue moral excellence. (National Defence University 2011.) The concept of ethical governance also implies a value assessment and is thus value-laden (Lehtonen 2010). Values connected to care require recognising or providing a set of principles about responsibility for the good of others that should shape both public and private life (Tronto 1993). Some ethical values therefore, are integrity, virtue, commitment, professionalism, care, justice, and responsibility.

The qualities of doing good and following its standards are virtues (Gensler 2006: 170). MacIntyre for example saw one important function of virtues as protecting the internal goods of practice from the external goods of institutions; and if public administration could be understood as a practice so understanding virtue as certain character traits might be a key element in supporting ethical conduct in pressure circumstances from organisation to act opposite (Richter & Burke 2007b: 14). The virtue ethics helps to emphasize the relevance of developing emancipatory capabilities in decision making, because it tells us to develop those traits of character that help moral agent functions well in situations that demand moral

judgement (Cooper D. 2004: 35 & 46). Developing an organisation includes nurturing and balancing a range of competencies and virtues that improve judgement in decision making (Menzel 2007: 5).

Integrity offers a relevant framework in which to discuss how individuals can simultaneously hold several commitments and achieve a morally defensible balance between them; in a complex world, integrity is the important virtue for a moral life (Dodel 1999). The developmental model for the virtue approach starts with what is potential in individuals, this potentials turn to good habits with constant repetition and the concluding aspect is the emergence of moral character. In relation to the developmental model for duty, the beginning point is sentiment, a position that represents intention. The next is action, which is directed by sentiments. This lead to consequences, which are judged in relation to the original sentiments; learning and re-focussing then are manifested in this way. From the pre-text of universal moral principles in theories like utilitarianism and deontological ethics, governance is good and public agents act ethically as long as they abide by the rules of positive law and universal moral values of justice and benevolence. (Mizzoni 2010 & Lehtonen 2010: 41.)

Reviewing the three ethical approaches, justifies the conclusion that the use of them all helps to avoid the shortcomings and potential misuse of any of the model used alone; so one is best solid when operating within an ethical triangle formed by the approaches (virtue, principle and consequence) (Svara 2007: 22). Justice is an attempt, to display how the theory gains support when it is analysed in the light of a fuller consideration of the nature of goodness; and when its stability as a moral conception is made clear, because justice and goodness go together in a just society according to John Rawls (Kukathas & Petit 1990: 54). Another view is that administrative ethics, is well positioned when virtue and intuition work together. The virtues person manifests and lives on the characteristics that identify one as a person of character and integrity; the nature of ethical decision-making is intuitive, because one understand in what kind of character an individual would display in a given situation (Richter & Burke 2007b: 23).

From a real practical ethical situation integrity is virtues, because strengthening organisational practices is the primary ethics management interest. Consequence approach primary obligation to management is to help organisation goals that enhance the well-being of individuals and their patrons; emphasis here is strongly on strategic management. For the duty approach, the role of moral rules and ethical standards in ethics management is the focus. (Hyryläinen 2010: 10–12.) Secondly, integrity displays that people have the reflective capacity to make a commitment, figure out what the commitment contains, and act on it. Integrity cannot

be reduced to rigidity about received beliefs; it presumes that people reflect upon and understand their beliefs in order to make them their own. Thirdly, integrity represents unity in the moral life of individuals. Here, individuals can create coherence across their public roles to their central web of values and commitments (Carter 1996). (Dodel 1999: 4.)

The care approach of ethical governance informs the notion of governance caring for its citizens and their welfare including administrative matters connected to them (citizens). Care ethics is also characterised by relation-centeredness, because it conceptualises persons as deeply affected by, and involved in relations with others that creates a social tie posture (Held 2006: 46 & Noddings 2003: 3). Other conceptions of ethical governance are the minimalist and maximalist. While the former involves the minimum requirements for ethically acceptable governance like avoiding bribery, graft, nepotism, theft, and discrimination for examples; the latter aims at improving our understanding of what ethically high quality governance go with or should possess like diligence, kindness, humanness, and patience. (Lehtonen 2010: 31–37.)

Care ethics places much emphasis on close relationship and the development of the future generations. Above all, care ethics must not be all about deep affection, but also healthy empathy, commitment, and patience. However, it is rational to form a link between administrative justice and administrative caring, which importantly is caring about the fair and efficient treatment of citizens and their administrative engagements (Held 2006: 17). To care also mean ability to extend services to others one might not be officially indebted and not taking for granted other theoretical points of view of ethical issues which is displayed by exactness and efficiency of service. By sticking to caring ideas and empathy as major values in public service, and making sure that public agents can implement a caring attitude in their act of work execution, the gap between administrative reality and the citizens' expectation for good governance can be narrowed. (Lehtonen 2010: 37–41.) Values connected to care require recognising or providing a set of principles about responsibility for the good of others that should shape both public and private life (Tronto 1993). A care orientation would focus on identifying creative ways of simultaneously fulfilling competing responsibilities to others (Simola, Barling, & Turner 2010: 181).

According to Václav Havel, a reaffirmed and focused human responsibility is the most natural barrier to all irresponsibility (Dodel 1999). Roles must be created and responsibility defined as models of re-establishing obligation in our modern society where the need for everyday advancement has become imperative. Although, responsibility is relatively a new concept in ethical discussion, the term

analysis's action attributes it to an agent; it does so in push of cosmic or natural structures of obligation. Responsibility tries to make up for the space by evaluating the scope of accountability and obligation within the boundary of law and common culture. The eras of French and American revolutions have been mostly associated with awakening of responsibility from a historical perspective; because of the emergences of multiculturalism and globalisation as ways of defining values, as common set of beliefs between individuals of different cultures and traditions. (McKeon 1957: 23 & Winter 1966: 254–255.) Responsibility as an ethical value makes our family, community, and societal roles more meaningful (Cooper 2006: 5–6).

A responsible public agent should be able to account for their conducts for examples to boss (elected officials in most cases), court of law, and citizenry; through explanations of both positive and negative outcome about their duties. Displaying professionalism with natural convictions for the public interest and expectations is also relevant here. Ethics is the most viable way in which one satisfies both kinds of responsibility. Responsible administrator should be ethically equipped to think along with others on how their conducts serve the public good and have enough clarity about their own professional ethical commitments to maintain integrity and a sense of self-esteem. This position puts an ethical administrator ahead of responsible administrator, because an ethical administrator understands the justification of responsibility through the choices and decisions they make. (Cooper 2006: 6–7 & Salminen 2010: viii.)

The traditional notion of success is well managed when all stakeholders understand the pragmatic aspect of organizational vision (Pruzan 2001: 50). Professionalism concerns upholding professional standards, which demand a commitment to excellence. The professional is, ergo committed to belong being productive. The demands of professionalism, however, go well beyond what the individual does. Large and complex systems cannot function properly without appropriate interpersonal relationships. In the modern organization, one must for a variety reasons be aware of, and assume some responsibility for, what others do. The managerial ethic (or ethos) which this suggests is more derived than prescribed. It is a cumulation of knowledge, tradition, morality, faith, and good sense (Brown 1983: 340).

#### 2.1.5 *Ethical Mechanisms*

Mechanisms are framework through which ends or goals are achieved. Ethical Mechanisms help to guarantee ethical standards and values. Some ethical mecha-

nisms are independence, discretion, participation, expertise, reforms, accountability, transparency, motivation, enlightenment, laws, and codes/sanctions.

Independence can create room for an ethical climate (Brower & Shrader 2000). The interpretation of an ethical climate is self-formative process in which meanings are selected, checked and employed in the appropriate sense (Mangham 1986: 31). The levels of discretions are the level of moral rules; the level of ethical analysis; and the post-ethical level. We have these various levels, because advocating a simple linear rationality is not feasible but rather, being self-aware and clear about the bases of our action. Discretion and obligation go together in most instances; the exercise of discretion should be in agreement with wishes of the citizens. (Cooper 2006: 22, 26, 82, & 168.) Independence and discretion as ethical mechanisms are sometimes used interchangeably, but their usages and relevance also go with scope or limit of application and dimension.

Lawton (1998: 95) has stated the relevance of ethical guideline. A code of ethics is represented by mission statement, because they provide broad direction (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 109). An ethics code can be described as a framework strongly rooted in public sector values that nurtures and keeps ethical behaviour (Kernaghan 1997: 41). One standing reason for this high level of support is that both business and government executives see code of ethics as a key representation of professionalism (Bowman & Williams 1997: 517–518). Code of ethics can project ideals, norms, and obligations; they can be inspirational, presenting lofty values and ideal; and above all can set an ethical status to which members of a profession may project the moral optimum rather than the moral minimum set up by ethics legislation (Cooper 1998). Bowman and Williams further argue that codes of ethics demand more than simple compliance; they compel the exercise of judgement and acceptance of responsibilities for decisions rendered, which are the real task of ethics (1997).

Ethical codes create prima facie obligations that guide professionals (Cooper D. 2004: 43), and are most essentially focused on keeping high ethical standards in government service and increasing public confidence in the integrity of public officials and employees. (Zimmerman 1982: 222.) According to McDonald (2009: 363) the enhancement of codes needs: *“relevant content, periodic revision, codes that match policy, simple terminology, the use of examples, mechanisms by which they are disseminated and supported, and sanctions clearly communicated and action where violations have occurred.”* Most organizations are daily beset with challenges of distinguishing among rules, laws, and behaviours; ethical codes which remain within the familiar boundaries of conventional public administration are necessary for solving challenges (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 13).



Participation is necessary in one form or another in order to achieve co-operative harmony; Likert links participation to high productivity, good relationships, and stable labour relations (Ibbetson & Whitmore 1977: 5–23). Being accountable is close to being transparent; because accountability and legitimacy play important roles in transparency improvement (Mitchell 2011: 1882). Dating to ancient times, practitioners and scholars together have noted the relevance of accountability for the survival of social systems (Gelfand, Lim, & Raver 2004: 135). Accountability could be in external or internal form; accountability is said to be internal in most cases at the intra-organizational level and external at the inter-organizational or public level. Accountability has been linked to various phenomena, but the main linkage of accountability to effective functioning of organizations is perhaps not surprising (Gelfand et al. 2004: 136).

Plato's idea of philosopher-king/ruler as stated in his republic is probably the most notable classical representation of expertise in governance (Lehtonen 2010: 28). The support for legitimate consumer expectations and active participation through internet-driven information revolution are some representations of the knowledge era (Laing, Hogg, Newholm & Keeling 2009: 81). Knowledge within a management context refers to creating, embedding, organising, storing, protecting, synthesising, transferring, and using knowledge. Experts, drawing on the resource based notion claim that knowledge is the most strategically relevant resource of a firm and holistic management. (Alvesson 2004: 1–7 & Nonaka & Toyama 2005.) Knowledge management is resolving problems effectively and quickly from one perspective. It is also seen as a systematic paradigm to help people to access and use important information with the ability to distinguish the “wood from the trees.” Another perspective of knowledge management is that of viewing it as a process of linking the appropriate people to the appropriate information at the accurate time. Four key concepts that find importance at knowledge management activities are wisdom, knowledge, information and data, which help individuals to apply their knowledge for the benefits of the entire society (Brelade 2003: 5–6.)

The concept of ‘motivation’ refers to the conditions that urge action (Yu 2000: 120). Motivational theory, deals with the fundamental nature of work and its sociological aspects. The classical reward-punishment system of the so called ‘hedonists’ whose view of man as a creature with an objective to seek pleasure and forsake pain in life, made earlier emphasis on punishment as a priority. However, in recent times, the reward system that includes bonus schemes, profit-sharing and merit rating has become imperative. Aggregately, encouraging people to work falls under four categories: Financial incentives; work enjoyment; elements of the carrot-and-stick management philosophy; and environment and job stimu-

lations. Motivation is fairly complete under the collective framework of consultation, work evaluation, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, support for supervisors, participation, discipline and grievances, health and safety, and work measurement. (Ibbetson & Whitemore 1977: 1–5.)

Motivation is doing something with a drive. The balance between individual and collective identifications is relevant in defining people's motivations for action (Simmons 2009: 62). The collective wholeness of man's needs must be the bedrock of motivation theory. Motivation theory is unique, because of its arrangement of human needs hierarchical or in an order of necessity. The concept of motivation generally is used to describe an arousal of interest by any means, which includes the use of negative and positive incentives (Ibbetson & Whitemore 1977: 20). The terms motivation and performance are in most cases referred to as classical concepts in public management. Any discussion on performance is never complete without motivation. If a public officer does not go with requirement of an office; lose enablement to distinguish self from office; feel lack of respect; are unpaid; and the management does not work in favour of integrity, then high performance and ethical ideals are highly threatened (Dodel 1999).

The idea of reformation is another ethical mechanism. According to Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004: 15): *“we are aware that reform is a term with deep roots in the politics of improvement and refers not to total change, but to the reshaping of something that is already in existence.”* Reform is characterised by willingness to experiment, to look at issues with fresh eyes, to challenge received willingness and to set apart the barnacles of past belief. It is in some cases referred to the reframing of new ideas, concepts, and modes of thinking to explicate and satisfactorily solve problems confronted. (Shaw 2009: 20–21.)

Enlightenment or education is one ethical mechanism, because of its eye opening oriented nature. Enlightenment has special links to transparency and accountability (ICPC 20101). It is obvious that ethical mechanisms are numerous, but they all have one thing in common, which concerns how better goals are achieved.

#### 2.1.6 *Ethical Governance and Rationality*

Weber's conception of administration and policy goes with the issues of value and rationality (Salminen 1984: 99). It is a fact that tension could sometimes arise between technical rationality and ethics for example, but their relevance to each other cannot be overemphasized. The concepts of 'rationality' and 'progress' are often used as synonyms; we may say rationality is a methodological concepts, because it is a way in which scientist pursue their goals (Niiniluoto 1999: 198).

Rationality concerns our thoughts that can be linked with the act of making something meaningful or appropriate. What are the rationality for fighting corruption and unethical practices? The rationality for fighting corruption and unethical practices is to have an equitable, free, and prosperous society; because public trust should be seen as appropriate for any society. Rationality discusses issues of choice, preference, and outcome (Castellani, Di Giovinazzo, & Novarese (2010).

Immanuel Kant has been one proponent of rationality especially as it relates to ethics. A rejection of a rationalistic derivation of ethics could be costly in most instances. Rationalist derivation of ethics does not, in fact, contain the ethical consequences that current anti-rationalists fear. (Clayton & Knapp 1993.) Professionalism concerns economic rationality, which is a tangible aspect of instrumental reasoning; because through this the corporate reputation and its relationship to success and credibility can be sustained. The ethically rational approach to crises is an extension of strategic rationality (Snyder, Hall, Robertson, Jasinski, & Miller 2006). Strategy is needed to reduce corruption and increase public trust. Strategy helps in understanding everything that is needed for result attainment and how to apply or put them in place. Rationality tries to create a broader outlook on how a phenomenon or variable can be addressed.

Most places technical rationality are used often appears in bold meanings with linkages to thinking theory, because instrumental reasoning dominates thought about the world and our life in it (Cooper D. 2004: ix & Cooper 2006: 251). Administrators of the public's business must exercise their utmost technical judgement when tackling complex issues like corruption for example; here the technical knowledge and tools are justification through which their duties will be public interest oriented (Cooper 2006: 297). Dean Appleby's fragments stipulate that personal ethics in the public establishment is made complex by mental attitudes and moral qualities. Both elements are important; virtue without understanding can be quite as disastrous as understanding without virtue. The three relevant attitudes are: 1) recognition of the moral ambiguity of all men and of public policies; 2) recognition of the contextual forces which condition moral priorities in the public service; and 3) recognition of the paradoxes of procedures. These positions lead to understanding the major moral qualities of a public agent, which are: 1) Optimism; 2) courage; and 3) fairness tempered by charity. (Bailey 2001: 65–66.)

It is more favourable to examine first the phenomena, which have been associated to professionalism in public administration and then, to consider the values that features in those phenomena. Starting in that fashion, if we mean by professionalism something akin to the drive for neutrality, order, efficiency, control, standardization, and quantification that defines the Progressive era of public administra-

tion. Technical expertise, rational approaches to problem solving, and specialized knowledge must not be taken for granted, but they should provide norms or the professional identity of the public administrator; because professionalism attempt to answer complex questions should be oriented towards the popular will. Therefore, professional education must emphasize getting cognitive and technical skills, background theoretical knowledge, and the moral sensitivity needed to function as a diagnostic expert in a pluralistic social milieu. (Cooper 2001: 352; Cooper E. 2004: 61; & Cooper 2006: 71–72.)

In the vicinity of modernity, technical rationality is the gathering of the scientific–analytical mind set and technological progress (Turner 1920; Benveniste 1977; Wamsley & Zald 1973; & Cooper 2004). Technical rationality is quite similar to “functional rationality,” because functional rationality is the logical organisation of tasks into smaller units, with the primary reason of achieving efficiency (Mannheim 1940; & Jun & Rivera 1977). One of the main principles of modernity, along with technical rationality, is the notion of progress (Adams 1994: 32).

Administrative and professional ethics in the technical-rational philosophy draw upon both teleological and deontological ethics, and focus on the individual’s decision-making process in recent bureaucratic organizations and as member of a profession. In the public sphere, deontological ethics are meant to safeguard the integrity of the organization by helping individuals conform to professional norms, avoid mistakes and misdeeds (corruption, nepotism etc.,) that violate the public trust, and assure that public officials are answerable to the people through their elected representatives. At the same time, public agents are helped to pursue the ultimate good by using discretion in the application of rules and regulations and creativity in the advent of changing conditions (teleological ethics). (Adams & Balfour 2008: 86.)

In regard to public sector ethics, some experts have related technical rationality to the abstinence of misconduct, corruption, fraud and other illegal behaviour; others see it as the integration of values of integrity, honesty, impartiality and efficiency (Uhr 2002: 13–16). The theory of historical institutionalism is a viable framework to which ethically related issues can be evaluated, because in the argument of Peter (2000: 18 qtd. in Vandenabeele & Horton 2008: 7–8); an institution is comparable to formal or informal, structural, and societal or political elements, which transcend the personal level that is premised on more similar values, has certain amount of stability and influences behaviour. Judging from the historical and ever changing environmental positions, the challenges then become that of strategizing to meet the desired expectations through performance with the ultimate goal of re-establishing and preserving public trust. Different works on historical institution-

alism focuses on how and why institutions emerge and in particular on how institutions stand the test of time (Thelen 2003 qtd. in Vandenabeele & Horton 2008: 8).

Codes and procedures cannot guarantee that people will make the right choices in the absence of well-developed and strong background in understanding the general ways of beings; including professionals that make judgements in the context of advancing technology, increased multiculturalism or value pluralism, and globalisation (Cooper D. 2004: 71). The citizen's perspective on the ethicality of governance can be directed differently based on the moral background and theory adopted (Lehtonen 2010: 41).

It is relevant to develop an awareness of ethical issues and problem in the field; build analytical skills that can address those problems when they arise; and cultivate an attitude of moral obligation and personal responsibility as part of public service responsibilities (Walton, Sterns & Crespy, 1997 & Hejka-Ekins 1988 qtd. in Kennedy & Malatesta 2010: 165). Stakeholders should be understood in relation to personnel and costumers, because managerial ethic adds together knowledge, tradition, morality, faith, and good sense (Brown 1983). Progressive relationship can be built by helping to understand differentiated consumer in public services, and what is required to attend to them in different context (Simmons & Powell 2009: 277). Individuals in public life face legal, constitutional, and institutional demands that separate the bounds of their discretion while personal commitments and capacities support and influence judgements (Dodel 1999).

For some time past, institution building has been directed towards the creation or expansion of institutions and the technical skills needed to operate them. In many cases, results have fallen short of expectations, because the attitudes and behaviour that encouraged corruption were allowed spaces in the new institutions. Therefore, it is now meaningful to say that reforms must deal not only with institutions, but also with the individuals who carry out function inside them. There is also a need for results-based leadership that enhances and applies integrity, accountability, and transparency; as well as a general acceptance of the mind-set, beliefs and customs that put integrity first before corruption. (Columbia Accident Investigation Board 2003 & UN 2004a: 82–83.) Specialization is a key requirement in management and policy processes (Viinamäki 2004: 37). According to Mintzberg, all good things in organisations come in dynamic and professional forms (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005: 252). Wilson, Taylor, Weber, Fayol, Barnard, and Simon are articulators of the performance doctrines collectively (Wilson 1887: 22–32; Taylor 1912: 43–45; Weber 1922: 50–52; Barnard 1938: 104–106; Simon 1997: xi–9; Pugh & Hinings 2005; & Pugh & Pugh 2005).

Rational decision-making is choice-based values oriented in most academic circle (Marsh 2004). Ethical decision making and analysis deal with Planning, scope, trade-offs, innovations, choice, procedural protection, rationalisation, impatient ambition, seductive positions, ignoble expectations, upside-down incentives, and unguarded trust relating to administrative issues (Brumback 1991 & Lewis 1991). To record success in the war against corruption, adherence to ethical standards in decision-making, should be the foundation of a nation's policy (Dike 2002: 14). Ethical decision making create a position for "active citizenship," which is the engagement of key stakeholders in decision-making processes, giving them a say in the planning and delivery of public service, and involving them in their communities as means of improving performance (Brannan, John & Stoker 2006: 993).

Adopting the citizens' first as central philosophies in public administration and management activities require that administration and citizenry will be effectively intertwined. Here the role of ethics is to provide us with resolutions of going through the right channel and not the wrong channel (bribery for example) that would be poised in all ramifications in benefiting citizens' welfare and taking responsibility for our actions as trustworthy ambassadors. (Hyryläinen 2010: 2.) Preserving integrity and responsibility in public office means that individuals cannot deny responsibility for their actions (Dodel 1999: 11). Performance is ethical when there is voice, choice and exit framework for citizens; for voice, there are individual and collective voices. The individual is comparable to the consumer role, while the collective voice is comparable to the citizen role (Farrell 2009: 120–131). This is relevant for proactiveness and deterrence for performance.

As one advances in the public service continuum, civic virtue and the common good become even more critical, as does warrant administrator that must be identified as responsible to embrace the role as citizens' administrator. This concerns more those who assume administrative roles, because they take upon themselves greater fiduciary responsibilities and help others with the same vision in coordinative, supportive, and evaluative terms. They are known as special citizens that help to realize the common good. Whenever, a governmental organisation is going astray (by exhibiting/engaging in unethical practices) in the area of their duties to citizens, it is the responsibility of ethical public agent to call them to order on behalf of the rest citizens. The failure to act in this direction represents a breach of trust and denial of the responsibilities of citizenship, which must be the first ethical concern (Walzer 1970 & Cooper 2006).

For the fact we tend to reason unethical activities and the deliberately insufficient work performance as two separate problems, both are forms of irresponsible con-

duct. Both stand for diverting of the public's resources from the fulfilment of its preferences and demands. Using a public organisation's information and access to people for personal gain from one perspective, and simply bending the direction of policies and programs away from their mandated objectives from another; are both failures to serve the citizenry. These are the two sides of irresponsibility that represent the failures of subjective and objective responsibility. (Cooper 2006: 183.) The integrity of public agent is exhibited therefore, when rooms are not given to the wastage and diversion of limited public resources, and the processes of dealing with those caught in these acts are not compromised. The relation of prudence offers effectiveness imperative; prudential obligations reinforce the link between responsibility and the ability to take action about goals or wrongs, because the virtue of prudence takes its normative importance from the nature of outcomes; and a good outcome in this regard, should possess endurance, institutional stability, and popular support (Dodel 1999: 18).

## 2.2 Public Trust

Public trust is the trust of the people towards individuals, institutions, and other special elements/phenomena with defined responsibility(ies). Public trust stands tall in any democratic and civilised society, because it is a representation of trust of the citizens towards the governance processes. The manner and mode of anti-corruption crusade go a long way in affecting either positively or negatively the public confidence on anti-corruption institutions and agents. Public trust means different things to different people and professions. However, one philosophy is central in all, which is the focusing of attention on the 'public interest'. In the words of Denhardt and Gilman (2002: 75–76), our collective trust in government relies on a robust perception that government employees are acting in the public interest.

According to Lucas (2009), public trust doctrine is simple, but a powerful legal concept that obliges governmental institutions to manage public resources to the best interest of its citizens and by not compromising with the benefits of future generations. Also in the words of DiPiazza and Eccles (2002: 3–4), the two key elements of public trust are the spirit of transparency and the culture of accountability. These are important, because they interpret the right meaning of governance to the public, including that of anti-corruption crusade or agency.

Public trust is most assumed to be part of ethical governance, because different ethical values and mechanisms help in creating and establishing trust. Public trust is achieved when institutions and agents are able to accomplish main task or re-

sponsibility, fulfil dreams, and create the ideal or necessary societal and individual transformations. Public trust has different ways of edifying and creating mark of acceptance for public institutions and agents. Public trust can generally be termed as a tangible resource and representation of a good society. Trust does a lot of good to public life. Trust is learned through different dimensions: trust between individuals; trust towards the activity of professionals; trust inside and within organizations; trust in political actors; or trust within a community (Lawton & Doig 2006: 16–17). When the issue of trust arises, it is a question of citizens' emotions, beliefs, opinions and experiences shaping through many processes. The individual socialization process affect this also in no small measure. Therefore, trust becomes a question of personal experience, the experience of the circle of acquaintances, images and the history, and base of the trustor (Van de Walle 2008: 225).

The public trust is central requirement of governance process. The ability of public management actors to imbibe and portray the principles of good governance goes a long way in affecting public trust. The lack of societal trust towards a state vision emanates primarily from bad governance or management. Public trust is an important cornerstone of any ideal society and must be guided by high ethical values (Salminen, Viinamäki & Ikola-Norrbacka 2007), because public trust in public officials is among the key indicators of good governance (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2010).

### *2.2.1 Trust in Public Administration and Management*

Trust is in most cases defined by experts as a social force. Public trust which could also be referred to as public confidence is a significant concept in public administrative process. In understanding the position of public trust in the governance process, a lot of things should be taken into consideration. Like who should trust who? Why must there be trust? In what situation is it more suitable to trust? What factors make the people to trust state actors? Is the relationship of trust reciprocal between the public and public administrative processes (represented by state actors, modes and structures of public policy formulation and implementation)?

However, trust in public administration is relativistic in nature, because it could be viewed and analysed from different perspectives. Trust in public organisation is an issue of different faces (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2009: 75), but central to all is that trust in public administration is most importantly tied to performance. In public administration, public servants act within a set framework and the public interest is important element in this framework (Lähdesmäki 2010: 65). Public



administration tilts towards the legalistic and compliance mode to meet desired expectations (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 7).

If there is only one theme that characterised the public sector in the 1990s, it is the demand for performance (Radin 2000). It is also, because of this reason that performance is the most regularly studied concept in the field of public administration and management (Cohen & Vigoda-Gabot 2004: 66), where performance in most instances is substituted for productivity, since the “real world” of the public administrator is a world filled with deadlines, budgets, and clientele to serve (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: xiv). The poor nature of performance by public institutions and agents are what experts have categorized as the development problems in most developing countries (Bashir 2010b). Poor ethical governance will eventually lead to poor performance (Fawcett & Wardman 2008: 130).

Performance is the ability to do what the people expect and it guarantees trust both at the short and long run. Performance is understanding responsibility in public administration and this responsibility is in both subjective and objective forms, because of its accountable and obligatory dimensions (Mosher 1968: 7–8). Performance then becomes ethical obligations in pure administrative language. These obligations include responsibility for setting and maintaining horizontal relationship of authority with one’s fellow citizens (Follett 1940: 101–102). This view is sometimes referred to as ethical public administration which is about responsibility, choices, consequences, and it is also about taken ownership of one’s decisions, actions, and relationship (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 120–121). This position on the part of public servants calls for engaging in activities, which amount to an on-going renewal and reaffirmation of the social contract (Cooper 1984: 344). According to Gardner, in his argument in Brown (1983: 342):

*“Our society cannot achieve greatness unless individuals at many levels of ability accept the need for high standards of performance and strive to achieve those standards within the limits possible....We must foster a conception of excellence which may be applied to every degree of ability and to socially acceptable activity.”*

Public agencies therefore, must migrate to the culture of performance and a dedication to competence as an ethical standard if the notion of elevating the public good carries any weight among serious public agents; because to manage performance is the surest way of attaining the desired result (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 114). Above all, achieving performance must not be by mere talking, but action (Lewis 1991). The ethics of care concept is one concept that goes with performance, because it is attendance to the expectations of people for whom, we are responsible and being responsible for rooting out corruption and improving the quality of governance (Lehtonen 2010: 32–33). Achieving performance in the

public sector requires the applicability of ethical governance; because ethical governance among many things can set a standard for measuring performance.

Thus, a wider concept of institution building has now been adopted by most donors and organizations especially those that focus on anti-corruption crusade. They now work as facilitators with clients to establish standards and ground rules for public service leaders. Integrity has become a crucial requirement for administrators when filling civil service positions and for voters when comparing candidates for elected or political office. Integrity is now sponsored through any available means, including the introduction of leadership codes, codes of conduct, declarations and monitoring of personal assets, and transparency in political administration. The awakening that institutions are connected and that reforms must often be guided has also brought forth widening of the meaning of "institution" and of the list of institutions popularly included in anti-corruption strategies. (UN 2004a: 83.)

Accountability to legislative bodies, taxpayers and program stakeholders is a leading goal of public sector performance; it is based on this fact that accountability is defined as a relationship in which an individual of an agency is held to answer for performance that involves some delegation of authority to act (Romzek & Dubnick 1998: 6, qtd. in Heinrich 2003: 25). It must be acknowledged that the demands for productivity and performance reforms constitute good governance in public sectors activity from the citizens' perspective, because the legal basis of good governance is built on laws and regulation to serve the public good (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2010).

Complete ethical standards go with public trust. The OECD report (2000) specifies that public service performance means public trust. Citizens acknowledge they will get impartial service, and when the service level guarantees impartial and trustworthy services, trust in public administration is then positively affected. Trust is an important factor when talking about the successes and losses of organisations. (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2009: 79.) The purpose of most Administrative Procedures Act in Finland is to promote good administration and the quality and productivity of administrative services in state and in municipal authorities, including state enterprises, associations under public law and private parties performing public administrative tasks (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2010). The performance doctrine also states that balanced development of the society requires however, that the gap between expectations and reality is not growing intolerably to different societal groups. Performance as the articulator of justice has a responsibility to balance inequality (Salminen, Ikola-Norrbacka & Mäntysalo

2009: 12). The universal value of justice is balanced when it yield to the popular will (Cooper D. 2004: 65).

The paternalistic model of professional practice removes so much control from the client, while the agency model of professional practice removes so much control from the professional. For these reasons, a balanced model becomes an imperative, because it focuses on establishing a balanced relationship that respects the autonomy and responsibilities of both parties. The professional and the client ought to work together as partners to solve the client problems within the framework set by profession's code of ethics. (Cooper D. 2004: 69.) Performance needs strategic planning and review to measure outcomes. Agencies need specific performance indicators, in order to assess their activities and make more favourable decisions. Planning, benchmarking, and evaluation are among the essential tools of public managers in this national emphasis on increasing governmental productivity/performance, and accountability (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 4). Performance is achieved when professional associations are structured to encourage behaviour that is morally required by profession's code of ethics, because it prescribes how professional practice ought to be conducted (Cooper D. 2004: 58).

### 2.2.2 *Means of Achieving Trust*

Ethical governance is important to trust, because its values and mechanisms are clear means of achieving trust. In comparing integrity and trustworthiness, norm acceptability is a standard (Six & Huberts 2008: 70). More tested is the obligation to provide public argumentation for decisions that increase transparency and public trust in governance, and prevents partial and partisan decision-making (Salminen & Ikola–Norrbacka 2010: 82). Current evidence from the United States about citizen participation shows that the ability to take people along in an open manner is a mechanism for achieving trust (Farrell 2009: 131).

Virtue is value for achieving trust, because the qualities of doing good and following its standards are virtues (Gensler 2006: 170). MacIntyre for example saw one important function of virtues as protecting the internal goods of practice from the external goods of institutions; and if public administration could be understood as a practice, so understanding virtue as certain character traits might be a key element in supporting ethical conduct in pressure circumstances from organisation to act opposite (Richter & Burke 2007b: 14). The virtue ethics helps to emphasize the relevance of developing emancipatory capabilities in decision making, because it tells us to develop those traits of character that help moral agent function well in situations that demand moral judgement (Cooper D. 2004: 35 & 46). Developing an organisation includes nurturing and balancing a range of

competencies and virtues that improve judgement in decision making (Menzel 2007: 5).

It is important to start with normative standards of conduct derived from the religious and traditions of society (Jones, Sontag, Becker & Fogelin 1969: 1). A position that is informed by Martin's (1995: 7–8) breakdown of moral philosophy into values of truth and justice. Positive and Negative views of ethics are sure tied to normative ethics, which is giving guidelines for behaviour especially in deciding between bad and good behaviour (Hyryläinen 2010: 2). Ethics involves the examination and analysis of the logic, values, beliefs, and principles that are used to justify morality in its various forms (Cooper 2006: 2–3). Administrative ethics, is well positioned when virtue and intuition work together. The virtues person manifests and lives on the characteristics that identify one as a person of character (Richter & Burke 2007b: 23).

Integrity is a means of achieving trust, because from a real practical ethical situation, integrity is virtues (Hyryläinen 2010: 10–12). Václav Havel a former president of Czechoslovakia and of Czech Republic has stated that public officials live in a world of half-truth, which saps the soul and integrity of any individual. However, individuals of high integrity with an understanding of true public responsibility can make the world a better place. Integrity glues the social world of organisation together. Integrity and judgements form the bedrock of public morality. Integrity involves the capacity of people to evaluate their life and tie belief and practice. Integrity aids to ensure clarity of reflection and to resist temptation to self-deception. Personal integrity has several sides. Most primary, integrity demands consistency between inner beliefs and public actions. Integrity relies upon people possessing the self-discipline and moral courage to engage on a commitment even if doing so requires sacrifice and effort. (Dodel 1999: 3.) From a moral point of view, office commits individuals of integrity to hold themselves to standards and procedures as a public trust. (Salminen & Ikola–Norrbacka 2010: 81). In addition, integrity displays that people have the reflective capacity to make a commitment, figure out what the commitment contains, and act on it (Carter 1996 qtd. in Dodel 1999: 4).

Participation and collaboration are means of achieving trust, because the ability to manage and utilise meaningfully the potentials of every member of a network in an ethical filled manner are what positively affect public trust (Adamolekun 2002). Participation and collaboration go with understanding the relevance of every member or stakeholder in a network and the need to carry them all along.

Another means of achieving trust is the value of responsibility. The more popular association in modern discussion is stated in earlier times by John Locke (1690),

who held the view that society turns power to governors, whom society have given the responsibility to manage its affairs with express or tacit trust. This trust is expected to be used for their good and the preservation of their property. In Locke's political philosophy, the relationship of governments and citizens is one of trust and not of contract. There are two elements at the core of governing a society. One is of some variant with Hobbes's concern with obedience motivated by compelling incentives of self-interest even when there is no trust. The other is Locke's trust, which itself is grounded in relevant judgements of government's agents incentives and willingness to serve the populace. (Dunn 1988: 74–79.)

The value for caring for others can help trust realization. The care approach of ethical governance informs the notion of governance caring for its citizens and their welfare including administrative matters connected to them (citizens). Care ethics is also characterised by relation-centeredness. Care ethics places much emphasis on close relationship and the development of the future generations. To care also mean ability to extend services to others one might not be officially indebted and not taken for granted other theoretical points of ethical issues, which is displayed by exactness and efficiency of service. By sticking to caring ideas and empathy as major values in public service, and making sure that public agents can implement a caring attitude in their act of work execution, the gap between administrative reality and the citizens' expectation for good governance can be narrowed. (Lehtonen 2010: 31–41.) A care orientation would focus on identifying creative ways of simultaneously fulfilling competing responsibilities to others (Simola et al. 2010: 181). Empathy and kindness can be understood as a deep awareness of the suffering of others coupled with the wish to relieve it (Salminen 2006: 183).

The value of justice can also help trust realization. Justice is an attempt, to display how the theory gains support when it is analysed in the light of a fuller consideration of the nature of goodness; and when its stability as a moral conception is made clear, because justice and goodness go together in a just society according to John Rawls. The application of theory of justice leads to intuitive sound judgements in concrete situations. The starting point is that a judgement with which a theory is needed to be equilibrium is considered a judgement of justice. So it is easy to state that the theory of justice is the study of ethical equilibrium that helps insure stability among men. (Kukathas & Philip 1990: 6–12.) Justice as orientation is predicated on impartiality, fairness, reciprocity, and the application of universal moral principles to abstract features of ethical situations (Simola, et al 2010: 180). Justice goes with performance, because performance articulates justice. Three topics of justice are: 1) Equality, 2) Respecting public interest, and 3) Citizens-centred public services (Salminen et al. 2009).

Accountability and transparency are mechanisms of ethical governance that help in achieving trust. Conventionally, accountability refers to answerability for one's actions or behaviour. Formally, it involves the development of objective standards of evaluation to assist the owners of an organisation to evaluate the performance of duties by individuals and units within the organisation. Accountability thus, has three crucial components: a clear definition of responsibility, reporting mechanisms, and a system of review, rewards and sanctions. Accountability flows in different directions: upward, downward between subordinates and superiors, and literally among professional peers. Accountability like transparency stands as a quality control mechanism. Public accountability is the requirement that those who hold public trust account for the use of that trust to citizens or their representatives. Transparency is functional openness that informs trust (Olowu 2002: 140–141.) Auditing and appraisal are special tools ways of achieving trust (Fawcett & Wardman 2008: 132), because commitments can be enforced through sanctions, rewards, and personal realisation.

Motivation as an ethical governance mechanism can also help in the realization of trust. Numerous comparative experiences have shown that well-established responsibilities of financial and performance controlling institutions and transparent controlling mechanism can increase trust and reduce corruption, because corruption can increase if administrative control and audit mechanisms are missing or if controlling is not extensive (Maor 2004; Caiden 2001). There is a meaning in auditing money allocated to special functions in order to ascertain its level of utilisation. The auditing process can increase performance by making sure money budgeted are well utilised; embezzlement and wastage are best curtailed by annual or regular auditing by expert auditors. However, appraisal on its own tries to take a general overview on how the organisational visions and elements are standing. This includes how workers are coping with their duties at various levels. Appraisal helps the initiation of reforms, rewards, and sanctions at the most appropriate places and positions.

Expertise as a mechanism of ethical governance is a means of achieving trust. Expertise goes with professionalism and specialization; and institutions with these variables, is classified as professional and specialized institutions. Specialisation that leads to efficiency anchors on the optimal use of resources to achieve rationally set objectives (Viinamäki 2004: 37). When I talk about resources here, I mean intellectual, structural, social, economic, and environmental variables. It is obvious that the 'knowledge factor' is an essential tool to achieving trust. We can further say there is ethical governance when intellectual assets are given their right positions in an organisation. Having the right knowledgeable personnel at right places in an organization along with knowledge oriented environment and

tool can go a long way in establishing trust, because of the performance they can generate.

Shaw (2009: 21), has stated that reform as an ethical mechanism has a tendency of generating trust. This is because reform tries to bring the things of old in agreement with features of modern world (Clark 2009: 158). Reform is in some other cases about increasing choice (Barnes & Prior 1995: 53). In the words of Esteves De Araujo (2001: 915), reform is characterised by externalities, because of the orientation of doing good. The focused group at which institution-building reforms are pointed must also be expanded to include all parts of society with interest in creating and maintaining integrity; in creating general strategies, institutional reforms can be classified into ‘pillars of integrity’ that are side by side supportive and include elements from government and civil society (UN 2004a: 83). Reform relating to public organization should be able to inform ‘choice’ and ‘voice’ along with improvement (Blair 2005 & UK Parliament 2012).

Independence and discretion are ethical mechanisms that can also help in achieving trust. In real life situations there are chances of a moral agent behaving abnormally under institutional pressure, with some certain unique circumstances, codes of ethics cannot possibly cover every contingency that might come up in professional practice, thus, professionals must exercise professional discretion, which means they need leeway to apply their esoteric knowledge to figure out the best means for carrying out the objectives of profession in specific cases and professionals should be able to explain their use of discretion for the sake of eliminating bias (Cooper D. 2004: 51 & 68). Public organizations can also need independence from political interest in order to be able to give preference to public interest.

Another ethical mechanism that helps in achieving trust is enlightenment, because it offers result and guidance to the people. Enlightenment serves as the real basis of knowing and understanding, because it brings to true light the things that happen around us.

The ethical mechanisms and values discussed so far are what make public trust part of ethical governance. Trust in government is ideal in the working of modern society and the trust that a good government enables its citizens to have between one and another is also important. The literary usage of trust is readily applied to many institutions and institutional actors like banks, anti-corruption agencies, nations and political leaders. As regard individuals, the question whether we can trust institutions reduce to the question whether institutions can be trustworthy. The concept of trust is highly surrounded by the norms of reciprocity. (Hardin 2006: 9–16 & Lähdesmäki 2010: 65.)

## 2.3 Public Trust and Combating Corruption

Tobego (2010), has stated that ethical mechanisms and values can help in instituting public trust, because they can help in combating corruption. In most developing countries, efforts to fight corruption are normally mocked along with the very idea of citizen or citizenship, because the term “inhabitants” is preferred against the former. If the status quo is maintained through repetition until conducting personal public affairs eventually collapses; poor competitive advantage and negativity becomes national features (Caiden, Dwivedi & Jabbra 2001: 2). Public trust which has been bartered and betrayed by most public actors in developing countries must be regained and nurtured by improved performance in public institutions (Adamolekun 2002: 10–14).

Ethical governance is premised on trust and it is legitimate; citizens’ trust from this perspective is a sort of general confidence in the manner adopted for anti-corruption crusade (Salminen & Ikola–Norrbacka 2009: 74). Salminen and Ikola–Norrbacka further argue that trust and integrity are the foundations of a democratic and open society; therefore, good governance should be studied by noticing citizens’ influence, particularly when the citizen perspective is often neglected in empirical research on administrative ethics (2009: 74).

Many causal chains relating to this social monster (corruption), have informed various discourses on the prevention and control of this phenomenon (Graaf 2007: 39). Transparency International for example proposes National Integrity System as a well-rounded method for the fight against corruption through public awareness, public anti-corruption strategies, public participation, watchdog agencies, the judiciary, the media, the private sector and international cooperation (Huberts, Maesschalck, & Jurkiewicz 2008: 254). Corruption is the abuse of entrusted power for private gain; the practice cuts across both the public and private sectors (Transparency International 2010). However, in administrative studies, corruption is mostly referred to as the act of diverting public interest or public good for personal gain. Corruption is an act of giving, promising or offering wrongful satisfaction or compensation (Salminen 2006). In Lawton’s (1998: 26) perspective, defining what is corruption depends upon personal gain, breaking the rules, how often it happens and the value of the gifts.

Khan (1996) has argued that constructing a definition for corruption presents several difficulties, because like many other forms of behaviour, it is an elusive and complex phenomenon. One of the difficulties is constructing a definition, which is not dependent on the moral or normative evaluation of the researcher. However, corruption is basically defined in most social science discussions, in terms of



deviations from legal norms themselves. This norm based definition has tended, however, to allow discussion to take place at the cost of ruling out some important activities, which in everyday sense would be considered corrupt. (Edevbaro 1998: 27.)

According to Werner (1983: 195): “*Corruption as modus operandi has been observed throughout the world, corruption is universal.*” In Mulinge and Lesetedi (2002: 51) perspectives, the problem of corruption is both an endemic and a universal one, which affects all world nations but in varying degrees and forms. Corruption is a multi-faced phenomenon, linking multiple issues together such as *abuse of entrusted* power for private gains; low integrity; taking bribes; maladministration, fraud, and nepotism (Salminen et al. 2007). Huberts, Lasthuizen and Peeters (2006: 90), argues that corruption is like an iceberg, in which only the tip can be seen and only known facts can be taken into consideration, because of its complex nature. Corruption can represent different interests and it is not only necessary to talk about corruption, but also the attitude and performance of the political system or state agencies toward corruption (Lou 2005: 122).

It is an absolute fact to state where the level of “civic community” is low the strength of electoral competition to fight corruption will be weak. One variable that has been critically examined in few econometric works on the determinants of corruption is social capital. Social capital is created from the horizontal networks and relations between individuals, groups and organizations in civil society. (Del Monte & Papagni 2008.) A good social capital represents a strong cohesion. The different fields that study corruption have their unique paradigms for combating it (Lou 2005: 120–130.) It is a simple fact that things may appear difficult when analysing the issue of corruption, because it is complex to identify it with any single factor or group of factors; it is almost impossible to problematize in all its dimensions (Sabet 2010: 91).

### 2.3.1 Ideological View

When the authenticity of a society is called into question, ethical values and mechanisms that bring holistic development become relevant (Selznick 1949: 156–157). These values and mechanisms can manifest in the nature of policies and procedures for fighting corruption. Anti-corruption policies and procedures are often modelled through legal and constitutional elements. Across the world, large numbers of individuals believe their governments’ efforts to tackle or stop corruption to be ineffective. Respondents in Sub-Saharan African countries are good representations of this fact. (Transparency International 2010.) Resource-rich countries should be able to give priorities to policies that can address rent-seeking

and patronage; in this sense, policy should be less about macro-economic management, but more about institutional mechanisms that prevent rent-seeking and patronage (Kolstad & Søreide 2009: 214).

The relevance of shared procedural background for shared human understanding cannot be overemphasised, so we must understand what experiences others have had before judging or formulating policies that affect them, because if we fail, we might then not be able to live to the desired expectations (Cooper D. 2004: 10–11). Policies and procedures for tackling corruption should emerge from a rational process, because most of them are premised on traditional orientations (Huberts et al. 2008: 259). A good design and implementation process for anti-corruption should be able to include enforcement apparatus and effective system of surveillance (Kim, Kim, & Lee 2009: 43). Design of anti-corruption policies and procedures should focus on the quality of integrity and judgements that they bring forth (Dodel 1999). Management's main responsibility, in payment matters for example, is for a correct examination and diagnosis of a situation, formation of the right policy and implementation of the most suitable form of remuneration package to fit given circumstances (Ibbetson & Whitemore 1977: 3).

Citizens expect that the policy choices being implemented will correspond rather taking the shape of almost like (Peters 2010: 2). Rationality centres on modernity, because it institutes the best approach to solving a pressing problem (White & Adams 1994: 4–22; Adams 1994: 25–30; & Cooper D. 2004: 88–95). Rationality under an instrumental context can be represented by the 'why' and 'how' of decisions or policies. Therefore, with the 'why' and 'how' working together in agreement, the desired results become achievable. Furthermore, rationality comprises of two components; problem analysis and solution analysis (Pineau 2007: 167). Policy learning is a calculated attempt to adjust the objectives or techniques of policy in reaction to past policy failures (Hall 1993: 278).

Above all, according to Richter and Burke (2007c: 158), the adoption of rationality within an anti-corruption crusade perspective can create the following postures:

- (1) *“Strengthening trust through creating guidelines, incorporating accountability and measured expectations;*
- (2) *Providing for dissent and the application of transparency and whistle-blowing;*
- (3) *Adding management tools to institutionalized models of compliance, oversight, and sanctions; and,*
- (4) *Examining the responsibility of leaders and others in bringing about an ethical culture.”*

Participation as it relates to policies and procedures informs a sanction, deterrence, and interdependence paradigms. In this position, linked grouped members responsibility and belief are in such a way that if the whole group fails to perform the responsibility of monitoring and policing corruption among itself, all members are punishable. Collective task and sanctions by same token, help to produce the opposite effect of rising wider social compartment and responsibility; and consequently, of establishing social trust. (Sabet 2010: 108–109.) Path dependency for example is an approach that gives “insight” into the nature of both endogenous and exogenous manipulations or even shocks, which can be possible manifestation of breakdown or decay in strong enduring (path dependent) pattern of corruption (Thelen 2003: 209). Path dependency states stability, persistence, and continuity; decisions are affected by earlier decisions, forcing corrupt behaviour and fomenting a corrupt culture, reproduced in a self-generative form. Corruption becomes institutionalised as its structures, actions and roles expand. The task of dealing with institutionalised corruption becomes that of breaking path dependency and the rigidity it invents. (Sabet 2010: 102–104.)

Transparency International (TI) for example led the rethink with a strategy of disseminating knowledge about tackling corruption as a developmental issue and proposed the utility of doing so through partnerships of different sectors of society. The World Bank in this regard, enhanced the TI approach with the concept of Action Planning supported by data collection and analysis. Consequently, the scope for combating corruption has expanded to cover the whole dynamic process of governance. Premised on the Bank’s approach, an Action Plan is a prioritized array of strategic reform options sequenced to mainstream anti-corruption measures that cut across a country’s governance system. The principles informing the development of an action plan are that it must be participatory, originate from within a country, be built on rigorous data analysis, and inform the initiation of viable/strong reforms by the political leadership of a country. (Asamoah 2003: 1–3.)

In addition, action planning provides coherence and flexibility in sequencing, but its utility is limited by the extent to which the plan can be and or is implemented. An action plan is less likely to be well implemented if it is not supported by society wide consensus anchored on the commitment of the political leadership. Consensus provides political security and develops in buffers against potential instability. That state of affairs can only come with careful, diligent and flexible coalition building prior to the development of the plan. A realist and people oriented plan is participatory and focused in intent and activity on the ethical and watchdog infrastructure. (Asamoah 2003: 8.) In one sense, it may be easier to improve institutions for the private sector to reduce rent-seeking, as this would make out-

side options more attractive for those involved in rent-seeking, since highly corrupt governments are unlikely to support public institutions that significantly reduce their payoffs (Kolstad & Søreide 2009: 224).

Preventing corruption requires reforming administrative procedures and policies that cannot yield result (Kim et al. 2009: 42 & 47). New Public Management reform for example that took place during the 1980s and 1990s was modelled on corporate management; and puts emphases on competition, efficiency, privatization, contracting, assessment, and result (Bowman & West 2008: 181).

Good conceptions of policy goals are those that satisfy a test of reflective equilibrium; rationality concerns what the ends should be (Thacher 2004). Value rationality is societal or organizational desired ends; what ought to be. Public trust is a desirable end, which can be achieved with the eradication of corruption. One major means of achieving this desired end is through the adoption of viable policies and procedures. Every practice rests on theory, because it is theory that sees change as normal and indeed healthy (Drucker 1985: 23). Taken a position of societal reconstruction (Mannheim 1940), after a long decay in social order and developmental output; the concepts of effectiveness (in the manners it cover the expected target) and efficiency (in the manners it satisfy the expected target) then become the main issues in this regard. According to Cooper (1984: 355): “*technical expertise, competence in specialized fields, and the ability to employ the best available scientific methods are unquestionable.*” Even Woodrow Wilson’s instrumental view of administration lies on technical expertise (Rohr: 1985: 382), because of its emphasis on alternatives, modifications, caution, and results.

In most developed countries where the regulations of ethical issues centre mostly on constitutional framework (Comstock 2001) by making the understanding of constitutionalism a prerequisite for professionalism for example (Rosenbloom 1992); and according to Wilson, total liberty teachings are inalienable from constitutional principles (Frederickson & Hart 1985: 359). Cooper (2006: 85) has also stated that legal responsibility goes with an obligation to understand and uphold the constitutions. Clear facts about anti-corruption policies show a global rise in legal frameworks, rules, and regulations, and internal control in a wide number of nations (Clark & Jos 2000).

In 1984, American Society of Public Administration (ASPA) adopted a Code of Ethics that drew from normative perspectives, constitutional values of equal protection (opposing discrimination, promoting fairness and equality); due process (stated in several sections); free speech (protection of dissent, obligations of transparency); emphasizing governmental accountability and the rule of law; serve the public interest; respect the constitution and laws; demonstrate personal

integrity; promote ethical organization; and strive for professional excellence. (Kennedy & Malatesta 2010.)

### 2.3.2 *Institutional View*

The government or public agency model is relevant in the evaluation of the institutional view of anti-corruption units. It is a fact that agencies are definitely not a new feature of public administration in civilized societies, their relevance has grown so much in recent years that they can no longer be treated as marginal inclusions to more traditional administrative structures. Instead they should be addressed as main elements of a new mode of governance that relies less on the power of taxing and spending, but more on the power of making and enforcing rules. In a true meaning, rules are made and enforced by expert agencies operating at arm's length from government. Thus, the growing relevance of the agency model is perhaps the clearest indication of the movement from the interventionist state of the past to the regulatory state of the tomorrow. (Majone 2012.)

The institutional view of fighting corruption is an extension or emergence of wider national or international policies and procedures. Institutionalisation is the process through which structure is maintained and reproduced; in here, structures and activities are modified towards isomorphism not only for economic motivations, but popularly for social, cultural, or political ends (Kim et al. 2009: 43). Kim et al., further argue that institutional view of anti-corruption crusade represents pillars of regulatory/coercive, normative, and cognitive/mimetic forces (2009: 44). Conceptualisation could assist in connecting notions about corruption in a singular framework where fighting it becomes intertwined with institutional perspective; the question of how to fight corruption becomes one of how to perform acts of institutional subversions through both endogenous and/or exogenous features i.e. to transform, demolish, deconstruct, infuse and rebuild institutions and their concomitant structures (Sabet 2010: 100).

The ability to trust those given the responsibility to curb corruption in order to reap meaningful benefits from public business is of ultimate interest to the citizens (Gensler 2006). Administrative experts like Miles and Snow argue that strategy content is a relevant enhancer of organizational performance. Their classification applied to public organizations, separate strategic actors into four general types: prospectors, defenders, analysers, and reactors. It is arguable; with most present indicators that strategy content is a subset of generally accepted management functions in public organizations like anti-corruption agencies. (Meier, O'Toole Jr, Boyne, & Walker 2006: 357.)

Considering ethical problems from a management perspective, involves thinking strategically (Cooper 2006: 283). Strategy to a large extent should be able to add to clarity, strength, and presence of signals that challenge assumption about risk (Columbia Accident Investigation Board 2003). One glaring point to begin in attacking the problem of corruption and other abuses is to mark the kinds of policies, programs and positions, which are most prone to fraud, waste, abuse, and corrupt practices (Richter & Burke 2007c: 157). Ethics and integrity have been linked to alternative strategies for ethics management in organisation, which is a way to say compliance and integrity strategies; compliance strategy stresses external control of public officials, while integrity strategy highlights self-controlled exercise by individual public officials as persons of integrity (Hyyryläinen 2010: 4).

The unified ethic in mind, we consider public organisation culture and its potential for ethical behaviour as well as relevant proposal of organisational development as a strategy for organisational change (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 102–103). Developing countries have to use words as well as actions; countries must monitor the effectiveness of their many (but not active) anti-corruption strategies or agencies (Dike 2002: 18). Ethical governance therefore, becomes a solid paradigm in determining the relationship between public trust and the governance processes that are represented by public management actors, mode of public policy formulation and implementation, and social and structural arrangement of public institutions that in total bring forth societal development and transformation.

According to Geuras and Garofalo (2005: 33): “*the centrality of social values to public service is evident in the nature of the ethics statement of public agencies.*” The citizens come top in the priority. The duties of task setting and planning hence become the responsibilities of an ideal state or society that wants to bring good life to its people (citizens). Looking at the past becomes a relevant feature in goal settings by the agencies set up by various governments to bring about the desired transformations from various societal abnormalities (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 7). According to Rawls (1978: 21), public institutions are represented as contract entity between government and the citizens.

It is no doubt; moves towards value-based leadership are cultivated by instrumental thinking and desire to achieve better performance according to Pruzan (1998). This institutional framework must look for pragmatic materials (personnel) that will assist organisation in making values operational and mechanisms by which values can be integrated internally. This is because values based environment would offer an alternative especially, in terms of better stakeholder value and legitimacy of the organization activities as well as managerial actions from the per-

spectives of Brytting and Trollestad (2000). Value management is an undisputed requirement in any organizational setting. In addition, values can be used in establishing and communicating a coherent vision; making strategic decisions; establishing structures, processes and control systems; develop and educate new leaders; create and manage the organization's culture and climate; and establish the organisation's ethical code and system according to Gorjean, Resick, Dickson, and Smith (2004). Furthermore, the values are concerned about the creation of ethical organizational leadership and bringing uniformity to complex individual attributes. (Viinamäki 2009.)

Notwithstanding the fact, whistleblowing; watchdogging; telephone hot lines for reporting ethics abuses; ethics boards and commission; ethics education programs for public personnel; agency ethics officer; financial or other conflict-of-interest disclosure systems; and professional codes of ethics are valuable but their utility is limited. From this premise, the unified code of ethics becomes so relevant in constructing and cultivating an ethical organisation since it represents moral clarity, conviction, and consistency. The application of a unified ethics can help anti-corruption agents in developing an identity as a moral agent, a steward of the public interest, and a professional citizen. Above all, amidst the face of organisational and policy complexity, adoption of the unified ethic as a framework for public administration can also provide criteria for assessing organisational and policy choices, as well as the reasons offered by way of explanation, defence, and justification for those choices. (Geuras & Garofalo 2005: 111 & 119–122.)

Internal audit holds a significant role in preventing corruption, because of its semi-autonomous standing and its function as overseer of internal control mechanisms. In general, an internal audit may have greater access and higher potential for broad coverage of operation than any other controlling institutions (Schwartz 2003). The auditors deal with inspection and monitoring action. Performance audit serves the information requirements of the parliament, administration, and citizens. (Salminen & Ikola-Norrbacka 2010: 87–88.) The citizens should be aware of the effective functioning of anti-corruption agencies, to be able to ascertain their performance. Anti-corruption agencies' accountability is best fulfilled when the public are told or presented with progress reports.

Comparative evaluations indicate that the presence of performance and financial controlling institutions and explicit controlling mechanisms might help fight against perceived corruption (Maor 2004). In response to tensions, people sometimes separate themselves from commitments that can no longer be sustained, and they resign from office; true personal integrity requires self-reflective honesty in

addition with friends and colleagues with whom people can check personal assessments (Dodel 1999: 5 & 6).

The availability of code of ethics can help focus public agents towards performance that helps in solving the corruption fight dilemma (Ambe Shu 2006).

The availability of whistleblowing mechanisms in watchdogging agencies are sure alternative ways of guaranteeing performance in these agencies (Salminen et al. 2007). Silence persists when those who "blow the whistle" are victimized and in overcoming this in addition to promoting a culture of transparency and accountability, a clear and simple framework should be established that encourages legitimate reporting of corruption and other malfeasance and protects such "whistleblowers" from victimization or retaliation (UN 2004a: 448). Blowing the whistle is not the first instrument for fighting corruption, to verify the facts that led to blowing the whistle, transparency and openness are required; whistleblowing covers outside routine channels for citizens, such as ombudsman, investigations, and even going to the media (Ikola-Norrbacka et. al 2010: 80).

Anti-corruption institutions should be seen representing the words of John F. Kennedy a former American president. According to him, the eyes of all people are truly upon us and our agencies should be a city set upon a hill, constructed and inhabited by men aware of their grave trust and their great responsibilities through courage; rationality; integrity; and dedication. (John F. Kennedy Presidential Library & Museum 2010.) Through these, anti-corruption agents can function properly in representing the visions and goals of the agencies they work; and in another way helping to meet the citizens' expectations for a corrupt free and a prosperous society.

## 2.4 Summary

This chapter has been able to conceptualize public trust as part of ethical governance. Ethical governance is a broad concept with different dimensions and it is made up of special ethical values and mechanisms. Ethical values and mechanisms are means of achieving trust, because they are representation of ethical governance. Ethical governance is the processes and orientations that guarantee the most acceptable standard of ethical behaviour and performance and can also be defined as values and mechanisms that offer good to citizens and society. In addition, ethical governance is rationality oriented. Value is an issue of necessity and perception that is tied to ethics; which includes principle that direct our eval-



uation on what is good and ideal. Rationality also concerns our thoughts and ideals, which discusses issues of choice, preferences, and outcomes.

Trust in the contexts of public administration and management is most often tied to performance. Ethical values and mechanisms help in informing trust, because public trust is realized or improved when anti-corruption activities are able to reduce corruption. Combating corruption can take ideological view, which is represented by legal orientation or policies and procedures; and institutional view, which is represented by anti-corruption agency. The ideological and institutional views are most viable when they comply with ethical values and mechanisms.

### 3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

The strategy of inquiry involves the skills, assumptions, and practices used by the researcher-as-bricoleur when moving from a paradigm and a research design to the collection of empirical materials. In addition, strategies of inquiry connect researcher to particular approach(es) and method(s) for collecting and analyzing empirical materials. (Denzin & Lincoln 1998.)

Philosophical questions in research formulation concern ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Scientific realism addresses the phenomena of a particular study to be independent of the researcher, because they exist in the outside world. Constructivism emphasizes the construction of reality, because the researcher defines concepts from a self-perspective (Niiniluoto 1999). Ontology refers to the reality in the world, and in the context of the present study are the issues of administration, performance, social concepts, agencies, countries etc. Epistemology refers to our views of gaining knowledge or means for justifying claims; in the context of the present study are agencies' documents and experts' interview. Methodology is the way adopted to answer questions and in the context of the present study is descriptive qualitative analysis with a comparative premise of data from interview and documents.

Hyryläinen (2010: 13) has posited that descriptive relativism/constructivism is the most suitable stance for public administration and management research; although, "blind spot" still exists between theoretical and methodological questions. The research strategy is however, presented step by step in this work and it begins with an explanation of qualitative research.

#### 3.1 Qualitative Research

Research is about data collection and interpretation. In an attempt to define research aim and answer research question, researchers often adopt methodology(ies) to accomplish general research task. The qualitative and quantitative methods are special and popular approaches in social sciences research. Qualitative like quantitative information is suitable for answering research questions (O'Sullivan & Russell 1989: 2). The qualitative method is as old as research itself. The qualitative method takes different forms. It is sometimes seen as anti-positivistic inquiry geared toward understanding rather than explaining. The qualitative methods mostly represent an umbrella term for a variety of methods and techniques that could not, for different reasons be quantified. (Gabrielian, Yang, & Spice 2008: 142.) A popular paradigmatic theme includes the epistemological

and ontological view of knowledge as a human construction; another popular title is the reliance on the collection, analysis, and interpretation of qualitative data, like observations in natural settings reported in field notes, interviews recorded in transcripts, and document analysis (Harris 2002: 45). Qualitative research produces complete and practical knowledge by itself (Gabrielian et al. 2008: 147).

There has been resurgence in the use of qualitative research methods in social sciences, because the quantitative method almost completely took over in the mid-twentieth century due the emergence of technology. However, qualitative research method is gradually taken back its rightful position, because public administration scholars are increasingly engaging in qualitative research. Qualitative researchers in public management often anchor reasons on 'incompatibility' to differentiate between qualitative and quantitative research regarding ontology, epistemology, axiology (values base), rhetorical style, and methodology (analytical process, research design, goals of sampling, basis of conclusion etc). (Gabrielian et al. 2008: 145–146.)

Conceptualising issues in qualitative inquiry mostly can take different forms because, psychometricians try to measure it; experimentalists try to control it; interviewers ask questions about it; observers watch it; participant observers do it; statisticians count it; evaluators value it; and qualitative inquirers find meaning in it (Patton 2002: 1).

Qualitative research possesses some levels of simplicity and discretion. Quantitative social scientists often see qualitative social scientists as those who may well know a lot, but do not always know much to do with what they know, since there are no standards that they can use to systematize their material and then generalize from it (Hanckè 2009: 77). However, qualitative research method has stood the test of time as still one of the most preferred methods by social scientists. One of the characteristics of this recent period of growth is that qualitative method has become institutionalised as a largely self-sufficient approach to social research (Hammersley 1989: 1). The qualitative and quantitative approaches are descriptive and analytical formulations. Methods can be applied in different patterns, qualitative interview method can be used in some occasions to generate ideas for questionnaire-based survey, or interviews may follow a survey, to explain apparent paradoxes that the survey brings to light and this either happen due to the independence or interdependence of methods (Alexander, Thomas, Cronin, Fielding & Moral-Ellis 2008: 130).

Qualitative research tends to be dominant in the field of social sciences and humanities. Qualitative researchers most often look at cases as wholes, and they compare wholes with each other. While cases may be evaluated in terms of varia-

bles, cases are viewed as configurations or combinations of characteristics. Thus, comparison in the qualitative tradition goes with comparing configurations. This holism contradicts the radical analytic approach of most quantitative work. Not only is the qualitative tradition oriented toward cases as wholes, as configurations, but it also tends to be historically interpretive. (Ragin 1987: 3.) The adoption of the qualitative method in this research is premised on the simple fact of getting comparable positions and results in anti-corruption crusade and trust related issues.

### 3.2 Comparative Setting

The research in focus is comparative that studies three federal anti-corruption agencies in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon; and on how their policies and procedures affect public trust and corruption. The decision to select ICPC (Nigeria), CHRAJ (Ghana), and NACC (Cameroon) is premised on the fact that they are presently the forerunner anti-corruption agencies in the three countries; therefore, representing a good framework and model to understanding the nature/pattern (policies and procedures), result, and judgements of anti-corruption crusade in three countries.

Comparative approach is the act of teaching alternatives. Comparing is ultimately a human exercise; the fruits are at the same time biological and innate, as well as social and learned (Lehtonen 2008: 228). The study of public administration, including administrative ethics requires comparison in order to discover cross-national generalizations, rules and other specific features. Peters (1998), has also made significant emphasis with his four dimension comparison models of cross-national, cross-time, cross-level and cross-policy in this regard.

One method is the two or multiple case phenomena in comparative ethics. In this approach, the focus is more on comparative settings and aims, and the characteristics of things being compared; if the starting point for comparison lies on exploring most different cases, the analysis tends to focus on similarities and from another angle, a comparativist can look for difference and then base analysis on contexts that are roughly similar. Methodologically, good care is given to commensurability in this approach, which is to say there should be a minimum of factor or variable in which the meaning remains unchanged from one case to another. Pure cure to maintaining a good standard of comparability are to describe and interpret all the cases with the same motives and raise all the same issues, and to put together research material by using the same principle and specificity in all cases. The comparative approach in focus here, obviously adds the element of analytical

analysis to the comparison of similarities and differences. (Dogan & Pelassy 1984: 20; Salminen & Viinamaki 2006: 2–8; & Salminen & Viinamaki 2010: 21–23.)

Therefore, anchoring on the empirical nature of this research, a broad comparison is necessitated. It is through comparison that whatever heart we can get to, can actually be reached, by assessing one situation against another we gain a better perspective on our current situation as well as the options and constraints we face, because we learn through comparing (Geertz 1983: 233). However, comparison is a balance between culturally linked concepts/meanings and generalisation/universal labelled including structural and functional issues (Sartori 1985: 246 & Heady 2001 qtd. in Salminen & Viinamaki 2010: 22). Policy-makers, practitioners and academics highly support comparative findings, and multinational as well as multicultural endeavours; this method has also been able to tackle a lot of issues under focus in administrative ethics like institutional policies and procedures (Salminen & Viinamaki 2010: 15).

Comparative studies in public management are interrelated, because they deal with how, why, and to what effect different governments or agencies pursue particular course of action or inaction. While this definition may seem straightforward, it contains a number of important conceptual distinctions. It is worth pausing to sort out the major terms in this definition: the study of how, why and to what effect different governments or agencies pursue particular course of action and inaction. To ask how governments or agencies choose to act; focuses our attention on what goes on inside and at the fringes of the operational environment. It requires learning aspects of the structures and processes through which decisions are reached and implemented. (Heindenheimer, Heclo & Adams 1990: 3–4.)

To ask why governments or agencies pursue particular area of action; is obviously as difficult to answer as it is important to ask. The answer to the why question depends mostly on historical developments in the distant past, which current policymakers may well be a novice, on the underlying political culture of a nation or establishment and subsections of its population, or even on a changing state of public consciousness that makes something a problem for policy attention rather than simply a condition to be accepted. To what effect question is to many the payoff. Comparative study in public management is given special attention to the effects of government's or agency's action on peoples' lives and learning from different experiences makes policy development subject both complex and fascinating. (Heindenheimer et al. 1990: 3–4.)

It is deducible that various methodological strategies exist for exploring ethics in public management, such as the comparative method that add and develop admin-

istrative theory, such as good governance and corporate social responsibility (Salminen & Viinamäki 2010: 15–16). However, it is common to define comparative research that uses comparable data from at least two societies; this position emphasizes the fact that the data of comparative social science are cross-societal, because cross-national studies focus on cross-societal similarities and differences (Ragin 1987: 3–4).

### 3.3 Interviewing and Documentary Analysis

To conduct or wanting to conduct interview shows willingness or curiosity to know (Evans & Jones 2011). Interviews are concerned with the questions of validity. An interview usually involves two persons; the interviewer and the interviewee. Interviews can also occur in a group certain like focus groups and brainstorming; focus groups for example are normally, six to twelve individuals who have some knowledge or experience of the topic the researcher is interested in, and whose thinking on the matter is stimulated and enhanced by group dynamics and interaction (Gabrielian, et al. 2008: 156).

Interviews normally take the form of conversation that is followed by note taking or electronic device recording. However, to avoid scepticisms of various types; interviews are best when corroborated with other interviews, research reports, annual reports/documents, newspapers articles etc. The three key things to understand about interviews are: When to interview? Who to interview? How to interview? (Hanckè 2009: 103–104.) The interviewer should be able to think about the most appropriate time to embark on an interview exercise; the interviewer should be able to understand what it takes to get the appropriate person for an interview exercise; and the interviewer must have the right training to understand the ethics and dynamics of the interviewing process. The interview process as a strategy in qualitative research still holds a paramount place in social sciences research (Ragin 1987). Because interviews give a clearer description/definition about motives, causes, and effects of a phenomenon (Feinberg & Jeppeson 2000).

Documentary analysis is a secondary form of data collection. The analysis of documents can provide insights into important social and political issues. Documents can take the shapes of qualitative/quantitative content analysis; qualitative descriptive analysis; qualitative interpretive analysis; and semiotics analysis. (Dew 2005.) According to the Australian National University (2011), key initial questions one needs to consider when engaging in documents analysis are: 1) what type of documents is it; 2) does it have any particular unique characteristics; 3) when was it written; 4) who was the author and what was his/her position; 5)

for whom (what audience) was the document written; 6) what is the purpose of the document; 7) why was the document written; and 8) what evidence is there within the document that indicates why it was written?

Given careful thoughts to the above questions on the preceding paragraph, help in creating a preliminary ground for data validation and reliability. Engaging in documentary analysis in research inquiries require special training and skills, because of ethical issues. Since the methodology adopted in this research is qualitative descriptive analysis; the interview and documentary analysis complementing strategy aims at testing written anti-corruption policies and procedures with diverse opinions. The policies and procedures of anti-corruption agencies in three countries here studied are stated or outlined in their annual reports; conference papers; and national constitutions and gazettes etc. The interviews then help in understanding their efficacies, applicability, usefulness, and the needs for their possible reforms. It is visible therefore; one cannot separate the ideas on the documents from respondents' views and orientations.

### *3.3.1 Interview Nature and Documents Used*

A total of twenty seven (27) interviews were conducted in the three countries and to be exact, ten (10) point of views in Nigeria, ten (10) point of views in Ghana, and seven (7) point of views in Cameroon. The people interviewed in three countries are experts on issues related to trust, performance, and corruption. The structured interview takes open ended and closed ended formats at different instances. The questions asked are grouped respectively under the following topics (See Appendix 1):

1. Values and mechanisms for fighting corruption
2. Experts' judgements on public trust
3. Corruption as a problem of different dimensions and the threats to fighting it

The main documents used in studying anti-corruption policies and procedures in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon have different contents like operational and structural guidelines; date of establishments; affiliations; statistics; etc. The specific documents used from the three agencies are: 1) Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) report 2005; 2) Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) monitor 2011 that covers major events since inception; 3) Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) report on official website in 2010; 4) The Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) annual

reports from 2003 to 2008; 5) Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) 2010 report on official website; 6) National Anti-corruption Commission (NACC) 2006 text organic status of personnel rules of procedures; National Anti-corruption Commission (NACC) 2010 and 2012 reports on official website; 7) National Anti-corruption Commission (NACC) 2010 national strategy on the control of corruption report; 8) National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC) 2011 report; and 9) National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC) 2010 written speech by the Vice-Chairman of NACC on its activities.

The main documents used in studying anti-corruption policies and procedures models in three countries also have different contents that include general laws in the three countries and global initiatives for human rights, corruption, and other unethical practices. The specific documents used in this context are: 1) Nigerian Code of Conduct Bureau 2006 presidency inter-task team handbook; 2) 2006 Constitution of the Republic of Cameroon; 3) 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana; 4) 1999 Constitution of the Republic of Nigeria; 5) United Nations reports on official website in 2010; 6) United Nations 2004 global program against corruption; and 7) United Nations 2004 action against corruption.

### 3.3.2 *Validity and Reliability of Research Materials*

The main issues that come to mind when documents are selected for a research work are questions of reliability, validity, and sensitivity. When you ask, “Does this document produce dependable or consistent data?” you are questioning its reliability. When you ask, “Does this document produce data on the variable of interest?” you are questioning its validity. (O’Sullivan & Rassel 1991: 82–83.) While reliability is characterised by stability, consistency, dependability, and trustworthiness; validity is characterised by exactness or correctness. Validity has some connotations of reliability, but they are wrongly used interchangeably most times; validity implies logic and well-grounded principles of evidence (Giannatasio 2008: 109–140).

It is arguable that the comparative approach originally belongs to the quantitative tradition, because it started with the school of positivism that propagates the scientific approach and logic in research inquiry (Adams 1994). However, narrowing a research inquiry with a comparative setting to the qualitative tradition here is premised on the fact that no detailed quantitative formula was adopted in data presentation and interpretation. Rather, the data presentation and analysis are executed with great simplicity that instantly informs a descriptive qualitative analysis.



Reliability and validity of documents used in a research task are unarguably important. The data extracted from Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) report, monitor, and webpage is reliable and valid, because they represent official “truth.” The data extracted from Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) reports and webpage is reliable and valid, because they represent official “truth.” The data extracted from National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC) reports, speech, and webpages is also reliable and valid, because they also represent official “truth.” The data extracted from the Constitution of the republics of Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon is reliable and valid, because they represent national legal framework. The data extracted from the United Nation (UN) report and webpages is reliable and valid, because they represent internationally certified order and standard. The data extracted from the Nigerian Code of Conduct Bureau 2006 presidency inter-task team handbook is reliable and valid, because it is a certified national institution. The final argument on the reliability and validity of all the documents used in this research is that there is balancing between country-based materials and international-based materials.

The interviews conducted in three countries are valid and reliable in many ways. First, the interviews were expert-based and the different experts/individuals interviewed spoke on behalf of their various organizations. In addition to the questions of validity and reliability of interviews is the diverse nature; the different opinions represent a comprehensive view. The total numbers of twenty seven (27) interviews are enough for qualitative oriented research, also because of the comprehensive view and not very broad boundary of qualitative research. Above all, the different experts spoke around the real problem to a large extent. However, it would be wrong to state that the opinions of the experts were hundred (100) per cent correct or sincere, because different individuals can be influenced by different factors. Organizational and wider societal cultures for examples are some of the factors that could influence or determine how individuals respond to questions or problems.

### 3.4 The Presentation of Country Cases

In every comparative research, conceptualizing the background of empirical cases is important (Heindenheimer et al. 1990: 1). Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon are all countries located in Sub-Saharan Africa. This region of the world has been known for the various challenges that had bedevilled its development. In the present context of study, most Sub-Saharan Africa nations are at a crossroad. The other time the region found itself in this same position was in the late 1950s and

early 1960s, when it fought to put an end to colonial rule. This time around, it is confronted with the task of transforming the region into one that will chart its own growth path in order to determine its destiny. But such changes are only attainable with a framework. That is why the birth of the African Union (AU) in July 2002 was really welcomed by most Africans and its well-wishers. (Issahaq 2010.)

To a great extent, the occasion was likened as a re-appearance/re-occurrence of the Pan-Africanist philosophies; and an indication of the willingness by the new generation of African leaders to put a stop to the horror of poverty, relegation and under-development in the continent. (Issahaq 2010.) Consequently, on a summarised note the focus and challenge here is that of corruption in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. This challenge is what the selected anti-corruption agencies in this study tend to resolve in order to keep the national, continental and global visions tied to these countries in check and focus.

According to World Bank, by governance is meant the exercise of political power to manage a nation's affairs. Because countervailing has been lacking, state officials in most Sub-Saharan Africa countries have served their own interests without fear of being called to account for roles and results they represent in the governance process. Therefore, politics become personalised, and patronage essential to maintain power. The leadership assumes broad discretionary authority and loses its legitimacy. Information is controlled, and voluntary associations are co-opted or disbanded. The environment cannot readily support a dynamic economy. (Adamolekun 2002: 3.) These and many others are foundation to understanding the countries in focus in this research.

#### 3.4.1 *Nigeria*

The Nigerian state has its unique historical antecedents like every other nation. The Nigerian state emerged as a British concept, which is also the main reason the political and economic histories of Nigeria have strong links to Great Britain. Prior to 1900, the Nigerian state did not even exist as a single country, but was collection of provinces loyal to different authorities. On the 1<sup>st</sup> of January 1900, Great Britain formally established its authority and began to administer Nigeria as a single entity in 1914 with the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern protectorates. Western influence and education proceeded more rapidly in the south than in the north, with the social, cultural, and political consequences still evident today. Following World War II, Nigerian nationalism and demands for independence resulted in successive constitutions, legislated by the British Government moving Nigeria toward representative self-government. (Edevbaro 1998: 23 & US Department of State 2010b.)

Created out of a motley of nationalities and ethnic groups (different estimates of various language groups range from 250 to 400), of which three (3) are dominant—the Hausas, the Ibos, the Yorubas and some six (6) large ethnic minorities. Nigeria is today's Africa's most populous country and one of the largest in terms of territory. It has a population, which is estimated over one hundred and fifty (150) million. Nigeria's central problem is how to evolve a workable socio-political and economic order since it acquired political independence on October 1, 1960. The departing British colonial administration left three key principles of governance—federalism, democracy and a mixed economy with major roles for both public and private sector organizations. The federal system in Nigeria contains a three-tier structure, though it began with the parliamentary system with a ceremonial president and a prime minister, which was abruptly cut short with the a military take-over in 1966 that also led to the civil war. In reality, the post-independence existence of Nigeria has been unstable to large extent, which has seriously affected its citizens' expectations and the collective state vision. ((Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 8 & Olowu, Otobo & Okotoni 2008.)

Corruption in Nigeria is endemic and pervades every aspect of life, including every strata of society; the manifestations have become so mutative that it has defied various initiatives and strategies aimed at arresting it (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 6). The name Nigeria in most recent discourses at individual, national, and international levels goes with corruption. According to Dike (2002: 1):

*“There are many unresolved problems in Nigeria, but the issue of the upsurge of corruption is troubling. And the damages it has done to the polity are astronomical. The menace of corruption leads to slow movement of files in offices, police extortion at tollgates and slow traffics on the highways, port congestion, queues at passport offices and gas stations, ghost workers syndrome, election irregularities, among others. Even the mad people on the street recognize the havoc caused by corruption - the funds allocated for their welfare disappear into the thin air. Thus, it is believed by many in the society that corruption is the bane of Nigeria.”*

Efforts to fight corruption in Nigeria since independence to present date have been surrounded with high suspense and drama at various levels and intervals. Nigeria in the past had instituted a lot of policies to tackle corruption; it had wrestled with the Public Complaints Commission to no avail, fiddled with the Mass Mobilization for Social Justice and Economic Recovery (MAMSER), experimented with National Open Apprenticeship (NOA), and then General Buhari clobbered Nigerians with his horsewhip branded War Against Indiscipline Council (WAIC), but all without success (Dike 2002: 13). The patron–clientele phenomenon, which is an extension of the elite phenomenon, has been responsible for this to a large extent. Keefer and Vlaicu (2005, qtd. in Keefer 2008) argue that: *“the inability of political competitors to make credible promises to citizens lead them to prefer clientelist to policies, under provide non–targeted goods, over*

*provide targeted transfers to narrow groups of voters, and to engage in excessive rent-seeking.*" In present day Nigeria, those that run the patron-client network mainly belong to the ruling People's Democratic Party (PDP).

One popular representation of this was events that surrounded the former chairman (Olabode George) of the Nigerian Ports Authority; who was sentenced to prison in 2009 for fraud, but was released to rapturous welcome by his family and political associates and collaborators. He traded the Prison fatigues for native attire and as he stepped out he was embraced by his wife, close family members and few party chieftains. He later moved to a church where a thanksgiving service was organised in his honour. Leaders of the PDP, including former president, Olusegun Obasanjo and some senior government officials were also present at the occasion and those that could not make it sent representatives. (Ajikobi 2011.) A former head of operations of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), another anti-corruption body in Nigeria Mr. Tunde Ogunsaki had to be expelled by the University of Abuja (UniAbuja) for engaging in examination malpractice; putting into consideration the office he held, it was really astonishing (Abubakar 2010).

The prolonged military dictatorship in the Nigerian polity and the culture of impunity, which became institutionalised; the absence of political will to tackle the issue of corruption evidenced by the "sacred cow syndrome", and also the failure to investigate and prosecute glaring cases of corruption; weak anti-corruption and watchdog agencies and other enforcement mechanisms; insufficient legal framework with the absence of freedom of information and whistleblowers' legislation; the role of tribalism\ethnicity and religion in national politics; elastic tolerance for corruption encouraged by social-cultural norms and attitudes towards public property that were nourished under colonialism; distortion of the African principle of hospitality gifts giving; and mismanagement of oil resources evidenced and represented by the bourgeoisie life styles and flaunting of wealth by the political elite and their supporters are factors that have aided corruption in Nigeria. (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 6 & 12.)

In every civilized state structure or advanced democracy in the world, government is generally made of three arms and they are: 1) The Executive; 2) The Legislature; and 3). One thing that is common in all the three arms is the absence of integrity (both institutional and individual respects) (Hassan 2010; Bashir 2010a; Suleiman 2010; The Sun News Online 2010; Ameh & Oyedele 2010; Falola 2010; & Oyedele 2010). Due to the systemic nature of corruption in Nigeria, the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) and some media executives of late, have suggested a Ministry of Integrity and

Anti-corruption Affairs be created to scrutinize the operations of all anti-corruption agencies in the country (Samuel 2010). Concerned citizens on their path have requested the establishment of anti-corruption agencies like ICPC and EFCC at the states and local levels, because corruption is most pervasive at the states and grass roots levels (The Nigerian Observer 2010). Both national and international agencies have proposed different mechanisms and framework in putting things right in Nigeria (Tribune Nigeria 2010).

Nigeria has experienced negative transformation in its political leadership, public management, economic development, industrial organisation and quality performance. Transparency international has consistently grouped Nigeria as one of the most corrupt nations; because administrators lack the dynamics to organise and manage public policy, and industrial operations in an effective and efficient manner. The administrative environment in Nigeria has taken various structural and cultural forms. Public planners lack the desired knowledge to engage in planning processes. Extended family and ethnic ties have affected the impartiality of public managers; and private invested interests in competition for state patronage. (Dibie 2003: xi.)

### 3.4.2 *Ghana*

Ghana has one of African states history that spells out its uniqueness in relation to good governance. Ghana like Nigeria has a large part of its economic and political histories tied to Great Britain; however, Ghana was the first nation in the South of the Sahara to taste freedom from foreign dominance and the country was founded on a clear perception that meaningful development must be based on strong cultural foundation. One important characteristic of the Ghanaian culture is strength and unity that comes from the diverse cultural background. (National Commission on Culture 2004 & Boateng 2010.) Ghana was an independent nation by March 6, 1957, when the United Kingdom gave up its control over the Colony of the Gold Coast and Ashanti, the Northern Territories Protectorate, and British Togoland; in subsequent reorganizations, the country was divided into ten (10) regions, which currently are subdivided into one hundred and thirty eight (138) districts (US Department of State 2010a & Central Intelligence Agency 2010a).

Presently, Ghana's constitution provide for an elected president with a four (4) year term who sits at the top executive arm, a unicameral legislature whose members are elected every four (4) years from two hundred (200) constituencies, and a judiciary that is a constitutionally independent career institution for people with legal training or background (Gyimah-Boadi & Asamoah 2001: 3). Ghana is a country that is known for its prudence in the management of limited state re-

sources. One case that represents this position is that of the recent discovery of crude oil in commercial quantity in Ghana. From all strata of the Ghanaian society have come pleas for caution in order to avoid the 'oil curse' phenomenon associated with countries like Nigeria; in line with this order, Ghana is to first redesign its national development strategy and this new strategy should be able to spell out how Ghana intends to use the oil wealth to develop other sectors like economy diversification, social development, political liberalisation, human capital enhancement, environmental upgrading etc (Joy Online 2010).

Ghana since independence has had some credible Members in its Parliament compare to other African countries like Nigeria and Cameroon. However, in recent past, Members of Parliament in the Ghanaian Legislative arm have been criticised by activist like Kofi Wayo, for not well representing the interest of people; since it is their responsibility to legislate new rules if the existing were not working in guaranteeing new progressive and credible leadership the people deserve (Yeboah 2010). The Ghanaian Judicial arm has been marred by numerous cases of corruption and other unethical related issues like Nigeria. Most of the Judges in Ghana, belong to a secret cult; when a Judge sits on a case where a member of same fraternity is standing in for client, they in most cases rule in favour of the colleague cult member (Pratt 2010). Although, the Customs, Exercise and Preventive Service (CEPS) is popularly believed to be the most corrupt public agency in Ghana (Daily Graphic 2010a).

The fight against corruption in Ghana like Nigeria has been surrounded by drama and suspense. Not so far ago, a former acting Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Serious Fraud Office (SFO) another anti-corruption body in Ghana, Mr. Theophilus Cudjeo has told a story when he was submitting a petition to the Commission of Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) to probe sales of government lands to public officials. According to him, he was booted out of office by the former Ghanaian president, Jerry Rawlings when he began investigations into the Quality Grain Scandal and the chief perpetrator, Ms. Juliet Cotton. (Akli 2010.)

Corruption was a key issue in the year 2000 election, which the sitting president did not win. At the inauguration, the new President specified a policy of zero tolerance for corruption and promised to promulgate a code of conduct to guide political appointees and set up an office in the Presidency to check the efficacies of the code. However, additional factors including the environment of pervasive corruption that it inherited, its ideological background of liberalism and some amount of civil society suasion, have propelled the Government towards a tentative re-engineering of the legal and institutional framework for anti-corruption. It

has repealed the criminal libel law, stopped on-going prosecutions of journalists, adopted drafts of access to information and whistleblower protection legislation originated by civil society and fastened work on procurement legislation started by the previous government. The government is also tightening public financial management, encouraging judicial reform, opening itself up to media scrutiny and giving extra resources to the security services. Early in the administration; it prosecuted a sitting Minister of State who was later convicted, a move which has been popularly described as rare in Ghana's post-independence existence. (Asamoah 2003: 5–6.)

However, from an international perspective, according to Dr Nicholas Westcott, a former British High Commissioner to Ghana while speaking at the Launch of the “User’s Guide to the Whistleblower Act” in Accra, “Ghana has made great strides, because she has a reputation of one of the most un-corrupt governments in Africa, ranking 7th in the Transparency International League table. He further stated that it was as a result of this achievement that the United Kingdom has decided to identify with her efforts to reduce poverty, and the measures for the attainment of a peaceful, prosperous, stable and democratic partnership. In the response of Ms Anna Bossman, the Deputy Commissioner to Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ), noted that the Act was to improve the ability to fight corruption and other forms of unlawful conduct that militate against national development, because the philosophy of the law is that ordinary citizens can disclose without fear of victimization, the corrupt and other unlawful acts of other persons. This would then result to respect for decent behaviour and integrity at both individual and national levels. (GhanaWeb 2011.)

Ghana is among the star performers in effort to reach the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on reducing poverty and boosting health (The Overseas Development Institute 2010). Ghanaians of late have been working on a framework through, which national debates, acts, and policies of government, civil society and business become more value-laden free from un-progressive party politics, patently vested self-interests, and sycophantic loyalties towards political and economic godfathers; adoptions of the values in the National Pledge and Anthem have been some viable options in this regard (Gavi 2010).

In addition, the need to allow the principles of transparency, accountability, and participation to enhance the governance of material and individual potentials for development has been stressed as another way out and civil society should be allowed to play a vital role in all these, because of its relevance to the survival of democracy (Agyare 2010). The removal of poverty in Ghana is not the sole responsibility of the government; most Ghanaians have the notion that the nation

can achieve a good economic and financial state, if the government puts in place certain values and attitudes in dealing with the nation's wealth and budget in congruence with citizens' opinions (Selby 2010). Above all, transparency international has consistently grouped Ghana as one of the least corrupt countries in Africa.

### 3.4.3 *Cameroon*

A greater part of the political and economic histories of Cameroon can be associated with France. Cameroon which used to be known as French Cameroon and British Cameroon were amalgamated into a single entity in 1961 after the Germans renounced its ownership in 1919 (Mebenga et al. 2007: 13). French Cameroon got her independence first on January 1<sup>st</sup> 1960 and the British Cameroon on October 1<sup>st</sup> 1961 before the amalgamation. Cameroon is a republic dominated by the central government and it was in 2008 efforts were made to amend the 1972 constitution. Cameroon is divided into ten (10) regions, fifty eight (58) departments and three hundred and forty nine (349) subdivisions. With a population of over 20 million people, Cameroon has GDP (2009) of \$21.84 billion; Annual real GDP growth rate (2009) of two (2) per cent; GDP per capita (2009) of \$1,120 and Inflation (2009) of five point three (5.3). Cameroon has about two hundred and fifty (250) ethnic groups and the various religious group proportions are forty (40) per cent Christian, twenty (20) per cent Muslim, and forty (40) per cent Indigenous African. French and English are the both official languages and about two hundred and seventy (270) African languages and dialects, including pidgin, Fulfulde, and Ewondo. (US Department of States 2010c & Central Intelligence Agency 2010b.)

Starting from 1884, all of present-day Cameroon and many parts of its neighbours became the German colony of Kamerun, with a capital first at Buea and later at Yaoundé; and was separated between Britain and France under a June 28 1919 League of Nations mandate after 1<sup>st</sup> World War. France benefited more from this arrangement and decided to administer its territory from Yaoundé, while Britain administered its own territory from Lagos in Nigeria. In 1955, the outlawed Union of the Peoples of Cameroon (UPC) led by Ahmadou Ahidjo started rebellious activities that finally gave the French Cameroon Independence in 1960 and then followed by British Cameroon. The formerly French and British regions had their administrative independence. Ahmadou Ahidjo, a French-educated Fulani, became President of the federation in 1961 and in 1972; a new constitution changed the federation to a unitary state. Ahidjo resigned as President in 1982 and was constitutionally succeeded by his Prime Minister, Paul Biya, a career official from



the Bulu-Beti ethnic group who was later found out to have more dictatorial instinct than his predecessor and had since been in power to present date. (Central Intelligence Agency 2010b.)

At the commencement of Paul Biya's presidency on November 6, 1982, he seemed resolute to break away from and put an end to the clientelist policies of the Ahidjo era; to establish a more humane nationalist agenda that respects ethnic and linguistic diversity and kick against tribalism; encourage state decentralization; and introduce grassroots democracy within the single party. However, like his predecessor, Biya believed that the state remained the best politically organized human grouping and the most complete from the standpoint of its authority. (Tande 2010.)

In Cameroon, a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural country, corruption has been an old age tradition. It has its roots in the history of its people and their culture. It blossomed with the institutionalisation of a patrimonial political system which has earned the country a low ranking in Transparency International Corruption Perception Index or as one of the most corrupt in the continent. The battle against corruption appears to be an insurmountable challenge given the popular idea that corruption is structurally and permanently established, because corruption is a normal situation and integrity an offence. The factors that have aided corruption to flourish are the low level of salary and the near absence of penalty (culture of impunity). (Mebenga et al. 2007: 8.)

Cameroon is a country with floppy economic and social outlook lethally combined tensed political climate; the representations of the floppy economic outlook are falling output of crude oil production and the depreciating agricultural factor, while social outlook is represented by the ever increasing poverty (Nforngwa 2010). The political tensed atmosphere is represented by the pretentious unity that exists between the north and south, and fierce power holding by the incumbent president and the ruling party (Feko 2010). Most of the marginalisation the southern Cameroon suffers up to date is popularly traced to the British Government. According to Anyangwe (2010): "*the British Government's bad faith, duplicity, deception, wheeling and dealing, and betrayal of the people of the Southern Cameroon is incredible and defies good sense.*" This marginalisation of various kinds after 50 years since Cameroon became a republic is still the frustration of Anglophone Cameroon; the selection, of people in sports related activities to represent Cameroon at the global level is one good example (Ashuntantang 2010).

The executive and judicial arms have played complementary roles in the fight against corruption in Cameroon. Recently, a court sitting in the economic capital of Cameroon, Doula convicted Mr. Zachaeus Forjindam a strong apologist of

President Biya and staunch supporter of the ruling Cameroon Peoples Democratic Movement (CPDM) to twelve (12) years imprisonment for various frauds running into millions of CFA (Ndienla 2010). In a similar development, Yves-Michel Fotso a former head of state-owned Cameroon Airlines, was not long ago arrested and jailed for the role he played in the embezzlement of funds in the 'albatross affair,' which derives its acronym from a presidential plane that was bought even though it was in poor condition. (Agency France-Presse 2010.)

Also not very far, French Catholic Organisation accused Mr. Biya of allegedly looting Cameroon's treasury and depositing the proceeds in tax-safe havens overseas; one notable public official, his 'Operation Sparrow Hawk' has netted, is his former economics and Finance Minister, Mr. Polycarp Abah Abah who, was accused of various corruption and unethical related offences (Jumbam 2010). Transparency International (TI) twice voted Cameroon as one of the most corrupt countries in the world in 1998 and 1999. The embezzlement of state funds is a key factor impeding Cameroon's economic and social development, discouraging investment and more recently seen as barrier in attaining the millennium development goal, which is aimed at the general improvement of its citizens' lives.

The corruption in Cameroon affects all. To bring about improvement, the government has since the beginning of the decade created several anti-corruption agencies and commissions, including the National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC) to arrest the scourge and finger out the perpetrators; however, the general intention of the government is popularly seen as a farce, because of the realities on ground (Ayuk 2009).

## 4 ORGANIZING ANTI-CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES

This present chapter is the first empirical part based on documentary analysis; the second empirical part will be discussed in the next Chapter (5) and it is the interview-based analysis. The different documents used in analysing the natures of anti-corruption crusades in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon that also include the policies and procedures of some selected federal anti-corruption agencies in the three countries have earlier been presented in chapter 3.

Anti-corruption policies and procedures studied in this research are first understood through the ‘national legal’ and ‘international order’ models, because their roots are traceable to these models. Most international and national legal definitions tend to criminalize bribery since corruption has the tendency of concentrating wealth, increasing the gap between various social classes in the society, and also providing the wealthy with illicit means to protect their positions and interests that can otherwise, contribute to social conditions that foster other forms of crime, social and political instability and even terrorism (UN 2004a: 12–17). We need to include to our subject-matter the ethical issues that arise in the context of emerging globalization, and even more challenging is that we must teach an ethic of public life at a time when the very definition of “public life” is undergoing radical redefinition (Kennedy & Malatesta 2010: 166). Administrative ethics ultimately rests upon Constitutional competence, a position of determining civic consciousness (Rosenbloom 1992: 48–64); also because understanding ethics within a regime boundary is one way of evaluating the quality of governance on comparative grounds (Rohr 1989).

However, it is important to briefly present a statistical outlook of the real corruption situation in target countries and some other African countries before the analysis of anti-corruption activities in target countries. To accomplish this task, data from Transparency International is adopted as a measurement criterion. Transparency International plays the role of a global watchdog in anti-corruption related issues by annually putting forward the corruption perception index to show the prevalence levels of corruption and other unethical practices among many nations of the world. In this arrangement, the country with a higher score is assumed less corrupt to a country with lesser score. Table 3 below is a representation of Botswana, Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria, and Tanzania’s scores on the Transparency International corruption perception indices from the year 2005 to 2011:

**Table 3.** Transparency International Corruption Perception Indices for Botswana, Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria, and Tanzania (2005–2011)

Countries	Years and Scores						
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Botswana	5.9	5.6	5.4	5.8	5.8	5.8	6.1
Cameroon	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.5
Egypt	3.4	3.3	2.9	2.8	2.8	3.1	2.9
Ghana	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.1	3.9
Nigeria	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4
Tanzania	2.9	2.9	3.2	3.0	2.6	2.7	3

Source: Transparency International (2012)

Table 3 above has been able to show that the real corruption situations in Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, and other African countries are serious. Botswana in Southern Africa represents one of the least corrupt countries and best cases in Africa; the results from Transparency International and many other organizations are clear representations of these fact. Ghana in Western Africa and Egypt in Northern Africa are some of the fair cases in Africa. But the real corruption situations in Nigerian also in Western Africa, Cameroon in Central Africa, and Tanzania in Eastern Africa are worrisome, because they represent some of the worst cases in Africa and also the world. It is to this course that the various anti-corruption strategies have become imperative.

#### 4.1 Main Provisions for Corruption and Unethical Practices from Models Perspective

The preliminary understanding of the ‘national legal’ and ‘international order’ models within the boundaries of three countries Constitutional Provisions and United Nations Special Provisions is therefore, relevant to the task of this research. By ‘national legal’ model, I mean countries’ constitutional provisions; for example, the 1999 Nigeria’s Constitution has elaborate provisions on transparency, accountability, and good governance (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 82). By ‘international order’ model, I mean international borders special provision like United

Nation's Convention against Corruption. The United Nation's Convention against Corruption for example, is the only global initiative that provides a framework for putting an end to corruption and stricter implementation has been advocated in most discourses (Transparency International 2010).

Table 4 below represents some key national constitution and United Nations provisions for corruption, unethical practices, and human right.

**Table 4.** The Main Provisions for Corruption and Unethical Practices on National and International Modelling Tips

Specifications	Place(s) of Priority
1. Freedom, equality, and justice	Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, and United Nations
2. Sanctity of human person and dignity	Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, and United Nations
3. Participations, independence, impartiality, and integrity	Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, and United Nations
4. Punishment for corrupt and unethical acts	Nigeria, Ghana, and United Nations
5. Exposure of corrupt and unethical practices	Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroon, and United Nations

Sources: The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (2010); The Constitution of the Republic of Ghana 1992 (2010); The Constitution of the Republic of Cameroon 1996 (2010); The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN 1948); Action against Corruption (UN 1997: 3–4); and United Nations Convention against Corruption (UN 2004b: 7–8).

Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon have clear constitutional provisions for human rights, corruption, and unethical practices; the same apply to the United Nations, which has different charters and conventions on human rights, corruption and unethical practices. Special provisions are made for freedom, equality, and justice in the Nigerian, Ghanaian, and Cameroonian constitutions; and the same apply in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations. Provisions are also made for the sanctity of human person and dignity in the Nigerian, Ghanaian, and Cameroonian constitutions; in addition is the Universal Declaration of Hu-

man Rights by the United Nations. Participation, independence, impartiality, and integrity are some values and mechanisms that the Nigerian, Ghanaian, and Cameroonian constitutions specified as important in fighting against corruption and unethical practices in addition with the United Nations Convention against Corruption.

However, it is only in the case of Cameroon that clear constitutional provisions are missing for the punishment of corrupt and other unethical acts; but the Nigerian and Ghanaian constitutions, in addition with United Nations convention and action against corruption specified key punishment for corruption and unethical practices. Above all, special provisions are made for the exposure of corrupt and unethical practices in the Nigerian, Ghanaian, and Cameroonian constitutions along with the United Nations convention and action against corruption. The above provisions are preliminary models for understanding the policies and procedures of the anti-corruption agencies in three countries.

Table 5 below is an operational view of special constitutional and United Nations provisions for corruption, unethical practices, and human rights in agreement with some specifications in codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries.

**Table 5.** Relating Models to Some Specifications in Codes of Conduct for Public Officers in Three Countries

Countries	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
Ethical Regulations			
Public interest over personal interest	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Full time commitment to public service (absence of duplicity of career)	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Prohibition to receive any benefit outside stated remuneration for services delivered	Stated, but with some conditions on exception of gifts from relations and ceremonial occasions.	Stated, but with a condition on exception of gifts from relations	Still a proposal
Declaration of all assets and liabilities before and after active service	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Partaken in oath of allegiance	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Partaken in oath of secrecy	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Termination on the conviction of any misconduct from the public service	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Seizure of property acquired through corrupt acts	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Still a proposal
Referral to necessary body for disciplinary measures	Clearly stated	Clearly stated	Clearly stated
Prohibition for the ownership of foreign account	Clearly stated	Not clearly stated	Still a proposal

Sources: 1992 Ghanaian Constitution (Chapter 24, Section 284–288); 1999 Nigerian Constitution (Fifth Schedule, Section 1–19); (Gyimah-Boadi & Asamoah 2001: 4–5); (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 28); Ambe Shu (2006); (Mebenga et al. 2007: 17–23); and The Code of Conduct Bureau of Nigeria (2006).

Public interest over personal interest is clearly stated as an ethical regulation for public officers in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon, because it makes a key part in the codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries. Full time commitment to public service or absence of duplicity of career is another ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries. Another ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in Nigeria and Ghana with conditional attachments is the prohibition to receive any benefit outside stated remuneration for services delivered, but this ethical regulation is still a proposal in Cameroon. Declaration of all assets and liabilities before and after active service is another ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries.

In addition, as ethical regulations in the three countries for public officers are the partaken in oath of allegiance and secrecy. Termination on the conviction of any misconduct from the public service is another key ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries. Seizure of property acquired through corrupt acts is another ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in Nigeria and Ghana, but this ethical regulation is still a proposal in Cameroon. Also stated, as an ethical regulation in the codes of conduct for public officers in the three countries is the referral of corrupt officials to necessary body for disciplinary measures. Finally, as an ethical regulation stated in the codes of conduct for public officers in Nigeria is the prohibition for the ownership of foreign account, but this ethical regulation is not clearly stated in Ghana and it is still a proposal in Cameroon.

## 4.2 Country-Based Analysis of Anti-corruption Agencies

Getting a deeper picture of the anti-corruption agencies studied in this research is important and the analysis starts with ICPC in Nigeria.

### 4.2.1 *ICPC in Nigeria*

Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC), an initiative of former Nigeria president (Olusegun Obasanjo) is the apex body in charge of fighting corruption and unethical practices in Nigeria and was established by ICPC Act 2000 through an executive bill sent to National Assembly by the former president. The setting up in the year 2000 represented a turning point in the anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria, because of the return to civil and consti-



tutional rules. Though, successive government have recognised the relevance of setting up anti-corruption regimen or institutes; but the initiatives have so far neither been continuous or progressive due to absence of a national blueprint to form the needed basis for assessment and evaluations. (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 6 & 58 & Raji 2010.)

ICPC has a vision to fight corruption to a standstill and bring Nigeria back to the enviable standard of respectability and dignity among other nation states as a result of its underdevelopment and poverty; the gross violation of rights; the dearth of human dignity; the absence of the full realisation of national and individual potential; and the negation of social justice. The extra consequences of the Nigerian posture include ranging wide distrust for an average Nigerian, poor rating of academic certificates and other official documents issued from Nigeria. (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 6 & Raji 2010.)

The functions of the commission are the following: 1) to receive and investigate reports of corruption and prosecute the offenders; 2) to examine, review and enforce the correction of corruption prone systems and procedures of public bodies, with a view to eliminating corruption in public life; and 3) to educate and enlighten the public against corruption related offences with a view to enlisting public support for the fight against corruption. All these can be classified as a holistic approach, because they address the issues of enforcement, prevention and education. (Raji 2010.)

It is no exaggeration that deep-seated corruption, fraud, embezzlement, bribery and forgery being brazenly perpetrated by Nigerians at home and abroad have negatively affected the socio-economic and political development of the country. Irrespective of hopelessness and helplessness at home, the image of the country within the international community before 1999 was in a very messy outlook (ICPC 2005). It is based on this background that ICPC policies and procedures focus on correcting the bad governance that is tied to the systemic corruption in Nigeria and to reposition the state towards all round development.

Pioneering engagements of the Commission was surrounded by much legal tussles that affected the Commission negatively between May 2001 and June 7, 2002. One of such was the issue of constitutionality, but the Supreme Court later ruled in favour of the Commission and even with this, some unscrupulous elements continued to challenge the legitimacy of the Commission especially, in the area of asking the court to grant a stay of proceedings on cases related them. Notwithstanding these challenges, forty nine (49) criminal cases, involving one hundred and four (104) individuals were filed in various courts in the country within this period. The presence of the Commission by establishing offices in

major towns, regions, and district in Nigeria is still a mirage. The agency since its inception has been able to investigate some high profile cases (ICPC 2005 & ICPC 2011.) Although, a large number of Nigerians still see the agency as ineffective and another state apparatus set up to intimidate opposition groups (Dibie 2003).

Table 6 below is a presentation of petitions received and treated by ICPC from the year 2001 to 2010; in addition is the percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness using this formula: Total Number of Cases Treated (TNCT/ Output) ÷ Year Aggregate (YA/Input) ×100.

**Table 6.** ICPC Performance (2001–2010)

Type	Year									
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
<b>Petitions Received/Year Aggregate (YA)</b>	44	339	367	451	523	570	777	752	998	248
<b>Total Cases Treated in the Year</b>	20	185	308	327	415	410	271	397	333	64
<b>Percentage Measurement of Efficiency and Effectiveness</b>	45	55	83	72	79	72	35	53	33	23

Sources: (ICPC 2005 & ICPC 2011).

The above table shows the various numbers of petitions received and treated by ICPC from the year 2001 to 2010 a long with a percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness. The performance outlook of ICPC is fair, based on the average treatment of cases on yearly basis since the agency was set up in 2000; the efficiency and effectiveness values on the table above range from forty five (45) per cent to twenty three (23) per cent with eighty (83) per cent being the highest between the years 2001 to 2010.

#### 4.2.2 CHRAJ in Ghana

Ghana unlike many other African nations has a long history on human right and ethical practice campaigns; which have been made possible, because the act of governance does give a priority attention to the citizens unlike some other African countries. The office of the Ombudsman was set up to forestall the bitter experiences such as arbitrary arrest and imprisonment without trial, restriction on freedom of speech, Ghanaians suffered under the dictatorship of the Nkrumah regime in November 1966 under the leadership of A.A. Tivo. The unprecedented enlargement in the volume and complexity of government responsibilities in Ghana after independence was followed by an addition in the capacity and relevance of the public bureaucracy. The acquired discretionary powers of the public bureaucrats have doubled the chances for corruption and unethical conduct; and to guarantee equity, fairness, justice, accountability, and transparency in national life led to the setting up of Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice. (Asibuo 2010: 2–3.)

The Commission like many others in developing countries has a vision and mission to create a free and sincere society where human dignities based on the 'Paris Principles' are respected; power is accountable and governance is transparent to improve the scale of good governance, democracy, integrity, peace and social development. It also includes protecting and enforcing fundamental human rights; and freedoms and administrative justice for all persons in Ghana in relation to globally acceptable standard by taken over the function of Ombudsman. (Bossman 2010 & CHRAJ 2010.) Every person in Ghana or outside of Ghana, who has a legitimate case within the constitutional responsibility of the Commission, is a possible costumer of CHRAJ and a large number of people can testify to the fairness and willingness of CHRAJ to carry out their responsibilities especially, with the commitment of its approximately seven hundred and seventy (770) staffs (Bossman 2010).

CHRAJ is an independent institution that was set up in 1993 under the Chapter 18 of 1992 constitution by act of parliament (Act 456) in Ghana during the administration of J. J. Rawlings. Section 7(10)(a)-(h) of the Commission's enabling statute Act 456 states the functions of the Commission as follows: 1) investigate complaints of violations of fundamental rights and freedoms, injustice, corruption, abuse of power and unfair treatment of any person by public officer in the exercise of his official duties; 2) investigate complaints concerning the functioning of the Public Services Commission, the administrative Organs of the State, the Armed Forces, the Police Service in so far as complaints relate to the failure to achieve a balanced structuring of those services; 3) investigate complaints con-

cerning practices and actions by persons, private enterprises and other institutions where those complaints allege violations of fundamental rights and freedoms under this constitution; 4) investigate allegations that a public officer has contravened or has not complied with a provision of the Code of Conduct for Public Officers;. (Gyimah-Boadi & Asamoah 2001: 3 & Gacc 2010.)

Other functions are to investigate the non-assets declaration of public officers before resumption of duties, every four years and after the end of tenures; investigate every facet of alleged corruption and the misappropriation by public officers and take every relevant step in dealing with them; educate the entire populace about human rights through lectures, publication and symposiums; investigate properties seized by past two military regimes: the Armed forces Revolutionary Council and the Provisional National Defence; and yearly report to parliament on the performance of its functions. (Gacc 2010.) CHRAJ has generally been seen by Ghanaians as a fair organization, because it has investigated high profile cases; including that of a former sitting President of Ghana and other top public personalities, and made its findings known to the general public (Ayee 2003 & Bossman 2010). Ghana as a Sub-Saharan Africa country has witness both prosperity and challenges in its public administration. CHRAJ has a sustaining and liberating roles to play in these regards (Ayee 2002: 252–253.) In a further argumentation by a Deputy Commissioner of CHRAJ, Mr. Richard Quayson, transparency, accountability and public oversight mechanisms in the Petroleum Management Bill should be maintained to prevent graft in handling of petroleum revenue recently discovered in commercial quantity in Ghana (Daily Graphic 2010b). Public trust is best affected when people are meaningfully affected by public resources.

Table 7 below is a presentation of petitions received and treated by CHRAJ from the year 1994 to 2008: in addition is the percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness using this formula:  $\text{Total Number of Cases Treated (TNCT/ Output)} \div \text{Year Aggregate (YA/Input)} \times 100$ .

**Table 7.** CHRAJ Performance (1994–2008)

Type	Year											
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
<b>Petitions Received/Year Aggregate(YA)</b>	3,2	6,2	80	9,8	11,5	6,6	13,7	15,0	15,7	14,0	13,5	13,0
<b>Total Cases Treated in the Year</b>	1,0	4,8	4,0	3,7	10,0	4,2	12,1	12,1	12,4	12,2	11,0	9,7
<b>Percentage Measurement of Efficiency &amp; Effectiveness</b>	31	77	50	38	88	64	46	81	78	88	82	75

Sources: (CHRAJ 2003; CHRAJ 2004; CHRAJ 2005; CHRAJ 2006; CHRAJ 2007; CHRAJ 2008; & Asibuo 2010: 15).

The figures or numbers in table 7 are approximated to the nearest whole number; numbers for the petitions received and cases treated are in thousands, for examples, the petitions received in the 1994 is originally three thousand one hundred and ninety seven (3,197) and the cases treated in the year 1994 is originally one thousand and four (1004), but 3,2 and 1,0 are respectively stated on the table. This was done in order to make the table comparable to those of ICPC and NACC. However, the general table shows the various numbers of petitions received and treated by CHRAJ from the year 2004 to 2008 a long with a percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness. The performance outlook of CHRAJ is good, based on the average treatment of cases on yearly basis since the agency was set up in 1992; the values on the table above range from thirty one (31) per cent to seventy five (75) Per cent, with eighty eight (88) per cent being the highest between the years 1998 to 2008.

#### 4.3.3 NACC in Cameroon

On his accession to office, the president of the Cameroon, His Excellency Paul Biya, made the fight against corruption a top governance priority by promoting rigour and moralization in the management and conduct of public affairs (NACC

2011). The National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC) also known as the Commission Nationale Anti-Corruption (CONAC) in French is the main anti-corruption agency in Cameroon; and was established by presidential Decree No. 2006/088 on 11<sup>th</sup> March 2006 to replace the National Corruption Observatory (NCO) by May 2007 (Business Anti-Corruption Portal 2010). As the national body in charge of anti-corruption efforts in the Cameroonian public services, it has the responsibilities to combat corruption and other comparable offences by collecting information; investigating; studying cases and publishing texts on corruption; and identifying the causes of corruption and proposing solutions to competent authorities that may completely end the practices in public and parastatal services (Mebenga et al. 2007: 20 & 37 & NACC 2010). This is for the simple reason that institutional weakness is one factor that goes along with corruption in Cameroon (Pineau 2007: 186).

National Anti-Corruption Commission was established to comply with the institutional and organisational standards of an independent anti-corruption commission. NACC is an independent politico-administrative agency that plays a central coordinating and regulatory role in the national anti-corruption framework in Cameroon. It was created by the Cameroonian authorities to satisfy one of the conditions as matrix for the completing HIPC initiative, which represent good governance and the fight against corruption; breach of procurement procedures for public contracts; interest in an act; patronage; influence peddling; unjustified enrichment; concealment of proceeds of corruption; money laundering; establishment of false accounts; abuse of office; and conflict of interest. The presidential decree that established NACC is a normative act that creates the Commission as a relevant unit in the orientation and the organisation of anti-corruption policies in Cameroon. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 37 & NACC 2011.)

Cameroon's accession to international mechanisms like Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI), African Forestry Law Enforcement and Governance (AFLEG), and the ratification of the Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) are other anti-corruption initiatives (NACC 2010b). The anti-corruption drive of the Cameroonian government takes different perspectives; one of such is the launching of an anti-corruption campaign called Opération Épervier (Operation Sparrow Hawk) in 2005 targeting embezzlement and mismanagement of public funds among public officials. Several former ministers and high-ranking public officials have been arrested and indicted as part of the operation, and the CHOC-Cameroon programme (CHOC stands for Change Habits, Oppose Corruption) was launched in February 2007, which is presently a technical partner to other anti-corruption agency. (Business Anti-Corruption Porter 2010; Mbella 2010 & Trust Law 2010.)

The above programmes were initiated by the government and the '8+6 Group'; supported by international donors, the programme is intended to reduce corruption by creating a national governance programme, enforced by the NACC, anti-corruption cells within ministries, and the new National Agency for Investigation of Financial Crimes (ANIF). The last of these include drawing up an anti-corruption charter for civil society organisations, establishing a national committee to coordinate and train member organisations, determining a network action plan, and providing financial support for a national awareness-raising anti-corruption campaign. However, critical opinions about the campaign, is that it is a tool for political witch hunting. (Business Anti-Corruption Porter 2010; Mbella 2010 & Trust Law 2010.) Selective arrests have shown that corruption in Cameroon affects even the means of fighting it (Acha 2010). The specific measures that have been adopted, especially the ones relating to setting up of anti-corruption agencies have not yielded the expected results; though some observers have attributed this to the weakness of civil society, political inaction, and resistance on the part of the public administration (Mebenga et al. 2007: 8).

Table 8 below is a presentation of petitions received and treated by NACC the year 2009; in addition is the percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness using this formula: Total Number of Cases Treated (TNCT/ Output) ÷ Year Aggregate (YA/Input) ×100.

**Table 8.** NACC Performance (2007–2011)

Type	Year				
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
<b>Cases Received</b>	—	—	312	723	410
<b>Cases Investigated</b>	—	—	238	668	200
<b>Percentage Measurement of Efficiency and Effectiveness</b>	—	—	76	92	49

Sources: NACC (2010c); NACC (2012); and Estimation of one Anonymous Interviewee in Cameroon.

The above table shows the petitions received and treated by NACC in the year 2009 along with a percentage calculation of efficiency and effectiveness. The performance outlook of NACC is generally difficult to ascertain, because the cases received and treatment are hardly presented on the annual report; but from the available published data and estimation given by one anonymous interviewee in Cameroon, NACC performance outlook is also fair, because the value on the table range from seventy six (76) per cent to forty nine (49) per cent, with ninety two (92) per cent being the highest between the years 2009 to 2011. However, Performance values for the year 2007 and 2008 were missing, because the numbers of received and treated petitions were unavailable.

### 4.3 Policies and Procedures of Anti-corruption Agencies

The various anti-corruption agencies in three countries have different policies and procedures, which their functionalities rest on and they are discussed one by one.

#### 4.3.1 *Policies and Procedures of the Nigerian ICPC*

In relation to the prosecution of cases, the ICPC Act stipulates that every prosecution for offences under it shall be deemed to be carried out with the approval of the Attorney-General. In addition, it is provided that the Chief Judge of a State or the Federal Capital Territory will assign a court or judge to hear and decide every case arising under the Act, and two courts each in every state of the federation and federal capital territory (FCT) Abuja have been given mandates to that effect. (ICPC 2010.)

Acting within the limit of government's intake of the ICPC recommendation that an Anti-corruption and Transparency Unit be set up in each Ministry, Agency, and Parastatal; and since such Units are already functioning in about fifty eight (58) Ministries, Agencies, and Parastatals, it has become imperative to put in place uniform operational policies and procedures for their use. In this regard, total staff composition of each Unit should be between four (4) and seven (7), depending on the size or other peculiarities of the Ministry or Agency in question; both the financial and other associated needs of the Units should continue to be met by the respective Ministries and Agencies. The Units should have their budgets separately spelt out in the Approved Book of Estimates with different sub-heads. (ICPC 2010.)



The units shall function as monitoring outfit in linkage position between Ministries and Government Agencies on the one hand and the Commission on the other, and help the Commission in the areas of receiving oral and writing petitions relating to corruption; reporting corruption and other unethical practices to relevant body; making recommendations relating to the operation of Ministries and Agencies; educating officials of Ministries and Agencies against different unethical acts like bribery; preparing Unit's activities before the commencement of every year; and consulting ICPC on regular basis concerning its functionalities. (ICPC 2010.)

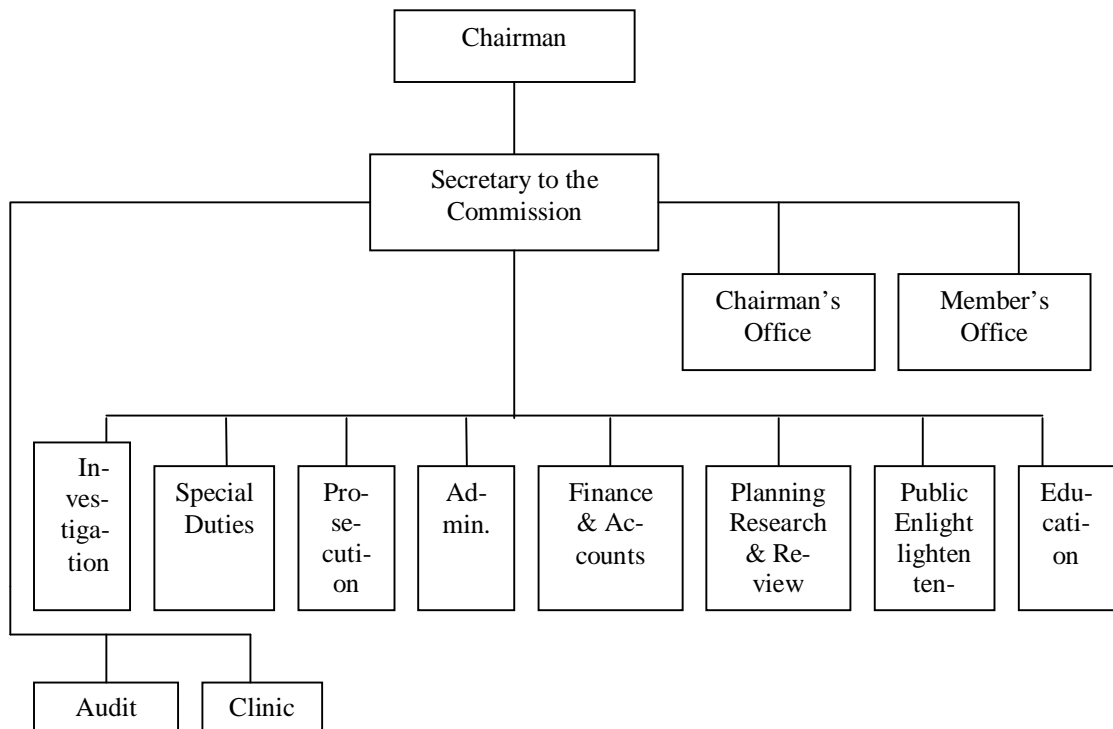
In relation to its education and public enlightenment motive, activities and programmes that can positively help in re-orienting the attitudes and behaviours of Nigerians are being embarked upon by the Commission. This function is achieved through seminars and workshops, paper presentations, youth development programmes and media activities, publicity is given to the Anti-corruption crusade all over the country and has meaningfully affected a large number of the populace. Some remarkable achievements in this regard include the establishment of Anti-corruption Youth Club in schools, the design and approval of its National Values Curriculum (NVC). The National Council on Education at its 51st Meeting held in Minna, Niger State in December 2004 approved the Curriculum developed with the expertise of the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC). This formula has helped the Commission to teach anti-corruption and ethical values at different level of Nigerian education. (ICPC 2005.)

The Commission has engaged in cross-boundary training for Members and staff of the Commission from notable organizations and programmes such as US Department of Justice, US Department of Commerce, UNDP, World Bank etc. The Commission has also participated in international conferences put together to wage war against corruption, and fervently engaged in the negotiation and signing of two major international legal instruments on corruption, namely: the AU Convention on Combating Corruption and the UN Convention against Corruption. (ICPC 2005 & ICPC Report 2011.) Membership of the Commission was inaugurated on the 29th of September, 2000 by ex-president Olusegun Obasanjo. As stated in Section 3(3) of the Act 2000, it is made up of Chairman and twelve (12) Members, two of whom represent the interests of each Nigeria's six geo-political zones. As spelt out by the Act, the membership shall comprise of the following groups of Nigerians: 1) A retired Police Officer not below the rank of Commissioner of Police; 2) A legal practitioner with at least 10 years post-call experience; 3) A retired Judge of a superior court of record; 4) A retired Public Servant not below the rank of a Director; 5) A woman; 6) A youth not being less than 21 or

more than 30 years of age at the time of his or her appointment; and 7) A chartered accountant.

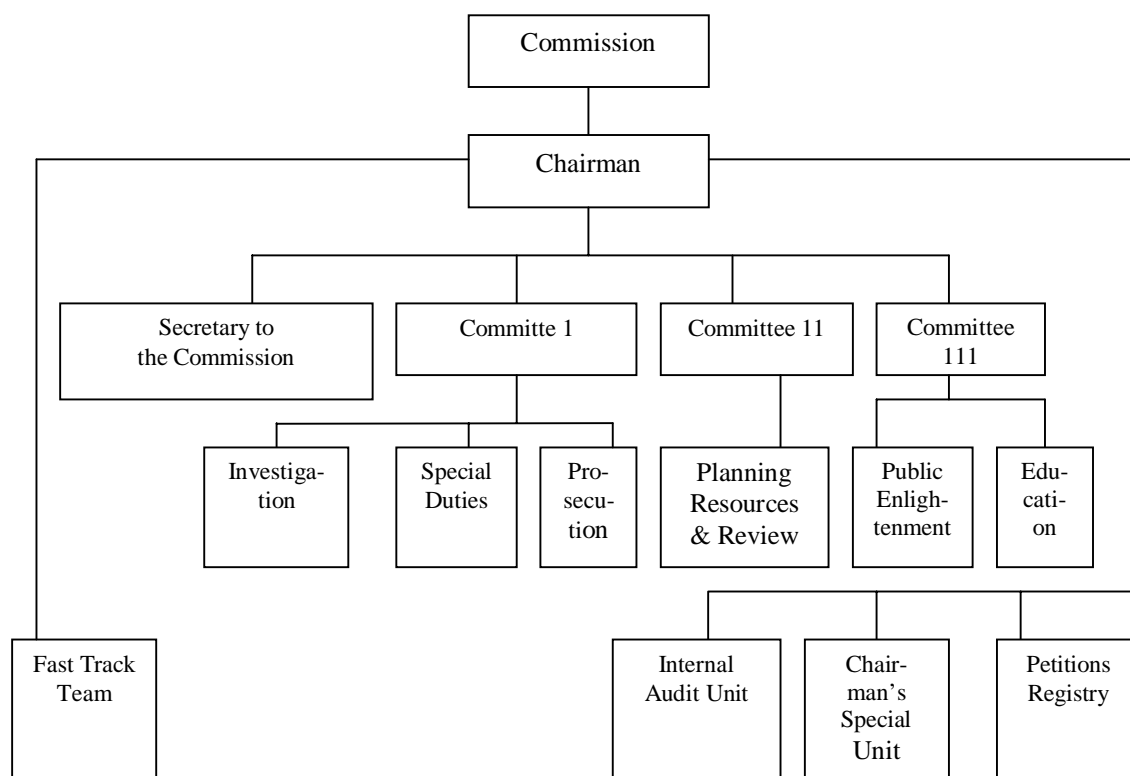
There is also a provision for integrity track record to serve as yardstick in the appointment of the chairman, secretary and other members of the Commission. They will all be appointed by the President upon confirmation by the Senate and shall not begin to discharge their duties until declaring their assets and liabilities as stated in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The Chairman has five years office tenure, while that of other Members is four years in the first appointment.

The Commission has the legal right to appoint, deploy, discipline and determine the conditions of service of its staff. Section 3 (14) of the Act stipulates the independence of the Commission by providing that “the Commission shall in the discharge of its functions under this Act, not be subjected to the direction or control of any other person or authority”. A summary Explanatory Memorandum in bill of establishment for the Commission seeks to prevent and prescribe punishment for corrupt practices and other related offences by investigating and prosecuting of offenders thereof; and protecting of anybody who gives information to commission in regard of an offence committed or likely to be committed by any other individual. (ICPC 2010 & ICPC Report 2011.) Figure 2 represents the organisational (administrative) structure of ICPC:



**Figure 2.** ICPC Organizational (Administrative) Structure (Source: ICPC 2010)

The ICPC administrative matters are under the supreme supervision of the Chairman, as stipulated by “Standing Orders” in Section 7 (1) of the ICPC Act; the general duty of record keeping and daily control of staff with sub-delegation of responsibility to Administration and Finance & Accounts departments are included here (ICPC 2010.) The secretary to the commission represents the coordinative life wire of the commission. The organisational structure is slightly different from the operational structure, which is presented in Figure 3 below.



**Figure 3.** ICPC Operational Structure (Committee System) (Source: ICPC 2010)

The different departments and Units have special line of duties to both the Commission and customers and they include: Investigations; Special Duties; Prosecution; Planning Resources & Review; Public Enlightenment; and Education. These different departments are selectively grouped under some special committees, which are under the control of the secretary, but collectively answerable to the Chairman. For the course of efficiency and effectiveness in fighting against the systemic corruption in Nigeria, some special Units are specifically designed to function under the direct supervision or control of the Chairman, which include: Fast Track Team; Internal Audit Unit; Chairman's Special Unit; and Petition's Registry. (ICPC 2010.)

ICPC also has the responsibilities of notifying all complainants through telephone about the status of their complaints within two weeks; recognizing and responding to all mails within forty eight (48) hours; of handling every complaint without prejudice or bias; making available investigation and prosecutions findings to the general public through the media; publication of annual reports within the first three months of every year; and requiring valid identifications from complainants (Ekeanyanwu et al. 2004: 61; ICPC 2005; & ICPC 2010).

The ICPC also has some special policies under review like: reviewing and re-introducing a Non-Conviction-Based Asset-Forfeiture Bill; developing a witness protection bill in line with requirements of the United Nations Convention against Corruption; introducing whistleblower protection bill in compliance with international good practice; reviewing and re-introducing the bill for amendment of the evidence Act; limiting the right to interlocutory appeals as it is to cases by ICPC; introducing other amendments to the criminal and penal procedure Act, as appropriate, aimed to facilitating the handling of cases of corruption; introducing amendments to the ICPC Acts, allowing for cases of corruption in particular as they relate to political exposed persons (PEPs), to be tried in Jurisdiction, other than the one of the locus of the crime. (ICPC 2005 & ICPC Report 2011.)

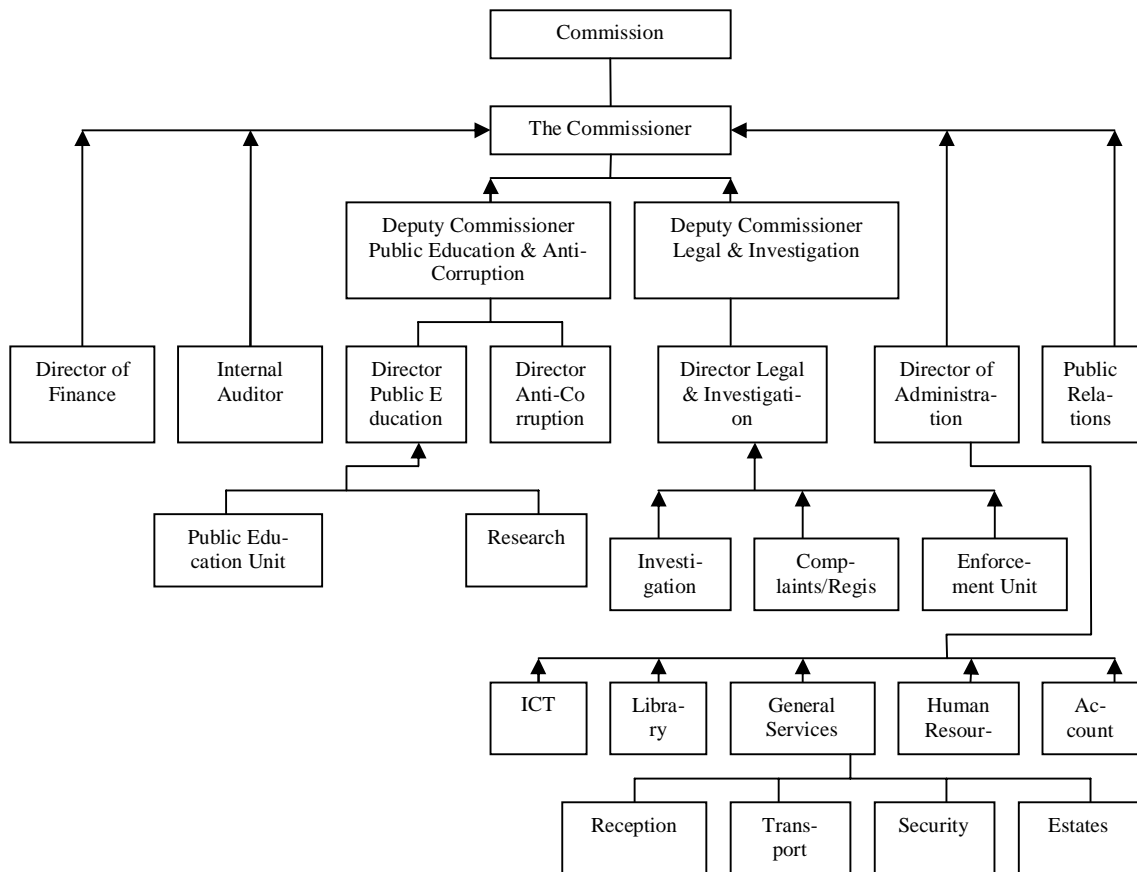
Others are reviewing and as appropriate, amending the human resources recruitment and management system for prosecutors with a view to attracting more competent and committed lawyers to join the legal departments of ICPC; improving the interaction with the media with a view to managing the premature raising of public expectations; becoming more selective in relying on the assistance of outside lawyers; conducting in all cases pre-trial briefings to prepare witness for successful prosecution in order to detect potential obstacles; establishing a system for case selection and early evaluation, for competent handling; ensuring the early involvement of prosecutors in the planning and guidance of investigations, with a view to enhancing the effective use of investigative resources; creating a more platform of interaction, coordination and cooperation among the anti-corruption law enforcements agencies in order to avoid duplication of investigations; providing regular, practice oriented training to all employee and developing library to world class standard; providing more resources and operational equipment in support of investigation; standardizing and developing needs of Judges designated to hear ICPC cases; recognizing the immense public expectations to see decisive action in the handling of corruption cases; and recruiting and training court spokespersons to translate judicial decisions. (ICPC 2005 & ICPC Report 2011.)

#### 4.3.2 *Policies and Procedures of the Ghanaian CHRAJ*

The Commission is made up of a Commissioner for Human Rights and Administrative Justice who is the Head of the Commission and two Deputy Commissioners for Human Rights and Administrative Justice. The President acting on the advice of the Council of State, nominates the Commissioner and the Deputy Commissioners subject to the approval of the parliament and it is for the purpose of ensuring that the Commissioner and his deputies are independent of the executive arm of government and cannot hold any other public office (CHRAJ 2004 &

Asibuo 2010: 9–10). The Chair must be a Judge of the Court of Appeal while the Deputies must be reputable and respectable Judges of the High Court (CHRAJ 2008 & Bossman 2010: 2).

Both the 1992 Constitution and Act 456 (1993) provides that the administrative expenses, plus all salaries, allowances and pensions accruable to persons serving with it, are charged on the Consolidated Fund. It is no doubt that the financial task facing the CHRAJ is large, because it would have to take responsibility of all costs and expenses related to its investigations. One good example is that CHRAJ is to pay to a person by whom a complaint is made and to any other person who attends and furnishes information for the purposes of helping an investigation. The Commission do participate in international conferences overseas and might have helped in no small measure in improving the quality of governance in Ghana; since they could be used in measuring a nation's democratic performance and bring benefits to Ghana from the international community, because donor countries and institutions of the developed world, have made accountability and good governance yardsticks for development assistance. (CHRAJ 2008 & Asibuo 2010: 10–15.) The organisational (Administrative) and operational structures of Chraj at the head office are grouped together in Figure 4 below.

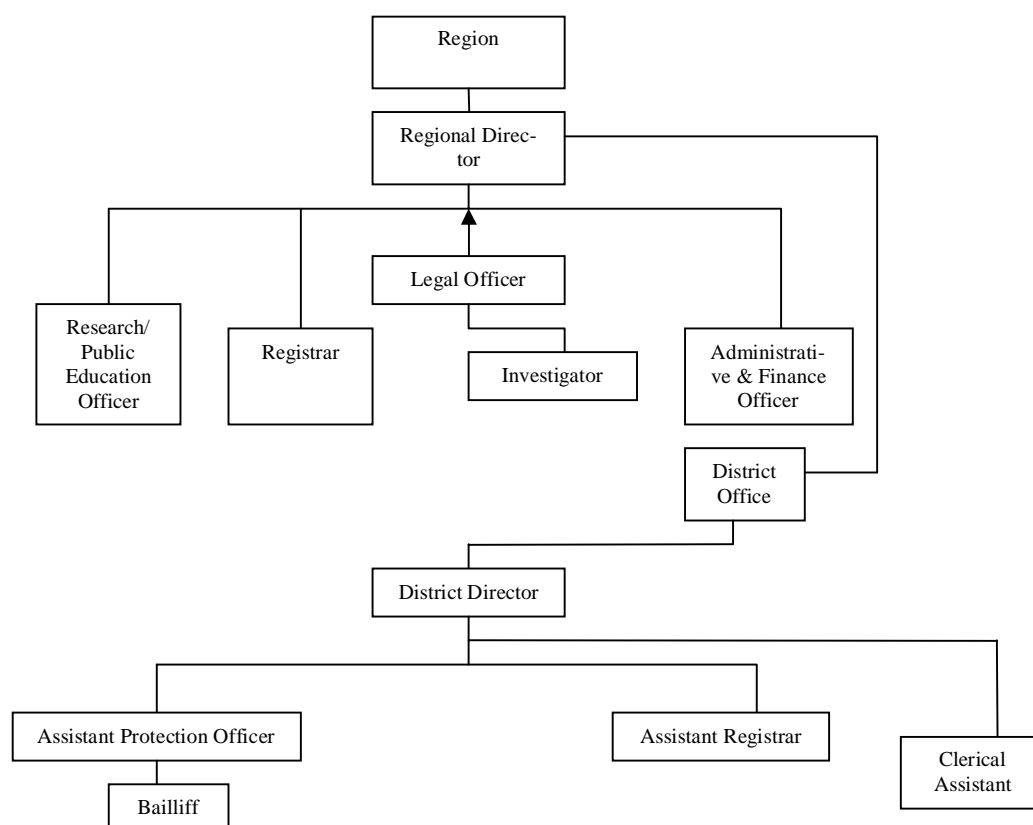


**Figure 4.** CHRAJ Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures at the Head Office (Source: CHRAJ 2008)

The Chair of the Commission leads and initiates policy matters of the Commission. Decisions at the Commission's level are tied between the Commissioner and the Deputy Commissioners, because at the absence of the Commissioner, any of his two deputies could effectively perform his responsibilities (CHRAJ 2004 & Asibuo 2010: 9). The Deputy Commissioners are in charge of Legal and Investigation, and Public Education and Anti-Corruption departments respectively (CHRAJ 2008).

The Commissioner and Deputy Commissioners carry out the responsibilities of the Commission through four departments under the supervision of a director each and they include: Legal/Investigations; Public Education; Anti-corruption; Administration; and Finance. Units including registry, public relations, monitoring and evaluation, research, audit, accounts, human resources, and ICT functions fall under the various departments. The district offices mostly undertake public

education and thus, reach out to a wider section of the population at the local and community levels. (CHRAJ 2010; Asibuo 2010; & Bossman 2010.) The Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures at the Regional and District Offices are presented in Figure 5.



**Figure 5.** CHRAJ Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures at the Regional and District Offices (Source: CHRAJ 2008)

The Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice's regional offices are under the general headship of the commissioner; who delegates managerial authority to departmental directors. The regional directors who functionally oversee the activities at the regional level also have the responsibilities of overseeing the responsibilities of district directors. (CHRAJ 2003 & CHRAJ 2008.)

Chraj also has the responsibilities of reporting annually to parliament about performance and Attorney-General and Accountant General on investigation; prosecuting cases based on the discretion of Attorney General; establishing branches at



the regional and district capitals and recruiting of experts to handle cases at these levels; serving every individual and institution with equality, expertise, and transparency; resolving complaints through negotiation, mediation, panel hearings, reporting the findings to a superior officer, legal proceedings before a competent Court for enforcement, and taking appropriate steps to address corruption; exercising independence from any person or authority in regulations guiding its procedures, but must consult the Public Service Commission in its staff recruitment; reporting yearly to media houses as well as to the diplomatic community and various human rights agencies globally, both statutory and nongovernmental; sending own budget to the Ministry of Finance to forward to the Parliament; requesting financial incentives from international donor agencies; and promoting public education in addition to visiting police cells and prisons. (Gyimah-Boadi & Asamoah 2001: 3; CHRAJ 2004; CHRAJ 2005; CHRAJ 2006; Asibuo 2010: 2–20; CHRAJ 2010 & Gacc 2010.)

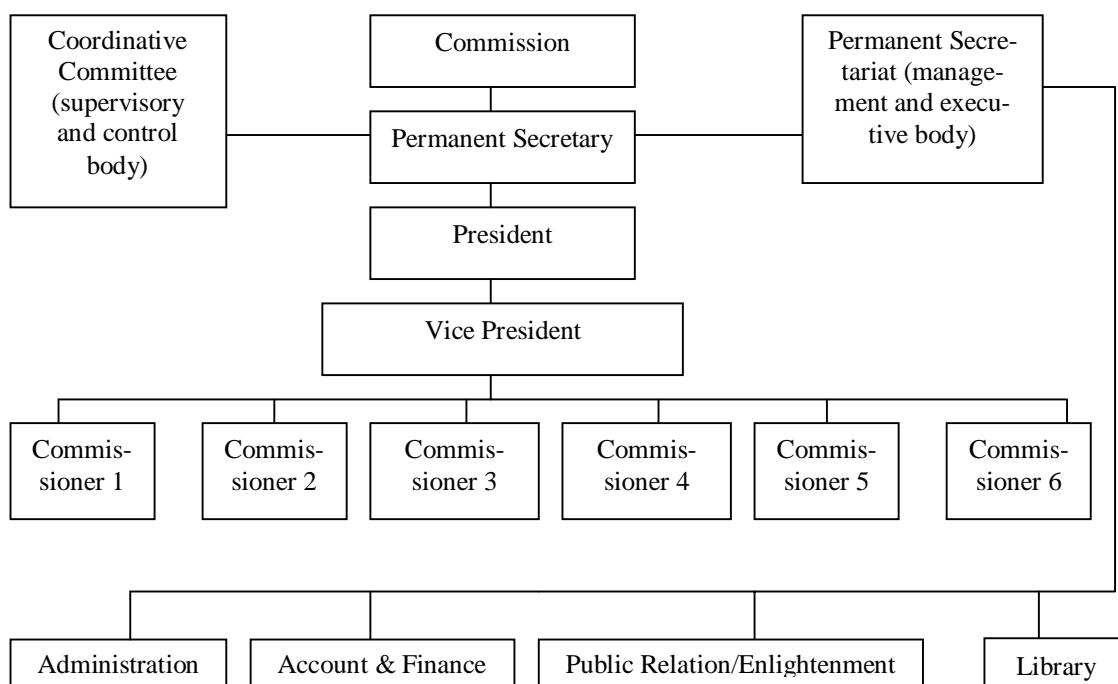
Others are applying a unique approach to the fight against corruption and misconduct where the President of the Republic of Ghana is first on the list of public officials, who is subjected to the Commission's investigation; building coalition with other respected agencies like the Ghana Anti-Corruption Coalition (GACC) and police; appealing unfavourable decisions to higher courts; investigating assets of public officials; accepting oral and written complainants, which information are later fed into a computerized cases management system (eCMS) by the Intake Officer; informing complainants about the status of their complaints within thirty (30) days; requiring complainants to appear in person and providing financial assistance to the complainants; protecting whistleblowers and any other persons who feed the agencies with useful information regarding investigation; building a close alliance with the media; disciplining staffs found guilty of misconduct; creating rooms for reforms and amendments; acting as international image representation for Ghana through the collaborations with other international institutions like NCCE, British Council, etc. (Gyimah-Boadi & Asamoah 2001: 3; CHRAJ 2004; CHRAJ 2005; CHRAJ 2006; Asibuo 2010: 2–20; CHRAJ 2010 & Gacc 2010.)

Chraj policies under review are: setting up mechanisms that will help in instituting more political will in the fight against corruption; amendment of the constitution to expand the membership of the Commission from three to at least seven; granting of express power to the Commission in prosecuting persons found guilty of corruption and embezzlement; annual staff appraisal and good remuneration package for the agency staffs; the enactment of the freedom of information bill; and drafting of Code of Conduct for CHRAJ's staffs. (CHRAJ 2003; CHRAJ 2004; CHRAJ 2005; CHRAJ 2006; CHRAJ 2008.)

#### 4.3.3 *Policies and Procedures of the Cameroonian NACC*

NACC has a central structure with branches in nearly all ministries and a coordinating and regulatory responsibility in relation to the national anti-corruption's policy framework in Cameroon (constitutional principle). It has investigating powers and a mandate to gather and analyse allegations and information about corrupt practices; findings in this direction may generate inquiry that can ultimately lead to disciplinary or legal proceedings. In relation to freezing and seizing/confiscating assets, the Commission has no power nor does it have the power to charge cases to court or other disciplinary institutional establishment. The Commission functions under the authority of the President of Cameroon Republic; and the President appoints a Permanent Secretary who is the direct representative of the President in the Commission. The Chairman is also appointed by the President, but the Chairman of the Commission is under the functional authority of the Permanent Secretary. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 37 & NACC 2010.)

The Permanent Secretary and the Chairman are strong supporters of the ruling party, which make the sincerity of the institution to tackle corruption questionable. In addition, the management of NACC funds is under the supervision and control of other established state authorities under which framework the monitoring and execution of the governmental anti-corruption plan; monitoring of legal or disciplinary proceedings; and referral to the jurisdiction of the minister of justice is accomplished. NACC often collaborates with other administrative institutions like Ministry of Justice; The Ministry of Territorial Administration and Decentralisation; The Ministry of Finance; The Ministry of State Property and Land Tenure; The Ministry of Higher Education; The Ministry of Basic Education; The Ministry of Public Health; The Ministry of Public Works; and The Ministry of Transport. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 37; NACC 2011; & Business Anti-Corruption Porter 2010.) NACC Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures are presented in Figure 6 below.



**Figure 6.** NACC Organisational (Administrative) and Operational Structures  
(Source: NACC 2011) and Mebenga et al., 2007)

As the main central anti-corruption regulator in Cameroon, NACC depends on two bodies; the Coordination Committee (supervisory and control body) and the Permanent Secretariat (management and executive body). NACC implements its regulatory authority through these two (2) bodies and its powers rest more on the executive arm. NACC has administrative powers related to proposing ways for corruption prevention and suppression. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 37–38 & NACC 2010.)

Other stated policies of NACC are mobilisation of all stakeholders in the elaboration and implementation of national strategy against corruption; establishment of project Change Habit and Oppose Corruption (CHOC) at various strata of the society; annual review of past achievements is not mandatory for review submission; written and oral receipt of petition; absence of practical whistleblowing mechanism; recruitment of experienced professionals who must be Cameroonians not less than seventeen (17) years of age through aptitude test and rooms are also available for volunteers; receiving of annual report from all institutions on the state of fighting corruption and making of necessary recommendations to these agencies; respect for republican values, promotion of a culture of merit, the rule

of general interest over individual interest, and respect for ethics and public morality; and applying dialogue and consultation, transparency, accountability, and mutual respect in dealing with cases brought by individuals or institutions. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 32; Nsom & Njechu 2007 Business Anti-Corruption Porter 2010; NACC 2006; NACC 2010; Mbella 2010; Trust Law 2010; Mimboé 2010; & NACC 2011.)

In addition are: evidence gathering against suspects of corruption and related offences must be carried with all sense of professionalism; Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform Government of Cameroon act as Parent Tree for financial and other logistical requirement for survival of the Commission; collaboration and cooperation with other relevant bodies like National Coalition to Fight against Corruption (CNLCC); and establishment of anti-corruption units within ministries. (Mebenga et al. 2007: 32; Nsom & Njechu 2007 Business Anti-Corruption Porter 2010; NACC 2006; NACC 2010; Mbella 2010; Trust Law 2010; Mimboé 2010; & NACC 2011.)

NACC Policies under Review are: deliberation over reforms that would help in the achievement of better performance; institutionalization of the fight against corruption in the different sector policies; consideration of values and techniques that would help in representing Cameroon in a better light; the PRECIS (Prevention, Education, Condition, Incentives, and Sanctions) as mechanisms for success; initiating assets declaration by public officer before and after service; pillars of integrity as antibodies, guarantors and guardians of integrity framework; and enactment of an anti-corruption law by the National Assembly. (NACC 2006 & NACC 2011.)

#### 4.4 A further Analysis of Anti-corruption Policies and Procedures in Three Countries

A further analysis of anti-corruption crusade in the three countries through the policies and procedures of their anti-corruption agencies is relevant in order to understand their ethical governance compliance nature. This analysis takes a critical and in-depth interpretation of the policies and procedures of ICPC, CHRAJ, and NACC earlier presented under the sub-title 4.3 (policies and procedures of anti-corruption agencies). The nature of the interpretation includes how top agencies personnel are appointed in the three countries; how reported cases are investigated and prosecuted; how the agencies collaborate with other institutions; the operational outlooks of the three agencies; efforts put in place in order to become more efficient and effective etc.

Some outstanding policies of ICPC are: the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria appoints key and special members like Chairman and Secretary of the Commission subject to the approval of the National Assembly; prosecution of all cases investigated are carried out through the consent of Attorney General of the Federation in normal courts; establishment of Anti-corruption and Transparency Unit in most federal ministries and the financial dependence on these ministries for this unit survival; engagement in public enlightenment and education of Nigerians and collaborating with international donors for these to succeed; forming of membership with broad inclusion of Nigerians from different background and expertise; investigation of complaints received from the public orally or in writing and confidential handling of them; and publication of annual report of activities within the first three months of each new year.

However, ICPC key policies under review are re-introducing a Non-Conviction-Based Asset-Forfeiture Bill; developing a Whistleblower Protection Bill and Witness' Protection Bills; re-introducing the bill of amendment for Evidence Act; limiting the right to interlocutory appeal; introducing other amendments to the criminal and penal procedure Act; and general bills that would help in getting successes in cases before the court, and personnel efficiency and expertise.

The procedure adopted by the ICPC is dual in nature, because the organisational (administrative) structure is different from the operational structure. The Attorney General of the federation determines the final resolution on any case that goes through the ICPC procedure. The chairman of the commission is the organisational or administrative head; the chairman coordinates all organisational matters through the secretary of the commission who in turn assigns these matters to sub-heads in this organisation. These matters include investigation; special duties; prosecution; administration; finance and accounts; planning research and review; public enlightenment; and education.

However, the audit and clinic matters are under the direct supervision of the secretary. The operational structure although, a close representation of the big organisational structure, but it shows the real working of the commission. The operational structure of the commission shows the true positioning of the chairman. Here, the secretary and other committee heads in the commission report differently to the chairman. A special committee oversees the investigation, special duties, and prosecution activities; another committee oversees the planning resources and review activities; and another committee oversees public enlightenment and education activities. For the sake of achieving efficiency, internal audit unit, chairman's special unit, petition's registry function directly under the chairman; and

for prompt response to other activities, a fast track team also exist under the chairman.

Some outstanding policies of the CHRAJ are: the President acting under the advice of the Council of State nominates the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioners subject to the approval of Parliament; investigated cases are prosecuted based on the permission of the Attorney General; expenses plus all salaries, allowances and pensions accruable to any person serving in the Commission are charged from the Consolidated Fund, that also include all expenses incurred during investigation; resources and technical collaborations with international and local bodies; offices at all regional levels; recruitment of expert and experienced personnel; resolving of complaints through negotiation, mediation, panel hearings, and open court prosecution; sending of annual budgets to Parliament through the Ministry of Finance; Publication of annual reports and sending a copy to the parliament and media; confidential handling of complaints; and equal treatment of complainants. The commission also collaborate with numerous international and national bodies on special issues relating to the vision of the commission.

However, some other policies are still under review by the Commission, which are the expansion of membership of the Commission from three to seven; acquiring of express power for prosecution; enactment of the Freedom of Information Bill; annual staff appraisal and granting of good remuneration to employees; and drafting code of conduct for employees.

The procedure adopted by CHRAJ is single, because the organisational (administrative) and operational structures are combined. However, unique organisational and operational structures exist at the regional levels. The Commissioner is the general boss in the Commission; the headship of organisational and operational activities of the Commission is divided between the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioners. The following sub-heads report directly to the Commissioner: director of finance; internal auditor; director of administration; and public relations head. The activities coordinated by the director of administration are ICT, library, general services (reception, transport, security, and estates), human resources, and accounts. The first Deputy Commissioner coordinates the activities of directors of public education and anti-corruption; the director of public education oversees public education unit and research. The second Deputy Commissioner coordinates the activities of director of legal and investigation; director of legal and investigation oversees the investigation unit, complaints/registry, and enforcement unit.

The regional director is the big man at the regional level, but he/she is accountable to the Commissioner at the head office. The regional director coordinates the activities of the legal officer, research/public education officer, registrar, and administrative and finance officer; the legal officer oversees the activities of the investigators. In addition, the regional officer coordinates the activities of the district directors; and those answerable and accountable to the district director are assistant protection officer that heads the bailiffs, assistant registrar, and clerical assistant.

Some outstanding policies of the NACC are: the President of the Republic of Cameroon appoints the Permanent Secretary, President or Chairman, and Vice President or Vice Chairman of the Commission, which are usually members of the ruling party; power to seize assets is outside the jurisdiction of the Commission; Commission can only make recommendations about any case and cannot prosecute in the law court; Commission can ultimately engage in public enlightenment and education about corruption and its related cases; Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform Government of Cameroon act as Parent Tree for financial and other logistical requirements to the agency; cases in general are referred to the Ministry of Justice; collaboration with all stakeholders; annual reviews of past events; establishment of anti-corruption unit in all ministries; adoption of equality and merit principles; written and oral receipts of petitions; and absence of whistleblowing mechanisms. However, the following are some NACC policies under review: deliberation over reforms that would enhance performance; declaration of assets before and after service by public officials; and introduction of PRECIS (Prevention, Education, Condition, Incentives, and Sanctions) as mechanisms for success.

The procedure adopted by NACC is single and simple, because the organisational and operational structures are also combined. The Permanent Secretary is the sitting boss of the Commission who represents the interest of the President of Cameroon. The Coordination Committee (supervisory and control body) and the Permanent Secretariat (management and executive body) bodies are tied to the Permanent Secretary. However, the general organisational and operational activities of the Commission flow between the Permanent Secretary, President and Vice President of the Commission to other sub-heads of the Commission, which include the Commissioner 1, Commissioner 2, Commissioner 3, Commissioner 4, Commissioner 5, and Commissioner 6. The management and executive body of the permanent secretariat coordinate and run the administration, account and finance, public enlightenment/relation, and library.

In talking about ethical governance agreement nature of anti-corruption policies and procedures and how they can positively affect public trust; we start by looking at issue of 'independence'. Anti-corruption policies and procedures must be independence oriented. Anti-corruption agencies need to be independent from political interference, by being autonomous financially and decision making respects. The 'independence' mechanism is a key requirement for achieving positive result in anti-corruption fight, because it creates developmental room for other elements like accountability, transparency, integrity etc.

After a thorough examination of anti-corruption policies and procedures of agencies studied in three countries it is visible that CHRAJ has policies and procedures that are more independent. Although, the President in every country appoints or selects the top heads of the agencies; but CHRAJ is more independent compare to ICPC and NACC, because it has direct power through its policies and procedures to send own budget through the Ministry of Finance to the Parliament. Therefore, it has complete financial independence; with its financial independence it can carry out its activities without looking up to the executive or political groups for survival; therefore, limiting unnecessary contacts and influences. CHRAJ and ICPC are far more independent to NACC, because they both have prosecuting power; they can put any offender or suspect on trial before an open court, although approvals are normally obtained from their Attorney Generals. This is not attainable with the agency in Cameroon, which only has the powers of investigating and making recommendations.

Talking about accountability and transparency, which are also ethical mechanisms; CHRAJ is ahead of ICPC and NACC. These are visible with the publication and contents of their annual report each year; to tell the citizens and global public about their activities, so that unique assessments can be made about them that can also help them to improve their performance. The contents in their annual reports include breakdown statistics of cases received, treated, dismissed, and carried forward from federal to district levels; total number of seminars organized; international trips engagement; numbers and sums of aids received from international donors; total partnerships, collaboration etc.

ICPC is more accountable and transparent compare to NACC, because its report shows clearer representation of its activities with statistics of cases received, treated, and dismissed; also in order for the citizens and global public to assess its activities from their own point of views that can improve performance, the report shows number of volunteers, seminars organised, foreign trips undertaken and so on. NACC is more accountable to the President of the Republic of Cameroon than the citizens of Cameroon, because the statistics are hardly or not published in



its annual report unless by the permission of the President of the Republic; above all, the contents of the report are not very comprehensive as compared to the ones of ICPC and CHRAJ.

Integrity is one ethical value, which represents completeness and honesty of an organisation. The honesty of an organisation can on the other hand represent the equality application doctrine. CHRAJ displays more integrity compare to ICPC and NACC; this is represented by the high profile cases the agency in Ghana has investigated, for example cases involving a former sitting President of the Republic of Ghana and other high profile public officers have been investigated and findings made known to the general public. However, it has been a different story with ICPC and NACC, which have been accused in many quarters as organisations used for political witch-hunting or other state apparatuses used for subduing the popular will.

Talking about collaboration as an ethical mechanism; ICPC, CHRAJ, and NACC are doing equally good, because they all have policies that link their activities with other local and international institutions and stakeholders with anti-corruption drives. On the issue of participation as an ethical mechanism; CHRAJ has a more participatory oriented structure, because it has offices at the central, regional, and district levels. This policy helps the agency to reach people at the grass root very well; which also help in the carrying along of every interested stakeholder. ICPC is not also that bad in terms of participation, because it has policy that includes individuals from the diverse Nigerian background in their activities. ICPC and CHRAJ have broader structures compares to NACC, because they have more rooms for stakeholders.

We cannot end discussions on anti-corruption policies and procedures without making mention of ethical mechanism of 'reform.' ICPC and CHRAJ are more reform oriented compare to NACC; because they have policies and procedures that create rooms for individual development. This is far more visible in the organisational and operational structures, all personnel in the agencies are not that tied to the central head or administration as we can observe in the case of NACC. In ICPC and CHRAJ personnel are allowed to function with some levels of freedom and personal discretion. However, talking about expertise and motivation as ethical mechanisms; the agencies in the three countries have relative good standings through their policies and procedures, but their implementation processes are not very clear, because personnel salaries and how often they are increased are not stated. Other ethical values and mechanisms like professionalism, care, responsibility, enlightenment, laws, and codes/sanctions are also available in different contexts from the policies and procedures of the three agencies studied.

## 4.5 Summary

This chapter is the first part of the empirical analysis. It started with a presentation of the real corruption situation in target countries and other selected African countries, in addition with the main provisions for corruption and unethical practices from Models Perspective; because the ‘national legal’, which are some constitutional provisions and ‘international order’, which are some global provisions for corruption, other unethical practices, and human rights are framework to understanding the natures of anti-corruption policies and procedures in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. This was followed by the country-based analysis of anti-corruption agencies; and the policies and procedures through which their operations are based.

Nigeria as a Sub-Saharan Africa country has had a long battle with corruption and other unethical related practices, because of their high prevalence rate. The establishment of ICPC in the year 2000 by an act of parliament was initiated by former president (Olusegun Obasanjo). The establishment ushered in a new era of anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria after the many unsuccessful anti-corruption crusades engagement by previous administrations. The setting up of ICPC came at the right time and was welcomed by many inside and outside the country; because corruption at this period had a very strong hold on Nigeria. Corruption and unethical practices were seriously present at every facet of the Nigerian life; from public to private and individuals to groups. The need to have a viable anti-corruption agency to bring normalcy or positive change to the system of things, became imperative; this became one of the missions of ICPC.

Ghana as a Sub-Saharan Africa country has a long history on human right and ethical practice campaigns. The establishment of CHRAJ in the year 1992 also by an act of parliament was initiated by former president (Jerry J. Rawlings). It became the reformation and reinvention of an already established national tradition. Although, Ghana as a country has had its ups and downs with different socio, economic, and political challenges, but the long respect for a country with a good vision has remained. Ghana has served as a pioneer in many developmental issues in Africa; the setting up of CHRAJ has come to serve as a complementing tool for the national features and visions. Corruption and unethical practices in Ghana is high, but the posture is assumed better than that of most African Countries like Nigeria and Cameroon.

Cameroon also as a Sub-Saharan Africa country has been engrossed in high level of corruption and unethical practices since its independence. The prevalence level of corruption and unethical practices is most often assumed higher than that of

Ghana and Nigeria. The establishment of NACC in the year 2006 through an executive act by President Paul Biya to continue the very parochial anti-corruption crusade engaged by different past unsuccessful agencies was welcomed with mixed feelings inside and outside Cameroon. The corruption in Cameroon, which has characterised the country in a negative light, has a link to the political dictatorship in the country. Corruption in Cameroon like Nigeria cut acrosses every sector of the country; and it is amid these challenges and numerous others NACC operates, with a mandate to bring forth a better Cameroonian society.

After a critical examination of anti-corruption policies and procedures in the three countries, it was observed that the anti-corruption agency (CHRAJ) in Ghana has more policies and procedures that comply with ethical governance (ethical values and mechanisms), because it has policies and procedures that make it to operate more independently; investigate complaints; prosecute suspects or offenders; educate against corruption and unethical practices; and handle cases equally, irrespective of the individual(s) in question. This is followed in the order by the anti-corruption agency (ICPC) in Nigeria, because it has policies and procedures that make it to operate fair independently; investigate complaints; prosecute suspects or offenders; educate against corruption and unethical practices; and handle cases unequally, by first taking into consideration in most cases the calibre or position of individual(s) involved.

The agency (NACC) in Cameroon came last, because it has policies and procedures that make it to operate without freedom; investigate complainants; make recommendations instead of prosecuting suspects or offenders; educate against corruption and unethical practices; and handle cases most times unequally like the case of ICPC in Nigeria, by putting into consideration the calibre or position of individual(s) in question.

In order to have a general look at the first key empirical findings from a comparative perspective in relation to increasing trust and combating corruption; table 9 is presented below as research results from the documentary analysis.

**Table 9.** Increasing Trust and Decreasing Corruption: A Comparative View

<b>Countries Levels</b>	<b>Nigeria</b>	<b>Ghana</b>	<b>Cameroon</b>
<b>Level of Society</b>	Engaging in early sensitization via national programmes for the youths	Enforcing fundamental human right along with fairness in the recruitment and delivery of public services	Engaging in wider sensitization via media as key part of national anti-corruption framework
<b>Level of Governance</b>	Inter-ministerial collaboration on anti-corruption strategy	Inter-ministerial collaboration on budgetary allocation and staff recruitment	Promoting rigour and moralization in the management and conduct of public affairs
<b>Level of Agencies</b>	Using integrity track record as a yardstick for the recruitment of top personnel	Creating financial independence and regular evaluation of personnel	Establishment of a coordinative committee

Table 9 represents a summary of key research findings from the various documents analysed. At the levels of society, governance, and agencies the results differ. In Nigeria, engaging in early sensitization of youths via national programmes like the setting up of anti-corruption units in National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) community development programme and anti-corruption youth clubs in schools is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the societal level. In Ghana, the enforcement of fundamental human right along with fairness in the recruitment and delivery of public services is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the societal level. In Cameroon, the engagement in wider sensitization via media as part of the national anti-corruption framework is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the societal level.

In Nigeria, inter-ministerial collaboration on anti-corruption strategy is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the governance level, for example special anti-corruption units are set up in most governmental or public ministries to cooperate on tackling corruption. In Ghana, inter-ministerial collaboration on budgetary allocation and staff recruitment is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the governance level. In Cameroon, the promotion of rigour and moralization in the conduct and management of public affairs is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the governance level.

In Nigeria, using integrity track record as yardstick or criterion for the recruitment of top management personnel is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the agency level. In Ghana, the creation of financial independence or autonomy and regular evaluation of personnel is one way of combating corruption and increasing trust at the agency level. In Cameroon, the establishment of coordinative committee to monitor general operations is one way of increasing trust and combating corruption at the agency level.

The next chapter (5) will focus on the second part of the empirical analysis, where public trust, ethical governance, and corruption are operationalized through interview.

## 5 INVESTIGATING ANTI-CORRUPTION PRACTICES AND PUBLIC TRUST THROUGH INTERVIEW-BASED ANALYSIS

This present chapter is the second part of empirical analysis that is based on interview. Interview as a method was discussed earlier in chapter 3. Interview is generally about understanding in different forms or dimensions of what people (experts in this context) feel or think about a particular phenomenon, entity, variable etc. Interviews can be useful in many regards; they can help in giving a clearer and solidified meaning to the contents in a document. From the policies and procedures-based analysis, which was based on the documents of selected anti-corruption agencies; it was visible that countries differ in relation to anti-corruption policies and procedures.

However, the interviews conducted in this research play multiple roles; first they help in understanding the meaning of ethical governance through ascertaining the types and relevance of ethical values and mechanisms. Secondly, the interviews help in investigating public trust. Thirdly, the interviews help in seeing corruption as different issues and the challenges of anti-corruption agencies in combating it and general anti-corruption crusade. The questions asked are respectively, grouped under different issues. Interview, which is the main pattern of investigation, was conducted at different places and levels of interest with experts in the areas of ethics, corruption, and trust. The nature of the questions were open ended at some instances and closed ended at other instances.

Ethical governance and trust have a reciprocal relationship, but the focus in this research is to ascertain the possible effects of ethical governance on public trust. Public trust is investigated empirically through interviews conducted in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. Public trust and corruption are at different levels in these countries; one main perspective of judgement is the manner in which anti-corruption agencies (ICPC, CHRAJ, and NACC) operate or function. The preceding chapter (4) has been able to present that the three countries have different anti-corruption policies and procedures; and these policies and procedures through the various anti-corruption agencies studied also vary in their compliance levels with ethical governance (ethical values and mechanisms).

However, it is popularly believed that anti-corruption agency with policies and procedures that agree much ethical governance has more tendencies of reducing corruption and increasing public trust, compare to agency that has policies and procedures that are less ethical governance compliant.

## 5.1 Values and Mechanisms

It is necessary to understand the meaning of ethical governance from respondents' perspectives; one way to understand this is through knowing what ethical values and mechanisms, which are important for anti-corruption practices or crusade. Two (2) specific questions were used to explain this issue. In the questionnaire form (See Appendix 1), they are:

1. What values and mechanisms do you think are necessary for anti-corruption crusade in this country?
2. What ways do you think corruption and other unethical related practices in the public service can be tamed in this country?

On the first question, understanding the core ethical values and mechanisms needed for anti-corruption crusade is relevant; table 10 below stands for this aim.

**Table 10.** The Core Ethical Values and Mechanisms Needed for Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Core Ethical Values and Mechanisms	Country(ies) in Preference
• Independence	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Expertise	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Integrity	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Ethical codes and sanctions	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Participation, collaboration, and enlightenment	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Equality	Nigeria and Cameroon
• Accountability and transparency	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Motivations	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.

For there to be right processes and orientations that guarantee the most acceptable standards of behaviour and performance, there is a need to consider some special

mechanisms and values, which can give meaning to an anti-corruption process. The mechanisms and values stated above are parts of ethical governance. Respondents in three countries stated that ‘independence’ is the key mechanism in anti-corruption crusade; because independence is freedom from any form of negative interference. For anti-corruption agencies to be able to win the war against corruption and unethical practices, politicians and other highly placed individuals must not be allowed to exact any form of negative influence. Above all, independence must also include every form of financial autonomy; anti-corruption agencies must have their own source of funding from the budget, so they would not be relying on the executive for survival. Independence also includes freedom to make and implement decisions that would help in the successful tackling of corruption and unethical practices; and the establishment of independent courts to try suspects and violators. The independence of anti-corruption agencies is the major determinant of other ethical values and mechanisms in the context of anti-corruption movement.

Respondents in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon also combined, stated that ‘expertise’ is another mechanism that must be part of anti-corruption movement. Expertise here includes the availability of a legal framework, recruiting and training of qualified personnel, information communication technology (ICT) and other modern equipment adoption, and performance appraisals. Organisation that is expertise oriented must be able to achieve result, because of the availability of every necessary instrument for performance. Expertise is also when an organization understands the meaning of reform at the most appropriate time, the avoidance of unnecessary human contact, and ability to ascertain the actual places of occurrence.

Integrity is one value respondents in three countries stated are important for anti-corruption crusade. Integrity represents different things like individual and institutional fairness, impartiality, and uprightness. Integrity is the firmly hold on moral and ethical principles or the aggregate representation of honesty. The relevance of integrity cannot be over emphasized in anti-corruption war, because it can create the need for anti-corruption personnel to be honest. Above all, integrity can create a moral sense and reality about the evils of corruption and unethical practices in the general system of things and the need to sincerely tackle them.

Ethical codes for anti-corruption personnel; sanctions and stringent laws to punish individuals that engage in corrupt and unethical practices are necessary ethical mechanisms for anti-corruption crusade according to respondents in three countries. For anti-corruption war to succeed in any country there must be discipline in the policies and procedures of anti-corruption agencies; China and Singapore are



two nations that succeeded through these mechanisms on the fight against corruption and unethical practices.

‘Participation, collaboration, and enlightenment’ are mechanisms respondents in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon aggregated together as necessities in anti-corruption policies and procedures. Participation, collaboration, and enlightenment here include collaboration with every stakeholder (local and international); like the National Ministries of Justice, International Organizations like United Nations, and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Participation and mobilization of individuals at the grassroots level, and educating all stakeholders and individuals about the evils of corruption and unethical practices are necessary in winning the way against corruption. A holistic success is much guaranteed when these mechanisms are allowed to be part of anti-corruption policies and procedures.

Only the respondents in Nigeria and Cameroon stated that ‘equality’ is a necessary ethical value for anti-corruption crusade. Equality here include stopping of selective prosecution, provision of standard policies for everyone, and the granting of equal access to every individual that wants to deal with anti-corruption agencies. Equality is very essential if the wars against corruption and unethical practices are going to be won. Respondents in Nigeria and Cameroon only made mention of equality, because they see the anti-graft war more connected to selective approach compares to respondents in Ghana. Therefore, Ghana seems to adopt more of a holistic approach towards the war on corruption and unethical practices. Equality on the other hand can be seen as part of integrity earlier discussed.

Respondents in three countries collectively stated again that ‘accountability and transparency’ are other essential ethical mechanisms in anti-corruption processes. Accountability and transparency here include open policies to ensure good conducts, availability of information to individuals and concern organizations, annual publication of reports, and open trials of accused and suspects in open and independent courts. Accountability and transparency are so essential to the functioning of anti-corruption agencies, but agencies must be independent before they can be accountable and transparent.

‘Motivation’ is another ethical mechanism respondents in three countries stated is essential for anti-corruption agencies to include in their policies and procedures. Motivation here include, provision of basic social amenities, good remuneration and pay, rewarding of hard work, and the creation of conducive atmosphere for anti-corruption agents to function. Motivation is many things to different individuals, but it totally concerns the act of enhancing performance in every

physical, psychological, social, and emotional way. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*“Anti-corruption movement or crusade that includes agencies, policies, and procedure needs ethical value and mechanisms like independence and integrity in order to realize a better Nigeria, because they specifically help anti-corruption agencies to be a place of trust.” (Nigeria)*

*“Ethical values and mechanisms like impartiality and sanctions should be special parts of anti-corruption processes, because of their numerous benefits to achieving set goals.” (Ghana)*

*“Ethical values and mechanism are most necessary for Cameroonian anti-corruption movement due to the nature of public officers in this country and the good results they can inform.” (Cameroon)*

### 5.1.1 *Values as Guarantors*

To further drive home the point about the essentials of ethical values in anti-corruption related war or crusade; table 11, which is a closed ended table is presented below:

**Table 11.** Ethical Values as Best Guarantors against Corruption: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Countries	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
<b>Assessment</b>			
Agree	9 (90%)	9 (90%)	7 (100%)
Disagree	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	0 (0%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

It is clear from the percentage agree figure that the adoption of ethical values in anti-corruption war is very important in the three countries. Ninety (90) per cent of the respondents in Nigeria agreed that ethical governance oriented policies and procedures is the best way anti-corruption agencies can win the war against corruption. Also Ninety (90) per cent of the respondents in Ghana agreed that ethical governance oriented policies and procedures is the best way anti-corruption agen-

cies can win the war against corruption. One hundred (100) per cent of the respondents in Cameroon agreed that ethical governance oriented policies and procedures is the best way anti-corruption agencies can win the war against corruption. The positions here help in justifying the aim of this research that ethical governance is relevant. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*“Value is everything, because any society, individual, or agency that has no value can hardly cause any positive change.” (Nigeria)*

*“Values are the foundation of right thoughts that offer tangible gains to a larger society or community.” (Ghana)*

*“Values create eternal gratifications; good values create desirable eternity and bad values create eternal damnation” (Cameroon)*

### 5.1.2 Core Instruments

Concerning the second question, it is necessary to also understand ethical governance through instruments by which corruption and unethical practices can be tamed in the public service. This is because the public service is the life wire of the government or the institutional machinery of the state; and above all, it is the citizens or individuals in a society that make up the personnel in the public service. To answer the question, table 12 is presented below:

**Table 12.** The Core Instruments for Taming Corruption and Unethical Practices in the Public Services: The Views of Respondents (N=27)

Main Instruments	Country(ies) in Preference
• Good governance	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon
• Good Leadership and Leadership by example	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon
• Use of guidelines, Ethical codes, and sanctions	Ghana and Cameroon
• Anti-corruption laws, empowering anti-corruption agencies, and bills (freedom of information, whistle-blower, witness protection, and removal of immunity clause)	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon
• Reward system and increase of salaries for workers	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon
• Education/enlightenment	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon

The respondents in three countries have stated their preferences for different instruments as a means of taming corruption in the public services. Some respondents in three countries stated good governance as their preferred instrument for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service. Some respondents also in three countries stated that good leadership and leadership by example are some instruments for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service. For the use of guidelines, codes, and sanctions, only respondents in Ghana and Cameroon stated as instruments for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service.

In addition, some other respondents in three countries stated that anti-corruption laws, empowering anti-corruption agencies and the adoption of freedom of information, whistleblower, witness protection, and removal of immunity clause bills are necessary instruments for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service. Reward system and increase of salaries for workers are the instruments some other respondents in three countries stated that can tame corruption and unethical practices in the public service. And for education or enlightenment, some respondents in three countries stated as the instrument for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*“Reorientation of Nigerians and institutionalising anti-corruption agencies are ways corruption and other unethical practices in the Nigerian Public service can be tamed.” (Nigeria)*

*“Strengthening the legal regime (strict implementation of laws and vibrant sanction for offenders), moral crusade, and advocacy are ways to tame corruption and other unethical practices in the Ghanaian public service.” (Ghana)*

*“Taming corruption and other unethical practices in the Cameroonian public service is a daunting task, but can be attained if there is a strong political will, institutional independence, and citizen’s education.” (Cameroon)*

Good governance involves the adoption of good management and natural principles like transparency, accountability, participation and collaboration, and independence. In most developing countries, these principles are always lacking; because of the presence of autocratic rule and dictatorship of all kinds. The value for human life is also most times regardless, because of insensitivity of various dimensions. Good governance is tied to ethical governance and it is one way of reducing corruption in a particular entity and increasing productivity or performance in the public service.

Good leadership and leadership by example represent practicing what one preaches or showing a lead way to the accomplishment of something. A good leader must be able to show good example to its followers or subordinates in any organi-

zation or in the act of governance. If there is a task to be accomplished, a good leader must first show every sense of commitment, towards the accomplishment of that task or responsibility; either through behaviour or action. It is another way of reducing corruption in a particular entity and increasing productivity or performance in the public service. Good leadership is also part of ethical governance.

The task of ethical leadership has become a great issue for all stakeholders in our present world; ethics, values, leadership, and trust are timely issues of immense importance to recover from a substantial downturn in the national and global policies (Fulmer 2004: 307). Leadership is based on the doctrine of reciprocity, because there must be followers for there to be a leader; (Livi, Kenny, Albright, & Pierror 2008: 235). Leadership goes with spearheading or managing a task along with other interests in order to achieve a purpose. Different qualities are tied to leadership and they help in creating a multiple view about leadership (Scandura & Dorfman 2004: 282).

The use of guidelines, ethical codes and the adoption of sanctions can bring sanity or order to any organization. Ethical guidelines and codes are regulatory and compliance framework in any organization or governance process; they show would be line of actions and responsibilities. Codes of ethics help in maintaining public trust in professionals that public affairs is being conducted in accordance with high ethical standards, because they help in preventing unethical behaviour. They also serve as guidance to organizational decision-making. Ethical training on the other hand, helps employees to become aware of these codes and how they work. (Lähdesmaki & Salminen 2009: 53–57.) They are put in place mostly to serve as secondary or complementing instruments to human or managerial efforts; and are also special ways of reducing corruption and unethical practices in the public service. The use of guidelines, ethical codes and the adoption of sanctions are also part of ethical governance.

Anti-corruption laws, anti-corruption agencies, bills (freedom of information, whistleblower, witness protection, and removal of immunity clause) are necessary instruments for reducing corruption and unethical practices in the public services of developing countries like Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. Corruption and unethical practices are strongly rooted in these countries no doubt; therefore, viable anti-corruption laws must be put in place along with given anti-corruption agencies all the necessary power to carry out their task.

In addition, freedom of information bill must be put in place by government, so that people can be willing and not restricted to speak out. Also necessary, is the whistleblower bill and witness protection bill; those that bring forth information or report corrupt and unethical practices, must be given the right protection

against any form of victimization or threat. This same protection must be extended to those that stand to testify against corrupt and unethical individuals during prosecution. The removal of immunity was highly stressed by respondents, because most of the top public officials that engage in corrupt and unethical acts are protected from prosecutions like the President, Vice President, Parliamentary Heads, State Governors, etc. The removal of immunity clause would then help in the interrogation and prosecution of these top public personnel even while in office. Legal instruments are also part of ethical governance.

Reward system and increase of salaries for workers are motivational attachments in any establishment or the governance process. When workers receive good reward and salaries for work done, there is a big sense of fulfilment or accomplishment; reward can come in any form, like promotion and bonuses of different kinds. A good pay is a source of happiness for any employee, because he or she can afford the basic needs, thereby not indulging in corner cutting. Workers in most developing countries are less motivated compare to their counterparts in developed countries. The salaries they receive in most instances cannot take them home, making them to rely on bribes for survival. A good salary and reward system can therefore, help in curbing corruption and reducing other unethical practices in the public service from one side and increasing public trust on the order. Motivational dynamics are strong parts of ethical governance.

Public education or enlightenment is an avenue of creating open awareness about evils and benefits of a phenomenon. In here, people are thought every rudiment about a particular thing. Corruption and unethical practices can be curbed through adequate sensitization networks, mechanisms, and values; through these avenues public servants who are also individuals can learn more about the negativities of indulging in corrupt and unethical acts. All the points given above including education or enlightenment are collectively, useful for curbing corruption and unethical practices, and increasing public trust, because they are useful and comprehensive parts of ethical governance.

## 5.2 Public Trust

Public trust is a broad concept that can be investigated from different perspectives, but it is investigated here from an anti-corruption crusade perspective. Anti-corruption activities and organizations go together, because they concern the eradication or reduction of corruption and unethical practices in the society. The citizens on the other hand judge if anti-corruption activities and organizations have been geared towards the eradication and elimination of corruption and un-

ethical activities in the society. Five (5) specific questions were used in relation to the issue of investigating public trust. In the questionnaire form (See Appendix 1), they are:

1. What is your disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agencies and do you think it is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in this country?
2. How would you rate anti-corruption crusade in this country?
3. What is your view that anti-corruption agencies in this country have boosted your country's image among international communities?
4. How would you rate this specific anti-corruption agency (ICPC/CHRAJ/NACC) effect on public trust or citizens in this country?
5. How willing are people to report corrupt and other unethical related issues to this specific anti-corruption agency (ICPC/CHRAJ/NACC) in this country?

#### 5.2.1 *The Issue of Disposition*

Concerning the first question; in the three countries, large majority of the respondents (24) considered their dispositions towards the setting up of anti-corruption agencies to be positive. The remaining of them (3), one (1) in Ghana and two (2) in Cameroon considered their dispositions towards the setting up of anti-corruption agencies to be negative. To understand the respondents' views, if the setting up of anti-corruption agencies is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in three countries, table 13 is presented below.

**Table 13.** Dispositions toward Anti-corruption Agencies as Instruments for Taming Corruption and Unethical Practices: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Countries	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
<b>Assessment</b>			
Positive	8 (80%)	7 (70%)	4 (57%)
Negative	2 (20%)	3 (30%)	3 (43%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

It is obvious from table 13 above that large majority of the respondents feel good about the setting up of anti-corruption agencies in three countries. The respondent who had a negative disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agencies in Ghana, saw little presence of corruption in Ghana and therefore, saw no relevance for the setting up anti-corruption agencies. But the two respondents in Cameroon, who had negative dispositions toward the setting up of anti-corruption agencies, saw a high prevalence rate of corruption, but an infective and parochial anti-corruption agency in Cameroon is put in place to tackle it. However, for all the respondents who had a positive dispositions toward the setting up of anti-corruption agencies in three countries, saw the presence of corruption and the need for anti-corruption agencies to be put in place to curb it. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*“My disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agency is that it is a good step in the right direction, because it can help in taming corruption and unethical practices in Nigeria, but unfortunately it has become a tool for government witch-hunting.” (Nigeria)*

*“My disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agency is that it is a welcome development, because it shows the willingness to fight corruption and unethical practices in Ghana.” (Ghana)*

*“My disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agency is good, because it is one of the best ways to tame corruption and unethical practices in this Cameroon; however, the first criterion is that an anti-corruption agency should be established by an act of parliament and not an executive act as we presently have in Cameroon.” (Cameroon)*

Eighty (80) per cent of the respondents in Nigeria believe that the setting up of anti-corruption agencies is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices.



es. Seventy (70) per cent of the respondents believe that the setting up of anti-corruption agencies is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in Ghana. Fifty seven (57) per cent believe that the setting up of anti-corruption agencies is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in Cameroon. The variations in respondents' answers do not matter that much at this level, because of relativism. A person who agrees that the setting up of anti-corruption agencies is the best way to tame corruption in a country, might see it from the high presence of corruption or agencies effectiveness. The same applies to a person who does not see the setting up of anti-corruption agencies as the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in a country; such a person might see it from low presence of corruption or agencies ineffectiveness; as exemplified by the cases of respondents in Ghana and Cameroon above.

### 5.2.2 *Anti-corruption Crusade*

In relation to the second question, analysis begins with Table 14 below:

**Table 14.** The Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Assessment Countries	Very Strong	Strong	Weak
Nigeria	0	4	6
Ghana	1	9	0
Cameroon	0	3	4
Total	1	16	10

It is clear that the anti-corruption crusade is not very strong generally in the three countries, because one respondent stated that it is very strong; over half of the respondents (16) stated that it is strong; and over one third of the respondents (10) stated that it is weak. However, one (1) respondent stated that anti-corruption crusade is very strong; one third of the respondents (9) stated that anti-corruption crusade is strong; and no respondent stated that anti-corruption crusade is weak in

Ghana. No respondent stated that anti-corruption crusade is very strong; four respondents stated that anti-corruption crusade is strong; and six (6) respondents stated that anti-corruption crusade is weak in Nigeria. No respondent stated that anti-corruption crusade is very strong; three (3) respondents stated that anti-corruption crusade is strong, and four (4) respondents stated that anti-corruption crusade is weak in Cameroon. To further drive home the present argument, I will present table 15 below, which is a closed ended table on anti-corruption crusade.

**Table 15.** The Weakness of Anti-Corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Countries Assessment	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
Agree	7 (70%)	2 (20%)	6 (86%)
Disagree	3 (30%)	8 (80%)	1 (14%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

In Nigeria, seventy (70) per cent of the respondents agreed that anti-corruption crusade is weak, while thirty (30) per cent of the respondents disagreed. In Ghana, twenty of the respondents agreed that anti-corruption crusade is weak, while eighty (80) per cent of the respondents disagreed. In Cameroon, eighty six of the respondents agreed that anti-corruption crusade is weak, while fourteen (14) per cent of the respondents disagreed. The general outlook here puts Ghana in a better position to Nigeria and Cameroon, because lesser proportion of the respondents believed that anti-corruption crusade is weak. This is followed by the case of Nigeria, which has a lesser proportion of respondents agreeing that anti-corruption crusade is weak compare to Cameroon.

### 5.2.3 *Images of Agencies*

Concerning the third question, the analysis can start with table 16 presented below:

**Table 16.** Images of the Effectiveness of Agencies Internationally:  
The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Countries	Assessment	Very Positive	Positive	Negative
Nigeria		4	5	1
Ghana		3	7	0
Cameroon		1	4	2
Total		8	16	3

From the above table, it is clear that anti-corruption agencies have affected the images of three countries internationally on different scales; close to one third of the respondents (8) stated they have had a very positive effect; over half of the respondents (16) stated they have had positive effect, and three (3) respondents stated they have had negative effect. However, four (4) respondents in Nigeria stated that anti-corruption agencies have had a very positive effect on the country's image internationally; five (5) respondents stated they have had positive effect; and one (1) respondent stated they have had negative effect. Three (3) respondents in Ghana stated that anti-corruption agencies have had a very positive effect on the country's image internationally; over half of the respondents (7) stated they have had positive effect; and none of the respondent stated they have had negative effect. Only a single respondent in Cameroon stated that anti-corruption agencies have had a very positive effect on the country's image internationally; four (4) respondents stated they have had positive effect; and two (2) respondents stated they have had negative effect. To further explain this position, so that easy judgement can be arrived at on each country's basis; table 17, which is a closed ended table is presented next:

**Table 17.** Images of the Effectiveness of Agencies Internationally (Closed-ended version): The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Assessment	Countries	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
Agree		8 (80%)	10 (100%)	3 (43%)
Disagree		2 (20%)	0 (0%)	4 (57%)
Total		10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

Eighty (80) per cent of the respondents in Nigeria agreed that anti-corruption agencies have positively affected the country's image internationally. One hundred (100) per cent of the respondents in Ghana agreed that anti-corruption agencies have positively affected the country's image internationally. Forty three (43) per cent of the respondents in Cameroon agreed that anti-corruption agencies have positively affected the country's image internationally. At this level Ghana is again better than Nigeria and Cameroon, because all the respondents agreed that anti-corruption agencies especially, CHRAJ have positively affected the country's reputation internationally, followed by the case of Nigeria before Cameroon. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*"It is for the international community to judge, but if anti-corruption agencies do more, the image of this country (Nigeria) would be far better."* (Nigeria)

*"Researches have shown that that Ghana has a better or fair rating than most other Sub-Saharan Africa countries like Nigeria in relation to corruption."* (Ghana)

*"The boosting of a country's image abroad does not depend on a public campaign, but on the seriousness in which a country is committed to fighting corruption; the recent outing to major European cities will be meaningless if no concrete action to curb corruption is being taken by the agency (NACC)."* (Cameroon)

Majority of respondents that agreed anti-corruption agencies have positively affected Nigeria's image internationally, anchored their views on the fact that the fear of anti-corruption agencies is now the beginning of wisdom for people. The majority of respondents that agreed anti-corruption agencies have positively affected Ghana's image internationally, anchored their views on the fact that anti-corruption agencies in Ghana have investigated high profile cases, including that of a setting President. Majority of the respondents that agreed anti-corruption

agencies have positively affected Cameroon's image internationally, anchored their views on the fact that anti-corruption agencies in Cameroon have been able to build cooperation with international institutions. It is clear from this analysis that trust is highly influenced by performance, which emanates from ethical governance (ethical values and mechanisms).

#### 5.2.4 *Agencies and Trust*

Concerning the fourth question, the presentation of table 18 is relevant:

**Table 18.** Effects of Agencies on Trust Evaluated: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Assessment Countries	Very Positive	Positive	Negative
Nigeria	0	5	5
Ghana	2	7	1
Cameroon	0	4	3
Total	2	16	9

Anti-corruption agencies effects on public trust in three countries vary at different levels; two (2) respondents stated that they have had a very positive affect on public trust; over half of the respondents (16) stated that they have had a positive effect on public trust; and nine (9) respondents stated that they have had a negative effect on public trust. However, none of the respondents stated that ICPC has affected public trust very positively in Nigeria; half of the respondents (5) stated that it has had positive effect on public trust; and half of the respondents (5) again stated it has had negative effect on public trust. Two (2) respondents stated that CHRAJ has had a very positive effect on public trust in Ghana; over half of the respondents (7) stated it has had a positive effect on public trust; and only a single respondent stated it has had negative effect on public trust. None of the respondents stated that NACC has affected public trust very positively in Cameroon; over half of the respondents (4) stated that it has had positive effect on public trust; and three (3) respondents stated it has had a negative effect on public trust.

Also to further explain this position, so that easy judgement can be arrived at on each country's basis; table 19, which is a closed-ended table, is presented below:

**Table 19.** Effects of Agencies on Trust Evaluated (Closed-ended version):  
The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Assessment	Countries	Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
Negative		4 (40%)	1 (10%)	6 (86%)
Positive		6 (60%)	9 (90%)	1 (14%)
Total		10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

Forty (40) per cent of the respondents in Nigeria agreed that ICPC has negatively affected citizens and public trust in the country. Ten (10) per cent of the respondents in Ghana agreed that CHRAJ has negatively affected citizens and public trust in the country. Eighty six (86) per cent of the respondents in Cameroon agreed that NACC has negatively affected citizens and public trust in the country. At this level, Ghana again is better case than Nigeria and Cameroon, because almost all the respondents (90 per cent) agreed that CHRAJ has positively affected citizens and public trust; this is again followed by the case of Nigeria, which has over half (60 per cent) positive effect rate on public trust and citizens; before Cameroon, which has fourteen (14) per cent positive effect rate on public trust and citizens. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*"The anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria is selective, in most cases it is aimed at political enemies; when connected you go free and the Nigerian public believe today that the war against corruption is not all encompassing; including that represented by ICPC."* (Nigeria)

*"The truth is that the public or citizens, trust anti-corruption agencies in Ghana, but the difficult thing is that they do not know much about them and this include CHRAJ"* (Ghana)

*"It may be difficult to rate anti-corruption agencies' relationship with public trust and citizens; however, like other state institutions in Cameroon, citizens do not place much confidence on them as they believe they are created merely as window dressers and NACC is a good representation of this fact."* (Cameroon)

Majority of respondents that agreed ICPC had positively affected public trust in Nigeria anchored their views on the notion that it is longer business as usual; and

majority of the respondents that agreed ICPC had negatively affected public trust in Nigeria anchored their views on the notion that its functioning is based on selective justice principle. Majority of respondents that agreed CHRAJ had positively affected public trust in Ghana anchored their views on the notion that the agency works without fear or favour, so the people trust them; and the only respondent that agreed CHRAJ had negatively affected public trust in Ghana anchored his view on the notion that some doubts still exist about the agency functioning. Majority of respondents that agreed NACC had positively affected public trust in Cameroon anchored their views on the notion that people can complain even if outcome is not sure. Majority of the respondents that agreed NACC had negatively affected public trust in Cameroon anchored their views on the notion that people do not know much about the agency, because of its operational style.

### 5.2.5 Citizens and Willingness

Concerning the fifth question, starting with table 20 is relevant:

**Table 20.** Citizens' Willingness to Report to Anti-corruption Agencies: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Estimation Countries	Very Willing	Willing	Not Willing
Nigeria	1	3	6
Ghana	1	6	3
Cameroon	1	1	5
Total	3	10	14

People's or citizens' willingness to report corruption and unethical practices to anti-corruption agencies in three countries varies at different levels, but it is obvious citizens are not very willing to report. Three (3) respondents stated citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to anti-corruption agencies; a little over one third of the respondents (10) stated citizens are willing to report corruption and unethical practices to anti-corruption agencies; and a little over half of the respondents (14) stated that citizens are not willing to report corruption and unethical practices to anti-corruption agencies. However, a single

respondent stated that citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to ICPC in Nigeria; three (3) respondents stated that citizens are willing to report; and over half of the respondents (6) stated that citizens are not very willing to report. Also, only a single respondent stated that citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to CHRAJ in Ghana; over half of the respondents (6) stated that citizens are willing to report; and three (3) respondents stated that citizens are not very willing to report. Again, a single respondent stated that citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to NACC in Cameroon; another one (1) respondent stated that citizens are willing to report; and over half of the respondents (5) stated that citizens are not very willing to report. To argue this point further, table 21, which is a closed ended table is presented to understand the willingness of citizens to report below.

**Table 21.** Rating the Willingness of Citizens: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Assessment	Countries Nigeria	Ghana	Cameroon
High	7 (70%)	10 (100%)	4 (57%)
Low	3 (30%)	0 (0%)	3 (43%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

Seventy (70) per cent of the respondents in Nigeria stated that citizens have high willingness to report corruption and unethical practices to ICPC and thirty (30) per cent stated that the willingness is low. All the respondents (100 per cent) in Ghana stated that citizens have high willingness to report corruption and unethical practices to CHRAJ and zero (0) per cent of the respondents stated that the willingness is low. Fifty seven (57) per cent of the respondents in Cameroon stated that citizens have high willingness to report corruption and unethical practices to NACC and forty three (43) per cent stated that the willingness is low. At this level, Ghana again is a better case than Nigeria and Cameroon, because all the respondents agreed that citizens are willing to report corruption and other unethical issues to CHRAJ. This is again followed by the case of Nigeria before Cameroon. According to some selected respondents in each country:



*“The people are not willing to report corruption and unethical practices to ICPC in Nigeria, because they think their complaints would not be investigated and suspect would not be justly prosecuted.” (Nigeria)*

*“The people are willing to report corruption and other unethical practices to anti-corruption agencies in Ghana especially CHRAJ, but with more protection people will be willing to do more.” (Ghana)*

*“With the believe that corruption and other unethical practices are a creation of the government, citizens have lost confidence that anything could be done and have therefore developed a kind of apathy towards corruption and reporting it and dealing with NACC.” (Cameroon)*

Majority of respondents that agreed citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to ICPC in Nigeria anchored their views on nothing; and majority of the respondents that agreed citizens are not willing to report corruption and unethical practices to ICPC in Nigeria anchored their views on the notion that the fear of victimization, lack of trust, and lack of patriotism still exist. Majority of respondents that agreed citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to CHRAJ in Ghana anchored their views on the appreciable ways their complaints are handled; and majority of the respondents that agreed citizens are not willing to report corruption and unethical practices to CHRAJ in Ghana anchored their views on the *fear* of reprisal attack and the Ghanaian culture. Majority of respondents that agreed citizens are very willing to report corruption and unethical practices to NACC in Cameroon anchored their views on nothing; and majority of the respondents that agreed citizens are not willing to report corruption and unethical practices to anti-corruption NACC in Cameroon anchored their views on the fear that it is an agent of the state; and the absence of whistleblower protection act.

### 5.3 Corruption and the Challenges of Combating it

It is important to ascertain the positions of corruption in three countries through the interviews conducted. Corruption has a straight link to public trust; understanding the challenges of tackling it also becomes a paramount issue. On the issue of corruption and the challenges of combating it, three (3) questions were used to explain this issue. In the questionnaire form (See Appendix 1), are:

1. What is the most social ill discussed in this country?
2. How do you perceive/rate corruption and other unethical related practices in this country?
3. What are the challenges of anti-corruption crusade in this country?

### 5.3.1 *Corruption as a Social Ill*

Concerning the first question, in the three countries a large majority of the respondents (16) considered that corruption (or political/religious corruption) is the most social ill in their country. The remaining of them (10) emphasized that there exist other social phenomena, which are tied to corruption; such as insecurity, internet fraud, poverty, lack of democracy, indiscipline, low standard of education, and unemployment of the youth. However, a single Ghanaian respondent stressed that the most social ill is the dominance of foreign culture. However, according to some selected respondents in each country:

*“Corruption is the most social ill discussed in Nigeria and it is very high, because it cuts across every sector and it is the bane of Nigeria’s development.” (Nigeria)*

*“Corruption is the most social ill discussed in Ghana, especially the one relating to political corruption and it is not very high, although it is been taken as a way of life.” (Ghana)*

*“Poverty, which is tied to corruption is the most social ill discussed in Cameroon, it is very high and is increasingly becoming entrenched in the system as a way of life.” (Cameroon)*

### 5.3.2 *Rating Corruption*

Table 22 and 23 help in answering the second question, because of their focus on corruption and unethical practices levels measurement:

**Table 22.** The Estimation of Corruption and Unethical Practices:  
The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Estimations Countries	Very High	High	Average
Nigeria	6	4	—
Ghana	5	3	2
Cameroon	6	1	—
Total	17	8	2

It is obvious that corruption is the most social ill or problem in the three countries. From the first question, almost all the respondents mentioned directly or indirectly the phenomenon of corruption as the most social ill in their countries.

On the second question, over half of the respondents (17) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are very high in all the three countries; eight (8) of the respondents agreed that corruption and unethical practices are high in all the countries; and only two (2) respondents, which are from Ghana agreed that corruption and other unethical practices are average.

However, Ghana has a lesser proportion of the respondents that agree corruption and unethical practices are very high; out of the ten (10) respondents, half (5) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are very high, three (3) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are high, and two (2) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are average. Nigeria has an average proportion of the respondents that agree corruption and unethical practices are very high; out of the ten (10) respondents, over half (6) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are very high, four (4) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are high, and none of the respondents agreed they are average. Cameroon has a high proportion of the respondents that agree corruption and unethical practices are very high; out of the seven (7) respondents, almost all (6) agreed that corruption and unethical practices are very high, a single respondent agreed that corruption and unethical practices are high, and none of the respondents again agreed they are average.

To further drive home the present argumentation on corruption, a closed ended question was asked to determine respondents' very close or exact views on the prevalence rates of corruption in three countries. The question asked in order to get percentage measurement in accurate sense is: do you think corruption and unethical practices in this country are very high?

**Table 23.** The High Prevalence of Corruption: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

<b>Countries Assessment</b>	<b>Nigeria</b>	<b>Ghana</b>	<b>Cameroon</b>
Agree	9 (90%)	6 (60%)	7 (100%)
Disagree	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	0 (0%)
Total	10 (100%)	10 (100%)	7 (100%)

It is again clear that majority of the respondents (90 per cent) in Nigeria agreed that corruption is high; sixty (60) per cent of the respondents in Ghana agreed that corruption is high; and all the respondents (100 per cent) in Cameroon agreed that corruption is high. Ghana again occupies a better position compare to Nigeria and Cameroon; and Nigeria on its own occupies a better position compare to Cameroon.

The understanding of corruption as different issues is important, because in any society or nation, social ill could emanate from different sources or even represent different things. Social ills are social problem, because it is a common or collective problem. As we can observe from the different answers given by respondents above, a social ill can mean corruption, low standard of education, poverty, unemployment, foreign culture dominance, insecurity, and lack of democracy. The list can also include high rate of abortion, high rate of infant mortality, ageing work group, sectarianism, illiteracy, ethnic tensions etc. Social ills are not constant in any society or nation, because they change with time. Social ill is what causes the greatest pain to a particular society or nation at time; it could also be what gives the immediate concern or threat to the peaceful and progressive existence of an entity. The dimensions of corruption can affect public trust to different dimensions; the same applies to the ability to tackle it.

### 5.3.3 *Challenges*

Concerning the third question table 24 represents the basic challenges anti-corruption crusade faces in three countries.

**Table 24.** The Core Challenges of Anti-corruption Crusade: The Views of the Respondents (N=27)

Main Challenges	Country(ies) in Preference
• Lack of independence and poor political will	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Poor funding and inappropriate personnel	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Poor attitudinal culture	Nigeria and Cameroon.
• Lack of consistency	Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon.
• Selective Persecution	Nigeria and Cameroon
• The notion that corruption cannot be flushed	Ghana
• Just white paper framework	Cameroon

The respondents in three countries have stated their preferences here about the different challenges anti-corruption crusade faces. Some respondents in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon stated that it is the lack of independence and poor political will that are the core challenges anti-corruption crusade faces. Again some respondents in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon stated that it is poor funding and inappropriate personnel that are the core challenges anti-corruption crusade faces. Poor attitudinal culture is what some respondents in Nigeria and Cameroon stated as the bane of anti-corruption crusade. Other respondents in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon stated that the lack of consistency is one bane of anti-corruption crusade. Another bane of anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria and Cameroon according to some respondents is the selective persecution. Only respondents in Ghana stated that the core challenge anti-corruption crusade faces is the notion that corruption cannot be flushed. Finally, only respondents in Cameroon stated that core challenges anti-corruption crusade faces is the white paper framework phenomenon, because practicing what is written down on the paper is always mocked.

The respondents in three countries gave different answers based on different reasons. Though, it is difficult to state exactly the reasons for the different answers; but it is deducible from my fieldwork experience that respondents at this level and answers given were influenced by different factors. Some were influenced by their own past personal experiences; others by their professional backgrounds;

others by their ethno-religious background; and others by their social orientations and groupings. According to some selected respondents in each country:

*“Anti-corruption crusade in this country (Nigeria) is based on leap service, because even those that set up the agencies are corrupt.” (Nigeria)*

*“Anti-corruption crusade in Ghana is on the average, but a consistent approach can make it better and in living up to the people’s expectations.” (Ghana)*

*“Anti-corruption crusade is a two-standard crusade in Cameroon, because a lot of senior government officials and directors of state-owned enterprises who had engaged in embezzlement of state funds are never questioned.” (Cameroon)*

Concerning the matter of motivation in the three countries, large majority of the respondents (25) stated that the will for a better society is the basic motivation surrounding the crusade against corruption and unethical practices. The remaining respondents (2); one (1) in Nigeria and one (1) in Cameroon stated that there is no motivation at all. The answers given by respondents here are quite understandable, because for every concern stakeholder or responsible citizen in any nation, the dream of living in a better society is always a priority. For the two (2) respondents in Nigeria and Cameroon who did not see any motivation at all, gave their answers out of frustration; they saw a high level of corruption and unethical practices presence in their societies, but concerned authorities or individuals were doing nothing to curb them. This last position shows why Ghana is much different from Nigeria and Cameroon in terms of corruption prevalence.

## 5.4 Summary

From the interview analysis, it was visible that ethical values and mechanisms like independence, expertise, integrity, ethical codes and sanctions, participation, collaboration, and enlightenment, equality, accountability, transparency, and motivations are necessary in anti-corruption crusade in order to reduce corruption; because they are the right processes and orientations that guarantee the most acceptable standards of ethical behaviour and performance. Also from the interview, it was observed that good governance; good leadership and leadership by example; use of guidelines, ethical codes, and sanctions; anti-corruption laws, empowering anti-corruption agencies, and bills (freedom of information, whistleblower protection, witness protection, and removal of immunity clause); reward system and increase of salaries for workers; and education/enlightenment are core instruments for taming corruption and unethical practices in the public service. These instruments are also part of ethical governance.

It was discovered further from the interview that lack of independence and poor political will; poor funding and inappropriate personnel; poor attitudinal culture; lack of consistency; selective persecution; the notion that corruption cannot be flushed; and the just white paper framework are the major challenges of anti-corruption crusade and agencies. These elements are the opposite representation of ethical governance or ethical values and mechanisms. Therefore, it is deducible that for anti-corruption crusade, which includes the setting up of anti-corruption agencies and general policies and procedures to be able to reduce corruption; ethical governance (ethical values and mechanisms) is necessary. It is through this process that public trust for the whole anti-corruption processes can be positively affected.

Finally, it was discovered from the interview that corruption and efforts to reduce it are at different levels in the three countries; and the same applies to public trust for the processes of reducing corruption. Corruption is the most social ill or problem in the three countries, but the prevalence level is higher in Cameroon, followed by Nigeria, and then before Ghana. Public trust for anti-corruption processes is higher in Ghana, followed by Nigeria, and then before Cameroon.

The effects of variation outlooks are as follow:

1. Causing a moderate effect in the reduction of corruption in Nigeria; a good effect in the reduction of corruption in Ghana; and a poor effect in the reduction of corruption in Cameroon.
2. Causing a more average disposition towards anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria; a more positive disposition towards anti-corruption crusade in Ghana; and a more negative disposition towards anti-corruption crusade in Cameroon.
3. Causing a more average assessment of anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria; a more positive assessment of anti-corruption crusade in Ghana; and a more negative assessment of anti-corruption crusade in Cameroon.
4. Causing a more average assessment of Nigeria internationally; a more positive assessment of Ghana internationally; and a more negative assessment of Cameroon internationally.
5. Causing a more average trust assessment for ICPC; a more positive trust assessment for CHRAJ; and a more negative trust assessment for NACC.
6. Causing an average willingness in reporting to ICPC; a higher willingness in reporting to CHRAJ; and a lower willingness in reporting to NACC

The concept of rationality is relevant or tied to ethical governance, because rationality concerns our thoughts that can be linked with the act of making something meaningful or appropriate. The rationality of fighting corruption is to achieve a meaningful result that would help in the realization of a better society. Anti-corruption crusade needs rationality to necessitate and arrange ethical values and mechanisms in the most productive orders. However, the main findings of this research are presented in the next chapter (6).



## 6 CONCLUSION

### Theoretical Framework and the Research Questions to be Answered

This research is a comparative study that focused on the effects of ethical governance on public trust, because of the problem of corruption in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. The comparative study was specifically, narrowed to the policies and procedures of anti-corruption crusade in the three countries through some selected federal anti-corruption agencies (ICPC in Nigeria, CHRAJ in Ghana, and NACC in Cameroon).

Administrative ethics was understood to be key part of public administration research, because of its ethical dimensions on social and institutional issues. Theoretical framing of this study has been used in describing public trust as part of ethical governance. Ethical governance was defined in this research, as the processes and orientations that guarantee the most acceptable standard of ethical behaviour and performance. Ethical governance is the cumulative actions taken by managers or personnel to initiate and implement an ethical sensitive, consciousness, and structure that permeate all aspects of getting things done in a public service agency (Menzel 2001). Ethical governance is broad concept that is premised on the merger and meanings of ethics and governance; and was properly understood through some ethical values and mechanisms. In this study, public trust was on the other hand focused on through an understanding of trust in public administration and management; and analysing the means of achieving trust. Public trust was also discussed within the realm of combating corruption through ideological and institutional views. Above all, trust was defined as an attitude that we have towards a phenomenon we hope will be trustworthy.

The main task of this research has been to state that ethical governance is important, because it can help in reducing corruption and increasing public trust. In addition, is the task of answering the questions of: 1) the natures of anti-corruption crusade within an ethical governance framework in the three countries; 2) countries' differences in their outcomes to increase public trust and reduce corruption; and 3) the core ways of increasing trust and fighting corruption in each country.

### Assessment of Methodology

The methodology adopted in this research inquiry has been qualitative analysis within a comparative setting. The three-country case comparison is viable with qualitative description and interpretation. The general nature of the applied research has its various strengths and weaknesses. The qualitative method can generate different questions based on its presumed narrow view; and when adopted along a comparative context, because comparison originally belongs to the quantitative tradition or method. However, using the qualitative method in a research work with comparative setting of this nature is ideal, because the levels of variables description and interpretation were not too in-depth, but a simple descriptive and interpretive analysis.

The anti-corruption agencies in the three countries were not set up the same year, because the agency in Ghana (CHRAJ) was set up first and then followed by the one in Nigeria (ICPC), before the one in Cameroon (NACC). However, the three agencies have a common goal of fighting corruption and bringing about a general good society. The three countries (Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon) have so many things in common, but they are also different in many regards. Nigeria and Ghana are more of English speaking nations, because of their long political and economic relationships with Great Britain that span across the pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial eras;. While Cameroon is more of a French speaking nation, because of its long political and economic relationships with France that also span across the pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial eras. The countries different ties with Great Britain and France also have different respective effects on the nature and structure of governance in the three countries. Above all, the three countries are democratic nations, although the level of democracy is at different levels of efficacy.

This research is generalizable, because to some amount most developing countries have anti-corruption agencies with the main tasks of reducing corruption and increasing public trust. This strategy can be applied in relation to some other developing countries; with a guarantee of achieving similar or close results. It was obvious from the general analysis that the application of anti-corruption policies and procedures has a unique way of fighting or curtailing corruption and unethical practices. The general approach and positions in this research might not be the best, but to a great extent they satisfy necessary scientific requirements like making research judgements from official documents; and not specifying the name of any respondent under the direct interview quotations as requested by the respondents.

The policies and procedures of anti-corruption crusade in three countries and their compliance levels with ethical governance were examined through documents of the agencies stated above. Interviews conducted at different places of interest with experts serve different usefulness. Firstly, they help in understanding the meaning of ethical governance through ascertaining the types and relevance of ethical values and mechanisms. Secondly, the interviews help in investigating public trust. Lastly, the interviews help in seeing corruption as different issues and the challenges faced in combating it.

The interviews and documents analysis in this research were useful, because they give special insights that help in answering the research questions. The total number of interviews conducted in this research is sufficient, because the research is just a three-case comparison study. The interviews are also valid and reliable, because of their diverse and comprehensive natures. The documents used are valid and reliable, because there is a balancing of national and international outlooks and they also represent official truth. However, one main limitation of this research work was the inability to get more people for the interview exercise, because of the uncooperative nature of most of the people I had intended to interview.

## 6.1 Main Findings

Before the presentation of the main findings of this research, it is important to state the main criteria for choosing the three anti-corruption agencies, which has been in focus in this research analysis. The three anti-corruption agencies (ICPC, CHRAJ, and NACC) are all federal agencies with a legitimate and clear mandate to fight corruption and other unethical related matters in their different countries of operations. Since this research primarily concerns the examination of public trust, these three agencies become the best choices, because they are the most popular among the people on country-by-country basis. I also decided to choose these three agencies, because they are the most recognized anti-corruption agencies outside national borders in relation to the different countries.

Table 25 shows the main findings of this research in relation to special issues like the natures of anti-corruption crusade; variation in the compliance level of anti-corruption policies and procedures with ethical values and mechanisms or ethical governance; and best practices evaluation from country to country. In addition, the main findings are related to the general theoretical discussions and empirical findings especially, the summaries of the two empirical chapters (4 and 5).

**Table 25.** Main Findings of the Study

Main ethical issues reconsidered	Identified implications
The anti-corruption crusade	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adoption of national legal (constitutional) principles</li> <li>• Adoption of international order (United Nations) principles</li> <li>• Setting up of anti-corruption strategies</li> </ul>
The anti-corruption policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informing a prosperous, equitable, and just society</li> <li>• Fighting of corruption and other unethical practices</li> <li>• Guaranteeing high trust and nurturing ideal citizens</li> <li>• Creating productive public service and personnel</li> </ul>
The anti-corruption procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informing a broad administrative structure at the head office</li> <li>• Informing a narrow operational structure (committee system) at the head office</li> <li>• Informing a subjective administrative and operational structures at the regional and district offices</li> </ul>
The core nature of compliance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creating variation in the level of corruption reduction</li> <li>• Creating variation in the level of public trust increase</li> <li>• Instituting anti-corruption crusade direction</li> </ul>
The best practices evaluated (country by country)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Comprehensive investigation of received petitions (the cases of Ghana and Nigeria)</li> <li>• Unbiased prosecution of culprits/suspects (the case of Ghana)</li> <li>• Well-designed administrative and operational structures (the case of Nigeria)</li> <li>• Critical enlightenment/education of citizens (the case of Cameroon)</li> </ul>

My first conclusion concerns the fundamental outlook of anti-corruption crusade in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. According to earlier discussion, administrative ethics ultimately depends upon constitutional competence and understanding ethics within a regime boundary is one way of evaluating the quality of governance and anti-corruption movement on comparative grounds (Rohr 1989 & Rosenbloom 1992). Above all, UN (2004a), stated that most international and national legal definitions tend to criminalize corruption and other unethical practices. Anti-corruption crusade is modelled after national legal and international order principles, which are special constitutional provisions like countries' national laws

and international provisions like United Nations' Charter on human right and action against corruption and other unethical practices. These special provisions set the foundation for anti-corruption strategies.

My second conclusion concerns anti-corruption policies in the three countries. As previously discussed, policies for anti-corruption are sacred, because of the desired expectations we expect them to fulfil; and policies for tackling corruption are rational ideals that help in informing an all-round development (Cooper D 2004 & Huberts et al. 2008). Dodel (1999) and Ibbetson and Whitemore (1977), have posited that anti-corruption policies have positive multiplier effect on public service and personnel productivities. In addition, Richter and Burke (2007), stated that anti-corruption policies strengthen trust and accountability along with making public managers and leaders responsible. Anti-corruption policies are generally aimed at bringing about a prosperous, equitable, and just society; because they are designed to fight corruption and other unethical practices, in addition to guaranteeing high trust. Due to sanctity and order that anti-corruption policies generate, ideal and ethical citizens are nurtured; these ideal and ethical citizens are those that transcend to productive personnel, who also make up or inform a productive public service.

My third conclusion concerns the procedures adopted by anti-corruption agencies. According to previous discussion, the design of anti-corruption procedures should include enforcement apparatus and effective system of surveillance. Strategic thinking/rationality should make up the framework for tackling corruption and other unethical practices, because reaping meaningful benefits from public business is a key priority to the citizens. (Geuras & Garofalo 2005; Cooper 2006; Gensler 2006; & Kim et al., 2009.) Procedures adopted by anti-corruption agencies are different, because of their broad, narrow, dual, singular, central, and regional/district natures. The administrative structure is a broader procedural representation, while the operational structure is a narrowed procedural representation. ICPC has a dual procedure; because the main administrative structure is different from the operation structure, which is characterised by committee system at the head office only. The different committee are headed by experts, but who are still under the supreme leadership of the Commission Chairman. CHRAJ has a single procedural outlook, because of the fusion of administrative and operational structures at the head office. This is followed by subjective regional and district offices, which also have a fusion of administrative and operational structures. NACC like CHRAJ also has a single procedural outlook, because of the fusion of administrative and operational structures at the head office. However, irrespective of the outlooks of agencies procedures, the focus is generally to fight corruption and unethical practices.

My fourth conclusion concerns the compliance level of anti-corruption policies and procedures. The nature and compliance levels of anti-corruption policies and procedures are often in charge of setting the stage within which individuals and organizations have to act; and the results that follow most societal and organizational issues in relation to citizens (Goodpaster 1984). Richter and Burke (2007c), have posited that the ability to provide space for transparency along with ethical culture is important, because they determine the position of corruption and trust in any society or organization. The compliance level of anti-corruption policies and procedures with ethical governance or ethical values and mechanisms, has tendencies of creating variation in the level of corruption reduction from one perspective, and variation in the level of public trust increase from another perspective. This is because anti-corruption policies and procedures, which are more ethical governance compliant, can positively affect corruption reduction and public trust increase; while anti-corruption policies and procedures, which are less ethical governance compliant, can negatively affect corruption reduction and public trust increase. Above all, the core nature of compliance, determines the general direction and result of anti-corruption crusade in the three countries.

My fifth conclusion concerns the best practices evaluation of the three countries. Ghana represents the best practices relating to anti-corruption crusade, followed by Nigeria, and before Cameroon. But the three countries and many other developing countries struggling with the problem of corruption can do more in the areas of reducing it if ethical governance (ethical values and mechanisms) is acknowledged as an essential dynamics in the whole process of anti-corruption movement. In relation to the investigation of complaints, the anti-corruption agencies in Ghana and Nigeria are basically good, because of the processes put in place to handle cases reported by citizens, which make investigations of cases to be comprehensive. In relation to the prosecution of cases and offenders/suspects, the anti-corruption agencies in Ghana is outstanding, because the prosecution process is handled most efficiently without biased considerations of the individual(s) or body(ies) in question. In relation to general structural design, the anti-corruption agency in Nigeria is most efficient and proper, because of the separation of administrative and operational structures, through this; the best coordinative framework is put in place especially, in relation to the “fast track” team that function under the direct supervision of ICPC chairman to respond to any emergency. And in relation to the matter of enlightenment, the anti-corruption agency in Cameroon is most efficient and proper, because of the broad and critical media campaigns engaged upon by the agency to educate the Cameroonian people on the evils of corruption and its related practices.

Investigation of petitions received from citizens is one way of combating corruption and increasing trust in Ghana and Nigeria. However, in special regard to Ghana, prosecution of culprits or suspects of corrupt and unethical acts is one core way of increasing trust and combating corruption. In special regard to Nigeria, the good design of administrative and operational structures of anti-corruption agency like ICPC is one core way of increasing trust and combating corruption. In regard to Cameroon, the enlightening and educating of citizens about corrupt and unethical practices is one core way of increasing trust and combating corruption.

The financial autonomy of CHRAJ most basically differentiates it from ICPC, and the complete absence of independence in the operational mode of NACC differentiates it from ICPC and CHRAJ. The President of the Republic of Cameroon directly picks the top personnel in NACC, and in return they are only answerable to the President, unlike in Ghana and Nigeria where consultations with other stakeholders like House of Parliament members are important before appointments are made. Above all, another crucial point that makes the case of Cameroon unique relating to independence is, because the act that establishes anti-corruption agency (NACC) is executive instead of parliament like in other countries

Another important justification of the positions taken above is premised on what I personally encountered during the field work or data collection process in the three countries. The practical experience though, cannot be detailed; the corruption in Cameroon is great, one can encounter it in nearly all sectors and a large number of the people see it as way of life. It is the corruption level in Cameroon that made me to get just 7 interviews unlike Nigeria and Ghana where I got 10 each; because people are very unwilling to speak about corruption and its related issues. In Nigeria, the corruption level is also amazing, but the difference with Cameroon is that more people are getting to understand its negative effect more than the myopic/temporary gains. The case of Ghana was spectacular; because there seems to be more ethical standard everywhere I visited compares to the two other countries. To every foreigner I spoke to in Ghana, a key response I got is that 'Ghana is a free place.'

Anti-corruption policies and procedures along with the agencies that operationalize them are the major determinants of public trust especially, when a country invites the public to take an active role in monitoring the performance of its government, because of their preventive, investigative, prosecutorial, enlightening, managerial, and oversight functions (Fink 1995 & Comstock 2001).

## 6.2 Recommendations and Development Work

Corruption is a global issue of different dimensions, but the real corruption level in most Africa countries is disturbing. For this reason, I would first recommend that the global anti-corruption framework should be more African states inclusive. Transparency International for example should collaborate more directly with the different anti-corruption agencies in the different African states and not their governments in relation to reducing the high level of corruption in the continent. For the national anti-corruption strategies against corruption to be more successful; governments in different African states should increase the present funding levels of their different anti-corruption agencies.

‘Independence’ as a component of ethical governance took a lead position in anti-corruption related issues in Nigeria, Ghana, and Cameroon. It was stated that the presence of the ‘independence’ as a mechanism in anti-corruption crusade, strongly determines the availability and positions of most other ethical values and mechanisms. I would therefore, recommend again that anti-corruption agencies in the target countries and other African states should be granted more freedom in the areas of their operations by governments in these states.

Above all, it was noticed that the Cameroonian national legal framework as a part model for understanding anti-corruption policies and procedures in that country has very weak provision against corruption and unethical practices. I would also recommend that further researches should be conducted to understand the relationship between constitutional provisions and anti-corruption crusade (policies and procedures) in different countries of interest. Since “time” is a key variable that goes with performance; I would finally; recommend that further researches should be conducted to ascertain how anti-corruption crusade improvement is affected by time.

These recommendations are necessary for further development work in the areas of reducing corruption and operational procedures of anti-corruption agencies and other public institutions in the target countries and also other developing countries in general. From the Weberian and Riggsian traditions of public administration research, the position of the comparative method cannot be overemphasized. For this reason, more public administration researches that anchor on the administrative ethics doctrine should give special preferences to the comparative method, in order to understand the side-by-side effect and development of social phenomena in different developing countries.



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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1. THE INTERVIEW FORM

#### I VALUES AND INSTRUMENTS/MECHANISMS

##### *Values and mechanisms for fighting corruption*

1. What values and mechanisms do you think are necessary for anti-corruption crusade in this country?
2. What ways do you think corruption and other unethical related practices in the public service can be tamed in this country?

#### II PUBLIC TRUST

##### *Experts' judgements on public trust*

1. What is your disposition towards the setting up of anti-corruption agencies and do you think it is the best way to tame corruption and unethical practices in this country?
2. How would you rate anti-corruption crusade in this country?
3. What is your view that anti-corruption agencies in this country have boosted your country's image among international communities?
4. How would you rate this specific anti-corruption agency (ICPC/CHRAJ/NACC) effect on public trust or citizens in this country?
5. How willing are people to report corrupt and other unethical related issues to this specific anti-corruption agency (ICPC/CHRAJ/NACC) in this country?

#### III CORRUPTION AND THE CHALLENGES OF COMBATING IT

##### *Corruption as problem of different dimensions and the threats to combating it*

1. What is the most social ill discussed in this country?
2. How do you perceive/rate corruption and other unethical related practices in this country?
3. What are the challenges of anti-corruption crusade in this country?

## APPENDIX 2. INTERVIEWED PERSONS, JUNE 2011 – JULY 2011

Nana **Aboasye** (male). Programme Officer, Ghana Integrity Initiative, Accra in Ghana, 13<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Michael **Adu-Ezamyi** (male). Assistant Director, Public Sector Reform, Accra in Ghana, 14<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Benjamin D. **Ahianté** (male). Deputy Director, Federal Ministry of Tourism, Culture, and National Orientation, Abuja in Nigeria, 8<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Rosine **Amba** (female). Admin/Fin Officer, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Cameroon, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 20<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Bernard Heneberg **Asamoah** (male). Research Officer, Ghana Anti-Corruption Coalition, Accra in Ghana, 14<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Rubi **Asare** (female). Senior Investigator, Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice, Accra in Ghana, 16<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Samuel **Ashong** (male). Administrative Officer, Centre for National Culture, Accra in Ghana, 14<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Paul **Avorkah** (male). Deputy Director, Department of Community Development, Accra in Ghana, 13<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Sina **Babasola** (male). Head of Publication Department, Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Offences Commission, Abuja in Nigeria, 6<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Doline Afane Annie **Engono** (female). Programme Assistant, Transparency International Cameroon, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 23<sup>rd</sup> June 2011

Durrel Nzene **Halleson** (male). Legal Adviser, Transparency International Cameroon, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 23<sup>rd</sup> June 2011.

Nzovabet Kweto **Iteskel** (male). President, Student Union Government of Cameroon (ADDEC), University of Yaoundé Branch, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 20<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Valentine Harrison **Iyamu** (male). Director of Welfare, Student Union Government (SUG) of the University of Benin, Benin City in Nigeria, 10<sup>th</sup> July 2011.

Kareh E. **Koizah** (male). Research Assistant, University of Yaoundé, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 20<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Kefas N. **Magaji** (male). Commissioner, Nigeria Law Reform Commission, Abuja in Nigeria, 8<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Lewis Tekeh **Njofri** (male). Executive Officer, National Anti-Corruption Commission (NACC), Yaoundé in Cameroon, 23<sup>rd</sup> of June 2011.

Evelyn **Nunor** (female). Project Coordinator, Ghana Integrity Initiative, Accra in Ghana, 13<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Esien **Okonkon** (male). Deputy Director, Code of Conduct Bureau, Abuja in Nigeria, 8<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Sharon **Okpe** (female). Chief Superintendent, Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Offences Commission, Abuja in Nigeria, 6<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

**Olowaseyi** (male). Accountant/Asst. Program Officer, Zero Corruption Coalition, Abuja in Nigeria, 7<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Abel R. **Osemeahon** (male). Public Relation Officer, Student Union Government (SUG) of the University of Benin, Benin City in Nigeria, 10<sup>th</sup> July 2011.

Marius **Talla** (male). National Expert, United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) Cameroon, Yaoundé in Cameroon, 20<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Atiku Muh'd **Tanko** (male). Senior Officer in Public Enlightenment Department, Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Offences Commission, Abuja in Nigeria, 6<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.

Ebenezer **Yalley** (male). Vice President, Student Union Government (SRC) of the Ghana, Accra in Ghana, 15<sup>th</sup> June 2011.

Barrister Umoru D. **Yunusa** (male). Senior Legal Aid Officer, Legal Aid Council, Abuja in Nigeria, 7<sup>th</sup> of June 2011.