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## The Workplace Ethics of Public Servants in Developing Countries

Yong S. Lee

Young U. Kang

Hun J Park

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### The Workplace Ethics of Public Servants in Developing Countries

January 18, 2012

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Prepared for the 2011 Working Paper Series

The KDI School of Public Policy and Management

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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**ABSTRACT** 

Are the workplace ethics of public servants in developing countries as dismal as one

infers from the international corruption perception index (CPI)? A survey of 888

KOICA fellows of the class of 2010 shows that on a five-dimension workplace

ethics—work ethic, job competence, public service attitude, familiarity with ethical

rules, and expectation of ethical conduct to have a bearing on career advancement—

public servants in developing countries are not far apart from their counterparts in

Korea, although they are noticeably inferior to their counterparts in South Korea on

the subjects of work ethic and familiarity with ethical rules. Regression analysis

shows that the CPI of 2010, the economists' democracy index, and per capita income

are neither a good reflection of the workplace ethics of public servants in developing

countries, nor a signal indication of their moral and ethical leadership in public

agencies and organizational ethical cultures. The study finds that moral and ethical

leadership in governmental agencies, the adequacy of wages and salaries paid to

public servants, and organizational ethical culture are the institutional factors that

have the most significant bearing on the workplace ethics of public servants in

developing countries.

Keywords: Ethics, Work Ethic, Public Service Attitude, Public Servants, Developing

**Countries** 

JEL Codes: H19, H79, Z00

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### I. The Purpose of the Study

Literature in public administration provides that good governance is a foundation of governmental accountability and national economic development, and that the ethics of public management is an essential requirement for good governance (Lilla 1981; Cooper 2001). Pursuant to this line of reasoning, many scholars have attempted to measure empirically the ethical environment of public administration. Until most recently, however, the efforts had mainly focused on the advanced nations, including the United States, Canada, England, New Zealand, and Australia. In this case, scholars had a penchant for surveying the citizens to tell them what they think of the ethical practice of their (nameless) public servants (Nye 1997; Julnes 2011). As for "developing countries and territories," we have a dearth of information regarding citizens' perception of their public servants' ethical practice.

In the early 1990s, however, an international civil society organization,
International Transparency, began surveying all countries, including developing
countries, to measure their ethical environment of the public sector with a special
attention paid to corruption. In 1995, International Transparency published the first cpi
scores (corruption perception index) of the countries in the survey. The methodology of
the IP survey is to synthesize several surveys in each country, generally 5 to 10, to
compute its corruption perception scores. Invariably, the surveys seek the "perceptions"
of citizens, business men and women, and international traders in the country. Because
the IP survey combines several perception-based surveys it is generally assumed that the
result is reliable. Since 1995, IP reports every year the cpi scores and integrity ranking of
each country, and provides a global map of integrity in colors. Table 1 below is the

corruption perception index (cpi) that International Transparency reported in 2011.

Table 1 Corruption Perception Index of 2011 reported by International Transparency

Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score	Rank	Country	Score
1	New Zealand	9.5	44	Dominica	5.2	86	Serbia	3.1
2	Denmark	9.4	46	Bahrain	5.1	86	Sri Lanka	3.1
3	Finland	9.4	46	Mauritius	5.1	91	Bosnia/Herzeg	3.1
4	Sweden	9.3	49	Rwanda	5	91	Liberia	3
5	Singapore	9.2	50	Costa Rica	4.8	91	Trinidad	3
6	Norway	9	51	Lithuania	4.8	91	Zambia	3
7	Netherlands	8.9	50	Oman	4.8	95	Albania	3
8	Australia	8.8	50	Seychelles	4.8	95	India	3.1
8	Switzerland	8.8	54	Hungary	6.6	100	Madagascar	3
10	Canada	8.7	54	Kuwait	4.6	100	Malawi	3
11	Luxembourg	8.5	56	Jordan	4.5	100	Mexico	3
12	Hong Kong	8.4	57	Czech Rep	4.4	100	Sao Tome	3
13	Iceland	8.3	57	Namibia	4.4	100	Suriname	3
14	Germany	8	57	Saudi Arabia	4.4	100	Tanzania	3
14	Japan	8	60	Malaysia	4.3	112	Algeria	2.9
16	Austria	7.8	61	Cuba	4.2	112	Egypt	2.9
16	Barbados	7.8	61	Latvia	4.2	113	Kosovo	2.9
16	United Kingdom	7.8	61	Turkey	4.2	112	Moldova	2.9
19	Belgium	7.5	64	South Africa	4.1	112	Senegal	2.9
19	Ireland	7.5	64	Georgia	4.1	112	Vietnam	2.9
21	Bahamas	7.3	66	Croatia	4	118	Bolivia	2.8
22	Chile	7.2	66	Montenegro	4	120	Bangladesh	2.8
22	Qatar	7.2	66	Slovakia	4	120	Ecuador	2.7
24	United States	7.1	69	Ghana	3.9	120	Ethiopia	2.7
25	France	7	69	Italy	3.9	120	Guatemala	2.7
25	Uruguay	7	69	Macedonia	3.9	120	Iran	2.7
25	Saint Lucia	7	69	Samoa	3.9	120	Kazakhstan	2.7
28	United Arab Emig	6.8	73	Brazil	3.8	120	Mongolia	2.7
29	Estonia	6.4	73	Tunisia	3.8	120	Mozambique	2.7
30	Cyprus	6.3	75	China	3.6	120	Solomon Is	2.7
31	Spain	6.1	75	Romania	3.6	120	Kazakhstan	2.7
32	Botswana	6.1	77	Gambia	3.5	120	Mongolia	2.7
32	Portugal	6.1	77	Lesotho	3.5	120	Mozambique	2.7
32	Taiwan	5.9	77	Vanuatu	3.5	120	Solomon Is	2.7
35	Slovenia	5.8	80	Colombia	3.4	120	Kazakhstan	2.7
36	Israel	5.8	80	El Salvador	3.4	120	Mongolia	2.7
36	Saint Vincent	5.7	80	Greece	3.4	120	Mozambique	2.7
38	Bhutan	5.6	80	Morocco	3.4	120	Solomon Is	2.7
39	Malta	5.6	80	Peru	3.4	129	Syria	2.6
30	Puerto Rico	5.5	80	Thailand	3.4	129	Armenia	2.6
41	Poland	5.5	86	Bulgaria	3.4	129	Dominican R	2.6
43	Korea (South)	5.4	86	Jamaica	3.3	129	Honduras	2.6
44	Brunei	5.2	86	Panama	3.3	129	Philippines	2.6

129	Armenia	2.6	134	Niger	2.5	129	Honduras	2.6
129	Dominican R	2.6	134	Pakistan	2.5	129	Philippines	2.6
129	Honduras	2.6	134	Sierra Leone	2.5	134	Cameroon	2.5
129	Philippines	2.6	143	Azerbaijan	2.4	134	Eritrea	2.5
129	Armenia	2.6	143	Belarus	2.4	134	Guyana	2.5
129	Dominican R	2.6	152	Ukraine	2.3	134	Lebanon	2.5
134	Maldives	2.5	154	Nepal	2.2	177	Turkmenistan	1.6
134	Nicaragua	2.5	154	Papua N. Guinea	2.2	177	Uzbekistan	1.6
143	Togo	2.4	154	Paraguay	2.2	168	Angola	2
143	Uganda	2.4	154	Zimbabwe	2.2	168	Chad	2
143	Timor-Leste	2.4	164	Cambodia	2.1	168	DR Congo	2
143	Mauritania	2.4	164	Guinea	2.1	168	Libya	2
143	Nigeria	2.4	164	Kyrgyzstan	2.1	180	Afghanistan	1.5
143	Russia	2.4	164	Yemen	2.1	180	Myanmar	1.5
154	Guinea-Bissau	2.2	172	Burundi	1.9	182	Korea (North)	1
154	C. African R	2.2	172	Eq. Guinea	1.9	182	Somalia	1
154	Congo R	2.2	172	Venezuela	1.9			
154	Cote d'Ivoire	2.2	175	Haiti	1.8			
154	Kenya	2.2	175	Iraq	1.8			
154	Laos	2.2	177	Sudan	1.6			

A perusal of the IP perception data imparts a strong impression that the ethical environment of the developing world contrasts sharply with most advanced countries, albeit some notable exceptions (such as Russia). Although the IP data is a composite score of several independent surveys for each country and territory each year, IP asserts that statistical reliability is high.

While we have no qualms about the reliability of the IP data itself, we wish to note that the IP data is based on the <u>perceptions of those who are outside the public institutions</u> under scrutiny: individual citizens, and domestic and international traders. It is a widely-known fact in the discipline of survey research that survey respondents are subject to a number of biases stemming from such things as proximity, identification, and unique personal experience (Anderson and Tverdova 2003; Jimenz 2004; Julnes et al 2011); survey respondents tend to evaluate more positively those officials who are in

closer proximity to them. While they tend to favor those whom they can personally identify, they generally have a negative view of those whom they do not know, the so-called faceless bureaucrats. It is equally well-known that if survey respondents had a bad experience with one or a few of agency personnel, they show a propensity to lump all in the same basket, so to speak. Worse, when survey respondents have not had any direct experience with government officials, they form their opinions vicarioysly from the second-handed sources such as their family members and friends.

Given these idiosyncratic elements imbued with survey research, it would be useful to look for an alternative view if possible. One such alternative view in our case is to survey the perceptions of the public servants themselves inside the bureaucracy. Of course, the "inside" approach is just as problematic as the "outside" approach. One potential problem is that the internal respondents are largely insulated from the external environment, and that they may not be sensitive to the feelings of their clientele.

Moreover, they may also manifest a sense of self-righteousness and defensive attitude for what they do. Given the state of research, we have yet to understand how these biases play out in their response to a survey. If we are somehow able to overcome these biases to some extent, a survey of this kind should generate a fresh new perspective relative to the external perception data.

The purpose of this study is to experiment with the insiders' view of the ethical environment of public administration in developing countries by mitigating the potential biases stemming from self-righteousness. To mitigate the self-righteousness bias we designed the survey by asking the respondents to assess the ethical behavior of their peers and supervisors. A companion objective is to gauge whether the insider views

are in line with IP's corruption perception index. Our working hypothesis is that the public servants' perception of their own ethical environment would be different from, and more positive than, the outsiders' perception.

### II. Survey Data

To examine the views of public servants within governmental institutions in developing countries we surveyed the government officials in developing countries who came to South Korea in 2011 on KOICA (Korean International Corporation Association) fellowship for education and training. The KOICA, an ODA agency in South Korea, invites each year several thousands of aspiring young officials, mostly governmental officials, to provide a six to two year education and training in higher educational institutions in South Korea. For this experimental study we tapped this group to learn if the insider survey would yield useful data and warrant whether the survey of this nature may be expanded systematically to the population in developing countries.

We identified 888 valid e-mail addresses of KOICA fellows and mailed the questionnaire to them electronically. Those in the sample represented 59 developing nations around the world. Of 888, 347 (41.2%) responded to the survey. In order to garner yet another perspective, we electronically administered the same survey questionnaire to a group of Korean public servants who were enrolled in the KDI School of Public Policy and Management in which many KOICA fellows enrolled for one-year intensive study toward their Masters degree. Of 72, 28 (30%) responded to the survey.

The sample for this study is non-systematic, but we thought that it is good enough for the purpose of generating an initial impressionistic data.

The survey instrument included a total of 26 items which had been pilot-tested and adjusted for their reliability. The survey instrument is exhibited in Appendix A.

The practical objectives of this study are two-fold: one is is to produce a profile of the work ethic of public servants in developing countries and examine if it corresponds to the corruption perceptions index developed by International Transparency; and the other is to examine what institutional factors are related to and affecting the work ethic of public servants in developing countries.

#### III. Model

Our general hypothesis is that the <u>workplace ethics</u> (Dependent Variable) is related to and affected by <u>institutional and global factors</u> such as:

- The ethical (practice of institutional) leadership;
- Organizational ethical culture;
- Wages and salaries for public servants; and indirectly by the global factors such as:
- Per capital income; and
- Stages of democracy
- Corruption perception index

### A. The Measurement of the Workplace Ethics: the Dependent Variable

Drawing from the literature on Aristotelian virtue--the concept of the workplace ethics—the Aristotelian virtues—is conceptualized as comprising of five items: the respondents' perception toward their peer's (a) work ethic, (b) job competence, (c) public service attitude, and (d) familiarity of ethical rules, and (e) expectation of ethical conduct to have a bearing on career advancement (MacIntyr 1984; Cooper 2001).

The co-worker's work ethic is measured by asking: "How would you describe the work ethic of your co-workers? How diligently do they carry out their job duties?" The response is sought on a four-point scale with (1) Almost all (80 - 100%) carry out their duties diligently; (2) Most of them (50 - 80%) do; (3) Some of them (30 - 50%) do; and (4) only a small percentage do (less than 30%).

Job competence is measured by asking: "How would you rate the job competence of your co-workers in terms of their job-related knowledge, skills, and ability?" This concept is also measured on a four-point scale with (1) Almost all (80 - 100%) discharge their job duties efficiently and effectively; (2) Most of them (50 - 80%) do' (3) Some of them (30-50%) do; and (4) Only a small percentage (less than 30%) do.

The public service attitude is measured by asking: "How would you characterize the manner in which your co-workers treat or deal with the people coming to their office to seek help, assistance, or service?" The response is also recorded on a four-point scale with (1) All (80 - 100%) treat their clients courteously and with fairness, (2) Most of them (50 - 80%) do; (3) Some of them (30 - 50%) do; and (4) Only a small percentage (less than 30%) do.

The familiarity of ethical rules is measured in the same way by asking: "Formal or informal, how familiar do you believe your co-workers are with the agency's ethical requirements? The response is sought on a four-point scale with (1) Almost all

employees (80-100%) are familiar with the ethical requirement; (2) Most of them (50-80%) are; (3) Some of them (30-50%) are; and (4) Only a small percentage (less than 30%) are.

Finally, the promotion variable refers to an expectation among the co-workers that their ethical practice has a strong bearing on their personnel decisions such as job tenure and promotion where ethical practice means the exercise of honesty, personal integrity, fairness at work. It is measured on a scale of three with (1) They have such an expectation, (2) They are not sure, and (3) There is no such expectation.

Cronbach's reliability test shows that these five items form a reliable scale for correlational analysis, with Alpha being 0.77 with P=.000.

### **B.** Institutional Factors as Independent Variables

### (1) Ethical leadership

Ethical leadership means the ethical practice of managerial and institutional leaders. This concept is measured on five dimensions: (i) transparency, (ii) empowerment, (iii) trust, (iv) consensus-building, and (v) role model. These behavioral dimensions are drawn from leadership literature (McClelland 1970; Senge 1990; Burns 2003; O'Leary 2006; Kouzes and Posner 2007; Cooper et al 2008; van Wart 2008). To produce a clear picture of the so-called "two faces of power" (McClellan, 1971), the questions are structured along the bipolar dimension (positive and negative).

The concept of transparency is measured by asking: "When it comes to policy making, would you say that the leadership promotes openness, sharing information, and building consensus; or that they tend to be secretive, manipulative, and controlling?"

The response is sought on a four-point bipolar scale with (1) They promote openness

and act on it as much as they can; (2) They say they favor openness, but they do not act upon it; (3) They are not in favor of openness but keep things close to their chest; and (4) They are secretive, manipulative, and controlling.

The concept of empowerment is measured by asking: "When it comes to management, can you say that the leadership offers a vision for a better future, and empowers and inspires the employees, or that they are more interested in their own personal advancement, wield power, and indulge in self glorification?" The response is sought on a four-point bipolar scale with (1) They provide a positive influence on building a better future for all; (2) They are generally positive, but not effective, (3) They do not provide a positive influence (there is no such evidence); and (4) They are more interested in their personal advancement, wielding power, and indulge in self glorification.

The concept of trust is measured by an indication to the question: "Suppose that the leadership has made a mistake. Do you expect that they would acknowledge it and take responsibility, or that they would blame others and seek scapegoats?" The response is sought on a four-point bipolar scale with (1) They would admit the mistake and take responsibility; (2) They would do so but reluctantly; (3) They probably would not admit their mistakes; and (4) They are likely to blame others and seek scapegoats.

The concept of consensus building is measured by the way in which leadership is handling dissent. The respondents are asked to register their experience on a four-point bipolar scale to the question: "Suppose that you or your co-workers disagree with the management on policy issues and feel like voicing disagreement. Do you expect that the leadership would welcome the opposing views, or that they would suppress them?" The scale includes (1) They would welcome the opposing views; (2) They probably would be

open to the opposing views, but they may not seek them; (3) They probably would not appreciate the opposing views; and (4) They are likely to suppress the opposing views.

Finally, the concept of role model is measured by asking the respondents: "Reflect on the moral leadership of the top management in your agency or organization. What kind of example do you think they set for the employees and society at large?" The response is sought on a four-point bipolar scale with (1) They set good examples of honesty, fairness, and truthfulness; (2) They attempt to set good examples, but stop short of fulfilling them; (3) They do at times display morally, ethically questionable behavior; and (4) They set bad examples of favoritism, lies, political expedience, and corrupt practices.

Cronbach's reliability test shows that these five items represent the same dimension of ethical leadership forming a reliable scale, with Alpha=0.78 and P=.000.

### (2) Organizational ethical culture

Organizational ethical culture means the extent of (a) corrupt officials being promoted to higher position, (b) propensity of co-workers to whistle-blow corrupt action, (c) whistle-blowing being considered by peers as the right thing to do, (d) higher authority taking action on the reported corrupt incidence.

The first dimension, the probability of a corrupt official being promoted to a higher authority, is measured on a four-point scale from the question: "How probable is it that a corrupt official who has reputation of abusing one's authority and engaging in unethical conduct will be promoted to a higher position in your agency or organization?" The four possible responses are (1) Rarely happens (less than 5%); (2) Happens

sometimes (5-20%); (3) Happens frequently (20-50%); and (4) Happens almost all the time (more than 50%).

The second dimension is the probability of peers to whistle-blow on ethical wrong doing, and it is measured on a five-point scale with (1) Almost all (80 - 100%) would report the incidence, (2) Most of them (50 - 80%) would do; (3) Some of them (30 - 50%) would do; (4) A small number of them (less than 30%) would do; and (5) Probably nobody would do.

The third dimension is the attitude of higher authority toward whistle-blowing, and it is measured on a four-point scale with (1) The higher authority will appreciate your whistle-blowing; (2) You are not sure if the higher authority will appreciate your whistle-blowing; (3) Your whistle-blowing is likely to be frowned upon; and (4) You are likely to receive retaliation.

Finally, the fourth dimension is the liklihood of co-workers to approve or disapprove of whistle-blowing, and it is measured on a four-point scale with (1) Almost all of your co-workers (80 - 100%) would approve of your whistle-blowing; (2) Most of your co-workers (50 -80%) would approve; (3) Some of your co-workers (30 - 50%) would approve; and (4) Only a few percentage (less than 30%) would approve of your whistle-blowing.

Chronbach's reliability test shows that these four items can form a reliable scale for correlational analysis, with Alpha = 0.67 and P=.000.

#### (3) Wages and salaries

The adequacy of wages and salaries is measured in terms of the sufficiency of one's pay to support his or her family life (single or a nuclear family). The level of adequacy is measured on a four-point scale with (1) Meets about 80 - 100 percent of the family needs; (2) Meets about 60 - 80 percent of the family needs; (3) Meets about 40 - 50 percent of the family needs; and (4) Meets less than 30 percent of the family needs.

#### C. Global Variables

In addition to the institutional variables, we examine whether the work ethic of public servants in developing countries is indicative of the level of per capita national income, the stages of democracy, and the international corruption index.

The data on the national per capita income is borrowed from OECD's 2010 statistical report, and the stages of democracy from the 2010 democracy index, and the corruption perceptions index from the International Transparency report of 2010. These data are available on line for public consumption.

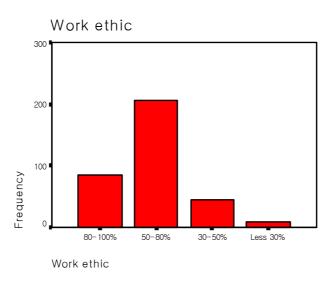
### IV. Results of the Survey

We first report the profile of the workplace ethics among public servants in developing countries and comparing them with those among South Korean public servants. We then proceed to examine the relationship of the workplace ethics of public servants in developing countries to the institutional and global variables, including ethical leadership, organizational ethical culture, wages and salaries, per capital income, democracy index, and corruption perception index. Since ethical leadership is a theoretically significant concept in its own right, we show the profile of each component item and the comparison with the profile of ethical leadership assessed by their South Korean counterparts.

### A. The Workplace Ethics of Public Servants in Developing Nations

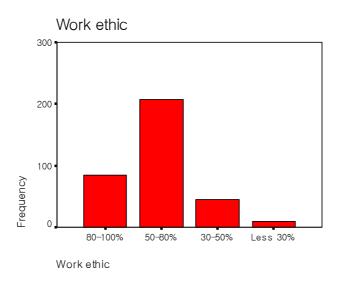
Figures 1 through 5 show the profile of each item in the workplace ethics, which is described by the specific numbers in a table form. Since the graphs and numbers in tables are self-explanatory, we provide no pedantic explanation.

Figure 1 The profile of work ethic among public servants in developing nations



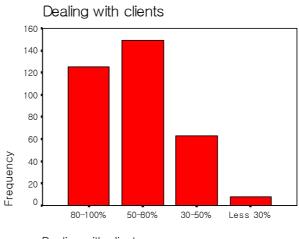
Work behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Almost all (80-100%) carry out their	85	24.6
duties diligently		
Most of them (50-80%) do	207	59.8
Some of them (30-50%) do	45	13.0
Only a small % (30 or less) so	9	2.6
Total	346	100%

Figure 2 The profile of **job competence** among public servants in developing countries



Job skills, knowledge, and	Frequency	Percentage
ability		
Almost all (80-100%)	67	19.3
discharge duties efficiently		
and effectively		
Most of them (50-80%) do	201	58.7
Some of them (39-50%) do	68	19.7
Only a small % (less 30) do	9	2.6
Total	345	100%

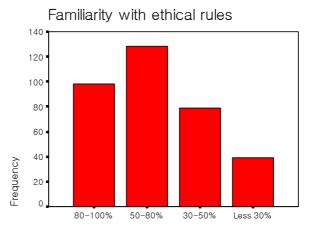
Figure 3 The profile of **public service** ethic among public servants in developing nations



Dealing with clients

Dealing with public clients	Frequency	Percentage
All (800-100%) treat their		36.2
clients courteously and with	125	
fairness		
Most of them (50-80%) do	149	43.2
Some of them (30-50) do	63	18.3
Only a small % (less 30) do	8	2.3
Total	345	100%

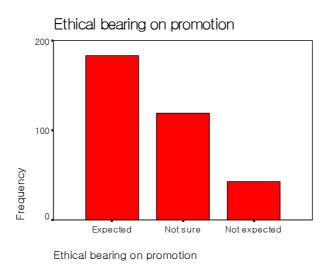
Figure 4 The familiarity of **ethical rules** among public servants in developing countries



Familiarity with ethical rules

Familiarity with ethical	Frequency	Percentage
rules		
Almost all (80-100%)		
are familiar with the	125	36.2
required ethical rules		
Most of them (50-80%)	149	43.2
do		
Some of them (30-50%)	63	18.3
do		
Only a small % (less 30)	8	2.3
do		
Total	345	100%

Figure 5 The expectation that **ethical conduct** will bear on career advancement.



Ethical bearing on career advancement	Frequency	Percent
Expected	183	53.0
Not sure	119	87.5
Not expected	43	12.5
Total	347	100.0

To interpret the profile of the workplace ethics among public servants in developing countries we compare their responses with those of their counterparts in South Korea. It is important to stress that this comparison is not intended to impart an

idea about their relative scores but to see the data in perspective. And yet, one cannot help noticing their relative differences and similarities. Although the differences are not statistically significant for none of these workplace ethics variable, the public servants in developing countries manifest slightly a lower score than their counterparts in South Korea except the fairness dimension in dealing with public clients.

Table 3 A comparison **workplace ethics** of public servants between public servants in **developing countries** and **South Korea** 

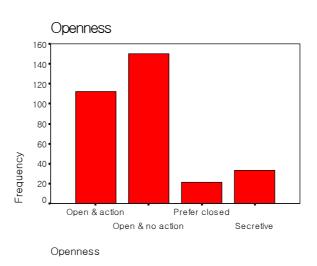
Dimensions of the workplace ethics among public servants	Developing countries (Mean index)*	South Korea (Mean index)*	T-Test of Two Independent Samples
	N=345	N=28	P values
Work ethic	1.93	1.50	.436
Job competence	2.06	2.00	055
Fair dealing with public clients	1.87	1.64	.224
Familiarity with ethical rules	2.17	1.61	.564
Ethical bearing on advancement	1.59	1.43	.166

<sup>\*</sup>Mean score range is that the lower the score the better the performance. For measurement refer to the measurement of variables in the Model section.

### B. The Profile of Moral and Ethical Leadership

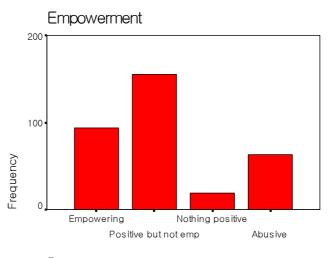
Ethical leadership is hypothesized as a major determinant for the workplace ethics of public servants. We first provide the profile of the ethical leadership because the concept is important in its own right. The profile is presented in Figures 6 through 10 with the specific numbers in each table that follows. Since the data are plainly descriptive, we provide no pedantic reading of the graphs and tables.

Figure 6 The profile of **open and transparent** institutional and managerial leadership



Leadership behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Open and take action	112	35.4
Open but take no action	150	47.5
Prefer closed	21	6.6
Secretive	33	10.4
Total	316	100%

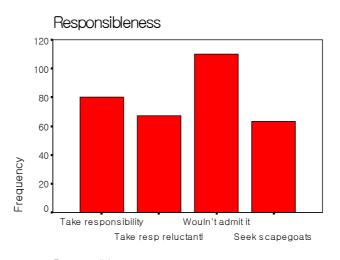
Figure 7 The profile of **empowering** institutional and managerial leadership



Empowerment

Leadership behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Inspiring and empowering	94	28.4
Positive but not empowering	155	46.8
Nothing positive	19	5.7
Abusive and exploitative	63	19.0
Total	331	100%

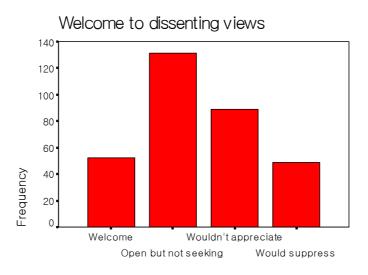
Figure 8 The profile of  ${\bf trusting}$  administrative and managerial leadership



Responsibleness

Leadership behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Take responsibility for mistake	80	25.0
Take responsibility for mistake reluctantly	67	20.9
Would not admit mistake	110	34
Seek scapegoats	63	19.7
Total	320	100%

Figure 9 The profile of consensus-building administrative and managerial leadership



Welcome to dissenting views

Leadership behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Welcoming disagreements	52	16.2
Open but not seeking them	131	40.8
Wouldn't appreciate them	89	27.7
Would suppress them	49	15.3
Total	321	100%

Figure 10 The profile of role modeling (setting good examples) administrative and managerial leadership



Setting good examples

Leadership behavior	Frequency	Percentage
Set good examples	92	29.4
Try but examples are short	144	46.0
Display ethically questionable	45	14.4
behavior		
Set bad examples	32	10.2
Total	313	100%

As with the workplace ethics, the comparison is not intended to determine which countries (between developing countries and South Korea) manifest better ethical leadership scores but to put the scores in perspective. On all five measures the ethical leadership scores consistently higher among South Korean institutional and managerial leaders, although the differences cannot be said statistically significant.

Table 4 A Comparison of the moral and ethical dimensions of institutional and managerial leadership between developing countries and South Korea

Moral & ethical dimensions of institutional and managerial leadership	Developing countries Mean index score* N=331	South Korea Mean index score* N=28	T-Test of group means from two independent samples (Statistical Significance_
Open & transparent leadership	1.92	1.67	.377
Inspiring & empowering employees	2.15	2.11	.316
Trust building	2.48	2.43	.067
Consensus building	2.42	2.56	.706
Setting good examples	2.05	1.84	.120

Index score represents an average score of each leadership dimension on a scale of "1" to "4" in which "1" is positive, "2" generally positive but not effective, "3" probably not, and "4" negative. For specifics refer to the variable measures in the Model section.

### **C.** Determinants for the Workplace Ethics

In the model we have specified several institutional and extra-institutional variables to be potential determinants for the workplace ethics. We now examine their strength and weakness in the equation. First, we show the results of zero-order correlational analysis between these independent variables and the workplace ethics. This zero-order analysis helps us the first order relations among these variables in the equation. We then show their interactive effects by regressing on the workplace ethics. Theses interactive effects help us understand which variables are most relevant and significant to the understanding of the dynamics of the workplace ethics. If an analyst for governance were to understand what needs to be done to improve the workplace ethics, the interactive effects show guidance.

Table 5 shows the zero order correlations (first-order) among all variables in the equation. A perusal of the table evinces that substantively strong and statistically strong relations exist among workplace ethics, ethical leadership, organizational culture, and wages and salaries. Surprisingly, however, these institutional variables—the factors inside bureaucracy—have no discernable relationship with such global variables as percapita income, democratic index (progress toward democracy), and IP's corruption perception index. It is interesting to note, though, that these global variables show statistically significant relations amongst themselves. For example, International Transparency's corruption perception index reflects the per capita income, as well as the stages of democracy of the countries under study. The higher the per capita income, the better the cpi score (less corruption) and the more progress made toward democracy.

Table 5 Bivariate Relations between Workplace Ethics and Ethical Leadership, Organizational Ethical Culture, Compensation, and Global Measures such as Stages of Democracy, Per Capita Income, and International Transparency's CPI

	WPE	EL	PAY	CULTRE	PCI	DEM
All						
WPE	1					
EL	.504*	1				
PAY	.426*	.380*	1			
CULTRE	.458*	.455*	.270*	1		
PCI	014	016	135*	.018	1	
DEM	.001	003	128*	.023	.081	1
CPI	.033	002	047	007	.437*	.210*

WPE: Workplace ethics EL: Ethical leadership PAY: Wages and salaries

**CULTRE**: Organizational ethical culture

PCI: Per capita income DEM: Democratic index

CPI: International transparency's corruption index

We now examine the interactive effects of all independent variables to see how they play out in shaping the dynamics of the workplace ethics. Table 6 is the result of regression analysis.

Table 7 Regression effects of ethical leadership, wages and salaries, organizational Ethical culture on workplace ethics

	Standardized	T	Significance
Predictors	Beta		G
(Constant)		1.654	.099
Ethical leadership	.320	5.689	.000
Wages & salaries	.258	4.939	.000
Org. ethical culture	.232	4.370	.000
Per capita income	.004	.075	.941
Democratic index	.000	005	.996
Corruption index	.033	.637	.523

R=.623; R Square=.389

According to regression analysis—and assuming linearity—the most important factor shaping workplace ethics is the moral and ethical leadership of an agency followed by wages and salaries and organizational culture. In this connection, stepwise regression analysis shows that ethical leadership accounts for workplace ethics (higher or low) about 28 percent (R=.533 and R Square=.281). The addition of wages and salaries variable to the equation improves the predictability of workplace ethics by about 6 percent (R=.588 and R Square=.345) and organizational ethical culture by about 4 additional percent (R=.622 and R Square=.387). Collectively, then, these three variables account for the variation of workplace ethics about 39 percent.

### V. Discussion and Conclusion

Workplace ethics is an important part of governance because it is sine qua non central to the production function at the street level of administration. Yet in the context of the developing world there is a dearth of research carried out to measure the work performance ethics—e.g., work ethic, job competence, fairness in dealing with public clients, familiarity with essential ethical rules, and the role ethics play in career advancement. All that we know of at the present time the workplace ethics in the developing world is an inference from the international corruption perception index (CPI) that International Transparency reports each year since 1995 and the problems of corruption reported by the studies sponsored by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. The inference is that developing countries are fraught with poor governance and poor workplace ethics among governmental officials (Zakaria).

Perhaps, the inference may be true, but before we reach this conclusion it is worth noting that IP's corruption perception data and other similar surveys are based on the perceptions of citizens and traders outside the administrative state. The outsiders' perceptions are subject to many biases such as proximity bias, identification bias, and plain stereotypes. In this study we decided to turn the camera lens <u>inside</u> the bureaucracy and ask civil servants directly how they assess their own internal ethical environment. The specific aim was to learn how public servants themselves think of their workplace ethics, the moral and ethical dimensions of their agency leaders and managers, and the ethical dimensions of their organizational culture. The insider survey has its own fault line. The insiders may have a propensity to defend their territory. If we could mitigate this self-righteousness, it may be possible to gain a less biased assessment. To that end we designed our survey instrument by asking respondents to assess their peers rather than to tell us their own work-related ethical conduct. This may not eliminate their defensiveness; yet we believed that this approach would yield a more objective assessment.

As we have shown it from graphs and tables, the result of our survey shows a picture of the ethical environment that is different from what we are told from the outsiders. The picture is not all that dismal as the IP data have us worry. Although the samples are unbalanced, when we compared the workplace ethics between public servants in developing countries and those in South Korea, the overall differences are not far apart, albeit some notable differences. As we have summarized the differences in Table 3, the biggest differences exist in work ethic and familiarity with ethical rules. While public servants in developing countries think that most of their colleagues are not working as diligently as they should, their counterparts in South Korea agree that most

of their colleagues are working diligently. The same is true of their familiarity with ethical rules. The public servants in developing countries are much less knowledgeable of their ethical rules (formal or informal) than their counterparts in South Korea.

The other interest in this study was to test the general hypothesis in organizational and management literature, which states that leadership, organizational culture, and the adequacy of wages and salaries makes a difference for the workplace ethics. We conceived of ethical leadership in terms of five dimensions (transparent administration, empowering administration, trust-building administration, consensus-building efforts, and manifestation of a good example). And we conceived of organizational ethical culture in terms of five dimensions (corrupt officials being promoted to higher position, propensity of co-workers to whistle-blow corrupt action, peer reaction to whistle-blowing, and propensity of higher authority to take action on the reported corrupt conduct).

In addition, we wanted to examine if the contextual factors such as per capita income, progress toward democracy, and international corruption perception index play any role in the dynamics of workplace ethics.

As we have shown in Table 7, workplace ethics are significantly influenced by in the order of ethical leadership, wages and salaries, organizational ethical culture. Together, these concepts account for about 39 percent of the variation in workplace ethics. This finding is of no surprise. What comes as surprise is the fact that we may not draw inferences about the workplace ethics of public servants in developing countries from their country's per capita income, stages of democracy, or IP's corruption perception index. These global, contextual variables seem to have no relationship to the workplace ethics; nor do they reflect the moral and ethical leadership manifested by institutional

leaders and managers, nor organizational ethical culture. This means that to improve the workplace ethics of public servants it is practically necessary for policy makers to appoint agency leaders and managers with ethical integrity among others who in turn shape organizational ethical culture.

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