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**An ethical leadership framework to curb corruption and promote good governance in
South Africa: A case of selected KwaZulu-Natal Municipalities**

By

Sihle Lloyd Ndlovu 215081029

**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Business Administration**

School of Business and Leadership College of Law and Management Studies

Supervisor: Dr. Emmanuel Mutambara

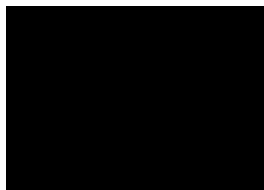
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Dedication

“Good thing comes to those who wait upon the Lord” (James 5:7-11). This dissertation is dedicated to the Almighty God for how far He has brought me. Moreover, an aspect of this dissertation is dedicated to Ndlovu family for their diverse support.

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- Thank you to the Most High the Almighty God whom He never failed me throughout this journey.

Abstract

The study investigated the effect of ethical leadership on corruption and good governance in South African municipalities. The pragmatist approach was employed to address the limitations in both the positivism and interpretivism. The study utilised the deductive and inductive approaches to investigate the social phenomenon. The mixed methods approach was employed to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data. The study was conducted in three municipalities within the KwaZulu-Natal province: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality, uMgungundlovu District Municipality, and Msunduzi Local Municipality. The target population for the study was 4000 which included junior employees, Municipal Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers and Office of the Mayors. The sample size of 351 was selected using both stratified and purposive sampling techniques. Interviews and questionnaires were used to collect the data. The quantitative data was collected from 225 participants, while the qualitative data was collected from 12 participants. Data quality was determined through trustworthiness, reliability, and validity. The quantitative data was analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, version 27.0. On the other hand, the qualitative data was analysed using NVivo, versions 12.0. The quantitative results identified the common manifestation of corruption in the three municipalities: fraud and bribery, mismanagement of funds, abuse of resources, procurement irregularities, unethical behaviour, and appointment irregularities. Moreover, the quantitative results showed the indicators of good governance, such as accountability and transparency. The regression model showed that ethical leadership predict corruption and good governance in the municipalities. The standardised beta value of corruption and good governance ($\beta = 0.556$, $p < .001$), ($\beta = 0.233$, $p > .005$) suggested that ethical leadership contributed more to the fight against corruption than promoting good governance. On the other hand, the qualitative findings showed that the fight against corruption can be won through strengthening anti-corruption agencies, effective legal frameworks, and allocation of resources for anti-corruption agencies, serve punishment for corrupt officials and accountability. Furthermore, the quantitative results showed a significant relationship between ethical leadership, corruption and good governance. The study is unique since it helps in the fight against corruption and promotion of good governance in the public service through ethical leadership. The study expands existing knowledge on ethical leadership, corruption and good governance. It recommends that the municipalities should continue to appoint and invest in ethical leaders to help curb corruption.

Keywords Accountability, corruption, ethical leadership, good governance, transparency

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List of Acronyms

AFU	Asset Forfeiture Unit
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AU	African Union
AUCC	African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption
BRICS	Brail, Russia, Indian, China and South Africa
DPCI	Directorate for Priority Crimes Investigation
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPID	Independent Police Investigative Directorate
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LGMSA	Local Government: Municipal Systems Act
MFMA	Municipal Finance Management Act
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
NPM	New Public Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAJA	Promotion of Administrative Justice Act
PCCA	Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act
PDA	Protected Disclosures Act
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PP	Public Protector
PPPFA	Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SADC	Southern African Development Countries
SAPS	South African Police Service
SIU	Special Investigations Unit

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Chapter One: Introduction and Background to the Study

1.2 Introduction

Corruption is regarded as a global phenomenon that no country is immune to, and it has been a well-known fact that it is more prevalent in less developed countries (Enste & Heldman, 2017). The scholars found that most developing countries over the years do score systematically worse in corruption ratings. Additionally, Mangafić and Veselinović (2020) confirm that shows that corruption is a widespread phenomenon, especially in Bosnia-Herzegovina. Sohail, Arslan and Zaman (2014) postulated that corruption is increasingly having negative implications on governments and organisations worldwide. According to Sohail *et al.* (2014), the World Bank has identified corruption as an impediment to firms' performance and social development. Similarly, a study conducted by Shabbir (2017) reveals that corruption affects the socio-economic and political factors directly and indirectly through the institutional framework in many countries. Shabbir (2017) further suggests that corruption adversely affects workers' performance, especially the public officials, weakens public policies, thereby resulting in the misallocation, abuse, and misuse of resources. Moreover, Naher, Hoque, Hassan, Balabanova, Adams and Ahmed (2020) corruption undermine Universal Health Coverage (UHC) goals of achieving equity, quality, and responsiveness such as financial protection, especially in the health care centre. Therefore, this research study explores how ethical leadership can be used to mitigate corruption and improve good governance in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) municipalities.

The chapter describes the background and overview of the study, focusing on ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance. It also describes the background of the research and problem statement. Moreover, it highlights the research aims, motivation of the study, objectives, questions, and significance of the study. In addition, it explains the research design and methodology that were adopted, research limitations, and composition of the research.

1.2 Background to the study

International trends suggest that corruption prevails in every country, weakening the development and good governance (Aliyev, 2015; Khan & Quaddus, 2015; Osipian, 2012). According to Andvig (2006), no universal definition exists on the term “corruption,” however, the most popular definition was propounded by Nye (2002), which explains corruption as “the behaviour that deviates from the acceptable behaviour within the public service. Conversely, Transparency International (2017) and World Bank (2014) postulate that corruption denotes

the abuse of public resources for personal gains. Factor and Kang (2015) also conceptualise corruption as the ‘use, misuse or abuse’ of public office or resources for private gain because corruption in general benefits only a selected few individuals. World Bank (1997) perceives corruption as the most serious hindrance to socio-economic development in every country. It has implemented several anti-corruption initiatives in its strategies to promote good governance worldwide. The World Bank (2014) estimated that approximately US\$1 trillion was lost due to bribery and corruption. The Transparency International (2016) reports that corruption is common in most European countries such as Poland, Russia, Serbia, Ukraine, Italy, Greece, and Kosovo. A study by Jain (2001) reveals that Asia is the most corrupt region in the world. World Bank (2014) indicates that in Asia, approximately 25% - 40% politicians and 15% - 33% public servants are corrupt. Besides, evidence shows that corruption was high in countries such as North Korea, Pakistan, Indonesia, Somalia, Southern Sudan, Afghanistan, Sudan, Myanmar, Iraq, Turkmenistan and Haiti (Zouaoui, Al Qudah & Ben-Arab, 2017). For example, a study reveals that Pakistan has lost approximately US\$94 billion in corruption, and tax evasion (Transparency International Pakistan, 2012). Similarly, a study done by Shabbir (2017) suggests that Indonesia lost approximately US\$238.6 million in 2011 due to corruption.

The situation described above is not far from Africa. Dimant and Tosato (2018) postulate that corruption affects every sector of an economy, especially in Africa. Likewise, Bonga (2021) believes that corruption derails success and development, and its costs are borne by the citizens, particularly in SADC. The most corrupt countries in Africa cited in the 2014 corruption index report include Angola, Papua New Guinea, Guinea- Bissau, Togo, Republic of Central Africa, Mozambique, Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Ghana, Gambia, Ecuador, Cameroon, Liberia, and South Africa. A comparative analysis of the corruption index report suggests that although corruption in South Africa is very low compared to other countries is a great source of concern for the citizens (Zouaoui *et al.*, 2017). The corruption index report further affirms the report presented by the African Union. According to Elbahnasawy and Revier (2012), corruption has cost Africa approximately US\$148 billion, which is equivalent to 25% of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In Nigeria, it was reported that the country lost close to 1.067 trillion naira (\$6.8 billion) due to widespread corruption and inefficiency (United States Department of State, 2012). The situation described in other parts of the world also prevails in South Africa.

According to Naidoo (2012), corruption remains one of the most significant challenges in

South Africa. Georgieva (2017) postulates that corruption in South Africa is rising based on corruption index reports released by Transparency International and other agencies. For example, the Afro barometer correction report released on 13 September 2017 indicates that South Africa was among the worst-performing countries when it comes to corruption since 2008. The report is contrary to countries like Botswana, Malawi and Mozambique, where the citizen expressed the view that their governments are making efforts to curb corruption (Georgieva, 2017).

De Lange (2011) points out that between 2010-11, the Auditor-General has uncovered approximately R26,4bn that relate to unauthorised, irregular, and fruitless expenditure in South African public service. Although the passage of several legal frameworks and implementation of anti-corruption strategies to curb corruption in public procurement, nearly 34% of government institutions continue to award themselves, close friends, and family members contracts (De Lange, 2011). Different factors were attributed to the seemingly increase in corruption within the South African public sector, including abuse and mismanagement of fund, bribery, procurement fraud and irregularities (Georgieva, 2017; Serfontein & De Waal, 2015; Manyaka & Nkuna, 2014). According to Manyaka and Nkuna (2014), although the numerous legal frameworks, policies, and strategies for curbing corruption, corrupt activities to thrive. From the findings above, it is not surprising that corruption remains a persistent phenomenon in South African public sector organisations. This assertion reaffirms the view of Kroukamp (2006:209), who states that corruption within the public sector is a great concern for many South Africans.

Mantzaris (2017) concurs that corruption is a burning issue and has taken government departments of forms in all spheres of life. In South African public sector, evidence points to corrupt activities, such as state capture, real political interference in massive contracts, and political deployments (Daily Maverick 2017; Corruption Watch 2014). The view expressed by the above scholars are consistent with Mantzaris and Pillay (2017), who argue that corruption in the public sector is a daily reality despite the comprehensive anti-corruption strategies implemented by successive governments. Munzhedzi (2016) also contends that the public procurement process within the South African public sector is an inseparable twin of corruption. This is because a significant part of government expenditure is spent on the purchase of goods and services, that contravened legal prescripts. Corruption Watch (2020) reports that corruption issues have plagued South African municipalities since inception in

2012 until the end of 2020. Annually, the Corruption Watch receives approximately 33 000 whistle-blower reports, of which 16% are related to corrupt activities. For instance, in 2020, more than 857 corrupt activities were recorded. The municipalities that were implicated in corruption-related reports include Johannesburg, Ekurhuleni, Tshwane, eThekweni, and Cape Town. This revelation reaffirms the Auditor-General of South Africa's (AGSA) findings, which state that South Africa lost about R32-billion due to procurement-related corruption. Moreover, evidence suggests that Eskom has debt amounting to R400 billion due to maladministration, mismanagement, corruption, and state capture (Crompton, 2019). In a similar corruption scandal, South African Airways was investigated for corrupt activities about the award of contracts and tenders without due regard for processes and procedures (Van Zyl, 2018). The analysis of the corruption cases presented above suggests that corruption is very prevalent in South Africa.

In the quest to curb the rising corruption in the public sector, several measures were proposed by scholarly researchers, civil society groups, politicians and legal practitioners. According to Pillay (2016), to address corruption, there is the need to solve the political/administrative conundrum evident in most municipalities. Pillay (2016) further advocates the need for collective leadership, which must be accompanied by strong political will. Naidoo (2012) contends that there is the need for ethical leadership. Ade'Agbude and Etete (2013) also confirmed in their study that ethical leadership is necessary to ensure the survival of Africa continent, restore the hope of the people in governance, and to ensure total sanitation of the society from corrupt practices. Brown and Treviño (2006) recommended that the best mechanism of dealing with unethical conduct in South African public organisations ultimately depends on moral and competent leadership. The scholars further argue that no leader in Africa can address corruption effectively as well as promote good governance, except that which is ethical (Ade'Agbude & Etete, 2013). Therefore, this study seeks to investigate how ethical leadership could be used as tool to address corruption as well as promote good governance within the municipalities in KZN.

1.3 Problem statement

According to Mathebula and Munzhedzi (2017), these days, ethics and leadership have gained popularity from several scholars and practitioners across the breath and length of the society. Studies (Goel & Ramanathan, 2014; Eluka & Chukwu, 2013; Taysir & Pazarcik, 2013; Jones & George, 2008; Arbogast, 2007) supported the view that in recent times, ethical leadership

and corporate governance have received a lot of attention from scholars because of corruption that occurred in most large corporations, including Arthur Anderson and Enron. Ethical leadership has been perceived as the ability of the leader to demonstrate ethical behaviour through personal actions as well as to promote appropriate ethical conducts among the subordinates (Alshammari, Almutairi & Thuwaini, 2015; Mihelic, Lipicnik & Tekavcic, 2010).

On the other hand, good governance has been defined as the way responsibility is discharged (Naidoo, 2012:66). Matshabaphala (2014) explains that good governance is centered on important attributes such as democracy, participation, transparency, responsive, equity and consensus-orientation. Matshabaphala (2014:1010) suggests that the public sector requires leaders with “ethical principles of strong values to promote goodness over badness through good governance, justice and fairness, honesty, integrity, and freedom”. According to Zheng, Epitropaki, Graham and Caveney (2022), ethical leadership focuses on shaping ethical employee behaviours.

It is suggested that ethical leaders are credible and trustworthy as compared with other leaders (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Ruiz-Palomino & Martinez-Canas 2014). These unique characteristics of ethical leaders distinguish them from ordinary leaders. In addition, ethical leaders actively inspire their followers by challenging them to demonstrate ethical values and conduct in their actions. To improve integrity within the South African public sector, an initiative called ‘*Batho Pel’e*, (people first) was launched. This initiative aims to monitor the performance of public servants as well as ensure compliance with ethical practices. Moreover, it has been argued that previous studies on ethical leadership research focused on leaders’ direct influence on employee attitudes and behaviours, whereas there has been less exploration of mechanisms through which ethical leadership elicits those outcomes (Moore, Mayer, Chiang, Crossley, Karlesky, & Birtch, 2019).

This above statement was substantiated by Mathebula (2014), who argues that although literature largely acknowledges the importance of ethical leadership, it is very difficult to find such leaders in South African organisations. According to Mathebula (2014), a typical example is former President Jacob Zuma, who benefitted unduly from the R240 million security upgrades in the Nkandla homestead. According to Kondlo (2015), the former president ought to have considered what is good. Compared to South Africa, Japan has strong ethical leadership in every sphere of government (Fan Liqun, Zhou & Zucheng, 2006). Saleh and Turki (2022)

acknowledged that ethical leadership helps to combat administrative corruption in public sector institutions. By contrast, Lekubu and Sibanda (2021) argued that there seems to be low ethics and morality in South African public service because of the lack of ethical leaders. According to Lekubu and Sibanda (2021), corruption is the greatest challenge that cannot be addressed without reference to ethics. Bashir and Hassan (2020) also agree with other scholars that ethical managerial leadership can reduce corruption in public organizations in developing countries. However, extant literature suggests that even though ethical leadership has largely been acknowledged by researchers around the world as a mechanism in addressing corruption and promoting good governance, such studies are only receiving merely lip service from researchers in South Africa.

Literature further reveals that although few studies (Kroukamp, 2011; Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christensen, 2011) in South Africa have acknowledge that ethical leadership curbs corruption and promote good governance, however such studies are inclusive. These studies failed to demonstrate whether the nature of the South Africa workplace, especially the public sector, allows for the effective functioning of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance. Against this background this current study aims to determine how ethical leadership could be used as a tool to mitigate corruption as well as improve governance system in public sector within the South African context.

1.4 Motivation for the study

This present study is motivated by the need to minimise corruption and improve good governance in South African municipalities through ethical leadership. It is a known fact that corruption has gained momentum in South African organisations, especially within the public sector (Naidoo, 2012). This study observes that although a comprehensive legislative framework on how to curb corruption and well-established anti-corruption agencies, such a phenomenon still thrives in the public sector, as public officials enjoy wide discretionary powers. This assertion reaffirms the similar discovery made by Gumede (2011:20), who points out that “there are still many ‘legislative gaps’ in South Africa’s corruption fighting infrastructure which includes, for instance, the gaps relating to how to deal with dual employment of public servants, how to manage conflicts of interest and how to deal with the ‘revolving door’ phenomenon, in which senior public servants and politicians, after leaving a job in the public and political sector – join the private sector in the same field, bringing with them all the inside information, contacts, and influence.” This study is motivated by the

increasing rate of corruption within the South African municipalities. This study is necessitated by the need to curb or minimise corruption through ethical leadership. The overarching question is whether ethical leadership help curb corruption and promote good governance?

1.5 Research aims

The aim of this study is to investigate how ethical leadership helps to eliminate corruption as well as improves good governance in the local government sector. Besides, the study aims to make appropriate recommendations on the strategies to be adopted by the institutions mandated to fight corruption in South Africa.

1.6 Research questions

The main research question is whether ethical leadership helps to eliminate corruption and promote good governance in South African public sector? Apart from the broad research question, the following specific research questions to be addressed are as follows:

- 1.6.1 What are the most common manifestations of corruption within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities?
- 1.6.2 What approach do the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities adopt in curbing corruption?
- 1.6.3 What are the indicators of good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities?
- 1.6.4 How do the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities identify the characteristics of ethical leadership?
- 1.6.5 How effective is ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities?

1.7 Research objectives

The research objectives that underpin the study are as follows:

- 1.7.1 To investigate the most common manifestations of corruption within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities
- 1.7.2 To determine the approaches adopted by KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in curbing corruption
- 1.7.3 To identify the indicators of good governance within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities
- 1.7.4 To analyse characteristics of ethical leadership within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities
- 1.7.5 To explore the effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities.

1.8 Contribution of the study

The contribution of this study cannot be over-emphasised. The findings from this study will expand existing knowledge on ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance globally. It will expand the frontier of knowledge in the field of Leadership Development and Corporate Governance. Another significant contribution of this study is that it helps curb corruption in South Africa and promotes good governance. The study also makes appropriate recommendations to the government, anti-corruption agencies, and the municipalities in South Africa on the approaches or strategies to fight corruption and promote good governance. Therefore, the outcomes are helpful to the government, anti-corruption agencies, and municipalities in fighting corruption and promoting good governance. Furthermore, the study helps to identify the common manifestations of corruption within the KZN municipalities. This serves as a valuable tool for the government and the municipalities when tackling corruption. Besides, the study will contribute to attract foreign direct investment. As indicated above, the study makes appropriate recommendations to the government and municipalities in the fight against corruption.

1.9 Research design and methodology

The pragmatism was employed as the main research philosophy underpinning the entire investigation. The pragmatist approach allowed the researcher to address the limitations in both the positivism and interpretivism. The study further combined both the deductive and inductive approaches to investigate the social phenomenon. The study was conducted in some selected municipalities within the KZN. The target population of the study was approximately 4000 which included only junior employees, Municipal Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers and Office of the Mayors. Out of the target population, 351 respondents were selected using both stratified and purposive sampling techniques. Interviews and questionnaires were the data collection instruments in the study. The research instruments were first tested through a pilot study.

The data was analysed in two phases, starting with quantitative data analysis and qualitative data analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (version 27.0) was utilised to analyse the quantitative data. The analysis and interpretations of the findings were done using descriptive and inferential statistics. The common descriptive statistics employed were frequency, mean, and standard deviation. The inferential statistics used included analysis of variance (ANOVA), correlations, regression, and sample t-test.

On the other hand, the NVivo, version 13.0, was used to analyse the qualitative data. Qualitative researchers mostly use NVivo to organise, index, code, and query journals for specific topics (Robins & Eisen, 2017). There are two techniques of analysing qualitative data, such as content and thematic analysis. However, thematic analysis was employed because it enables researchers to identify and organise themes that emerged from the dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The Social Science Research Ethics Committee approved the research protocol. Ethical considerations addressed in this study included anonymity and respect for the dignity of persons, non-maleficence, informed consent, voluntary participation, and confidentiality.

1.10 Limitations of the study

Every research has shortcomings that need to be communicated clearly and concisely. The limitations of this study cannot be under-estimated. The first limitation was the unwillingness of the participants. The participants feared that their participation in the study would affect their employment relationship with their management. The participants, especially the junior workers, may fear victimisation from their boss. However, the participants were assured that the data collected would be solely for its intended purposes. Another limitation was the busy schedules of the participants. The recruitment of the participants was challenging because of the nature of their work. Nevertheless, the researcher arranged with the participants regarding where and when they will be available to participate. Besides, the geographical location also served as a significant limitation to the study. The research was conducted in more than one geographical area. This requires extra effort, time, and resources. However, to overcome this challenge, the researcher allocated enough time, effort, and resources towards the study.

1.11 Organisation/structure of the thesis

The study has been structured into nine main chapters as follows:

1.11.1 Chapter one- Introduction and background to the study

This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of research problem, research aim, motivation of the study, key research questions, research objectives, contribution of the research, research methodology, organisation of the study, and research limitations.

1.11.2 Chapter two- Theoretical and conceptual framework

The chapter discusses the theoretical framework which guides the entire investigation. The objectives of the study will be integrated into the theoretical framework.

1.11.3 Chapter three- Corruption in South African public sector

This chapter reviews the literature on the concept of corruption. It covers the conceptualisation and contextualisation of corruption, manifestations of corruption, international and national regulations that help curb corruption, the analysis of the trends of corruption in different countries, including South Africa, causes of corruption in South Africa and strategies to mitigate corruption.

1.11.4 Chapter four: Ethical leadership and good governance in South Africa

This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature on ethical leadership and governance. The chapter is organised into two folds: ethical leadership and good governance. The former contains the conceptualisation and contextualisation of ethical leadership, qualities of ethical leaders, importance of ethical leadership, challenges faced by ethical leaders, and the linkage between ethical leadership and corruption. The latter concentrates on the conceptualisation and contextualisation of good governance, roles of stakeholders in good governance, indicators of good governance, and the relationship between ethical leadership and good governance.

1.11.5 Chapter five - Research methodology

The chapter provides extensive discussion and justification of the research methods adopted. It describes, among other things, the research philosophies, research designs, the research approaches to research, the research methods, the study location, the study population, sampling strategies and procedures, data collection instrument, pilot study, measurement scale, data quality, data analysis, ethical considerations, and research limitations.

1.11.6 Chapter six-Presentation and analysis of quantitative data

Chapter six presents and analyses the quantitative data collected from the respondents. The SPSS will be utilised to analyse the data. Descriptive and inferential statistics will be used to make sense of the data.

1.11.7 Chapter seven-Presentation and analysis of the qualitative data

The qualitative data collected via interviews with the participants will be presented in chapter seven. NVivo, version 13.0, will be used in analysing the data. The thematic analysis will be employed to identify, organise and report the themes and subthemes that emerged from the interviews.

1.11.8 Chapter eight-Discussion of the results

The chapter presents the discussion on the main findings in accordance with each objective as outlined above. The findings will be supported by empirical research.

1.11.9 Chapter nine- summary of the findings and recommendations

The last chapter presents the conclusion as well as the recommendations of the study. The recommendations of the study will be supported by empirical research.

1.12 Chapter summary

The chapter described the research background by focusing on corruption, ethical leadership and good governance. It also outlined the research aims, objectives and questions that guide the study. Besides, it highlighted the contribution of the study. Moreover, it described the research design and methodology to be adopted. It went on to outline the possible limitations of the study. Lastly, the chapter provided information on what is contained in each of chapters of the study.

Chapter Two: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews theoretical frameworks that underpin ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance. Moreover, it justifies the appropriate theoretical framework that supports the study. The chapter also contains the conceptual model developed out of the theoretical frameworks and empirical research related to ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance.

2.2 Theoretical framework versus theoretical model

In scientific research, ‘theory’ is adopted as a plausible general principle to explain research phenomena. According to Sunday (2015), a theory is abstract, which shapes both “what” the investigator sees and “how” he/she sees it. Sunday (2015) argues that theory allows the investigator to establish the link between the abstract and the concrete. A theory also guides research and organises its ideas. According to Sunday (2015), theories operate at three primary levels, namely: micro; (explains behaviour at an individual level), meso (explain the interactions of micro-level) organisations; and macro-level (the behaviour of large groups of people). There is a vast difference between theoretical framework and theoretical model. The section below provides the difference between the theoretical and theoretical frameworks.

A theoretical framework is a theoretical assumption that allows readers to assess them critically. It acts as the glue that connects the researcher to existing knowledge. Theories serve as the basis for the description, explanation, and prediction of the phenomena it relates to. Rengasamy (2016) postulates that a theory act as the backbone of the research irrespective of nature, whether quantitative or qualitative. Osanloo and Grant (2016) point out that theoretical framework represents “blueprint” for the investigation. It guides the researcher to build and support research study and provides the structure to define the research philosophy, epistemology, methodology, and analytical approach (Osanloo & Grant, 2016). For Kivunja (2018), a theoretical framework consists of a set of theories that underpin a specific subject matter. Swanson (2013) claims that theoretical framework represents the structure that a research theory. It guides the researcher through the research from the start to the end.

On the other hand, a theoretical or conceptual model is the logical integration and association of anything or everything in underlying thinking, structures, plans, practices, and research project (Kivunja, 2018). According to Ravitch and Riggan (2017), a conceptual model consists

of the researcher's thoughts on identifying the research title, the methodology to be employed, procedures and instruments, data analysis and interpretation, recommendations, and conclusions be made.

2.3 Theoretical frameworks that support the study

Different theories support the fight against corruption, including transformational leadership, distributive leadership, cognitive moral development theory, and social learning and ethical leadership (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; House, 1977; Kohlberg, 1969). Although the chapter reviews all these theories, the most appropriate theory underpinning the study is the ethical leadership theory.

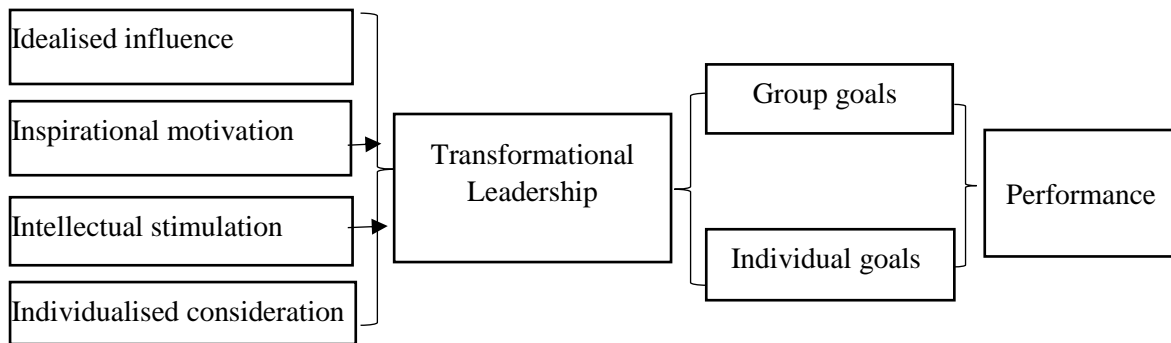
2.3.1 Transformational leadership theory

Bass (1985) explains that this leadership theory has four main dimensions, including idealised influence (the extent to which the subordinates are aware of the leader's value, norms, beliefs, powers, and ethical or moral orientation), inspirational motivation (determines the extent to which leaders articulate their visions to energise and motivate the followers to achieve the desired goals), intellectual stimulation (how leaders challenge the status quo and underlying assumptions, by inspiring the subordinates to find innovative solutions to problems), and individualised consideration (extent to which the leader acts as a mentor or coach to offer emotional support for subordinates) (Antonakis & House, 2002). According to Burns (1978), these dimensions allow transformational leaders to engage their followers to accomplish desired outcomes. Bass (1985) postulate that transformational leaders accomplish the organisational goals by motivating and transforming the subordinate through creating awareness of the organisational and personal goals, inspiring followers to work towards the achievement of the organisational goals and activating their higher order needs to inspire vision and act as role models in attaining the vision.

House and Shamir (1993) argue that leaders with this style of leadership provide holistic, interesting and attainable goals and encourage subordinates to look beyond their interests to realise the collective goals. Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) contend that transformational leadership infuses holistic and coordinated goals with moral purpose and commitment and influences members that the desired goals should be pursued rather than focusing on their individual goals. Research (House & Shamir, 1993) shows that transformational leaders invest their resources towards achieving holistic goals. Steinmann, Klug and Maier (2018) postulate

that transformational leaders inspire their subjects to commit themselves to organisational objectives and realise performance outcomes beyond expectations. Figure 2.1 explains the dimensions of the transformational leadership theory and its outcomes.

Figure 2.1 Dimensions of transformational leadership and outcomes



Source: Adopted from Antonakis and House (2002), Burns (1978, 1985), House and Shamir (1993)

Figure 2.1 shows the dimensions of the transformational leadership. It also shows how transformational leadership positively influenced group and individual goals, thereby impacting on the organisational goal. Gillet, Fouquereau, Bonnaud-Antignac, Mokoukolo and Colombat (2013) confirm that transformational leadership has a significant impact on individual and organisational growth. This finding underscores similar view expressed by Bass (1985), who argues that transformational leaders motivate their employees, and this motivation enhances their performance. Transformational leadership allows organisation to deal with complex and recurring issues. Moreover, transformational leadership is important in managing organisational change.

Transformational leadership may be important in fighting corruption in an organisation because it requires leaders to demonstrated self-renewal towards the attainment of self-determination guided by high moral and spiritual ideals and sincerity of purpose in utilising the resources to achieve common prosperity for common humanity (Asamoah, 2017). According to Caldwell *et al.* (2007), the fight against corruption requires a leader who can acquire financial resources, balance competing demands through prioritisation, and manage resources efficiently to achieve the desired goals. These assertions underscore the importance of the transformational leadership.

2.3.2 Distributed leadership

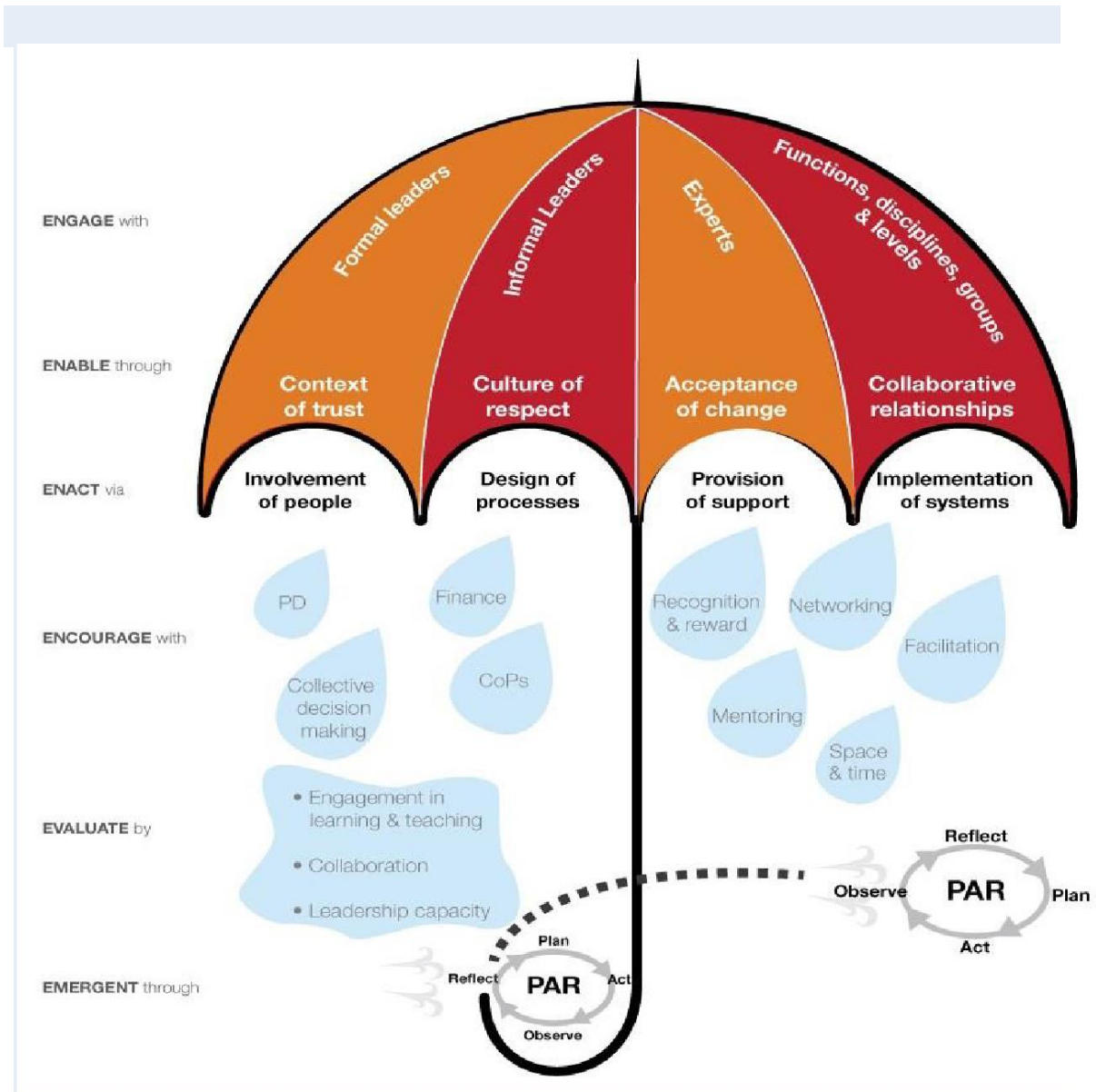
Hartley and Allison (2002) argue that fighting corruption requires strong, coherent leadership and pro-active political and administrative leadership. The assertion above underscores the importance of distributed leadership theory. The distributed leadership is a type of leadership where the leader moves beyond the traditional leadership models and highlights the roles that are to be performed jointly by politicians, managers and front-line staff. The distributed leadership is different from other leadership style, in the sense that it commands and controls leaders to think strategically when dealing with complex organisational issues. Badaracco (2001) suggests that the distributed leadership has become a popular leadership approach which encourages a paradigm shift in the leaders' attributes and behaviours towards a more systemic perspective, whereby 'leadership' is perceived as a collective social process.

Spillane (2006) contends that this leadership perspective shifts the attention from the attributes of individual leaders to 'situated leadership approach. Spillane and Diamond (2007) advocate that the distributed leadership perspective is based on two perspectives, namely, aspect of the leader and the practice aspect. The former 'acknowledges and takes responsibility of the work of all persons who are involved in leadership and management practice' rather than just those in formally designated 'leadership' roles. The latter focuses on the practice of leading and managing people (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). The distributed leadership has been perceived as a leadership style that involves collaboration and collectivism. These dimensions are based on the distribution of leadership between formal and informal leaders.

Malloy (2012) postulates that the distributed leadership perspective involves sharing and distributing leadership practices. Shared leadership in distributed leadership does not mean how people undertake specific tasks, but it is associated with the contribution of individuals in the leadership group to the body of knowledge (Korkmaz & Gündüz, 2011; Gronn, 2002). The proponent (Hoy & Miskel, 2012; Heller & Firestone, 1995) of this theory assume that the distributed leadership opposes the assumption that people should lead others to ensure change. Advocates of the distributed leadership argued that shared leadership is necessary because organisations are too complex to be managed by just one person. The distributed leadership supports the fight against corruption because it requires leaders to demonstrate trust and accountable in their decisions. The fight against corruption requires leaders with quality such as trustworthiness, honesty, integrity and moral ethics. The scholars such as Grant (2006), Blasé and Blasé (2001) and Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (2000) share similar view that the

distributed leadership focuses on building trust. Figure 2.2 shows the theoretical model on distributed leadership.

Figure 2.2 Distributed leadership



Source: Adopted from Harris (2007) and Badaracco (2001)

2.3.3 Cognitive moral development theory

Fraedrich, Thorne and Ferrell (1994) argue that cognitive theory explains business ethics and social issues within an organisation. The cognitive morale development theory was developed by Kohlberg (1969) who believes that most people make decisions through ethical dilemmas. This theory pays attention to the extent to which a person's behaviour transitions through

different moral levels and the extent to which these transitions influence and improve organisational operations and the morality of the members of the organisation. According to Kohlberg (1976), the theory is centred on the premise that the individual makes decision by going through six different stages that can be summarised into three broad levels, namely: “pre-conventional, conventional and post- conventional”. According to Crain (1985), the pre-conventional individuals also known as the “lowest level” strives hard to avoid being punished. At this stage, most people concentrate on their individual interests (Kohlberg, 1976). Moreover, at this stage, people determine what is right by obeying authority. Thus, individuals are willing to do the right thing by obeying authority and avoiding punishment.

At the conventional level, people defend their actions and behaviours through social relativism. Simply put, individuals’ behaviours are reinforced through building and maintaining long-term social relationships, and trustworthy. Kohlberg (1984) opines this form of moral reasoning allows individuals to focus on social expectations from the larger social system.

At the post-convention level of moral development, individuals use internalised moral principles and determine their choice of moral actions. At this stage, people display different set of behaviours to promote their welfare and respect for human rights (Kohlberg, 1984). Besides, peoples’ moral principles this level are universal and hence remain static across different social systems. Greenberg (2002) argues that post-conventional people often engage in unacceptable behaviours, including theft, while those at lower level are more susceptible to outside influences.

Sobral and Islam (2013) postulate that the cognitive theory assumes that morality is associated with cognitive reasoning. Moreover, it is based on the premise that moral development originates from an individual’s own thoughts concerning moral issues. Kohlberg (1969) suggests that social experiences play a useful role in a person’s moral development through stimulation of the mental processes. Thus, moral behaviour is rooted in moral and ethical cognitive deliberation. Wright et al. (2017) advocate those moral emotions can influence professional behaviour. The cognitive moral development theory may be useful in fighting corruption because it is based on moral and ethical principles. Schminke, Wells, Peyrefitte and Seborá (2002) also argue that cognitive morale development theory has shown a positive effect of fighting corruption. Figure 2.3 shows the levels as well as the stages in the cognitive moral development theory.

Figure 2.3 Levels and stages of cognitive moral development theory

Level of CMD	Stage of CMD
Post-Conventional <i>Shared standards Rights, duties and principles</i>	Stage 6: Guided by moral principle of justice.
	Stage 5: Social contract rules & laws of social good.
Conventional <i>Assessing personal consequences</i>	Stage 4: Judgments based on the relative rules and laws of society.
	Stage 3: Decisions based on the approval of others.
Pre-Conventional <i>Values based on external events</i>	Stage 2: Acting to further one's own interest.
	Stage 1: Acting to avoid punishment.

Source: Adopted from Kohlberg (1976, 1984)

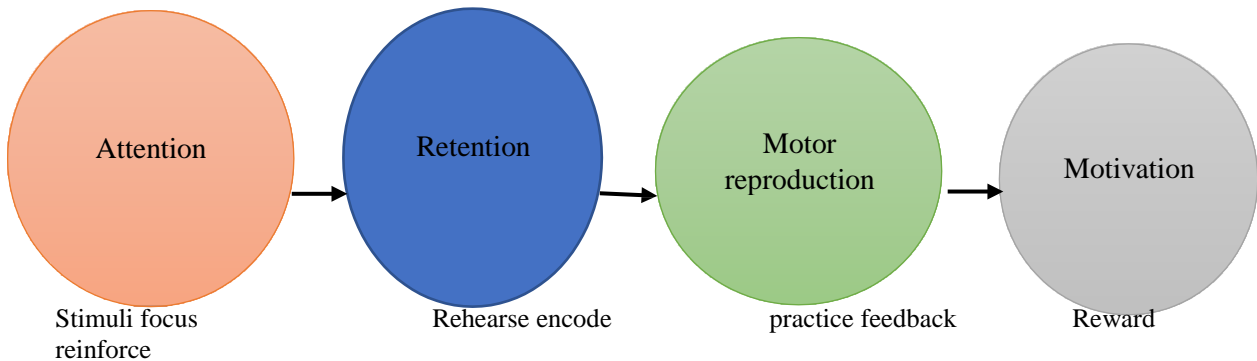
2.3.4 Social learning theory

It is a known fact that human beings are social creatures. Grusec (1992) argues the social learning theory provides a useful framework for one to understand how people learn through observational learning and modelling. This theory assumes that learning occurs in a social setting through observation. The theory holds that learning is cognitive processes, where people internalise and make sense of what they observe to reproduce the behaviour themselves (Jung, 1986). The theory holds that learning occurs at four stages (Bandura, 1969). The first stage is attention, where the learners focus on the behaviour. At this stage, the learner sees the behaviour that they want to reproduce. The second stage, retention, holds that individuals must internalise and retain what they have observed (Bandura, 1985). This involves cognitive processes where the learners mentally rehearse the behaviour. The third stage has to do with the state where the learners reproduce the behaviour observed by converting the information obtained into action. The last stage is motivation, where the learners imitate the behaviour observed (Bandura, 1969).

Decker (1986) contends that this theory believes that human behaviour is learned

observationally through modelling. The social learning theory could be seen as a useful approach to fighting corruption because explains how social norms are learned and internalised. This theory when applied in the South African workplace will help the employees and management to determine what is good and bad. Figure 2.4 shows the stages of the social learning theory.

Figure 2.4 Stage of the social learning theory



Source: Adopted Bandura (1969, 1985)

2.3.5 Ethical leadership

To curb unethical behaviour in the workplace, scholars and practitioners have prioritised the role of effective leadership (Wirba & Al-zoubi 2015). Kroukamp (2011) believes that leadership should promote public sector ethics. Africa is in dire need of ethical leaders, especially in the public sector, because of the rising corruption and bad governance. It is believed that ethical leadership could help combat corruption in the public sector organisations in Africa. Brown *et al.* (2005) observe that for leaders to be perceived or considered as ethical leaders, they should demonstrate qualities such as attractiveness, credibility, and legitimacy. These ethical leadership dimensions can be achieved through openness, honesty, and altruism. Toor and Ofori (2009) claim that leaders are required to exhibit utmost ethical conduct and moral standards in their daily behaviour, actions, and decisions to be a role models for others. Dickson, Smith, Grojean, and Ehrhart (2001) contend that ethical leadership significantly affected employees' ethical behaviour.

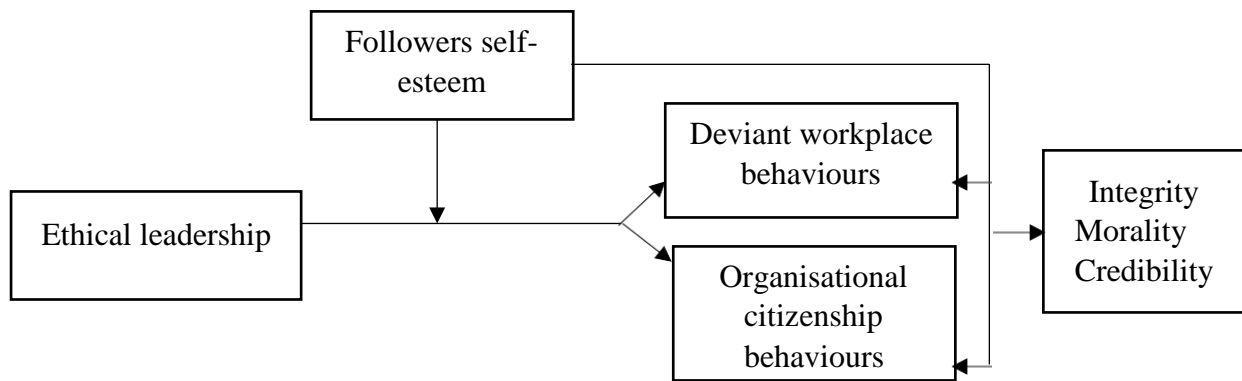
It has been argued that ethical leaders have the ability to strengthen the ethical behaviour of their followers through consistent communication (Likewise, Brown & Treviño, 2006). Yukl (2012) expresses a similar view that followers' ethical behaviour can be altered by ethical

leaders. One study (Van Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009) demonstrates that ethical leadership have the capability to strategically position and sustain an organisation successfully. Moreover, it is suggested that ethical leadership helps develop employees' competencies and direct employee energy towards the achievement of the organisational goals and performance. In their study, Van Den Akker, Heres, Lasthuizen and Six (2009) found that ethical leaders are considered moral persons and moral managers. Mihelic, Lipicnik and Tekavcic (2010) believe that ethical leadership concerns avoiding unethical leadership. Marsh (2013) suggests that ethical leadership could be learned from others through self-reflexivity, mindfulness, self- reflection, observation, and dialogue.

Scholars such as Hassan *et al.* (2014) and Schaubroeck *et al.* (2012) believe that ethical leadership positively influenced employee behaviour, thereby minimising absenteeism, and improving organisational commitment. Moreover, Thaler and Helmig (2016) argues that ethical leadership significantly influenced employees' perceptions and attitudes towards an organisation. Huberts, Kaptein and Lasthuizen (2007) identify three aspects of ethical leadership that help reduce unethical behaviours in an organisation, namely, role-modeling, goal setting, accountable, and openness.

Scholarly researchers such as Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes and Salvador (2009) and De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) have suggested that ethical leadership positively impacted follower prosocial behaviours and negatively impacted counterproductive behaviours, including deviance. It has further been found that ethical leadership significantly affected organisational citizenship behaviours through mediation task significance and followers' effort (Piccolo *et al.*, 2010). By contrast, Burris and Andiappan (2007) argue that ethical leadership has no effect on employee counterproductive behaviour. Figure 2.5 shows how ethical leadership organisational citizenship behaviours.

Figure 2.5 The link between ethical leadership and organisational outcomes

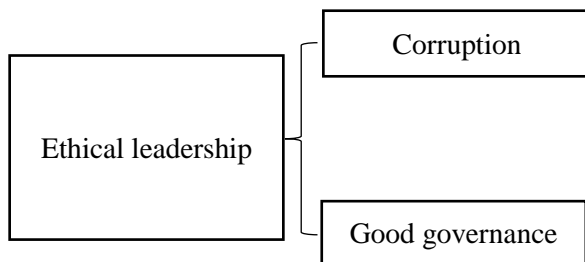


Source: Adopted from Avey, Palanski and Walumbwa (2010), Brown *et al.* (2005)

2.4 Conceptual model that supports the study

Figure 2.6 below depicts the conceptual model which explains how ethical leadership impacts corruption and good governance.

Figure 2.6 Conceptual model



Source: Adopted from Amanchukwu *et al.* (2015), Kraipornsak (2014), Roane (2013) and Brown and Treviño (2006)

The conceptual model was developed from the empirical works presented by the above scholars and the research objectives. The study observes that there is no specific framework on this topic. As seen in the framework, there are common manifestations of corruption in South African municipalities. The conceptual model suggests that the presence of ethical leaders within the public sector will help to mitigate corruption and, at the same time, promote good governance. Thus, ethical leadership has the potential to prevent or curb corruption. The explanations provided above supported the claim made by the scholarly researchers (Mayer *et al.*, 2009; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), who argued that ethical leadership significantly affected follower prosocial behaviours and negatively affected counterproductive behaviours, including deviance.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the theoretical and conceptual model that underpinned the research. It explained the difference between theoretical framework and conceptual model. The study adopted the ethical leadership theory. Extant literature suggests that ethical leadership positively influenced employee behaviour, thereby reducing the possibility of corruption. Furthermore, the literature review shows that ethical leadership could be learned from others through self-reflexivity, mindfulness, self-reflection, observation, and dialogue. The next chapter presents the literature relating to corruption.

Chapter Three: Corruption in South African Public Sector

3.1 Introduction

Corruption is now considered a global phenomenon, but it is particularly harmful in developing countries. Webb (2010) points out that developing countries seem to be most vulnerable to corruption. Soliman and Cable (2011) expressed a similar opinion that corruption is a serious concern for most developing countries because of the socio-economic effects. For instance, in South Africa, “corruption and fraud cost the taxpayers hundreds of millions of Rand each year” (Munzhedzi, 2013:284). Munzhedzi (2013) opines that procurement fraud and corruption have resulted from greater management autonomy.

Therefore, this chapter aims to review empirical research on corruption, particularly in the context of South Africa. The chapter begins conceptualisation and contextualisation of corruption across different countries, including South Africa. It also describes the leading causes and manifestations of corruption in South African municipalities. The chapter further discusses the international and national that prohibit various forms of corruption in South Africa. The chapter proceeds with analysing corruption index reports from 2009 to 2018 released by Transparency International. In addition, the chapter highlights the manifestation of corruption. Moreover, it concludes with a discussion of the approaches to curbing corruption in the public sector.

3.2 Conceptualisation and contextualisation of the term corruption

There are divergent views on the conceptualisation of the term corruption. Scholarly researchers (Bicchieri & Ganegonda, 2016; Dimant & Schulte, 2016) have argued that corruption is a multifaceted social issue, and the desire to engage in corrupt behaviour is multifaceted. Extant literature suggests that the term corruption has been conceptualised and contextualized in a broader context of crime. Mafunisa (2007:261) concurs that corruption is defined in several ways. Although there are divergent views on corruption, it appears that there are some common elements within the various definitions offered by scholars. For example, corruption refers to the abuse of public resources for personal gain. According to Heidenheimer (1970), corruption refers to behaviour that is different from the expected duties and responsibilities of a public role because of personal relationships. These behaviours include bribery, nepotism, and misappropriation (Thornhill, 2012:140).

According to Lewis (2011), the World Bank perceives corruption as the abuse of resources. From the formal definition, one will argue that corruption occurs when the state's resources are diverted into individual or private pockets. Moreover, it appears that corruption is attributed to the ability of the individual to perform a mandate with the desire to receive certain benefits (Bauer, 2005). The definitions above are similar to the one propounded by the World Bank (1997). An analysis of the definitions suggest that corruption occurs when the individual uses his to obtain certain benefits to the detriment of another person. However, the researcher observes that the definitions above are limited in scope. The definitions imply that corruption only prevails in the public sector. Therefore, there is a need for an inclusive and broader definition to cover public and private officials in all the sectors of an economy.

To Bukuluki (2013), corruption involves abuse of public office (or even resources) to obtain a personal gain/benefit. The commonality across these definitions is the notion of the misappropriation or abuse of public office for one's selfish interest or personal gain. From this perspective, it can be deduced that corruption mostly prevails in the public sector. Other scholars such as Coetzer and Snell (2013) and Park and Blenkinsopp (2011) defined corruption as behaviours that violate public service's official ethics and involve the abuse of power. This study disagrees with the notion that corruption prevails, especially within the public sector. The review of empirical works demonstrates that corruption is equally rife in the private sector. This assertion underscores a similar view expressed by scholars like Montiel, Husted and Christmann (2012) and Park and Blenkinsopp (2011). The recent definition also confirms that corruption relates to the abuse of public resources for one's selfish gain (Warf, 2017).

3.3 Indicators of corruption in South Africa Public Sector

The term corruption manifests itself in different forms (Lewis, 2011). Though corruption has been defined and viewed from different perspectives by scholars, politicians, and policymakers, there is a common agreement or consensus that it can manifest in various forms. The institutions such as United Nations Convention and National Anti-Corruption Summit have agreed that corruption may take different forms (Algoa, 2009). The common forms of corruption in government institutions are fraud, bribery, abuse of funds and resources, procurement irregularities, appointment irregularities, unethical behaviour, and criminal conduct (Public Service Commission, 2011). Researchers such as Roane (2013), Hoexter (2016), Pearsall and Hanks (2006) and Merriam- Webster (2003) identified the leading factors

of corruption in South Africa, including maladministration, mismanagement, misappropriation, misuse, and abuse of entrusted power. Transparency International (2011) has also identified various forms of corruption in South Africa, including procurement irregularities, abuse of resources, and bribery. According to Bruce (2012:15–28), procurement irregularities include “extortion and bribery, the involvement of the private sector with administrative officials, misappropriation, embezzlement, fraud or theft that includes abuse of telephones.” Bruce (2012) further identifies other forms of corruption, misuse of state resources, petty cash fraud, and political deployments. These common manifestations of corruption are discussed as follows.

3.3.1 Financial mismanagement

Bukuluki (2013) postulates that corruption represents the abuse of the public resource to obtain a private gain/benefit. Rangongo, Mohlakwana and Beckmann (2016) and Van Rooyen (2012) point out that globally, countries, including South Africa are confronted with financial management issues. Financial mismanagement has been conceptualised in the following ways: improper management resources, maladministration, and misappropriation of funds (Rangongo, 2016). Although the “Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999” mandates public officials or accounting officers to charge officials who make irregular, fruitless or wasteful expenditures, the situation is far from reality. Joubert and Van Rooyen (2008) allege that South African organisations are faced with financial management issues, managerial issues as well as limited capacity. Similarly, Laubscher (2012) points out that South African municipalities are under the pressure because of lack of financial control accountability. These social phenomena are as the result of corruption and financial mismanagement, leading to poor service delivery (Laubscher, 2012).

Gordhan (2014) opines that even though the South Africa comprehensive and progressive laws to address procurement-related challenges, lack of financial control continues to manifest in all spheres of government. Rangongo *et al.* (2016) contend that the common causes of financial mismanagement include lack of knowledge and understanding of finance management laws, appointment of incompetent public officials, improper monitoring and control of funds, inadequate policies of finance management, and employment and appointment of dishonest government officials. Moreover, research (Joubert & Van Rooyen, 2008) confirms that public sector organisations are faced with significant problems such as misuse and abuse of resources, lack of competent personnel and poor leadership. Likewise, Munzhedzi (2013) agrees that the

local sphere of government is often characterised by financial management challenges, such as corruption.

3.3.2 Procurement irregularities

Public procurement significantly influences a country's economy and public spending throughout the world because it is considered an indicator of government efficiency (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2017). Moreover, Fourie and Malan (2020) confirm that public procurement fulfills an essential role in stimulating economic growth. Since time immemorial, the South African government has acknowledged the critical public procurement play towards productivity through cost-saving initiatives and the application of the principles of economies of scale. Public procurement practitioners (Ambe & Badenhorst-Weiss, 2012) believe that public procurement concerns the government's responsibility to deliver goods, services, and infrastructure to citizens. World Bank (2020) reports that public procurement is a vehicle that promotes good governance. Public procurement includes different activities within the government that ensures effective and efficient service delivery (World Bank, 2020). For Mazibuko and Fourie (2017), procurement represents the acquisition of goods and services by government agencies when acting in public pursuit or interest. Arrowsmith (2010) advocates that public procurement represents the management activities such as planning and day-to-day administration of the country.

In South Africa, procurement process has been granted constitutional status. For instance, Section 217(3) of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996 requires that legislation be prescribed or promulgated to regulate procurement. The Constitution requires that the procurement process be fair, equal, transparent, competitive, and cost-effective. The Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) 1 of 1999 also regulates the public procurement process, where the National Treasury is tasked with the responsibility to develop regulations to ensure the public procurement system complies with section 217 of the Constitution (Watermeyer, 2011).

Apart from the above legal framework, "Supply Chain Management" was introduced in 2003 to promote uniformity in procurement reform processes to replace the fragmented procurement policies and practices. The SCM aims to improve the procurement process throughout all the stages (Ambe & Badenhorst-Weiss, 2012). Although the legal reforms, the South African procurement process continues to experience several predicaments (Smart Procurement, 2011). Moeti (2014) opines that the procurement process is characterised by fraud and bribery in most cases.

Transparency International (2011) identified various forms of corruption in South Africa, including procurement corruption. Bruce (2012:15–28) argues that procurement corruption includes “extortion and bribery, the involvement of the private sector with administrative officials, misappropriation, embezzlement, fraud or theft that includes abuse of telephones.” In a similar study, Munzhedzi (2016) argues that the most significant restrictive factor hampering public procurement is corruption.

3.3.3 Bribery

Bribery has been considered as the most common type of corruption (Munzhedzi, 2013). The term bribery has been considered as the most common and familiar among corrupt processes. In other words, it refers to the payment by entities or private individuals to public servants to influence their administrative decisions (Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). The term bribery has further been conceptualised as an immoral and unethical practice or behaviour where a person (payer) offers something, especially money in exchange for favour (Sathappan, Omar, Arif & Sathappan, 2016). Yun (2021) concurs that bribery is cooperation between corrupt parties which leads to extortion. Manyaka and Sebola (2013) argue that although the Constitution and other statutes prohibit all forms of bribery in the South African organisations, the situation is far from over.

3.3.4 Fraud

Fraud consists of actions or behaviours, particularly by public servants, other persons or entities with the intention of influencing someone to offer certain benefits that they do not deserve (Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). For example, when a public official registers a fictitious worker with sole purpose of collecting the salary of that fictitious worker. According to Zahra, Priem and Rasheed (2005), fraud is the deliberate actions taken by some personalities, especially at the managerial positions to influence, con, persuade, swindle, or cheat investors. Fraud may take different forms, namely: lying, failure to disclose information and cover-ups.

Fraud has further been described as practices involving financial crimes, including money laundering and financial discrepancies for personal gain (Sitorus, 2008). According to Akers and Bellovary (2006), fraud represents deceiving others in pursuit of personal gain. Dycks, Morse and Zingales (2021) concurred that fraud encompasses practices such as nondisclosure and misrepresentation. Similarly, Harrison (2014) defines fraud as any unethical businesses deals which has the tendency to result in financial loss to the victims. It has been discovered

that fraud cost the African continent approximately \$5.5 billion in 2012 (Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG), 2013).

In South African public sector, evidence suggests that the common form of corruption include fraud (Munzhedzi, 2016). Munzhedzi (2013) concurs that procurement fraud cost within the South African taxpayers millions of rand annually. Findings reveals that the principle of autonomy in the public sector results in excessive discretion and creates avenues for fraud and corruption since public officials are freed from traditional budgetary control measures (Munzhedzi, 2016).

3.3.5 Abuse of power

In South Africa, the Constitution prescribes the discretionary power to be exercised by public officials (Govender, 2013). For instance, principle of legality requires the government, local governments and other public officials to act within the powers. Moreover, the Constitution mandates the arms of government and state agencies to act independently. Russell (2004) posits that the desire of public officials to acquire power is a great concern for the South African government because it has the tendency to result in the misuse of resources for personal gain. Power abuse encapsulates the malicious, unaccountable and deceitful exercise of power (Roane, 2013). Power abuse occurs when public officials use their authority to improperly grant benefits to another person or organisation (Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). Zaiman (2007) suggests that power abuse has the potential to influence the actions, actions and opinions of others. It also violates civil order and hurts public interest. In most municipalities and departments in South Africa, evidence suggests that during a tender process, most departmental heads often express their desire to see certain contracts awarded to some specific contractors (Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002).

3.3.6 Conflict of interest

Conflict of interest is a universal term which cuts across various fields. Smith (2006) conceptualises conflict of interest as the conditions where professional judgement relating to a primary interest tends to be unduly influenced by a secondary interest. Herman (2010), however, defines conflict of interest from academic point of view. The authors argue that from academic perspective, a conflict of interest occurs when scholars or reviewers have interests that are not fully apparent which are more likely to influence their judgments. Handfield and Baumer (2006) postulate that conflict of interest, if not properly managed, it has the potential

to undermine the fundamental integrity of public institutions, officials and government. Tonder, Havenga and Visagie (2008) believe that conflict of interest is visible in South African public sector due to the competition of scarce resources, affirmative action programmes and organisational changes. In Tanzania, a study by Mallya (2012) suggests that the infrastructure for addressing the potential cause of conflict of interest is almost absent. van Greunen, Venter and Sharp (2021), in their study, found that conflict of interest impacts knowledge-sharing intention within the knowledge-intensive industry.

3.3.7 Favouritism

Favouritism is considered as common behaviour in the workplace which has been criticised as unprofessional conduct. Favouritism is considered a preferential treatment offered to a person because of his/her connections with others in the organisation (Loewe, Blume, Schönleber, Seibert, Speer & Voss, 2007). Bramouille and Goyal (20116) considered favouritism as the practice where an individual receives better treatments as compared to others because of his/her relationship with the one offering the benefits. Sometimes, the preferential treatment can be deliberate, for instance, an employer decided to assign the choicest responsibilities to the most veteran worker or hotshot upstart by justifying that his/her abilities need extra attention and task. Clark (2014) concurs that treatment based on merits or performance does not amount to favouritism.

It has been argued that favouritism is counter-productive, unethical and illegal (Guerin, 2014; Michael, 2012). For example, when managers assign responsibility or give promotion to employees based on favouritism instead of performance, the company is more likely not to attract sufficiently qualified persons for the job. It has been found that favouritism discourages excellent performance and encourages mediocrity (Guerin, 2014; King, 2012). In South Africa, it is illegal to offer promotion to whites at the expense of the blacks (Guerin, 2014). According to Hrab (2012), favouritism reduces employee commitment, and morale.

3.3.8 Nepotism

Arash and Bavik-Ekiz (2006) postulated that favouritism and nepotism are common behaviours in the workplace. These terms (favouritism and nepotism) are often used synonymously. However, they differ in meaning. The term nepotism involves the situation where a person in managerial position ensures that his/her close associates or family are appointed to position they do not qualify or are awarded contracts. According to Ford – McLaughlin (1985:57), nepotism

is the misuse of office in favour of family members. In the context of employment relationship, nepotism refers to the practice of appointing relatives and friends to positions that they do not qualify (Arasli & Tumer, 2008).

3.3.9 Appointment irregularities

Transparency International (2011) in its report identifies various forms of corruption in South Africa, including appointment irregularities. Research (Napier, 2018) suggest that appointment irregularities are common phenomena in South African public sector. Kanyane and Koma (2014) that political appointment of officials without the qualification and skills had affected the performance of public institutions. For this reason, Koma and Modumo (2016) suggest that the appointment of public officials should be devoid of politics. In South Africa, the appointment of public officials is considered a mean to control civil service (Heywood, 1997). According to Mafunisa (2003), the politicised bureaucratic model grants the public office holders the power to decide how bureaucracy in public sector operates. For instance, in South Africa, the Cadre Policy and Development Strategy of the African National Congress (ANC) emphasises internal recruitment (Tshishonga, 2014). This suggests that the appointment of people into the public service is not based on competency and qualification; it is whom you know. This perspective supports the claims made by Tandwa (2019) that the deputy manager of Midvaal Municipality was asked to proceed on special leave for an allegation about irregular appointments.

3.3.10 Unethical behaviour

Public Eye (2018) reports that unethical behaviour is one of South African municipalities' leadership challenges. Bole (2014) points out that municipalities have suspended most of their leader for unethical conduct or activities over the years. For instance, in 2014, Ngaka Modiri Molema Municipal Manager was suspended on eight charges relating to unethical conduct. Similarly, the deputy manager of Midvaal Municipality was asked to proceed on special leave for an allegation about irregular appointments (Tandwa, 2019). Besides, a senior public official within the Msunduzi Municipality was suspended for unethical behaviour (Public Eye, 2018). Evidence suggests that the unethical behaviour of the suspended public official concerns the appointment of persons who do not have the requisite qualifications. Mbandlwa, Dorasamy, and Fagbadebo (2020) believe that South African municipalities are in a financial mess because of unethical behaviours such as reckless spending, interference in appointment and tender processes. McGluwa (2019) agrees with the above scholars that the suspension of the Mamusa

Local Municipality manager and Chief Financial Officer (CFO) was because of unethical behaviour.

Ngubane (2021) argues that the alarming rate of unethical behaviour in South African organisations requires moral and ethical leaders. Ngubane (2021) postulates that although South Africa's local government has Codes of Conduct, unfortunately, unethical behaviour worsens, eroding public confidence and leading to public protests for poor service delivery. Hegarty and Moccia (2018) suggest that several factors can be attributed to unethical behaviour in organisations, including pressures from shareholders concerning growth, financial losses, and greed. Gildenhuis (1997) proposes that unscrupulous public officials should be held responsible for their actions and activities.

3.4 Social and economic impact of corruption in South Africa

There are several social impacts of corruption worldwide, including the republic of South Africa. For instance, Rose-Ackerman (2008) believes that corruption distorts the allocation of economic benefits, leading to inequitable income distribution. In their study, Manyaka and Nkuna (2014) found that corruption in public sector is increasingly becoming a concern. It threatens livelihood, thereby resulting in poor service delivery. According to Lewis (2017), corruption exacerbates poverty, leading to consequences, such as debt increase, incapacity, mental despair, and despondency. Zucman (2015) also confirms that corruption imposes wide-ranging social effects on citizens. Lewis (2008b, 2011b, 2011c, 2014) asserts that corruption affects people's ways of life and well-being.

Lewis (2015) claims that corruption makes social development programmes unsustainable. Alexander (2016) contends that corruption is the leading cause of poverty and inequality, particularly Africa. Evidence suggests that countries with heightened citizen perceptions of elite corruption are robustly correlated with contentious political action, increasing general and anti- government protests as compared with those countries with low level of corruption (Lewis, 2021). In Africa, corruption is considered as intrusive. By contrast, Peiffer and Alvarez (2016) found that corruption in non-OECD countries minimises the possibility of anti-corruption mobilisation. Furthermore, research suggests that elite corruption results in social phenomena such as protest actions, increased poverty, poor service delivery, and low economic development (Hellmann, 2017). Another study found that corruption affects the poor and creates insecurity and danger (Igbuzor, 2012).

Scholarly researchers such as Habibov and Cheung (2016), Habibov and Cheung (2016), Habibov (2015), and Justesen and Bjørnskov (2014) have found that corruption increases the inequality gap. In their study, Habibov, Afandi and Cheung (2017) postulate that increases in corruption erode public trust. Another evidence shows that corruption, underdevelopment, and widespread political instability in Africa (Hammed, 2018). For example, in Ethiopia, a study by Megiso (2007) notes that corruption negatively affected the ongoing poverty alleviation programmes of the country. In a similar study, Neudorfer and Theuerkauf (2014) argue that corruption widens inequalities among different social groups, leading to political instability. Farzanegan and Witthuhn (2017) also observed corruption creates political instability. More findings also show that corruption increases poverty, especially in vulnerable communities (Transparency International 2016a). Extant literature corruption creates income inequality (Wong, 2016, Dobson & Ramlogan-Dobson, 2012, 2010, Andres & Ramlogan-Dobson, 2011).

There are numerous research that confirms that corruption influenced negatively on an economy of a country. For instance, Zucman's (2015) findings reveal that corruption is the primary cause of low economic development, especially in developing countries. Transparency International (2016) also confirms that most less developed countries, for instance, Bangladesh, Nepal, and the Philippines, are perceived as most corrupt. The economic development in these countries is low because of the seemingly high level of corruption, particularly within the public service. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2014) suggests that corruption in Bangladesh and Nepal produces the following consequences: undermines domestic resource mobilisation, increases dependency rate, reduces domestic investments, and worsens inequality gap. Alfada (2019) confirms that corruption worsens economic development. Ali and Solarin (2020) in their study, found that countries with higher corruption experienced an increase in higher military expenditures, thereby negatively affecting economic growth. According to researchers such as Holland (2016) and Wong (2016), corruption spurs an informal economy, where less well-off individuals can more readily participate and become economically productive. Another study suggests that corruption limits economic growth because of inefficient resources (d'Agostino, Dunne & Pieroni, 2016). In Brazil, a study shows reveals that corruption enhances business activity, and reduces unhealthy competition (Bologna & Ross, 2015).

By contrast, scholars such as Kato and Sato (2015) argue that corruption promotes economic growth. Research (Huang, 2016) suggests that countries such as South Korea and China have

experienced economic growth in spite of the high rate of corruption. Ali (2015) argues that the causes and consequences of corruption vary across stages. Therefore, actions towards the mitigation of corruption also varies from stages to stages. Likewise, Ugur (2014) concurs that corruption in less developed countries impacts economic growth and development.

3.5 International and national regulations which prohibit corruption in South Africa

In South Africa, there are both international and national laws that prohibit various forms of corruption. The international laws that prohibit bribery and corruption in South Africa include “United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC)”, “Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime”, “Southern African Development Community Protocol Against Corruption”, “Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions”, “African Union (AU) Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption”, and “UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime”. On the other hand, the national laws that help to combat corruption are the Constitution, Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, and Protected Disclosures Act.

3.5.1 International regulations prohibiting corruption in South Africa

South Africa belongs to several international bodies, namely: International Labour Organisation (ILO), African Union (AU), and BRICS. International laws regulate how the country should combat corruption. The South African courts have consistently applied international laws in most cases relating to corruption. Watermeyer (2011) postulates that these international laws or Conventions play a supportive role in combating corruption in member states. The common international laws that prohibit corruption in South Africa are “United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC), Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime, Southern African Development Community Protocol Against Corruption, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions and African Union (AU) Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption” (Watermeyer, 2011). These international laws are discussed as follows.

i. Provisions of United Nations Convention against Corruption of 2003

The UN Convention against Corruption was introduced in the last few years to assist member states in combating corruption. This Convention prevents and eradicates all forms of corruption

in member-state countries (Heimann, 2005). Chapter 1 of the Convention contains the purposes for which this Convention was introduced, namely: to provide a framework for combating; and to prevent, detect and eradicate corruption through policy coordination and legislation (Sandage, 2015; UN Convention, 2003). However, Chapter 2 provides a detailed explanation of the prevention of corruption. It outlines the responsibilities of the member states in the fight against corruption. The Convention requires every country signatory to the UN formulate and implement anti-corruption policies and practices (Sandage, 2015). The Convention further encourages countries to adopt or implement various measures to fight corruption (Sandage, 2015).

Despite the vital role of this Convention in the fight against corruption, however, it was discovered that several challenges affect the effectiveness of the Convention in member countries (Chappelet, 2016). It has been argued that the main challenges affecting the effectiveness of the Convention include compliance and existing multilateral anti-corruption treaties. Critiques suggested that some of the member countries failed to comply with the provisions thereof in the Convention (Brunelle-Quraishi, 2011). Therefore, based on this, the UN Convention against Corruption cannot achieve its intended purposes (Brunelle-Quraishi, 2011). In addition, critiques argued that the Convention is unable to sustain compliance in the long-time.

ii. African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption of 2003

The AUCPCC was adopted on 11 July 2003 in Maputo. The core objective of this Convention is to root out rampant political corruption in African (Snider & Kidane, 2007). The Convention identifies some forms of corruption and related offences. Article 4 of the AUCC contains classic examples of corruption and bribery and includes solicitation (Snider & Kidane, 2007). According to Carr (2007), AUCPCC, just like any other Convention, contains offences for corrupt activities.

iii. Southern African Development Protocol Against Corruption of 2001

Since the 1990s, several Conventions have been adopted by Southern African Development Countries SADC due to the increasing pressure from international bodies like UN and ILO, donor countries. The SADC Protocol is an important legal framework or Convention that aims to eradicate corruption in the SADC region and South Africa. Unlike other Conventions, the SADC Protocol refrains defining corruption but focuses on corrupt behaviours (Carr, 2007).

Article 2 of the Protocol aims to promote development, identify, punish, and eliminate all forms of corruption in all sectors. Article 3 of the SADC Protocol identifies several acts that may constitute corruption: illicit gain, embezzlement, trading in influence, and many more. The Protocol applies to acts such as solicitation, or acceptance, directly or indirectly, by a public official, of any article of monetary value, or other benefits. The Protocol states that although lobbying is not an offence, it is an offence if the intended purpose is to influence the other party to make decisions in favour of the person (Carr, 2007).

iv. United Nations Commission on International Trade Law on Public Procurement (UNCITRAL) 2011

This Convention is the most significant international instrument which fights against corruption in public procurement (United Nations Committee on International Trade Law, 2011). The Convention contains international best practices that procurement process in member countries. UNCITRAL aims to harmonise procurement processes in all the member state and has been lauded by experts as being unique relative to other international procurement texts. The Convention prescribes procurement procedures and principles that the member countries are required to complied with. The Convention is useful to those nations undertaking legal reform in procurement process (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017).

The UNCITRAL Model Law acts as a guide or directive on various aspects of the open tendering process, which includes inter alia best practices pertaining to communication during procurement process, suppliers or contractors in the procurement process, and suppliers' qualification. It also includes disclosure of information, criteria for the evaluation and award, rules concerning information sharing sought by bidders, rules in terms of the acceptance of the successful bid, rules relating to the way in which records of procurement proceedings are to be kept, procurement methods, and methods of receiving tenders (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017).

v. UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) of 2000

This Convention acknowledge that corruption represents an integral part of transnational organised crime and should be addressed as part of efforts to combat organised crime (Transparency International, 2006). The Convention recommends measures to improve integrity and mitigate corruption within the public sector. According to the Transparency International (2006), the Convention recommends that public authorities should adopt

independent measures to discourage the exertion of inappropriate influence on their actions. The Convention requests member countries to criminalise corruption, focusing particularly on bribery within the public service. It also recommends for adequate interventions to identify and punish corrupt officials. Moreover, the Convention requires criminalisation of money laundering as well as the establishment of a domestic regulatory and supervisory regime for financial institutions to combat money laundering (Transparency International, 2006).

3.5.2 National regulations prohibiting corruption in South Africa

Since South Africa gained its independence in 1994, the democratically elected presidents have introduced several interventions or mechanisms to combat corruption, particularly in the public sector. One of such mechanisms is the legislative framework. The fight against corruption cannot be successful without the support of the government legislative framework. Majila, Taylor and Raga (2017) postulated that curbing corruption is the primary priority of the South African government. Georgieva (2017) posits that South Africa has a broad policy or comprehensive regulations to fight corruption. The National Planning Commission (2011) reports that the South African government has promulgated several laws that provide an open, transparent, and accountable government. The legal frameworks which support the fight against corruption include the Constitution, Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, and Protected Disclosures Act (Diale & Holtzhausen, 2005).

i. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996

The Constitution is the foundation for all laws in South Africa, where most legislations are derived from. Section 41(1)(c) supports the fight against corruption because it encourages all governments and organs of state to provide an effective, transparent, accountable, and coherent government for the Republic as a whole. Section 195 of the Constitution requires that public institutions be governed by democratic values and principles such as promotion of a high standard of professional ethics; promotion of efficient, economic, and effective use of resources; transparency through timely, accessible, and accurate information; and accountable governance in the public administration (Naidoo, 2012).

Section 217 provides the constitutional basis for the procurement process: fairness, equity, transparency, competitiveness, and cost-effectiveness (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017). Section 217(2) states that the procurement process should be used to improve social and policy objectives to help address the challenges experienced by the previously disadvantaged groups.

ii. Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act 12 of 2004

This Act was promulgated purposively to strengthen measures or intervention that prevent and combat corrupt activities in South Africa. Moreover, the aims to provide for the offence of corruption and offences relating to corrupt activities, Addition, it empowers anti-corruption agencies to investigative corrupt public officials. It also ensures the establishment and endorsement of a Register to restrict certain persons and firms convicted of corrupt activities relating to tenders and contracts; as well as to place a duty on certain persons holding a position of authority to report certain corrupt transactions. (Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, 2004). According to Naidoo (2012), this regulation provides an institutional framework to strengthen government institutions mandated to fight corruption; prevents and combats corruption; as well as provides investigative measures in respect of corruption. The Act requires various departments to conduct periodical procurement audits in relations to projects that were imitated or undertaken to identify determine the weaknesses and malpractices that are associated with procurement process. However, the scholars suggest that the enforcement of this Act is ineffective, due to the level of corruption in the South Africa public sector.

iii. Protected Disclosures Act 26 of 2000

Protected Disclosures Act (PDA) 26 of 2000 on the other hand also contributes to curbing corruption in the South African workplace. The Act protects people who give information about unlawful or corrupt conducts in the South African workplace. The Act stipulates that criminal and other irregular conducts in organs of state are detrimental to good governance. However, Diale and Holtzhausen (2005) argued that this Act is ineffective in fighting corruption within the South Africa workplace because of several loopholes that have been identified. The authors argued that Act “falls short of the practicality of its provisions and (lacks protection for) current and future whistleblowers” (Diale & Holtzhausen, 2005:17). De Lange (2011) asserts that despite the numerous legislative frameworks, corruption is still on the rise. Gumede (2011) also confirms that “there are still many ‘legislative gaps’ in South Africa’s corruption fighting infrastructure. Among these legislative gaps are “dual employment of public servants; and management of conflicts of interest and how to deal with the ‘revolving door’ phenomenon” (Gumede, 2011:17).

iv. Promotion of Administrative Justice Act (PAJA) 3 of 2000

The PAJA aims to fight corruption in procurement process and public administration. PAJA

sets the parameters within which appropriate administrative actions must be taken against public authorities who contravened certain provisions of relevant laws. According to Sewpersadh and Mubangizi (2017), PAJA affects tender process and becomes particularly relevant when an aggrieved bidder opts to challenge a decision of an organ of state. It is suggested that an aggrieved bidder may resort to use the PAJA if he/she is dissatisfied with the relevant procurement legislations (PAJA, 2000).

v. Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (PPPFA) 5 of 2000

Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (PPPFA) gives effect to section 217(3) of the Constitution through the establishment of framework for the implementation of the procurement policy (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017). The PPPFA provides a comprehensive framework for the recognition of socio-economic components and the setting and evaluation of an award criterion. The PPPFA allows the organs of state to determine what specific goals to award points for but requires that any specific goal for which a point may be awarded must be clearly defined in the invitation to submit a tender (Audit Commission 2012). PPPFA aims to enhance the participation of historically disadvantaged individuals and small, medium and micro-enterprises in the public-sector procurement process. Watermeyer (2011) argues that the Act requires that specific goals may include ‘contracting with persons, or categories of persons historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination based on race, gender or disability and implementing the programmes of the Reconstruction and Development Programme’.

vi. Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) 56 of 2003

The MFMA is another statute which fights corruption in the procurement processes and systems in South Africa. Watermeyer (2011) notes that the provisions of the MFMA are similar to those of the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA), however, MFMA contains more detail regarding the procurement system. Chapter 11 of the Act establishes policies and procedures for implementing an integrated SCM process in local government. Section 112 of the Act requires local governments, including municipalities to adopt a SCM policy to promote fairness, equality, transparency, competitiveness and cost-effective in procurement process. Furthermore, the Act sets out the minimum requirements which the SCM policy must cover. For instance, the section 115 empowers the accounting officers to implement SCM policy to ensure that procurement process is done in accordance with the section 27 of the Constitution. These accounting officers are required to take reasonable steps to ensure that measures are in place to reduce the possibility of fraud, corruption, favouritism, and unfair and irregular

practices. The MFMA further sets out the criteria for award contracts to external entities. For example, section 168(1)(a) mandates the Minister of Finance to design and implement policies or guidelines applicable to municipalities regarding any matter that may be prescribed in terms of the Act.

vii. Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) 1 of 1999

The PFMA was promulgated to help modernise financial management and enhance accountability. The Act requires that public officials or ‘managers should be given the flexibility to manage their entities in the most effective and efficient way (PFMA, 1999: 35). It prescribes how finance and other resource are to be managed and applies to national and provincial government departments. The Act further sets out procedures for the efficient and effective management of revenue, government spending, assets, and liabilities. It also describes the tasks and responsibilities of government officials dealing with finances (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017).

viii. Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (LGMSA) 32 of 2000

LGMSA aims to address procurement-related corruption in South African local government. LGMSA requires the procurement entities to engage the services of private entities to carry out municipal services. The Act provides that when procuring such services, the municipalities must ensure a competitive bidding in accordance with the provisions of the MFMA. The sections 80, 81, 83 and 84 of the Act prohibit all forms of corruption, particularly in procurement process, because it sets out criteria that must be met by those entities or individual contractors awarded with contract to perform municipal services (Sewpersadh & Mubangizi, 2017).

3.6 Legislative gaps in curbing corruption

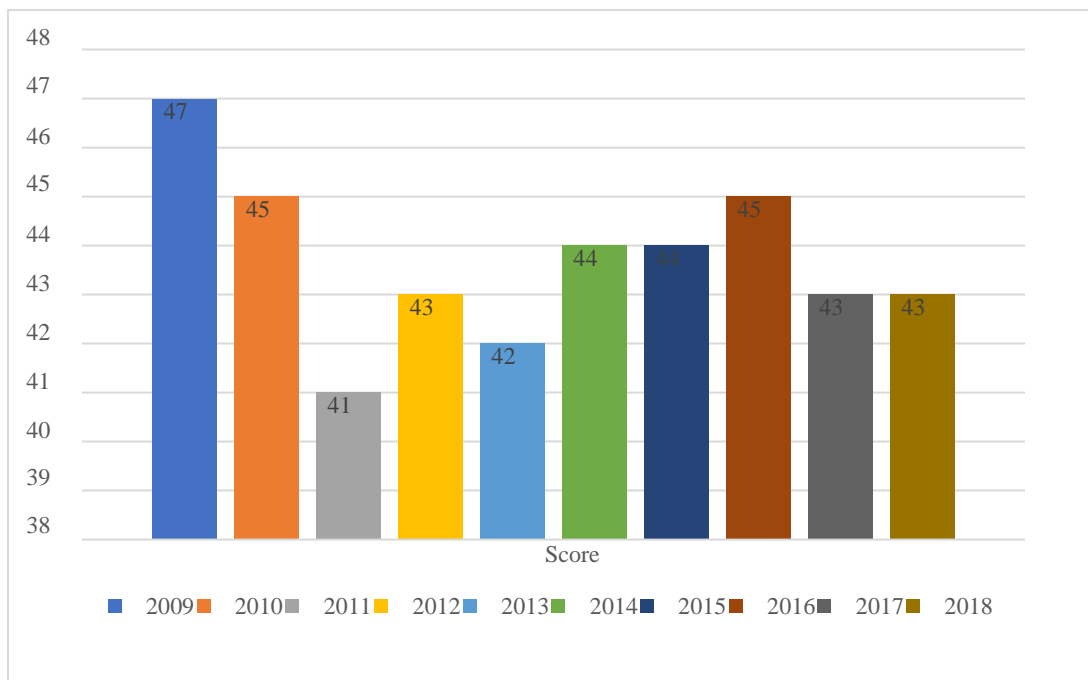
According to Masiloane and Dintwe (2014), although numerous legal frameworks were introduced to fight corruption in South Africa’s public sector, evidence of corruption remains epidemic. This suggests that the legislative framework alone is not sufficient in fighting corruption. The National Planning Commission (2011:446) also confirms that the anti-corruption legal framework is weak to protect, for instance, the whistle-blowers. The DPSA (2003) reports that South African anti- corruption laws are fragmented. According to DPSA (2003), capacity constraints are affecting compliance with the legal frameworks. It is safe to suggest that the anti-corruption legal frameworks are ineffective. Godi (2007) concurs that the

anti-corruption agencies cannot enforce and ensure compliance with the anti-corruption legal frameworks. Gauteng Provincial Government (2009) also reports that the anti-corruption laws failed to function optimally. Woods (2011:5) believes that the causes of corruption within the public sector are as a result of poor management. Messick and Kleinfeld (2001) contend that framers of anti-corruption laws and strategies need to ensure clarity and non-ambiguity of the law.

3.7 South Africa corruption index from 2009-2018

Bowen, Edwards and Cattell (2012) explained that South Africa has suffered from unprecedented high-level corruption over the years. The South African Corruption Report (2018) contradicts previous reports and empirical research on the state of corruption in South Africa. Although the comparative analysis of the corruption index reports revealed that corruption is relatively low in South Africa as compared to the countries in Africa, the citizens perceived corruption to be on the rise (Georgieva, 2017). According to Georgieva, 2017), the Afrobarometer report on corruption released on 13 September 2017 indicates that South Africa has been among the worst-performing countries when it comes to corruption since 2008. The report is contrary to countries like Botswana, Malawi, and Mozambique, where citizens expressed that their governments are making efforts to curb corruption. Figure 3.1 shows South Africa's scores in terms of corruption from 2009 to 2018.

Figure 3.1 South Africa’s corruption index report from 2009-2018



Source: Transparency International (2018)

According to the Transparency International (2018), South Africa scored averaged of 46.62 points from 1996 until 2018, reaching an all-time high of 56.80 points in 1996”. In 2009, the country scored 47 points out of 100. However, in the year 2010 the country scored 45 points. In the year 2011, South was scored 41 points out of 100. The year 2012 saw an increase where the country scored 43 points out of 100. Furthermore, the country scored 42 points out of 100 on the 2013 corruption index report released by Transparency International. The years 2014 and 2015 saw a further increase in the level of corruption where the country scored 44 points respectively out of 100. The year 2016 witnessed an increase in corruption, where it scored 45 points out of 100. In 2017 and 2018, the country scored 43 points respectively out of 100. The analysis of the figures suggest that the level of corruption was low in 2011. The 2018 Corruption Index Report paints a largely grooming picture for Africa, where only 8 of 49 countries scored more than 43 out of 100 on the index. The Table 3.1 shows the corruption index report among the G20 countries.

Table 3.1 Corruption Index among the G20 Countries

Country	Last	Previous	Range
Argentina	40.00	39	52.4 : 25
Australia	77.00	77	88.6 : 77
Brazil	35.00	37	43 : 27
Canada	81.00	82	92 : 81
China	39.00	41	41 : 21.6
France	72.00	70	75 : 63
Germany	80.00	81	82.7 : 73
India	41.00	40	41 : 26.3
Indonesia	38.00	37	38 : 17
Italy	52.00	50	55 : 29.9
Japan	73.00	73	80 : 58
Mexico	28.00	29	37 : 26.6
Netherlands	82.00	82	90.3 : 82
Russia	28.00	29	29 : 21
Saudi Arabia	49.00	49	52 : 33
Singapore	85.00	84	94 : 84
South Africa	43.00	43	56.8 : 41
South Korea	57.00	54	57 : 38
Spain	58.00	57	71 : 43.1
Switzerland	85.00	85	91 : 84
Turkey	41.00	40	50 : 31
United Kingdom	80.00	82	87 : 74
United States	71.00	75	78 : 71

Source: Transparency International (2018)

As reflected in the Table 4.1, South Africa scored 43 points in 2018 when compared with other G20 countries. The analysis of the corruption index report suggests that when it comes to corruption, countries, including Australia, Canada, Singapore, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States have performed better than the rest of the G20 countries. The worst performed countries are Argentina, China, Turkey, Mexico and Russia (Transparency International, 2018).

3.8 Factors that contribute to corruption in South African public sector

De Graaf (2007) argues that different factors can be attributed to corruption. However, these factors differ from country to country. For this reason, this study investigates the most common factors of corruption within the public sector.

3.8.1 Weak application of legal frameworks and oversight mechanisms

Since the transition, the new South African government has introduced the most innovative

and sophisticated legal frameworks to curb corruption, particularly within the public sector (Mle & Maclean, 2011; Manyaka & Sebola, 2013). For instance, the Constitution prescribes the fundamental principles that should guide public institutions in executing their duties (Manyaka & Sebola, 2013). However, there are a myriad of challenges that are visible in the public service pertaining to the implementation of ethical and anti-corruption measures (Public Sector Integrity Management Framework, 2011). The chief challenges include non-compliance with legal frameworks and lack of enforcement (Department of Public Service Administration, 2011). For instance, the audit indicated that the overall score for compliance with the legal requirements in provincial and national government was 47%. This revelation points to non-compliance with legal frameworks that regulate the functioning of the public service (Manyaka & Sebola, 2013). Gumede (2011:17) identifies the legislative gaps that impacted corruption in South African public service, namely: double employment of public officials; and poor management of conflicts of interest” (Gumede, 2011:17).

3.8.2 Insufficient political will

Mle and Maclean (2011) discovered that insufficient political will is another cause of corruption in Africa. Smith (2010) posits that in many nations, most people struggle for political power because of their private gain. Vyas-Doorgapersad (2011) postulates the widespread corruption allows politicians to act only in the best interest of the minority. Manyaka and Nkuna (2014) argue that most politicians have not shown a bold interest in fighting corruption. A classic example is the former president, Mr. Jacob Zuma, who benefited unduly from the taxpayers' money. AusAid (2007) suggests that political will can be determined by the political structure, political party's strength, and level of education. This assertion relates to the situation where the president, Jacob Zuma, reshuffled his ministers more than three times during the first year of his tenure on the allegation of corrupt activities engaged by most cabinet ministers.

3.8.3 Political deployments

Scholars such as De Waal (2012) and Thornhill (2012) identified political deployment as a cause of corruption in South Africa. Evidence suggests that the African National Congress (ANC) has come under serious criticism for its policies of appointment (Areff, 2012; De Waal, 2012; Thornhill, 2012). Social commentators have argued that appointments into the public sector organisations are seen as vehicles through which people are rewarded for their association to the political party. When this happens, it has the potential to limit the appointment

of competent people, thereby undermining institutional performance (Areff, 2012; De Waal, 2012; Thornhill, 2012). According to Areff (2012), due to the political deployment, corruption and abuse of resources become the fertile ground to breed often resulting in service delivery protests. Manyaka and Madzivhandila, (2013) claimed that the major problem that affect most government institutions is the lack of capacity.

3.8.4 Low wages

De Waal (2012) and Thornhill (2012) pointed out that low wages, paid to, especially public service workers exacerbate bureaucratic corruption in South Africa. The scholars argued most public officials often engage in corrupt activities because of inadequate wages and salaries. The scholars (De Waal, 2012; Thornhill, 2012) alleged that this phenomenon prevails mostly within the traffic police department and custom unit.

3.9 Approaches to fighting corruption in South Africa

Over the years, governments, including that of South Africa have adopted several approaches or strategies to curb corruption, especially in the public sector. The strategies are discussed as follows.

3.9.1 Strengthening anti-corruption agencies

According to Meagher and Voland (2006), the South African government has implemented an approach called the “multi-agency model” from the United States of America and Western Europe. The authors argued that the model ensures the implementation of mechanisms to deal with gaps, weaknesses, and new opportunities relating to corruption. Boone (2002:43) states that “South Africa has not less than twelve (12) anti-corruption agencies”. However, Majila (2012) suggests that anti- corruption institutions are ineffective in fighting corruption due to insufficient resources, political interference, inadequate laws, insufficient accountability as well as the non-involvement of the community. The author further adds that some of the anti-corruption agencies are without heads. A typical example is the Hawk, whose head was dismissed some years ago. However, Berning and Montesh (2012:7) suggest that the government should ensure that anti-corruption agencies are sufficiently independent to prevent political interference. Contrary to the above findings, study done by Georgieva (2017) reveals that South Africa has performed in the previous years better than any other country in Africa in the fight against corruption.

3.9.2 Renewed political will

It is suggested that to effectively combat corruption, a strong political will is required at all levels (Van der Merwe, 2006). According to Van der Merwe (2006), government officials must show their commitment towards the fight against corruption. Ankamah and Manzoor e Khoda (2018) contend that political will has been perceived as a barrier to the government's anti-corruption efforts. Ankamah and Manzoor Khoda (2018) suggest that although the political will is insufficient, the government and its officials need to fight corruption. Abdulai (2009) advocates that the political elite at the top leadership level must demonstrate genuine commitment to root out corruption. Kukutschka (2015) agrees with the above scholars that the absence of political will accounts for the increasing rate of corruption in most countries. Therefore, it is suggested that the fight against corruption requires political will and leadership commitment.

3.9.3 Investment in corruption research

Ruhiiga (2009) points out that corruption is a controversial topic in South Africa because it affects everyone. In the light of this argument, it appears that corruption is a concern for many people, including civil society. Ruhiiga (2009) suggests a need for scientific research to determine the causes, nature, and dynamics of corruption. Ruhiiga (2009) indicates that the government and stakeholders must invest in corruption research to fight corruption. Swanda and Nadiroh (2018) postulate that corruption is a serious social and economic issue facing many countries, especially Africa. Swanda and Nadiroh (2018) found that investment in research and anti-corruption education is essential for curbing corruption. The authors argue that anti-corruption research and education help create more awareness of the causes of corruption and strategies to address it.

3.9.4 Long-time anti-corruption strategies

Auaid (2010) argues that anti-corruption work plays a critical role in changing citizens' attitudes and behaviour towards corruption. Auaid (2010) suggests that long-time anti-corruption strategies must improve ethics, accountability, and integrity. To achieve this, there is a need for generational change. It is suggested that anti-corruption strategies require a long-term approach (Auaid, 2010). According to Hope Sr (2017), corruption persists in less developed nations although the proliferation of legal reforms and other anti-corruption strategies. Hope Sr (2017) proposes that to help curb corruption in developing countries, developing and implementing a long-time anti-corruption strategy is needed. The above

findings substantiated the similar opinion held by Zucman (2015) that fighting corruption requires an effective anti-corruption strategy. According to Zucman (2015), a long-time plan is the most effective to combat corruption, particularly in developing countries. Therefore, it can be argued that combating corruption requires a well thought and detailed strategies. The above recommendations are consistent with the provisions of the United Nations Convention, which required member countries to design and implement coordinated anti-corruption strategies to promote community participation and reflect the rule of law. Spector (2016) concurs that the effective implementation of anti-corruption strategies will help to promote a culture of trust, honesty, and accountability. It is suggested that the implementation of anti-corruption strategies should be a participatory process that involves engagement with all the stakeholders (Hope Sr, 2017).

3.9.5 Changing incentives for corrupt behaviour

Van der Merwe (2006) advocates that effective corruption reporting mechanisms are essential aspects of anti-corruption systems to the extent that their non-existence may breed corruption. For example, the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act requires all public service managers to report any corruption-related activity involving more than R100 000. Van der Merwe (2006) suggests that all the stakeholders must adhere to the anti-corruption laws to help address corruption in society. Hope (2017) claims that to minimise corruption, public officials must demonstrate the willingness to report any wrongdoing of their colleagues irrespective of their position. According to the International Monetary Fund (2016), there is a need for attitudinal change to combat corruption effectively.

3.9.6 Promotion of accountable governance

Accountability is the extent to which public sector officials are held accountable for their stewardship or actions (Iyoha & Oyerinde 2010). The principal-agent theory holds that corruption occurs when civil servants lack accountability. Rose-Ackerman (2013) believes that accountability helps to reduce the possibility of corruption by reducing information asymmetry between citizens and public authorities. It is suggested that public sectors officials need to act responsibly if they intend to fight corruption (Brusca, Manes Rossi & Aversano, 2018). One study suggests accountability provides an efficient and effective use of state resources (Heald, 2012).

In a similar opinion, scholarly researchers such as Hopper, Tsamenyi, Uddin and

Wickramasinghe (2009) and Alawattage, Hopper and Wickramasinghe (2007) advocate that publishing audit and accountability can help address unethical behaviours in an organisation. Likewise, Schatz (2013) recommends that social accountability mechanisms be inclusive and broad to help fight corruption effectively. Other findings also demonstrate that accountability reduces corruption, ensures compliance with standards and procedures, and improves performance and organisational learning (Mauro, Medas & Fournier, 2019). The first step is to create an accounting system that prevents theft in the public sector organisation to reduce corruption.

3.9.7 Transparency

Transparency can be understood as the extent to which citizens are informed about public policy decisions made. According to World Health Organization (2019), the principle of transparency demands that citizens be informed of their rights and entitlements. Evidence suggests that transparency deters unethical behaviour, thereby reducing the likelihood of corruption (Coicaud, 2016). Likewise, Mistry (2012) argues that politicians' governments can eliminate corruption by promoting information-seeking behaviour among citizens. Findings reveal that transparency increases accountability and reduces corruption (De Fine Licht, Naurin, Esaiasson & Gilljam, 2014; 2022). However, to promote accountability within the public sector, the officials must remain transparent.

3.10 Chapter summary

The entire chapter reviewed the literature on corruption. Extant literature shows that despite the numerous legal frameworks, corruption is still rising in South Africa. The literature identifies various forms of corruption within the South African public sector. Moreover, it has been observed that the factors that give rise to corruption in the South Africa include weak anti-corruption institutions, legislative gap, lack of political will, low wages, and political deployments. The chapter concludes with the recommendations regarding the approaches to curbing corruption, including implementation of long-time anti-corruption strategies, investment in corruption research, changing incentives for corrupt behaviour, and renewal of strong political will.

Chapter Four: Ethical Leadership and Good Governance

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviews the empirical literature on corruption, internationally and nationally. This chapter examines the literature on ethical leadership and good governance. The first part reviews literature related to ethical leadership, including the contextualisation and conceptualisation of ethical leadership, characteristics of ethical leadership, the importance of ethical leadership, challenges of ethical leadership, and the relationship between ethical leadership and corruption. The second phase of the chapter includes the conceptualisation and contextualisation of good governance, historical antecedents of good governance in South Africa, the role of stakeholders in governance in South Africa, indicators of good governance.

4.2 Conceptualisation and contextualisation of the term ethical leadership

Van Zyl (2012) believes that the South African public sector is characterised by unethical conduct such as corruption, fraud, and crime. Moreover, the public sector has been experiencing moral norms or unethical conduct, especially in the public procurement process and appointment of officials. To address unethical behaviour in the workplace, ethical leadership was introduced (Wirba & Al-zoubi, 2015). According to Brown *et al.* (2005), ethical leadership demonstrates normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships. According to Toor and Ofori (2009), ethical leaders are required to display ethical and moral standards in their daily behaviour, activities, and decisions to serve as role models for their followers. Ethical leadership reflects the will and ability of the leader to position, design, and sustain the organisation (Van Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009).

Additionally, it demonstrates the ability of the leaders to develop help the employees build their competencies to enable them to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently. Stouten, van Dijke and De Cremer (2012) argue that ethical leaders avoid causing harm to their followers and act in their best interest. Hegarty and Moccia (2018) identify seven components of ethical leadership that differentiate them from ordinary leaders: “gratitude, humility, justice, mercy and compassion, prudence and objectivity, magnanimity, and integrity and resilience.”

4.3 Characteristics of ethical leadership

Ethical leadership emerged in recent years to correct unethical behaviour of employees in organisations. Ethical leaders are different from other leaders because they are appealing, authentic and reliable (Yukl, 2013). As mentioned above, there are different attributes that

differentiate ethical leadership from other types of leadership styles. Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube (2015) in their study recommends that leaders should demonstrate leadership qualities such as technical proficiency, sense of responsibility towards the training and development of followers, seek and take accountability for actions taken, and effective communication. Osaghae (2010) in his study has identified some attributes and expectations of ethical leaders, namely: altruism; patriotism; humility; courage, boldness and determination. Kalshoven, Den Hartog and De Hoogh (2011, 2013) identify thirty behavioural dimensions of ethics leadership, including fairness, power sharing, role clarification, ethical guidance, people orientation, concern for sustainability, and integrity. Moreover, Hegarty and Moccia (2018:20) identify seven components of ethical leadership that differentiate them from ordinary leaders, namely: “gratitude, humility, justice, mercy and compassion, prudence and objectivity, magnanimity, and integrity and resilience”. These attributes are discussed as follows.

4.3.1 Gratitude

Gratitude has been examined from different perspectives. However, drawing on these intellectual traditions, this study presents a meta-narrative review of past and recent research on gratitude within much focus on the context of leadership. Peterson and Seligman (2004) refer to the term ‘gratitude’ as the leader's sincerity. From this perspective, leadership represents the humility of the leader in interacting with followers. According to Beck (2016), today, many people feel that they work in a vacuum and feel disjointed from their organisations; hence, a sincere leader is needed. Beck (2016) points out that the gratitude expressed by the leader leads to employee commitment. Bock and Folse (2016) believe that gratitude helps build employees' loyalty and dedication towards the leader. Wood, Joseph and Linley (2007) observe that although gratitude originated from religion, studies have only explored the personality characteristic. Grant and Gino (2010) contend that through gratitude, organisational performance can be increased. Fowler and Christakis (2008) also postulate that gratitude increases levels of happiness and satisfaction in an organisation. Allen (2018) outlines seven benefits of gratitude: increased happiness and positive mood, more satisfaction with life, and better physical health.

4.3.2 Humility

Humility is one of the virtues of ethical leadership that helps build a sense of positive hope and justice in the organisation (Klenke, 2005). In western culture, humility implies the ‘ground’ or ‘earth’ (Owens & Hekman, 2012), while in Eastern culture, humility means ‘modesty, and not

conceited'. From the perspectives of both cultures, people who demonstrate this leadership quality take initiatives to lower their status, do things down-to-earth, and view themselves and others in a bottom-up approach. According to Owens and Hekman (2012), humble leaders see themselves more objectively, appreciatively, and openly. These attributes imply that humble leaders focus on their personal and followers' growth and psychological freedom.

Humility refers to the dispositional quality that reflects a self-view that something greater than the self exists (Ou, Tsui, Kinicki, Waldman, Xiao & Song, 2014). For Jankowski, Sandage and Hill (2013), humble leaders demonstrate a self-regulatory capacity that directs them against excess. Peterson and Seligman (2004) confirm that the self-regulatory ability associated with humble leaders helps to minimise human vices, resulting in dysfunction over the long term, including hubris, self-aggrandizement, and pride. Vera and Rodriguez-López (2004) also expressed a similar view that humble leaders acknowledge limitations and mistakes and rectify them. Frostenson (2016) postulates that humility improves organisational performance through harmonizing the workplace and employee commitment. Jeung and Hoon (2016) point out that humility leads to employee empowerment and efficacy.

4.3.3 Justice

The word 'justice,' originated from the Latin *iustus*, governs the conduct of people and makes them understand others' rights. Research (Wang et al., 2010) suggests that organisational justice is a predictor of work attitudes and behaviours within the workplace. According to Reave (2005), justice is the highest priority of most employees since they want to be recognised for their contributions. From this standpoint, organisational justice acts as the predictor of employee motivation, leading to increase employee performance. According to Choudhary and Kumar (2011), justice is one of the priorities for human beings in ethical, political, and social dimensions. Greenberg (1987) defines organisational justice as the extent to which followers judge the behaviour of their leaders and organisations and how this behaviour is related to followers' attitudes and behaviours regarding the organisation. Foster (2010) also agrees that organisational justice represents the individual perceptions of fairness within organisations.

Research (Ndjaboue, Brisson & Vezina, 2012; Robbins, Tetrick, 2012) suggests that organisational justice affects employees' physical and mental health. However, Ajala (2016) suggests that leaders should desist from favouritism stereotyping. According to Syaebani and Sobi (2011), injustice can result in the followers' engagement in negative and even deviant

behaviour in organisations. Organisational justice has three dimensions: distributive justice (fair distribution of outcomes), procedural justice (fair decision-making), and interactional justice (fair treatment and communication) (Adams, 1965). It can be argued that followers may develop positive attitudes and behaviours when treated fairly by their leaders. Xu, Loi and Ngo (2016) found that ethical leadership behaviour increases employees' trust towards the leader.

4.3.4 Mercy and compassion

Hegarty and Moccia (2018) believe that although 'mercy and compassion are perceived as religious intonations, they are vital in the workplace. Mercy and compassion represent an in-depth understanding that the leader has difficult subordinates that will likely affect their performance. Mercy and compassion embody empathy and a commitment to non-belligerence and civil behaviour in the workplace. Briner and Pritchard (1997) contend that compassionate leaders seek the greatest good for their followers. Kanov, Powley, and Walshe (2017) postulate that compassionate leaders place their organisational interests above their interests. However, these leaders cannot make firm decisions because of their care and love for others.

4.3.5 Accountability

According to Othman and Rahman (2014) and Schwartz (1968), accountability constitutes one of the unique attributes of ethical leadership. Accountability is rooted in good governance and the fundamental values of a democratic society. Othman and Rahman (2014) point out that accountability includes duties and obligations, independence, sincerity, and collectivism. In South Africa, since the adoption of the Constitution, several financial management reforms have been initiated to hold people, especially the leaders, accountable for their actions (Tsheletsane & Fourie, 2014). The PFMA creates a culture of performance through the appointment of managers to manage and hold people accountable for their stewardship. The accountability and service delivery issues in South Africa require ethical leaders to take personal responsibility for their actions. Resick, Martin, Keating, Dickson, Kwan and Peng (2011) contend that accountability involves compliance with government regulations. Hardy and Van Vugt (2006) observe accountable governance eliminates unethical behaviours such as corruption, fraud, and misuse of state resources.

4.3.6 Integrity and resilience

Peterson and Seligman (2004) claim that the term 'integrity originates from the Latin word '*integritas*,' which refers to personal values that guide the leader's behaviour. According to

Koehn (2005), integrity represents an important leadership virtue that drives the leader towards achieving organisational goals. Knight and Tullberg (2012) postulates that organisations that prioritise integrity create a better working environment for their employees. This commitment towards the plays an important role in customer satisfaction. It has been argued that integrity increases organisational outcomes such as performance (Kar, 2014). Moreover, it has been argued that leaders with integrity are incorruptible because of their values. According to Van Wart (2014), leaders with a high level of integrity display loyalty and commitment towards their organisations.

4.3.7 Transparency

Transparency is an essential characteristic an ethical leader should possess (Niculescu, 2015). Albu and Flyverbom (2019) contend that the conceptualisation of transparency is rarely subject to critical scrutiny. In most cases, transparency denotes information sharing and the quality of the information shared (Albu & Flyverbom, 2019). It is safe to argue that the definition of transparency overlooks the dynamics of leadership transparency. This study explained transparency from the perspective of leadership. From the standpoint of self-disclosure literature, transparency denotes a descriptive construct, which relates to how valuable information is shared with the stakeholders (Vogelgesang, Crossley, Simons & Avolio, 2021; Jourard, 1964). It has been found that leaders' transparent behaviour positively impacted employee psychological safety, affecting employees' ability to become creative (Yi, Hao, Yang & Liu, 2017). From the affective perspective, it has been argued that transparent leaders treat employees with honesty. From a cognitive standpoint, transparent leaders provide more information for employees to function more effectively and efficiently. Moreover, they provide employees feedback to assist them in enhancing their attention on work (Yi *et al.*, 2017). It has also been found that transparent behaviour contributes to employee creativity by providing helpful information (Zhao & Olivera, 2006).

4.3.8 Magnanimity

It has been suggested that if subordinates need to see role models, they need to act based on the desired behaviour (Hegarty & Moccia, 2018). Ethical leaders are found to demonstrate generosity in leadership roles. These types of leaders provide exemplary life for the rest of followers to imitate. They display realistic vision and build trust in the organisation. The magnanimous leaders inspire the followers to achieve a common goal (Amintojjar, Shekari & Zabihi, 2015).

4.3.9 Power sharing

Kalshoven, Den Hartog and De Hoogh (2011) identify power sharing as one of the attributes of ethical leadership that distinguishes it from other leadership styles. Ethical leaders involve followers in their decision-making. Thus, ethical leaders involve followers in the decision-making process when setting performance targets and provide them with the air their concerns (Kalshoven *et al.*, 2011; Brown *et al.*, 2005). One study reveals that power sharing enables ethical leaders to develop followers and foster self-efficacy (Eisenbeiß & Brodbeck, 2014).

4.3.10 Morality

The definition of ethical leadership contains two fundamental dimensions: moral person and moral manager (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Treviño *et al.*, 2000). To lead leading ethically, leaders are required to be authentic moral persons (Treviño *et al.*, 2000). A moral person has the leadership traits such as integrity, honesty, and trustworthiness (Treviño *et al.*, 2000). Thus, a moral person is upright, sincere, and fair. When making decisions, ethical leaders act on ethical principles and consider the interests of the society or followers. Research suggests that ethical leaders who possess the above leadership qualities can better manage their followers (Treviño *et al.*, 2000; Brown & Treviño, 2006; Toor & Ofori, 2009). The scholars such as Brown and Treviño (2006) and Brown and Mitchell (2010) postulate that moral leaders have a proven reputation for leading ethically. This is because the followers imitate the leader and return their honesty, integrity, and respect (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes & Salvador, 2009). On the other hand, ethical leaders are considered moral managers because they have the ability to influence followers' ethical behaviour (Van Wart, 2011; Brown & Treviño, 2006). A moral manager communicates ethics and values to their followers to enable them to meet their performance target. It has been argued that moral leaders hold their followers accountable for their unethical behaviour (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown *et al.*, 2005). Another study suggests that ethical leaders influence employees' moral behaviour (Moore, Mayer, Chiang, Crossley, Karlesky & Birtch, 2019).

4.3.11 Fairness

Treviño *et al.* (2000) claim that ethical leaders demonstrate fairness in their actions and inactions. In most countries, including South Africa, fairness is a core principle upon which legal and political institutions are designed and operate. The South Africa Constitution states that everyone has the right to be treated fairly and equally. The Constitution prohibits unfair discrimination and labour practices within the workplace. From the perspective of social

exchange theory, organisational fairness predicts perceived organisational support, resulting in organisational commitment (Herda & Lavelle, 2011).

4.4 Role of ethical leadership in organisations

One important function of ethical leadership is the ability to influence followers to act in a particular manner to achieve a common goal. Given this, it can be argued that ethical leaders can influence their subordinates to pursue success and performance efficiency. According to Buble (2012), organisations continue to witness a disconnect between leaders' beliefs and actions in this competitive era. Such disconnection is more common in ethical dilemmas facing the organisational decision-making process. Al-sharafi and Rajiani (2013), in their study, argue that there is a need for ethical leaders to close the trust gap between the leaders and followers. Stacey (2013) postulates that ethical leaders can help their organisations achieve their desired goals by influencing the employees through their values. Metwally, Ruiz-Palomino, Metwally and Gartzia (2019) found that ethical leadership shapes an organisational culture and increases followers' readiness to change. It has also been discovered that ethical leaders support organisational members (Metwally *et al.*, 2019). Brown and Treviño (2006) in their study found that there is a direct link between ethical leadership, corruption and good governance. The authors recommend that unethical conducts such as corruption in the South African public sector can be best addressed through ethical leadership. Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009) also suggest that ethical leadership is an important mechanism to curb corruption as well as promotes good governance. The scholars point out that it is important for the leadership in most organisations to create culture of openness and transparency which will help prevent unethical behaviours. They further argue that government departments need some form of ethical programme to effectively manage its ethical climate and to create and maintain a culture that promotes ethical behaviour. In addition, Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009) postulate that in an attempt address corruption, “some structural and procedural changes should by the leadership as a means of institutionalising ethics.

In their study, Engelbrecht, Mahembe and Wolmarans (2017) argue that ethical leadership creates an ethical climate and increases the leader's effectiveness. The view expressed by Engelbrecht et al. (2019) has been reaffirmed by Simha and Cullen (2011), where it was found that ethical leadership enhances the ethical climate in an organisation. Lloyd and May (2010) point out that ethical leadership improves organisational productivity. Naidoo (2012) maintains that effective, ethical leadership minimises the possibility of corruption in an organisation.

Henning, Theron and Spangenberg (2004) contend that ethical leadership influences organisational performance and eliminates unwarranted behaviour in the organisation. In a similar study, Ali, Qu, Shafique, Pham and Usman (2021) discovered that ethical leadership promotes exploitative and explorative learning. It has further been argued that ethical leadership creates a sustainable competitive advantage for organisation (Ali *et al.*, 2021). Likewise, a study reveals that the ethical leadership approach encourages followers to engage emotionally in their work (Chen & Hou, 2016). In a study conducted by Kar (2014), it was found that ethical leadership improves organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage. Zhang, Zhou and Mao (2018) claim that the ethical leadership approach increases the employees' moral emotions.

4.5 Challenges of ethical leadership in public sector

Litschka, Suske and Brandtweiner (2011) believe that the strategic value of a successful ethical leadership should effort to act with fairness, integrity and socially responsible approach. However, the characteristic environment in which public sector operates challenges the management what is fair in the myriad areas of public activities. The proposed solution to this challenge is anchored on increasing the morale of leaders in emulating the tenets of ethical practice. It emerges that the consistent tension that occurs in the implementation of ethical leadership systems. This is because the wide spread occurrence of naturally egotistical during the process of decision making requires leaders in the public sector to shed overreliance on natural tendencies. Accordingly, it is plausible to note that ethical leaders have been unable to consider the consequences of their followers when making decisions in public sector.

Giessner and Quaquebeke (2010) assert that within this in question, it becomes challenges the overdrive of ethical leadership cling to the value of service delivery, thus reducing the potential harm as the outcome of business process. Most leaders in public sector are characterised by defensive personality conflicts. This portends a creation of various centres of power aimed at enriching the goals of individual leaders as opposed to the entire organization. Such complication poses ethical concerns making it difficult for leaders to engage in integrative transactional approach of leadership. Considering this, it is clear that the underlying reason for the failure in leaders in public sector occur due to increases selfishness and ignorance. Buble (2012) explains that it is a common occurrence that such leaders often feel excused from the requirements of moral dispensation. The reasoning that establishes this perspective is the sense of leadership seen as separate from the self of a leader. Considering this, public sector leaders

are more likely to excuse themselves from practicing ethical management.

4.6 Effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption in the public sector

Brown and Treviño (2006), in their study, found ethical leadership positively affected corruption. The authors argue that unethical conducts in the South African public sector can be best addressed through ethical leadership. Likewise, Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009) suggest that ethical leadership is an important mechanism to curb corruption. Furthermore, Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009) point out that it is important for the leadership in most organisations to create culture of openness and transparency which will help prevent unethical behaviours. Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009) advocate that in an attempt address corruption, “some structural and procedural changes should be adopted as a means of institutionalising ethics.

A study conducted by Naidoo (2011) reveals that ethical leadership helps curb corruption. However, Naidoo (2011) points out ethical leadership should involve participation, consensus orientation, accountability, transparency, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, equitability and inclusiveness as well as the rule of law. The scholar asserts that ethical leadership could help ensure that corruption is minimised, by considering the views of communities in decision-making. In their study, Bashir and Hassan (2020) examined the role of ethical leadership in combating corruption. The study further examined whether the effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption depends on the quality of the reward system in public organisations. The study focused on two related components of the reward system: the use of performance-based rewards and procedural fairness. The study identified a negative association between ethical managerial leadership and reports of corruption. Moreover, it discovered that the use of performance-based rewards is associated with fewer incidences of corruption, and that the negative relationship between ethical leadership and corruption is stronger when employees report low levels of procedural fairness.

Asencio (2019) claims that corruption has several negative implications for democratic society. Although the widespread development and implementation of legal and administrative mechanisms to fight it, corruption persists in most governments, including the United States. This global phenomenon underscores the need for ethical leadership in public agencies. Nevertheless, although the potential benefits of ethical leadership, empirical research on its effectiveness in reducing corruption in government organisations remains underdeveloped.

Asencio (2019) believes that ethical leadership is likely to reduce bribing and favoritism in government agencies. Moreover, the findings highlight the importance of ethical leadership in the fight against corruption and the need to expand it further in public agencies. Similarly, Treviño et al. (2003) affirm that ethical leadership behaviours are likely to help reduce corruption in American public agencies.

As suggested by deLeon (1993), without leaders who demonstrate ethical leadership in government agencies, the problem of corruption will continue to spread. Frost and Tischer (2014) concur that legal and administrative mechanisms designed to address this social malaise are insufficient even when they punish bad behaviour, as they do not address the organisational arrangements and dynamics from which corruption emerges and is sustained. According to Asencio, Byrne and Mujkic (2017), to address corruption in the public sector, it is imperative to have leaders who engage in ethical leadership behaviours, as such behaviours are likely to help develop and sustain organisational environments in which ethical reflection and action are possible.

Hechanova and Manaois (2020) also explored the role ethical leadership in fighting corruption in an organisation. The study aimed to provide a structural model of the role of ethical leadership on intent to whistle blow workplace corruption using the theory of planned behaviours. The study used a mixed method, sequential design. Interviews were conducted in the first phase to identify corrupt practices and validate the salience of the variables in the study. The second phase administered surveys to test the hypotheses of the study. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was done to analyse structural relationships among variables. SEM results showed an adequately fit model, indicating ethical leadership predicting organisational norms and controls. Moreover, it was discovered that ethical leadership had indirect effect toward employees' attitude toward corruption through organisational norms and control. Furthermore, ethical leadership had indirect effect on intent to whistle blow through organisational controls (Hechanova & Manaois, 2020).

Besides, similar studies have shown that ethical leadership is negatively related to organisational and interpersonal deviance (van Gils, Van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, van Dijke & De Cremer, 2015), employee misconduct (Mayer et al., 2010), and other counterproductive work behaviours (Bedi, Alpaslan & Green, 2016). It has been suggested that having the leader as a role model for ethical behaviour and a potential punisher of unethical

behaviour (Brown *et al.*, 2005), followers will be less likely to give in to temptations or pressures for bribery or falsification. Ethical leaders will not provide followers with those temptations themselves. In contrast, a lack of ethical leadership may mean that employees only focus on personal gain and, ultimately, engage in unethical behaviour such as corruption. Hechanova *et al.* (2014) argue that the perceptions of ethical leadership predicted the prevalence of corrupt acts.

According to Al-Taie, Abdulla and Rasheed (2017), ethical leadership has been perceived as one of the most vital practices, leadership styles and as an aspect of appropriate behaviour to build organisational social relationships between the human capital in organisation and its outside. Ethical leadership focuses on philosophies such as credibility, trust and justice in the distribution of decision-making among individuals, and the most important thing that individuals need is to encourage ethical values that limit the behaviour of perverse action or negative behaviour. It has been argued that whenever the leader does ethically, it may led to the achievement of organisational integrity, which emphasizes its philosophy to avoid negative behaviours or illegal and adhere by the behaviour rules and ethical discipline that would limit from the behaviour of deviant corruption or rooted in the organisations.

Through ethical leadership and organisational integrity, organisations can reduce the spread of administrative corruption and eliminate its nutrients and incubators by fostering a culture of ethical leadership and working with the principles of organisational integrity within the wholly organisation (Al-Taie, Abdulla & Rasheed, 2017). Mathebula (2014) suggests although literature largely acknowledges the importance of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance, yet it is very difficult to find such leaders in South Africa. Mathebula (2014) points out that a typical example is the former President Jacob Zuma who benefitted unduly from the R240 million security upgrades in the Nkandla homestead. This raises a big question as to whether South Africa has ethical leaders. According to Kondlo (2015), the former president ought to have considered what is good. The author further claims that apart from the former president, several leaders within the public institutions were accused of unethical conducts and the cases are still pending before the high courts.

4.7 Conceptualisation and contextualisation of good governance

During the 1980s, international organisations have observed that inefficient and poor management was responsible for poor economic and political performance in the third World

(Makara, 2018). Consequently, a governance approach was coined to tackle these challenges. Throughout the literature, it appears that governance does not have a specific or fixed meaning. According to the World Bank (1992), governance is the extent to which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development. This definition places much emphasis on good governance. Good governance is the active and productive cooperation between the State and citizens, and the key to its success lies in the powers participating in political administration. Good governance has further been conceptualised as a system of administration that is democratic, efficient and development-oriented (Jeffries & Lu, 2018; Jeffries, 1993).

For Weller and Wu (2017), governance is a set of institutions and actors that are drawn from but also beyond the government. It challenges the authority of the State or the government in the traditional sense and maintains that the government is not the only power centre of a State. Good governance includes sound public sector management, accountability, transparency and legal framework for development (justice, human rights and civil liberties).

4.1 The historical antecedents of good governance in South Africa

It is an undeniable fact that the South African public sector has, since 1994, witnessed and continues to experience several challenges, most especially in delivering essential public services, unemployment, poverty and corruption. These phenomena have resulted in a situation where the majority of South Africans have lost confidence in the government's ability to govern effectively and efficiently. In view of these challenges, Masuku (2019) suggests that for South Africans to reap the benefits of the Constitution and all the socially and economic progressive policies that are in existence, a well-functioning public sector is required. Within the context of South Africa, Section 195 of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996 determines the basic values of effective governance. The section 195 (1) states that administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principles:

- i. high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained
- ii. efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted
- iii. public administration must be development-oriented
- iv. services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias

- v. people's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making
- vi. public administration must be accountable
- vii. transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information
- viii. good human-resource management and career-development practices
- ix. public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation

These principles apply to: administration in every sphere of government; organs of state; and public enterprises. Irrespective of the socially progressive policies that are in existence in South Africa, performance as far as the public sector is concerned has been an issue of great distress. Gumede (2019) believes that the performance of several South Africa's public organisations and state-owned enterprises has been nothing short of an embarrassment due to their failure to achieve their respective mandates. It has been noted that a culture of impunity in the public sector has resulted in a serious lack of transparency and accountability in all spheres of government. Owing to these developments, studies (Malbon, Carey & Reeders, 2019; Busieka, 2018; Malbon, Ndevu & Muller, 2017; Silima, 2016) have suggested that the existence of effective governance is essential in ensuring appropriate public service delivery and administration. From this perspective, it can be argued that good governance is crucial and ultimately results in the competent and effective functioning of South Africa's public sector organisations. Against this background, key legislative instruments such PFMA and the King IV report of 2016 on corporate governance for South Africa were introduced to address issues of governance as far as the public sector is concerned. These instruments are not only applicable to state-owned entities, but to public governance in general.

They share common principles of good governance. Integration and alignment of these principles in public governance is not only possible but presents an opportunity for the government to achieve desirable results governed by the overarching governance principles of fairness, transparency, responsibility and accountability. Ndevu and Muller (2018) claim that good governance promotes good organisational culture as it helps to shape the attitudes of the

organisational members. Such a culture encourages high standards of integrity, as well as ethical values. Bergsten, Jiren, Leventon, Dorresteijn, Schultner and Fischer (2019) maintains that governance systems in South Africa have the responsibility to set strategies and ensure the effective and efficient use of institutions' resources. Motubatse and Ngwakwe (2020) also acknowledge that the role of South African governance is to ensure the optimal utilisation of resources by means of appropriate internal control systems.

4.9 Stakeholders of governance in South Africa

Ekek (1992) opines that many constitutions in Africa provide a special provision for civil society to play an oversight role over the functions and progress of democratic institutions. Constitutions further enable civil society to monitor the functions of government and measure them in terms of ethics and how they adhere to constitutional principles, monitor human rights, and to give citizens—especially the poor, vulnerable, and excluded—the tools to know and assert their rights (Nasu & Saul, 2011). This can be done through education and capacity training workshops. Apart from the civil society, the Constitution of South Africa allows other stakeholders such as the judiciary, citizens and communities, media, directors, employees, and international treaties to be part of the governance system. The role of these stakeholders are discussed below.

4.9.1 Civil society

Civil society plays a key role in pushing for new laws, programmes, policies, or strategies in promoting good governance and growth in many countries, including South Africa. In South Africa, the Constitution Act 108 of 1996 and the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) form the foundation for the involvement of civil society in issues of governance. These statutes empower the civil society to hold the government accountable for their commitments and promises. The Constitution, in particular, provides a special place for civil society to play an oversight role over democratic institutions, monitor human rights and to give citizens, especially the poor, vulnerable and excluded, the tools to know and assert their rights (Bovens, Goodin, & Schillemans, 2014). It acts as the watchdog to increase democratic accountability, transparency, and quality of governance. Moreover, it helps to reduce corruption, inefficiency, and waste, particularly within the public sector (Devarajan, Khemani, & Walton, 2013).

In addition, the civil society helps to improve quality of public services offered to the public and improves the overall effectiveness of the governance process. Moreover, it encourages

democratic participation within the domains of the public service, empowers citizens, promotes active citizenship and improves the capacity of the state to fulfil its public service mandate. Civil society participation is importantly seen as an essential element in fostering civic awareness that empowers the public to have the ability to hold governments accountable (Kirlin, 2003). Civil society groups have in the post-1994 era continued to hold the democratic government to account. Künnecke (2007) confirms that the civil society has however worked hard through the judiciary to hold governments accountable in terms of accountability and transparency. For example, in 2015, civil society groups in South Africa took the department of education to court for failing to provide textbooks for schools in the Limpopo province; furthermore, civil society groups also took the government to court to force the court to nullify a nuclear agreement that the Administration of former President Jacob Zuma had signed with Russia. In other countries, Civil society has been vocal in ending female genital mutilation in Kenya, and parts of Malawi, and in Tanzania, they have also been active in forcing the government to take adequate measures to protect Albinos; moreover, all these processes have been undertaken legally with the help of the judiciary, thus underlying the importance of the judiciary in modern day society.

For civil society to succeed, they must have strong and viable institutional capacity and structural arrangements, and an enabling legislative and functioning legal and political environment. The capacity of civil society to hold governments accountable is impacted by, their inter organisational deficits, the regulatory regime, the elite–urban capture, donor relations, and the desire by civil society to engage in business or profit contracts with government that makes it easier to inter alia complement the work of government than questioning it (Fourie & Kakumba, 2011). Teferi (2010) argues that many civil society organisations find it difficult to operate in Africa because of restrictive laws that hinder their operations, growth, and their overall ability to contribute to governance and stability. In the light of such laws, many civil society organisations have undertaken several instruments and mechanisms to respond to these repressive regulations and policies which are in place to curb their operations (c). Similarly, Woo (2011) postulates that the continuous implementation of laws and policies that are meant to constrain the growth and consolidation of civil society has left them no choice than to fight back. However, even though civil society is continuing the fight against repressive operational laws in Africa, African governments still do not accept the role of civil society. This is mainly because they are still viewed as foreign agents who are a mere

extension of countries who are aiming at instituting regime change.

4.9.2 Judiciary

In Africa and other parts of the world, the judiciary is an integral feature of governance. It is indisputable that, for democracy and good governance to be fully entrenched in a particular country, the judiciary must be very strong in relation to ethics, morality, and being impartial. The judiciary must resist any political interference and the possibility of being compromised (Bakolias, 2000). The judiciary is very important as it is the main element in protecting the violation of the constitution and stabilising society through the safeguarding of a country's laws. It is in this context that the civil society organisations, particularly in Africa, have over the years used the judiciary to hold governments and government officials accountable on issues of misconduct (Künnecke, 2007).

The scenario presented above applies to Africa where civil society organisations have gone to courts to compel governments towards a certain direction that would not have been otherwise possible without their intervention. Hence, the judiciary has been an important element for the civil society in ensuring governments, and officials are held accountable in cases where all other means have failed. The judiciary remains an important tool in making sure that justice is served without any favour or prejudice. Consequently, many civil society organisations have extremely benefited from the usage of the judiciary when aiming to solve disputes with governments and in the quest to promote good governance through accountability and transparency (Vogl, 2012).

Although the judiciary remains a fundamental institution in holding governments accountable, civil society organisations in Africa have, to a large extent, not been able to effectively exploit the judiciary. The judiciary has been seen as being impartial in its judgements, especially in Africa. It has been argued that the continuous attack on the judiciary has somewhat undermined its effective functioning (Van de Vijver, 2006). The continuous attack on the judiciary then becomes a stumbling block for civil society organisations in their quest to use this avenue in holding governments accountable. Elver (2011) believes that influencing the judiciary sets a dangerous precedent in terms of upholding democracy and such attempts erode the impartiality of the courts and hinders the effective undertaking of their tasks. According to Cortés (2011), the judiciary is the last option when resolving disputes, but it is, however, seen as the best option to solving a problem without bias or prejudice especially in cases which violate the

constitution or undermine good governance.

Gloppen (2010) alleges that in most cases, undue influence on judicial rulings, which sometimes come from judicial hierarchy. Moreover, Gloppen (2010) points out that where the government is perceived to appoint deferential judges to the bench, it may destroy the integrity of the judiciary, irrespective of whether the judges are in fact biased in their rulings. In many countries, the executive decisively influences who are appointed as judges – even when there are rules and institutions in place to prevent this from happening. In South African, for instance, social commentators and political analytics have interpreted ANC government officials as having a similar intention when they pursue the aim of ‘transformation of the judiciary (Molele & Makinana, 2012).

4.9.3 Citizens and community

In most African countries, citizens and community have displayed a great deal of influence when concerning policymaking. This, therefore, suggests that elections are not the only political mechanism that can be used to hold governments accountable. Citizens can also put pressure on the government, as in the case of the most recent student movements advocating for the reduction of university fees in South Africa (Mkancu, 2018). The need for enhanced community consultation and participation is clearly articulated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and developmental local government legislation. Community members are now expected to play a more meaningful role in terms of their involvement in civic matters (Maphazi, Raga, Taylor & Mayekiso, 2013). Similarly, Masuku and Molope (2020) confirm that community participation has constitutional backing to partake in local governance and the local municipal council has the constitutional mandate to facilitate community participation. Post 1994, public participation is receiving increasing attention in South Africa, from both government and civil society sectors.

According to Enaifoghe and Adetiba (2019), the interest the community to participate in local government issues is considered as having a noteworthy ramification on democratising administration conveyance beyond simply delegate government. It is argued that community participation in governance issues offers a more prominent control of the underprivileged over their circumstance and guarantees their full inclusion in determining their formative needs (Enaifoghe & Adetiba, 2019). In South Africa, districts are obliged to encourage the inclusion of communities from the community and community associations in local government. In

addition to the Constitution, the section 73 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998 accommodates the foundation of ward boards to improve participatory vote-based system of democracy in local municipal government (Theron & Mchunu, 2013).

4.9.4 The media

Good governance can only be strengthened and consolidated if the public is able to access information. Governments around the world rely extensively on propaganda to assert control, and regrettably, at times, these propaganda messages are void of the truth and lack any rationality. The Arab Spring is a good example of the influence of media, particularly social media is not only influencing political decisions but even contributing to the toppling of governments. This includes countries such as Egypt, Tunisia, Syria, Yemen, and Libya inter alia (Al-Momani, 2011). Similarly, in South African the ‘fees must fall’ and ‘Rhodes must fall student led movements’ have proven without doubt that indeed, media and social media have a strong influence in deciding the outcome of policies not only in Africa but globally (Mkancu, 2018). Furthermore, within the South African context, the media has been a very important avenue where civil society can communicate with society concerning issues of discontent especially stemming from government policy direction, reporting on corruption, for instance, the Gupta (State Capture) issue sweeping through South Africa's political environment today.

However, it is worth noting that the usage of the media as a tool to hold governments accountable can only be successful in countries where media freedom is allowed, where media operations are not restricted. In countries where the media is highly regulated by the government, it is unlikely that civil society will be able to use media it as a tool to hold government accountable because of its operational restriction (Vos, 2013). Although the media is a very important tool its successful consolidation and effectiveness requires an open and transparent avenue which encourages and supports the freedom of the media.

4.3.5 International treaties

South Africa is signatory to many international binding treaties, including the United Nations, International Criminal Court, and human rights organisations that advocate for good governance and the promotion of democracy. As such, these treaties are binding, hence, governments are required to implement their provisions. In most countries such as South Africa, the civil society has greatly made use of these treaties to compel the government to either promote free liberties, ensure good governance through good and investor friendly

policies and the promotion of human rights (Deva & Bilchitz, 2017).

Following the establishment of the United Nations Charter in 1945, various peoples in Africa gained awareness of their fundamental rights and felt empowered in their respective struggles for self-determination (UN Chronicle, 2015). Ghana, being the first in 1957, and 17 sub-Saharan African nations subsequently followed suit. Of course, this was only the beginning as more African countries continued to call for their respective self-determination. This transpired until independence reached South Africa in 1994 (UN Chronicle, 2015). This, therefore, emphasizes the significance of international treaties in aiding civil society organisations to advocate for change. The UN system promotes good governance through many avenues, and the principle is reaffirmed in the Declaration of the High-level Meeting on the Rule of Law. The Declaration of the High-level Meeting on the Rule of Law also reaffirms that human rights, the rule of law, and democracy are interlinked and mutually reinforcing and that they belong to the universal and indivisible core values and principles of the United Nations (Assembly, 2011).

4.10 Indicators of good governance

Research (Kraipornsak, 2014; Stankowska, 2014; Sebudubudu, 2010) shows different indicators of good governance, which include but not limited respect for human rights and basic freedoms, regular free and fair elections, transparency, accountability, responsiveness, equity and inclusiveness and effectiveness and efficiency. Similarly, Keping (2018) suggests that good governance comprises of principles, such as participation, transparency, responsiveness, accountability, and professionalism. In South Africa, section 195 of the Constitution outlines some of the basic values and principles of good governance namely: accountability, impartiality, development orientation, representation and participation, fairness, public accountability, effectiveness and efficiency and professional ethics. These indicators of good governance are discussed below.

4.10.1 Transparency

Cheema and Rondinelli (2007) advocate that transparency enhances openness of the democratic process through reporting and feedback. In the context of South Africa, the principle of transparency requires the legislator to institute the following measures: develop comprehensive and clear legislation; access to information concerning the legislative process, develop clear legal mandate of national administrative authorities, and establish clear division

of responsibilities (De la Harpe, Rijken & Roos, 2008). According to Governance for Sustainable Human Development (2005), transparency can be achieved through processes, institutions and information that are directly accessible to those concerned with them. Transparency implies that decisions made by governmental and non-governmental authorities must be openly communicated, and their enforcement should conduct in accordance with established rules and regulations.

As mentioned above, transparency requires that information is freely available and easily accessible to those who will be affected by such decisions and their enforcement. Simply put, transparency denotes the availability of information to the general public and clarity about government rules, regulations, and decisions (Abrha, 2016). Michael Zurn, Andre Nolkaemper and Randall Peeren boon (2012) also concur that transparency is an important indicator of good governance, which relates to the establishment of any policy. These requirements of transparency provide protection against government errors, wrongful allocation of funds and reduce corruption.

4.10.2 Accountability

Abrha (2016) sees accountability as the ability to hold public officials responsible for government performance and responsive to the body from which they get their authority. Accountability is a key determinant of good governance. The Constitution of South Africa makes the provision for the public officials to be hold accountable for their actions. In Sections 1 (c and d) and 2 of the Constitution were designed to promote accountability. Any conduct contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution is considered invalid. Accountability includes at the least democratic control of the administration and the right to effective legal protection. For non-state actors it includes stakeholder accountability by explaining policy-decisions, evaluating the impact of new rules and decisions and accounting for the results (De la Harpe *et al.*, 2008). It shows holding elected or appointed public officials charged with a public mandate responsible and answerable for their actions, activities and decisions (Blair, 2000). Likewise, Mulgan (2011) admits that includes the capacity to impose sanctions for the failure or abuse of responsibilities as a measure of remedy with to rectify the governance failure through deterrence.

Within the context of South Africa, political representatives, and government officials are accountable for their act. Shafritz, Russell, Borick and Hyde (2016) also confirm that public

officials and political office bearers are expected to be accountable for their actions to their constituencies and superiors, and largely to the public they serve. The Constitution and other laws stipulate that legal actions or disciplinary action may be taken when public officials or political office bearers fail to account for their actions. It is suggested that accountability could be used as a counter action when an unethical behaviour or maladministration have occurred, especially in public administration (Shafritz *et al.*, 2016).

4.10.3 Responsiveness

Good governance requires institutions and processes that will serve all stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe. This assertion underscores the need for responsiveness from the public officials who are required to serve their constituents. Responsiveness refers to the receptiveness of institutions to the demands of their stakeholders (Abrha, 2016). The principle of responsiveness requires that institutions, especially the public ones must be accessible by clients and serve them within a reasonable time frame. Simply put, responsiveness denotes how the State and other public institutions perform in responding to the requirements and rights of citizens. Good governance is credited for responsiveness to the preferences of the large population mainly the poor and vulnerable who normally benefit from pro-poor policies and programmes.

According to Morrison (2013), responsiveness implies that government agencies and institutions, private organisations and civil society institutions should be responsible for their policies and actions. In other words, responsiveness represents the sensitivity of local governments in responding to community needs and complaints related to services provided. The suitability between programmes and activities that are available with the aspirations and needs of the community is one aspect that should be responded by the local government (Mursyidah & Abadi, 2018). Linde and Peters (2020) agree with other scholars that democracy entails governments that are both responsive and responsible. Linde and Peters (2020) found that responsive governments build a reservoir of goodwill, which they can use to survive in more difficult periods. Esaiasson and Wlezien (2017) believe that the actions and inactions of parties and political representatives may be responsive to the demands from citizens. These actions may be used by the citizens to form perceptions about the responsiveness of the political system. Research (Armingeon & Guthmann, 2014; Torcal, 2014) suggests that citizens are more likely to declare their support for the political system when responsiveness is satisfactory. Morlino and Quaranta (2014) point out that diverse aspects of political support, such as

citizens' satisfaction with democracy, have been used as explicit indicators of responsiveness, for example, when they are part of the same concept.

4.10.4 Participation

Participation forms another important principle of good governance, which deals with the involvement of community members in policy -making. Mursyidah and Abadi (2018) state that the principle of participation suggests that a broad range of measures need to be put in place, including, representative democracy, the right to vote and to be elected, but also deliberation with civil society and stakeholders in the establishment of laws and regulations. The active involvement of community in policy formulation may include the preparation and local policies making, knowledge of the mechanisms of participation in the formulation of policies, and the use of media or forums to participate. Most importantly, participation is the accommodating of inputs from the community by the local government. This principle of good governance prescribes the right of every person to be heard before any individual measure which would adversely affect him or her is taken (De la Harpe et al., 2008). Globally, civil society stakeholders play a pivotal role in voicing citizen concerns, and many countries have enacted freedom of information laws and using local structures to encourage citizen participation (Schoeberlein, 2020). Citizen participation in governance system is an interesting issue in past decades. The main benefit of the social participation is that enhances responsibility and consciousness of people related to the individual and social issues.

4.10.5 Rule of law

One study (Abrha, 2016) suggests that good governance requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially. Moreover, it requires full protection of human rights, especially those of minority groups and marginalized sections of societies. Impartial enforcement of laws requires an independent judiciary and an impartial and incorruptible police force. Rule of law can be conceptualised as the capacity of legal rules, standards or principles to direct people in the conduct of their affairs, stability, the supremacy of legal authority for both citizens and government actors; and the availability of impartial institutions of enforcement (Abrha, 2016). The rule of law is a key principle of governance based on the rule of law applicable in any decision-making, clean of corruption, collusion and nepotism, the minimisation of human rights violations, and the just law enforcement of a person or group in committing an offense (Mursyidah & Abad, 2018). The quality of law enforcement in a country can be observed from the availability of legal bases such as local regulations and the head of local government

decisions concerning authority, community-based policies, policies that provide certainty and legal guarantees, and the conformity of local regulations with the regulations. According to Mursyidah and Abad (2018), the law enforcement can be done by the local governments through good public order and security, reduction, enforcement of local regulations offense, and consistency to obey the regulations.

4.10.6 Equity and inclusiveness

According to Abrha (2016), a society's wellbeing depends on ensuring that all members feel that they have a stake in it and do not feel excluded from most of the society. This requires all groups, but particularly the most marginalised, have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing. For instance, in South Africa, Chapter II, section 9 (2) of the Constitution provides that equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons, or categories of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken. Moreover, subsection (4) stipulates that no person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds in terms of subsection (The Constitution, 1995). Besides the Constitutional provisions, Chapter II section (5) of Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 states that every employer must take reasonable steps to promote equal opportunity in the workplace through the elimination of unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practices. Sustainable welfare in community will be possible if only equal rights for all people are recognised. To achieve good governance, everyone must have equal opportunities (Jafari, Hajinabi, Jahangiri & Riahi, 2018).

4.11 Effectiveness of ethical leadership in promoting good governance

In their study, Othman and Rahman (2014) examined the concept of ethical leadership in relation to corporate governance. The study introduced morality as a core element in creating good governance practices, starting from the premise that corporate governance is subjective. The study identified several ethical leadership attributes that serve as guides to good governance. Likewise, Agbim (2018) investigated the effects of ethical leadership on corporate governance, performance and social responsibility within the Nigerian banking sector. The results revealed that ethical leadership positively impacted corporate governance, corporate performance and corporate social responsibility. Similarly, Naidoo (2012) investigated into the critical need for ethical leadership to curb corruption and promote good governance in the South African public sector. According to Naidoo (2012), corruption is a major hindrance to good

governance, with a disproportionate impact on poor communities and is corrosive of the very fabric of our society. The overall findings from the study suggested ethical leadership is positively and significantly associated with leader effectiveness and hence good governance (Naidoo, 2012).

Nafi and Kamaluddin (2020) explored into the topic ‘public sector potential for organisational innovation: examining impact of good governance principles and integrity’. According to Nafi and Kamaluddin (2020), presently, governance in public sector has been exposed to public criticism because of the governance failure, fraud, corruption and poor internal control. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between factors of good governance and the practice of integrity in academic institution that create a conducive environment for organization innovation. The findings showed that all three factors of good governance: ethical leadership, financial resources and asset management have significant relationship on integrity practice in academic institution. The findings could assist academic institutions in Malaysia to improve their governance system and code of ethics in their organization. Kosgey, Ongera and Thuo (2020) also conducted a study into the influence of ethical leadership practices on governance in Uasin Gishu county. The study adopted descriptive survey research design, while the target population comprised of elected and nominated Members of County Executive Committees; Chief Officers; opinion leaders, clergy/church leaders; and members of the public. The results showed that ethical practices (civility, interpersonal role, decision role and informative role) play an essential role in ensuring that government policies and/or directives are implemented to the letter and spirit of the constitution. Moreover, the study established that ethical practices have a significant and positive linear relationship with governance. The study recommended that effective governance can be achieved when public servants are ready to exercise unparalleled accountability and transparency standards.

4.12 Chapter summary

The chapter reviewed literature on the concepts of ethical leadership and good governance. Ethical leadership has been conceptualised as the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making. On the other hand, good governance as the extent to which power is exercised in the management of a county’s economic and social resources for development. The review

identifies the leadership attributes possessed by ethical leaders including, sense of responsibility towards the training and development of followers, accountability, communication, altruism, patriotism, moral uprightness, sense of historical mission, courage, determination, fairness, power sharing, integrity, gratitude, humility, justice, mercy and compassion. Moreover, the review showed that ethical leadership positively impacted the fight against corruption. Additionally, the study identifies the indicators of good governance, including participation, rule of law, accountability, transparency, equality and inclusiveness, and customer orientation. The chapter concluded that ethical leadership positively impacted good governance not only in South Africa, but globally.

Chapter Five: Research Design and Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter described how the study was conducted in terms of the research design and methodology. There is a clear difference between research design and methodology. Research design is the overall master plan of how the study will be conducted in terms of the research processes, procedures, research methods and how data will be collected and analysed. Whereas research methodology only describes the specific procedures or techniques that will be used to identify, select, process, and analyse information about the research phenomenon (Sileyew, 2019).

The chapter first highlighted the research questions and objectives, and then proceeded with the discussion of the research philosophy which guide the study. The chapter further discussed the research design adopted to achieve the research questions and objectives. In addition, the research approaches adopted in this study were discussed. The chapter also provided a discussion on the research strategies or methods adopted to investigate the phenomenon. The chapter provided a brief description of the study location and continued with the description of the target population. The chapter also described how the sample size was drawn. The sampling strategies used to select the participants were explained and justified. Moreover, the chapter discussed the data collection instruments that were used to collect the data and proceeded the describe how the pilot study was conducted and the number of participants who took part in it. Again, the chapter indicated the measurement scaled used in the study as well as how the data quality control was ensured. The chapter went further to describe how the data collected from the participants was analysed. The ethical considerations which form central pillars you research were addressed in this chapter.

5.2 Research Methodology and design

This section of the chapter discusses the research philosophy, research approach, research method, research design and research strategy.

5.2.1 Research paradigm

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) perceived research paradigm as the general assumptions or beliefs concerning the chosen enquiry, which explains how the study will be conducted. In other words, research paradigm is more concerned with important assumptions about the researcher's understanding of the world. The term research paradigm or philosophy has further

been described in the following ways, namely: the essential collection of beliefs shared by scientific researchers; a set or arguments concerning how the research problems are to be understood; and how the researcher views the world and how he/she goes about conducting the research (Creswell, 2009). Guba and Lincoln (2005) defined a research philosophy as a basic set of beliefs or assumptions which serves as a guide to the inquiries for research. Research paradigm can be classified into four: ontology (a person's understanding of the nature of reality and what can be known about that reality), epistemology (one's understanding of the nature of knowledge, the 'getting to know' process, the relationship between the person who seeks to know and the knowledge they construct, and the criteria for making claims about knowledge), methodology (approach to the construction of knowledge) and axiology (impact of values on knowledge that is acquired and how it is acquired) (Haigh, Kemp, Bazeley & Haigh, 2019). However, the study was underpinned by pragmatism.

5.2.1.1 Pragmatism

The pragmatism can be found in the early writings of Pierce (1878), James (1907) and Dewey (1917), and this has been refined by scholars such as Rorty (1999) and Rescher (2000). According to Feilzer (2010), pragmatism lies between the positivist and interpretivist paradigms. Yvonne Feilzer (2010:8) considered pragmatism as a new paradigm that suggests that the use of mixed research methods "side steps the contentious issues of truth and reality. Pragmatism focuses instead on what questions' as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation" (Tashakkori, Teddlie & Sines, 2012). In a more recent study, Kelly and Cordeiro (2020) argue that pragmatism is based on the belief that knowledge about a particular research phenomenon can steer clear of metaphysical debates concerning the nature of reality. Kelly and Cordeiro (2020) postulate that pragmatism allows an investigator to go beyond objectivist conceptualisations to explore and better understand the connections between knowledge and action in context.

Pragmatism was chosen as the most appropriate research philosophy because it helps to integrate both qualitative and quantitative findings into one study to answer specific research questions. Furthermore, the pragmatism was adopted given the fact that it encourages researchers to adopt multiple research methods to address a specific problem as substantiated by Morgan (2007).

5.2.3 Research approach

Deductive and inductive are the two approaches to research. This study adopted the two approaches to help answer the stated research questions.

5.2.3.1 Deductive research

According to Worster (2013), the deductive approach is usually referred to as going from “the general to the specific” or “truth-preserving.” The scholar argues that the deductive method is based on the premises that—if true—must lead to a valid conclusion. Moreover, DeGracia, Tri Anggraini, Taha and Huang (2014) argued that concerning the deductive approach, the researcher often starts with general premises and derives specific cases from the premises. Likewise, Robson and McCartan (2016) advocate that the deductive approach involves five sequential steps. Step one deals with formulating a hypothesis from the theory. Step two consists of the process of stating the hypothesis. Step three has to do with testing the operational hypothesis. Step four examines the outcomes of the inquiry. Step five modifies the theory as per the findings. Beiske (2007) postulate that deductive research approach investigates theory and tests to see if the theory can be applied under desired conditions or not. Deductive research approach follows logical approach in testing theories. Sneider and Lerner (2009) concur that deductive research begins with theory, leading to new assumptions. Such assumptions can be tested through comparison what was observed. The findings of deductive research could be used to determine whether to accept or reject the hypotheses.

In the context of this study, the deductive approach was applied in the quantitative research, which used statistical methods to analyse the data. Furthermore, the deductive approach enabled the researcher to test the theory developed from the literature review. Besides, the deductive research approach helped to generalise the research findings. In addition, it enabled the researcher to formulate precise research objectives to guide the investigation. The deductive approach also allowed the researcher to determine the most appropriate theoretical framework supporting the study, as Babbie (2014) substantiated.

5.2.3.2 Inductive research

This approach applies to qualitative research. Qualitative scholars (Worster, 2013; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) suggest that the inductive researchers “work from the “bottom-up, by relying on participants’ opinions to build broader themes and generate a theory interconnecting the themes”. Inductive researchers often start with specific observations and the generalisation of

the conclusions (Zalaghi & Khazaei, 2016). Given this approach, the researcher first chose a few numbers of observations and then generalised the conclusions to cover the target population. Nevertheless, these generalisations should be tested of which some of them may be verified while others may be rejected (Zalaghi & Khazaei, 2016). Extant literature points out that all the principles that are derived from deductive approach are theoretically falsifiable. With this approach, it is recommended that the investigator must be honest and impartial with whatever they observed (Godfrey & Hudson, 2010). According to Bernard (2011), inductive research involves searching a pattern through observations and developing a theory to test the patterns through hypotheses. In inductive research, no theory is applied at the beginning of the research. This allows the investigator to enjoy complete freedom concerning how to determine the course of research.

The inductive approach is useful in constructing theories to guide a particular study. An important justification for inductive approach in this study was that there is no need for any pre-fabricated framework or model. However, the inductive approach was heavily criticised on the basis that the investigator has only limited knowledge about the research phenomenon (Saghafi, 2014). Critiques argues that induction as a principle is falsifiable because it is based on human observations (Godfrey & Hodgson, 2010).

5.2.4 Research design

Research design is considered a plan that the researcher adopts to explore the components of the study in a coherent way to ensure that the study effectively addresses researcher phenomenon (Labaree, 2013). Creswell (2009) suggests that research design describes how the investigator answers the research questions. A research design guides the entire investigation regarding processes and procedures for the investigation, how data is to be collected, the decision regarding the data collection instrument/s and how data is to be analysed. There are different kinds of research designs. Although the study discussed the various research designs, the descriptive and exploratory research designs are the most appropriate for the study.

5.2.4.1 Descriptive research

Descriptive research can be applied in either quantitative or qualitative. Descriptive research can be adopted when the goal is to collect quantitative data that can be tabulated along a continuum in numerical form (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Descriptive research reports summary data, including measures of central tendency such as mean, median, mode, deviance from the

mean, variation, percentage, and correlation between variables. Descriptive research mostly concerned with the description of the characteristics of the population (Singh, 2014). A descriptive study is conducted when the aim of the study is to describe the event accurately in its natural settings to gain adequate understanding of the phenomenon (Monette, Sullivan & Dejong, 2013). A descriptive study is mostly linked to quantitative research, even though qualitative researchers concur that a descriptive study is more qualitative in nature (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). According to Freitas, Bufrem and Breda (2016), a descriptive study helps to gain deeper knowledge about the phenomenon. Tripodi and Bender (2010) confirm that descriptive study focuses of describing a phenomenon. This research design allows researchers to understand characteristics of the variables among the research participants and to examine the relationships among the variables. Nassaji (2015) also concurs that the primary goal of descriptive study is to describe a phenomenon and its features.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2013) also state that descriptive research aims to obtain necessary information about the current state of a phenomenon. Rahi (2017) expresses similar view that descriptive studies are carried out to obtain information on the current state of the research phenomenon. Descriptive research answers questions such as “how,” “what,” “when,” and “where”. There is a common consensus among method used to describe the existing phenomena as accurately as possible as substantiated by Atmowardoyo (2018). Engel and Schutt (2016) postulate that descriptive inquiries are normally overarching and involve collecting fact.

The descriptive study was conducted because it allows researchers to describe the research phenomenon accurately. Furthermore, it is the most appropriate for the quantitative phase of this study because it allows a researcher to quantify a phenomenon using statistics. It helps to make meaning out of the data.

5.2.4.2 Exploratory research

According to Singh (2014), exploratory studies are also termed as formulative research. Conversely, Rahi (2017) argues that an exploratory study aims to find new insights about what is happening. The scholar suggests that with respect to exploratory, the researcher attempts assess phenomena in a new light. Thus, an exploratory is mostly carried out when the researcher has insufficient information about the subject matter being investigated. The primary goal of exploratory research to determine the feasibility of the research project (Hallingberg, Turley, Segrott, Wight, Craig, Moore, Murphy, Robling, Simpson & Moore, 2018). One benefit of

exploratory research is that it requires less resources and produces less data. However, the shortcomings of exploratory research include: the difficulties of integrating the results; difficult to apply in qualitative research; and only few examples exist from which researchers can model their study (Almalki, 2016).

The exploratory study was conducted because the researcher had little or limited understanding of the subject matter under investigation. Therefore, when properly conducted, this method of inquiry will help gain more insight into the research phenomenon.

5.2.4.3 Explanatory research

Explanatory research pays more attention to the cause-effect relationships between two or more variables” in a particular study (Engel & Schutt, 2014). Its primary goal is to determine how one variable affects or is responsible for the change in another variable. It has been argued that an explanatory study aims to identify causes to help assess the causality between variables in a particular study (Pierson & Thomas, 2010). An explanatory study further deals with the explanation of why an event occurs (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). According to Thyer (2010), an explanatory study helps in developing and testing theory in a particular field of study. Explanatory research explains why things are the way they are (Earl-Babbie, 2013). Islamia (2016) contends that an explanatory study is conducted when the goal is to explore a new universe. The author agrees with other scholarly researchers that an explanatory study concern with causes or why factor about some phenomenon. This type of designs helps to gain familiarity in unknown areas. Usually, an explanatory study is undertaken to formulate a problem for specific research or formulate research.

Conversely, Cozby (2009) advocates that an explanatory study can also be inductive in nature, thus it involves collecting qualitative data. Therefore, based on the above discussion it can be concluded that an explanatory study is undertaken to provide detailed information concerning how ethic leadership influence corruption and good governance. The benefits of explanatory research include: easy to implement; and enables the researcher to focus on the research methods to be adopted. Nevertheless, the challenges of conducting explanatory research include: difficulties of selecting the research participants in order that pertinent information is available and the time-consuming nature of this method of approach (Almalki, 2016).

5.2.4.4 Case study research

Creswell (2003) explains case study as a method of investigation where investigator examine

in depth a programme, an event, an activity, a process or more individuals. Case study can be either a single case or a case bounded by time and place (Creswell, 1998). Case study research aims to observe the participants' life experiences to make inferences on the current or past events (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). Yin (2009) opines that case study research focuses on an in-depth study rather than breadth; natural setting. According to Klassen, Creswell, Clark, Smith and Meissner (2012), social science researchers prefer a descriptive case study approach because it describes in detail the research phenomenon. This research design can be used to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative information (Saunders et al., 2009). Nevertheless, case study research tends to focus more on the qualitative approach than the quantitative approach. Given this type of research design, data can be gathered using different instruments (Wilson, Petticrew, Calnan & Nazareth, 2010).

An advantage of using case study research is that, when well-conducted, it provides a deeper understanding of an event and analysis of data from multiple sources. Moreover, it helps to improve social science research by examining previous events to predict the future outcomes as substantiated by Flyvbjerg (2006). Furthermore, an essential benefit of case study research is the opportunity for a holistic view of the process. Ebneyamini and Sadeghi Moghadam (2018) indicated that case study research allows the research to examine different aspects of a social phenomenon. Additionally, case study research is flexible because it enables the researcher to explore the data within a specific context (Yazan, 2015). It can be argued that case study research provides a deeper understanding of complex social phenomena. However, this method of investigation may not be applicable for this research because findings cannot be generalised. Additionally, case study research cannot be undertaken in this study because it contains a bias towards verification.

5.2.4.5 Experimental design

According to Bate and Chatfield (2016), in different fields of scientific research, experimental designs are now routinely adopted. These days, there is increasing use of experimental research design, especially in education research because of the “credibility revolution” (Angrist & Pischke, 2010) in economics, which aimed to use data to empirically test theoretical assertions (Loeb, Dynarski, McFarland, Morris, Reardon & Reber, 2017). Bryman and Bell (2011) contend that the researcher often manipulates the independent variable in an experimental design to assess the link between the dependent and independent variables. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) argue that the participants are mainly divided into two major groups in

experimental design, such as treatment and control groups. The investigator then manipulates the treatment group and compares the observation recorded against the control group, which does not receive any form of manipulation.

5.2.4.6 Survey research

Creswell (2007) argues that survey research has its origin in quantitative research and uses probability sampling methods to select the sample size from the target population to provide a numerical explanation of trends, attitudes, or behaviour. Survey research is conducted, especially when the goal is to collect primary data. This design is more appropriate when the primary goal is to collect considerable information without incurring too much cost. Check and Schutt (2011) define survey research as a research approach that involves collecting data from specific individuals through their responses to questions. Survey research allows for various instruments (questionnaires, interviews, and focus group interviews) to be employed to recruit the participants, collect data and analyse the data (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2016). Survey research is used, especially when the researcher intends to describe and examine human behaviour (Singleton & Straits, 2012). Singleton and Straits (2012) add that survey research has historically involved collecting large data based on the population. The primary goal of this research method is to obtain information that will help describe the characteristics of a large sample of individuals. Ponto (2015) opines that survey research is useful in describing and exploring variables and constructs of interest.

5.2.4.7 Action research

The origin of action research can be traced back to the 1940s, given the concerted attempts made by social scientists (French, 2009). According to Coghlan and Coughlan (2010), the primary goal of this research design is to contribute to practice and expand existing knowledge in a specific field of study. Action research is a generic construct involving several action-oriented studies where the findings are more important in practice. Burns (2009) postulates that the development of action research can be credited to German social psychologist (Kurt Lewin). In his first study, Kurt Lewin argues that experimental research, in many cases, was inadequate and unsatisfactory. However, he then tried to search for new research methods based on people's real-world experience, and from that time on, action research has entered the world of researchers. Stringer (2008) postulates that action research can be conducted to improve social issues affecting the lives of everyday people.

Action researchers engage in systematic and intentional inquiry and self-critical enquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). One study (Harrison, Birks, Franklin & Mills, 2017) suggests that action research seeks to collect and analyse data related to an issue of practice. Action research appears to work with researchers from the bottom-up perspective (Wahlgren & Aarkrog, 2021).

5.2.4.8 Ethnography research

Creswell (2012:14) states that ethnography research aims to investigate “an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period through the collection of observational data.” Ethnography study focuses more attention on the everyday behaviours of people. Ethnography research aims to understand cultural changes that occur in a group over time. However, the findings from this study may be limited to generalisation in other topics. Ethnography research offers a way forward, which helps to address the limitations of relying solely on interview data. This approach to research uses multiple data collection instruments, such as observations, interviews, and documentary data. The use of multiple data collection instruments (triangulation) can help validate the research findings. For instance, using observations, ethnographers can “immerse” themselves in a social setting, where they can generate a rich understanding of social action. Moreover, it is suggested that observation allows researchers to gain more into social phenomena hidden from the public (Reeves, Peller & Goldman, & Kitto, 2013).

According to Kian and Beach (2019), ethnography inquiry is mainly done on "critical" and "interpretive" analysis. Using this research method, the investigator is only required to analyse the data in relation to the participants' life experiences. Ethnographic research is a detailed description of phenomena and realities of the society, which is carried out through a holistic interpretive approach. Creswell (2009) argues that ethnography study involves three main processes. The first stage involves gaining access to the research location. The second step allows the researcher to build rapport with the participants and build trust. The third step requires the researcher to begin using the big net approach by intermingling with every participant to identify the culture's key informants. With this kind of approach, data can be collected through observations and interviews with informants. Ethnography study enables researchers to accurately describe a particular group of people and research method adopted. This approach also provides investigators with evidence to substantiate their claims (Williams, 2011).

5.2.3.9 Grounded theory

Chun Tie, Birks and Francis (2019) postulate that grounded theory is a common methodology employed in several research. Its aim is to uncover theories from data, systematically obtained and analysed using comparative analysis. Creswell (2012:14) explains that grounded attempts to obtain a “general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the participants’ opinions”. Saunders et al. (2009) contend that the grounded study involves gathering, analysing, and repeating the data process through comparative analysis. Ground theory allows multiple data collection from different sources. Moreover, it has been argued that grounded theory is used when the researcher has very limited information about the subject matter (Birks, Hoare & Mills, 2019; Birks & Mills, 2015).

5.2.3.10 Phenomenological study

The primary main of a phenomenological study is to “understand an experience from the participants’ point of view” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:157). Klassen, Creswell, Clark, Smith and Meissner (2012) also point that the phenomenological study focuses more attention on the perceptions and experiences of the subjects about a social phenomenon. Furthermore, phenomenological research aims to search for “the central underlying meaning of the experience and emphasise the intentionality of consciousness where experiences contain both the outward appearance and inward consciousness based on the memory, image, and meaning” (Creswell, 2012:52). This research design is like grounded theory research; however, it is challenging to conduct. The phenomenological study helps to understand a participant’s perceptions about an event (Creswell, 2012).

5.2.5 Research strategies

Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods research are the three main strategies in research. These strategies can be used separately or combined in one study. However, the study adopted the mixed-methods research.

5.2.5.1 Mixed methods research

According to McKim (2017), when using the mixed method, one needs to ask whether it will add value to the research than in separate studies. This method has existed since the 1950s but only gained popularity in the 1980s, and since then, it has increasingly been used by many researchers (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell 2003). According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), when deciding to use mixed methods, the researcher needs to understand the

value of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. Azorín and Cameron (2010) postulate that this method research involves the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study. It has further been defined as the classification of research where qualitative and quantitative methods, approaches, concepts, or language are mixed or combined into one study. This research method is more than merely gathering qualitative and quantitative data together; however, it involves integrated, correlated, or diversified data at some phase of the research process (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The use of the mixed methods is premised on the fact that the leadership model that will be developed will require inputs from various staff and managers. The primary goal of conducting mixed methods approach is to draw from the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of the quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2014). Mixed-methods research allows investigators to employ both deductive and inductive analysis in one study. The mixed-methods research approach offers the investigators the freedom to design a single research study that answers questions concerning complex nature of phenomenon from the participant's point of view and the relationship between measurable variables.

There are different mixed methods (Hunter & Brewer, 2015); however, sequential exploratory approach was adopted. This method involves collecting and analysing qualitative data, which is then followed by quantitative data collection and analysis. The purpose of adopting this method is to explore the research phenomenon in detail. The qualitative study was conducted among the participants such as Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers, and the Mayors' Office in the selected municipalities within the KwaZulu-Natal province. On the other hand, the participants to be included in the quantitative research are the junior employees or workers within the selected municipalities in the KwaZulu-Natal province.

The mixed-method was used because it adds value to the validity of the findings and assists with knowledge creation, as substantiated by Hurmerinta-Peltomaki and Nummela (2006). Another reason for choosing this research method was that it is more valuable than the mono-method (Molina-Azorin, 2011). Besides, an important reason for the choice of this method of research lies in its ability to integrate several components. The integration of the findings helped to boost the confidence of the readers.

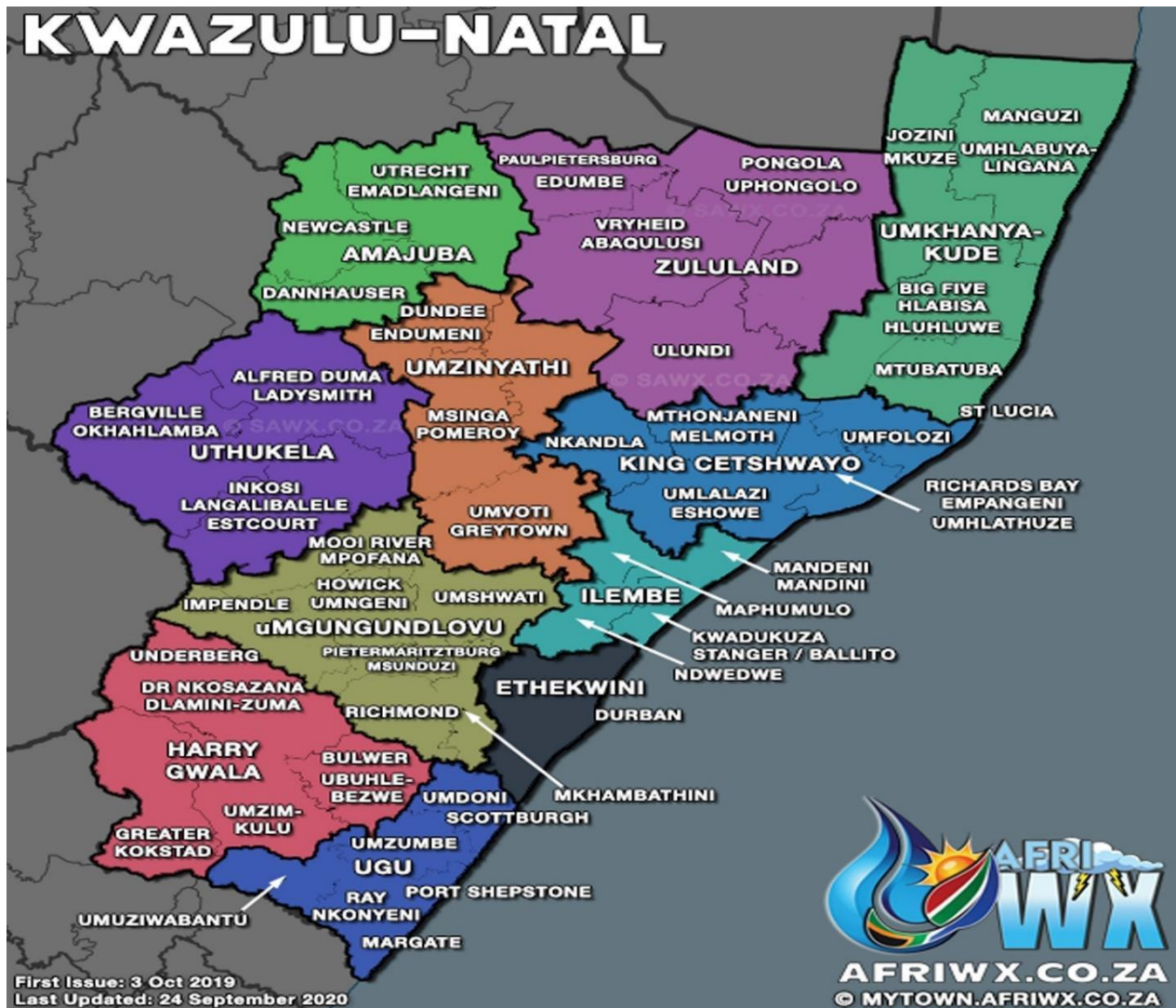
5.3 Target population and sample

This section of the chapter described the research location, target population, and sample.

5.3.1 Location of the study

The proposed study was conducted in some selected municipalities within the KwaZulu-Natal province, namely: eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality, uMgungundlovu District Municipality, and Msunduzi Local Municipality. eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality is located within the KwaZulu-Natal province and is the largest city. The uMgungundlovu District Municipality is a Category C municipality located in the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands. The Msunduzi Local Municipality is a Category B municipality located in the uMgungundlovu District in KZN. It is the smallest of the seven municipalities in the district. It encompasses the city of Pietermaritzburg, which is the capital of the province and the main economic hub of the district. The city of Pietermaritzburg is a provincial and national centre of educational excellence. It is the seat of the University of KZN and is home to several other institutions of higher learning. In addition, Pietermaritzburg is home to a host of private and government-owned primary and secondary education institutions. Figure 5.1 shows the map for the municipalities and districts in KZN.

Figure 5.1 Municipalities and districts in KZN



There were various reasons for the choice of these municipalities. One important reason was that these municipalities, over the years, were faced with an allegation of corruption scandals. This enabled the researcher to explore the phenomenon in detail. The choice of these municipalities was influenced by access to information and convenience. Besides, these municipalities were chosen because they were the largest within the KwaZulu-Natal province.

5.3.2 Target population

Population refers to all individuals or things that the researcher wishes to understand (Guzman, 2010; Rahi, 2017). A target population is a specified group of respondents (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The target population was limited to only junior employees, Municipal Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers, and the Office of the Mayors in the above three municipalities. The population of the study consists of 4000 participants from eThekweni

Metro, uMgungundlovu District and Msunduzi Local Municipality. Table 5.1 provides the breakdown of the population in each municipality.

Table 5.1 Study population

Name of Municipality	Population
eThekwini Metropolitan Municipality	1600
uMgungundlovu District Municipality	1100
Msunduzi Local Municipality	1300
Total	4,000

As reflected in Table 5.1, the population of various participating organisations was indicated. eThekwini Metropolitan Municipality has the largest population, while uMgungundlovu District Municipality has the least population. These municipalities were selected because of convenience and access to information.

5.3.3 Sample size

Sample refers to a segment, portion, or unit of the population selected for the study (Suresh, Thomas & Suresh, 2011). Similarly, Sekaran and Bougie (2013) recommend that samples cannot be selected from the entire population. Instead, the most appropriate source of selecting samples is from the sample frame. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), sample frame consists of list of all units in the population from which the research sample will be selected. As mentioned above, the sample frame included junior workers, Municipal Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers, and the Office of the Mayors in the three municipalities. The study adopted a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error to determine the sample size. The sample size was determined as per the recommendation by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The scholars suggest that for a population of 4000, the appropriate sample size to be used is 351. Based on this recommendation, the sample size of 351 was selected for the study. It was assumed that the sample of 351 was sufficient for this study. Since the study employed the mixed-methods research, 30 participants were chosen for qualitative study, while the remaining 321 participants were selected for quantitative research.

i. Selection criteria

The following criteria were adopted to select the research participants. Firstly, to participate in the study, the participant must be an employee in one of the municipalities. Secondly, a

potential participant must fall within the sample frame. Thirdly, to qualify for the study, a participant must be an employee for more than two years in the municipality.

ii. Recruitment strategies

After the municipalities had granted the researcher the approval, all the participants' lists and contact information were requested. The participants were then contacted on the telephone and via email. Finally, the participants who consented to be part of the study were recruited. Arrangements were then made with the participants concerning the date and time they will be available for participation in the study.

5.4 Sampling procedure

Sampling involves choosing a portion or unit of the whole population (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). There are two methods of sampling, namely: probability and non-probability sampling. The study combined both strategies to select the participants.

5.4.1 Probability sampling

The probability sampling gives each unit of the study population an equal opportunity to be selected for the study (Rahi, 2017). Grinnell and Unrau (2010) argued that probability offers every individual the chance to be included in the study. Probability sampling has different sampling techniques; however, the study adopted the stratified sampling technique.

Stratified sampling technique is the improved version of simple random sampling, which requires the availability of the sampling frame. It is more useful when the study population does not have a homogeneous group of stratified sampling technique (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Stratified sampling is used to segregate the population into smaller groups called strata, and each stratum is given an equal chance to be selected randomly (Mark, Philip & Adrian, 2009). It provides an equal proportionate representation to each stratum. Odoh (2015) confirms that the stratified sampling method helps divide the population into different groups, where the researcher then selects the participants randomly.

Stratified sampling aims to reduce the possibility of human bias when selecting the cases. Given this, the stratified random sampling provides researchers with a highly representative sample of the population being studied, assuming that there is limited missing data. Moreover, stratified random sampling allows investigators to generalise the findings based on the study population (Sharma, 2017). Using this sampling method, the researcher first grouped the

population in each municipality into sub-group and drew the samples randomly. For instance, the population in each municipality was grouped into various departments or units such as HRM, Procurement, Transportation and Logistics, Accounting, or Finance. The researcher will then draw the sample from each Department.

Stratified sampling was chosen because it minimises bias in the selection of the participants. Moreover, the stratified random sample was used because it ensures equal representation of the participants. Thus, stratified sampling was employed to ensure that the population in each stratum was adequately represented.

5.4.2 Nonprobability sampling

Unlike probability sampling, the nonprobability sampling is used in qualitative studies. The nonprobability sampling allows the researcher to use his/her bias judgment to select the research participants (Collis & Hussey, 2013). With this method of selection, the researcher decides on the participants to be selected. The section below describes the sampling techniques that make up the non-probability sampling.

Purposive sampling is also known as “judgment sampling.” Purposive sampling is when the researcher selects the subjects based on his judgment (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Odoh (2015) points out that purposive sampling helps choose the subjects based on their prior knowledge about their relevance to the study. Likewise, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) postulate that purposive sampling selects participants based on their understanding of the phenomenon. According to Elfil and Negida (2017), purposive sampling gives the researcher the freedom to select subjects based on their understanding of the social phenomenon. It is argued that the researcher assumes specific characteristics for the sample and judges the participants according to the knowledge concerning the chosen phenomenon (Elfil & Negida, 2017). However, purposive sampling is widely criticised because of the bias in the selection of the sample. The purposive sampling over other sampling techniques is cost-effective and convenient to use. Moreover, purposive sampling was used because it ensures that only the participants who have an in-depth knowledge of the research problem and topic are selected, as substantiated by Sharma (2017).

5.5 Data collection method

There are different methods of data collection. However, interviews and questionnaire were the main data collection instrument used in this study.

5.5.1 Personal interviews

According to Abiwu (2016), interviews are the face-to-face dialogue between the researcher and participants, where the researcher probes the participants for specific answers based on a particular subject matter. They are the most common data collection instruments in qualitative research. This data collection method has various advantages: captures verbal and non-verbal cues, keeps the interviewees focused and on track to completion, and captures an interviewee's emotions and behaviours.

The interviews sessions were classified into three main sections. Section A (gender, age, race, municipality belong to, education, position, tenure, and employment status); Section B (approaches adopted by the municipalities in curbing corruption); and Section C (characteristics of ethical leadership within municipalities).

5.5.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaire contains a list of items that are administered to respondents in order to elicit useful information from them (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The study utilised self-developed and structured questionnaires to gather information from the respondents. They were self-administered by the researcher. The questionnaires were constructed in English because it appeared that majority of the respondents were highly educated. The questionnaires were constructed in clear and simple language to be understood by the respondents. Where necessary, the questionnaires were translated into IsiZulu. Each respondent spent approximately 30 minutes completing the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was structured into four main parts. Part A covers the demographic characteristics; Part B deals with common manifestations of corruption in the municipalities; Part C covers the indicators of good governance within the municipalities; and Section D deal with effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance.

5.5.3 Pilot study

The research instruments were first tested through a pilot study. Maldaon and Hazzi (2015) contended that a good pilot study provides the road map for the research. The research instrument was piloted among 10 participants in different organisations, including the University of KwaZulu- Natal. Five (5) participants each were selected for the pilot study, respectively. The pilot study lasted for one week. The researcher then considered all the participants' views and suggestions in the final draft of the research instruments. The Cronbach's

alpha coefficient was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Reliability refers to the consistency of the measurement tool. The reliability scores range from 0 and 1. Sekaran and Bougie (2013) suggest that the reliability score should be 0.70 and above to be considered acceptable.

On the other hand, the validity of the measurement scale was determined through the statistical tools such as Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and exploratory factor analysis. The KMO test measures sampling adequacy for each construct in each study. KMO scores range from 0-1: 0.00- 0.49 (unacceptable), 0.50-0.59 (miserable), 0.60-0.69 (mediocre), 0.70- 0.79 (middling), 0.80 -0.89 (meritorious), and 0.90-1.00 (marvelous). A rule of thumb for interpreting the statistics is as follows: The reliability and validity results are presented as follows.

Table 5.2 Reliability-Cronbach’s coefficient alpha

Variables	No. of Items	No. of Items Deleted	Cronbach’s alpha
Fraud and bribery	11	1	0.76
Mismanagement of fund	10	2	0.81
Abuse of resources	6	-	0.93
Procurement irregularities	8	-	0.78
Unethical behaviour	11	-	0.95
Appointment irregularities	10	1	0.77
Accountability	8	-	0.89
Transparency	6	-	0.84
Responsiveness	3	-	0.88
Ethical leadership	16	-	0.92

As depicted in Table 5.2, the reliability scores range from 0.76 (for fraud and bribery) to 0.95 (for unethical behaviour). Statistically, the findings showed acceptable-to-good reliabilities for all the constructs.

Table 5.3 Validity: KMO and Bartlett's test

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.913
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-square	9974.882
df	1156
sig	0.000

The findings of the MSA was 0.913 (marvelous). Statistically, the requirements of sampling adequacy were met. Thus, the sample was adequate for the factor analysis.

5.5.4 Measurement Scale

The study employed the 5-point Likert scale as the measurement scale, where: Strongly Disagree =1; Disagree = 2; Neutral =3; Agree = 4; and Strongly Agree = 5.

5.5.5 Data quality

Data quality was determined using the criteria such as trustworthiness, reliability and validity. Trustworthiness is associated with qualitative research, while reliability and validity apply to quantitative research.

i. Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research means the demonstration that the findings from the research are sound and strong (Anney, 2014). There are several criterions for measuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. The most useful ones in this study are:

- **Credibility:** Credibility means internal validity in quantitative study. According to Anney (2014), credibility measures how the research findings from the study can be confirmed by other scholars. The credibility was determined through audit trial, triangulation, peer briefing, prolong engagement in the field, and reflexive journal.
- **Dependability:** Bitsch (2005) refers to dependability as the stability or consistency of the results over time. It also involves the process whereby the research participants assess the findings, interpretations, and recommendations of the study to ensure that they are in line with the information collected from them. The dependability was determined through audit trial, stepwise replication, and code-recode strategy.
- **Transferability:** Transferability measures how the study's research findings can be

applied in another context with different participants (Bitsch, 2005). Transferability was determined by engaging in the thick description and the use of purposive sampling to select participants with adequate knowledge of the subject matter.

- **Conformability:** Baxter and Eyles (1997) state that conformability measures how the research findings from the study can be corroborated by different researchers. Conformability was established through audit trial and triangulation.

ii. **Reliability and validity**

As discussed above, the reliability and validity of the measurement scale was determined through Cronbach's alpha and factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was first conducted to retain only the items that have higher loading. EFA helped to identify the hypothetical constructs that can parsimoniously explain the covariation observed within the dependent and independent variables. Haig (2014) points out that EFA is a fundamental tool to assess theories and validate research instruments. According to the rule of thumb, the factor loading 0.30 and above is significant. In this study, only the items with loading from 0.30 and above were retained.

5.6 Data analysis

The quantitative data was analysed using the NVivo, version 12.0. Qualitative researchers use NVivo to organise, index, code, and query journals for specific topics (Robins & Eisen, 2017). Qualitative data analysis can be done in two ways, namely: content and thematic analysis. For this study, thematic analysis was utilised. This analysis method allowed the researcher to observe, organise, describe, and report the patterns obtained from the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Moreover, the mind map was used to display the main and sub-themes that emerged from the study. According to Kotob, Styger and Richardson (2016), a mind map is used to analyse large amounts of qualitative data. Borhardt (2011) asserts that a mind map helps to arrange and present concepts visually. It also allows researchers to organise their thoughts, generate ideas, solve problems and engage in focus discussion (Cheng, Hu & Chen, 2012; Mattos, Mateus Junior & Merino, 2012). On the other hand, SPSS was used to analyse the quantitative data. Descriptive and inferential statistics helped to analyse the data.

5.7 Ethical considerations

The approval (HSSRC/00000986/2020) for this study was obtained from the Humanities Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. An online

application was together with supporting documents such as the gatekeeper's letters and research instruments. The ethical considerations addressed in the study were:

- **Anonymity and respect for the dignity of persons:** The anonymity of the participants was ensured by replacing their personal information with pennames in the dissertation and future publications.
- **Non-maleficence:** This principle states that the “researcher does no harm to the research participants and that he/she considers any potential risks (physical, emotional, and social) that the study may inflict upon them” (Waasenaar, 2006:67). There was no risk involved in this research. The participants' personal information was secured in this study.
- **Informed consent:** A consent form was attached to the research instruments. Each participant was asked to indicate his/her consent to participate in the study. The consent form provided detailed information about the method of investigation, benefits associated with the study, and how risks will be minimised. The participants were assured that the study was purely for an academic exercise.
- **Voluntary participation:** The participants were assured that their participation in the study was voluntary. No participant was forced or influenced to be part of the study. The participants were also allowed to withdraw from the stay at any stage without any implication.
- **Confidentiality:** The information solicited from the respondents was deposited at a safe place within the University. The researcher will keep the data for five, and after that, it will be disposed of as per the University's policy.

5.8 Chapter summary

The chapter described how the study was conducted empirically. Pragmatism was chosen as the research philosophy to address the qualitative and quantitative questions. Descriptive and exploratory research designs were conducted. The former allowed the researcher to describe how ethical leadership impacts corruption and good governance. The latter provided a better understanding of the research problem. The mixed-methods research was employed, which enabled the researcher to validate the research findings. Moreover, the study included the participants from some selected municipalities in KwaZulu-Natal. Stratified sampling was used to choose only the employees from various units in the municipalities for the quantitative

research. On the other hand, purposive sampling technique was employed to select only the participants who had a better understanding of the subject matter. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect the data collection. The research instruments were pre-tested to determine their validity, reliability, and trustworthiness. SPSS and NVivo were used to analyse the quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter Six: Presentation and Analysis of Data

6.1 Introduction

The presentation and analysis of the data has been done in two phases with the quantitative data first, and then followed by the qualitative data. This chapter presents and analyses the quantitative data collected from the respondents. The questionnaire was administered to 321 respondents (workers, Municipal Managers, Chief Financial Officers, Executive Managers and Office of the Mayors) in the participating organisations. Of the total sample, only 225 respondents, representing 70.1%, have completed the questionnaires. The 225-questionnaires returned by the respondents were fully completed. Therefore, the presentation and analysis of the data are based on the active response rate. The data collected was captured and coded in the SPSS, version 27.0 for analysis. The study employed descriptive and inferential statistics.

The quantitative analysis relates to the objectives below:

- i. To investigate the most common manifestations of corruption within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities
- ii. To determine the approaches adopted by the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in curbing corruption
- iii. To identify the indicators of good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities
- iv. To explore the effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities

6.2 Demographics of the respondents

The first part of the questionnaire determined the demographics of the respondents: gender, age, race, level of education, tenure, municipality, position, and employment status. The findings are presented as follows.

6.2.1 Gender of the respondents

The gender of the respondents from the three municipalities are shown in the Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Gender of the respondents

Gender		Frequency (n = 225)	Percent
Valid	Male	99	44.0
	Female	122	54.2
	Other	4	1.8
	Total	225	100.0

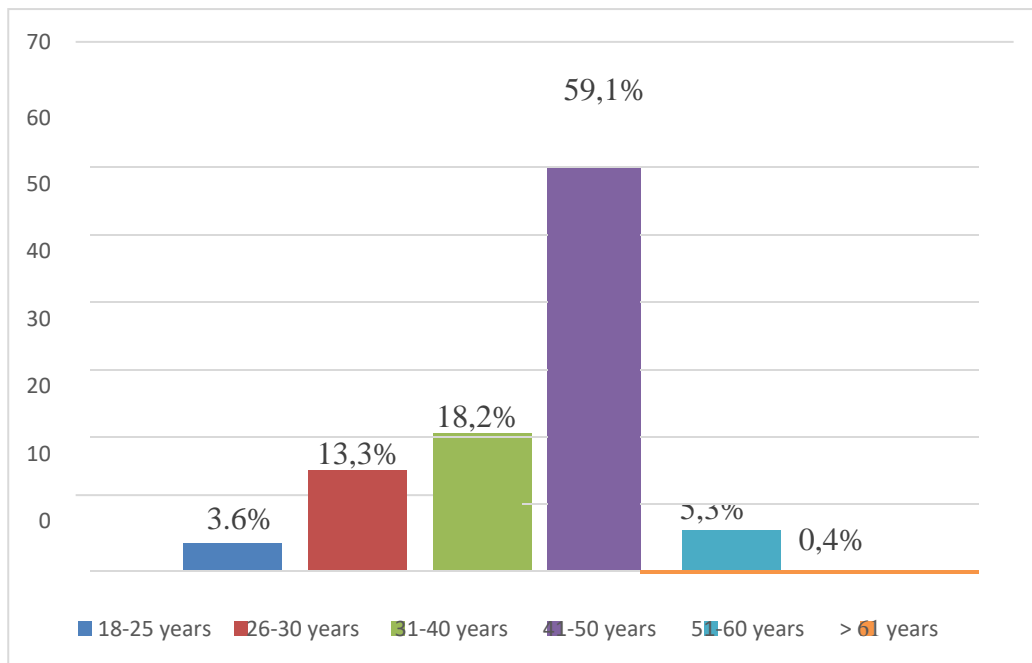
Source: Source: Field Data (2020)

From Table 6.1, most of the respondents were females (122), representing 54.2%, and then followed by males (99) who also represents 44%. Most of the respondents were females. The results on the respondents’ age are presented below.

6.2.2 Respondents age

Figure 6.1 shows the age range of the respondents from the three municipalities.

Figure 6.1 Respondents age



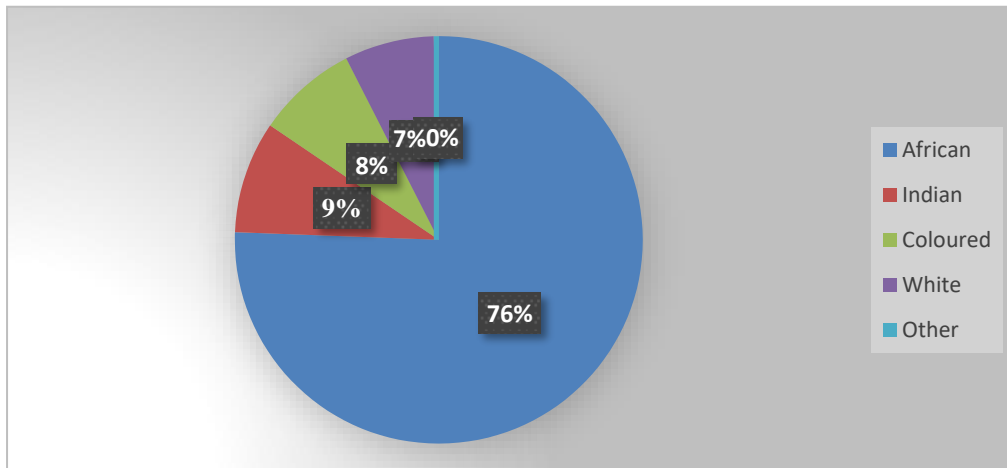
Source: Field Data (2020)

As shown in the Figure 6.1, 59.1% of the respondents were between the ages of 41-50 years, another 18.2% were between 31-40 years, while 13.3% were between 26-30 years. The following section shows the results of the respondents’ race/population group.

6.2.3 Respondents race

Figure 6.2 shows the respondents' race: African, Coloured, African, White and others.

Figure 6.2 Respondents race



Source: Field Data (2020)

Information from Figure 6.2 indicates that Africans (76%) constituted most of the respondents as compared to other racial groups such as Indians (9%), Coloureds (8%) and Whites (7%). The proceeding section describes the results of the respondents' educational qualification.

6.2.4 Educational qualification of the respondents

Table 6.2 describes the educational qualification of the respondents from the participating organisations.

Table 6.2 Educational qualification

		Frequency (n = 225)	Percent
Valid	Matric	6	2.7
	Certificate	70	31.1
	National Diploma	36	16.0
	Undergraduate	11	4.9
	Honours	97	43.1
	Masters	1	0.4
	Other (Specify)	4	1.8
	Total	225	100.0

Source: Field Data (2020)

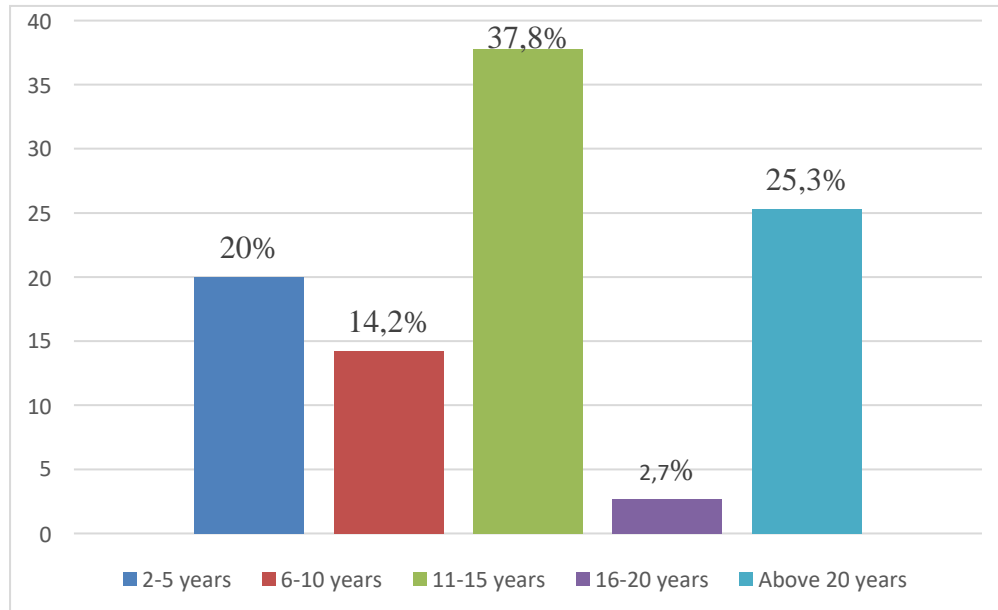
As reflected in Table 6.2, majority of the respondents had obtained Honours (43.1%), followed

by Certificate (31.1%) and National Diploma (16%). From the data, it can be suggested that the respondents who participated in the study had low level of education. The following section describes the tenure of the respondents from the three municipalities.

6.2.5 Respondents tenure

Figure 6.3 describes the tenure of the respondents from the three municipalities.

Figure 6.3 Respondents tenure



Source: Field Data (2020)

The results indicated that 37.8% of the respondents had worked in their respective organisations from 11-15 years, 25.3% of them worked above 20 years, another 20% of them worked for 2-5 years, whereas 14.2% of them worked between 6-10 years 14.2%. The section below describes the results of the municipalities that the respondents belong.

6.2.6 Municipalities the respondents belong

Table 6.3 show the various municipalities the respondents belong.

Table 6.3 Municipalities the respondents belong

		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 225)	Percent
Valid	eThekwini Metropolitan	100	44.5
	uMgungundlovu District	92	40.9
	Msunduzi Local	33	14.6
	Total	225	100.0

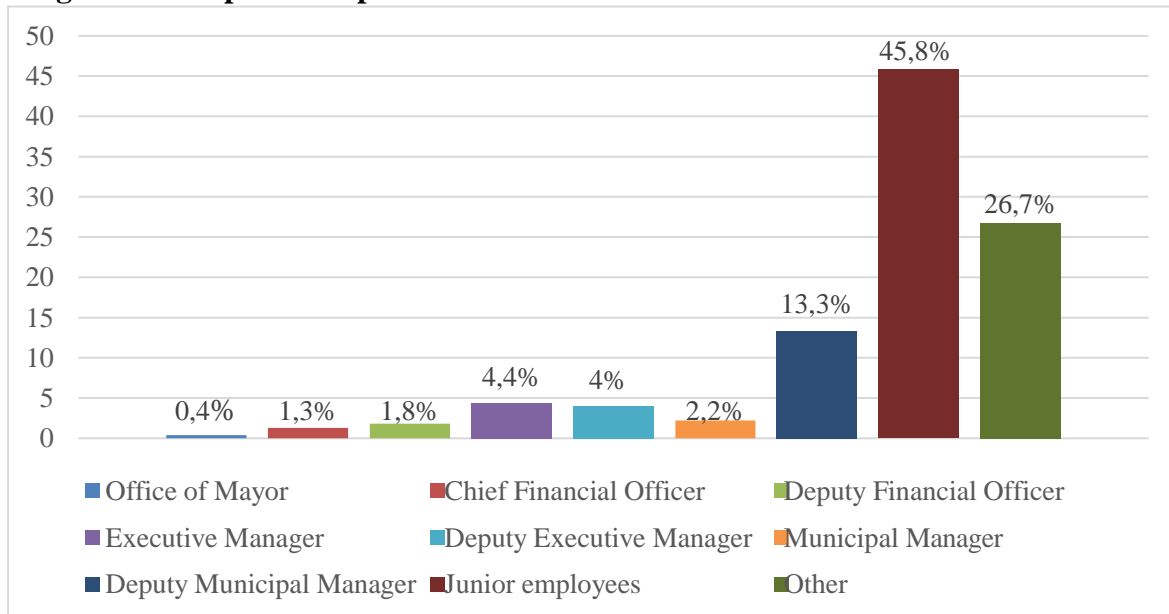
Source: Field Data (2020)

From Table 6.3, the majority of the respondents were from eThekweni Metropolitan (44.5%) and followed by uMgungundlovu District (40.9%). The next section describes the findings concerning the respondents' positions.

6.2.7 Respondents positions

Figure 6.4 shows the positions of the respondents in their respective municipalities.

Figure 6.4 Respondents positions



Source: Field Data (2020)

The results indicated that 45.8% of the respondents were junior employees, 26.7% were other employees and 13.3% were Deputy Municipal Managers. The section below describes the employment status of the respondents.

6.2.8 Respondents employment status

Table 4.4 shows the respondents employment status in their respective municipalities.

Table 6.4 Respondents employment status

		Frequency (n = 225)	Percent
Valid	Part-time	8	3.6
	Fixed-term	10	4.4
	Contract	24	10.7
	Full-time	182	80.9
	Other (Specify)	1	0.4
	Total	225	100.0

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results showed that 80.9% of the respondents were full-time employees, while 10.7% were contract employees. The section below describes the scoring patterns of the results using frequency.

6.3 Frequency analysis

This section of the chapter analyses the scoring pattern of each of the item using the frequency distribution. The purpose of the frequency analysis is to determine where the differences lie regarding each item and the need for improvement. The analysis is done in accordance with the research objectives.

6.3.1 Common manifestation of corruption in municipalities

This section shows the results of the respondents' perceptions regarding the common manifestation of corruption in the three municipalities.

6.3.1.1 Respondents perceptions concerning bribery in municipalities

Table 6.5 shows the findings concerning the respondents' perceptions on bribery in South African municipalities.

Table 6.5 Respondents perceptions concerning bribery in municipalities

No.	Statements/Items	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
B9	The municipality's main trading account is in South Africa	22(9.7%)	17(7.6%)	187(82.7%)
B10	The municipality is subjected to regular financial audit by an independent auditor or certified public Accountant	20(10.7%)	25(11.1%)	146(78.2%)
B11	The municipality has a zero tolerance policy on bribery	17(7.6%)	18(8%)	190(84.4%)
B12	The municipality provides training to staff in relation to bribery and corruption	28(12.4%)	27(12%)	170(75.5%)
B13	I am satisfied that no employee, managers and other staff members in the municipality have been subjected to investigations or prosecutions concerning bribery and corruption	55(24.5%)	18(8%)	152(67.6%)
B14	In my municipality, there is a full disclosure of conflict of interest	37(16.4%)	22(9.8%)	17(73.8%)
B15	I am glad that the municipality instituted measure to reduce or eliminate tender rigging	27(12%)	28(12.6%)	170(75.5%)
B16	The staff members in my municipality does not accept gifts from clients, politicians and the public	63(22.2%)	14(6.2%)	148(67.8%)
B17	The municipality has a policy against passing of confidential information to third parties	23(13.8%)	12(5.3%)	182(80.9%)
B18	The officials in the municipality do not receive kickbacks from suppliers, contractors and other agencies whom contracts have been awarded to	54(24%)	17(7.6%)	154(68.4%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results indicated that 82.7% (11.6% (agree) + 71.1% (strongly agree)) of the respondents agreed that their municipalities main trading accounts were in South Africa. Furthermore, most of the respondents (78.2%) agreed that their municipalities were audited by an independent

auditor or certified public accountant. Moreover, 84.4% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities had a zero-tolerance policy on bribery. Additionally, 75.5% of the respondents indicated that their municipalities provided training to staff in relation to bribery and corruption. Also, the results suggested that 67.6% of the respondents indicated they were satisfied that no employee, managers and other staff members in the municipalities have been subjected to investigations or prosecutions concerning bribery and corruption. Besides, 73.8% of the respondents agreed that in their municipalities, there was full disclosure of conflict of interest. The results suggested that 75.5% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities instituted measures to reduce or eliminate tender rigging. The results also revealed that 65.8% of the respondent agreed that staff members in their municipalities do not accept gifts from clients, politicians and the public. The greater proportion of the respondents (80.9%) agreed that their municipalities had a policy against passing of confidential information to third parties. Lastly, the results explained that 62.4% of the respondents supported the view that the official in their municipalities do not receive kickbacks from suppliers, contractors and other agencies whom contracts have been awarded to. The following section describes the respondents' perceptions concerning mismanagement of government funds.

6.3.1.2 Respondents perceptions concerning mismanagement of government funds

Table 6.6 shows the results of the respondents' perceptions on mismanagement of government/municipality funds.

Table 6.6 Respondents perceptions concerning mismanagement of government funds

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
B19	There is prudent allocation and direction of public funds	46(20.4%)	24(10.7%)	154(68.8%)
B20	The municipality is able to finance all its projects	42(18.7%)	27(12%)	156(69.3%)
B21	The municipality's operations and activities are not run-on debt	56(24.9%)	30(13.3%)	139(61.7%)
B22	The municipality's projects are completed timely	59(26.2%)	21(9.3%)	145(64.4%)
B23	There is assessment of risks involved in management of finances in the municipality	51(22.7%)	19(8.4%)	155(68.9%)
B24	The municipality has effective auditing controls in place	34(14.2%)	28(12.4%)	164(72.9%)
B25	There is monitoring of how finances are utilised by all departments and persons in the municipality	44(19.5%)	23(10.2%)	158(72.2%)
B26	The municipality operates a reliable accounting and integrated	35(15.6%)	32(14.2%)	158(70.2%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

Approximately 68.8% of the respondents agreed that in their municipalities, there was prudent allocation and direction of public funds. In addition, the results suggested that 69.3% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities were able to finance all their projects. Besides, 61.7% of the respondents agreed that the operations and activities in their municipalities were not run-on debt. Moreover, 68.9% of the respondents agreed that there was assessment of risks involved in management of finances in their municipalities. About 72.9% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities had effective auditing controls in place. Furthermore, approximately 70.2% of the respondents agreed that there was monitoring of how finances are utilised by all departments and persons in their municipalities. Finally, another 70.2% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities operate reliable accounting and integrated financial management system. The next section shows the results of the respondent's perceptions concerning the abuse of municipalities' resources.

6.3.1.3 Respondents perceptions concerning the abuse of municipalities resources

The perceptions of the respondents concerning the abuse of resources in their municipalities are shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 Respondents perceptions concerning the abuse of municipalities resources

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
B27	The municipality has a policy on the allocation and use of resources so as to minimise possibility of corruption	31(13.8%)	16(7.1%)	178(79.1%)
B28	The municipality's policy on the allocation and use of resources is communicated to every worker	15(7.7%)	26(11.6%)	184(81.8%)
B29	The staff in the municipality are aware of the policy on the allocation and use of the resources	39(17.7%)	25(11.1%)	161(71.5)
B30	The resources in the municipality are allocated to the right departments and individuals	38(16.9%)	26(11.6%)	162(71.5%)
B31	The resources allocated to the various departments and individuals are properly accounted for	37(16.4%)	24(10.7%)	164(72.9%)
B32	Effective control measures are in place to enable better employability/allocation of available resources	44(19.6%)	17(7.6%)	164(72.9%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results suggested that 79.1% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities had a policy on the allocation and use of resources to minimise possibility of corruption. In addition, the results indicated that 81.8% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities had policy on the allocation and use of resources is communicated to every worker. Furthermore, 71.5% of the respondents agreed that the staff in their municipalities were aware of the policy on the allocation and use of the resources. Moreover, 71.5% agreed that the resources in their municipalities were allocated to the right departments and individuals. Additionally, 72.9% of the respondents agreed that the resources allocated to the various departments and individuals

were properly accounted for. Lastly, another 72.9% of the respondents agreed that effective control measures were in place to enable better employability/allocation of available resources. The following section describes the results of the respondent’s perceptions concerning procurement irregularities.

6.3.1.4 Respondents perceptions concerning procurement irregularities

Table 6.8 presents the respondents perceptions regarding procurement irregularities in the various municipalities where the study was conducted.

Table 6.8 Respondents perceptions regarding procurement irregularities

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
B33	The municipality has a clear policy on procurement process	25(11.1%)	18(8%)	160 (71.1%)
B34	The policy on procurement process is communicated to all the Stakeholders	22(9.8%)	37(16.4%)	166(73.8%)
B35	The municipality’s policy on procurement process complies with the international and national laws which regulate procurement process	19(8.4%)	28(12.4%)	178(79.1%)
B36	The procurement process in the municipality is clear and fair	42(18.6%)	22(9.8%)	161(71.5%)
B37	The procurement process in the municipality is very Transparent	49(21.8%)	17(7.6%)	159(70.6%)
B38	There is enough information on the tender process in the municipality	44(19.5%)	22(9.8%)	159(70.6%)
B39	There is transparency of bid process in my Municipality	40(17.8%)	24(10.7%)	161(71.5%)
B40	There is equal access to procurement opportunities in the Municipality	65(28.9%)	23(10.2%)	137(60.9%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

About 71.1% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities had a clear policy on procurement process. In addition, 73.8% of the respondents agreed that the policy on procurement process was communicated to all the stakeholders. Moreover, 73.1% agreed that municipalities’ policies on procurement process complied with the international and national

laws which regulate procurement process. Furthermore, 71.5% of the respondents agreed that the procurement process in their municipalities was clear and fair. In addition, 70.6% of the respondents agreed that the procurement process in their municipalities was very transparent. Approximately 70.6% of the respondents agreed that there was enough information on the tender process in their municipalities. The results also suggested that 71.5% of the respondents agreed that there was transparency of bid process in their municipalities. Lastly, 70.9% of the respondents agreed that there was equal access to procurement opportunities in their municipalities. The results of the respondent's perceptions regarding unethical behaviour are shown in the following section.

6.3.1.5 Respondents perceptions concerning unethical behaviour

Table 6.9 shows the respondents perceptions concerning unethical behaviour.

Table 6.9 Respondents perceptions concerning unethical behaviour

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
B41	The municipality has a policy and code of conduct on moral Behaviours	15(6.7%)	29(12.9%)	181(80.4%)
B42	There are processes and mechanisms in place to report unethical behaviours	25(11.1%)	19(8.4%)	181(80.5%)
B43	It is very easy to report ethical behaviours in the municipality	35(15.6%)	22(9.8%)	168(74.7%)
B44	The municipality rewards workers for reporting unethical behaviours	247(20.9%)	27(12%)	151(167.1%)
B45	The leadership or top management often take positive actions when people reported unethical behaviours	52(23.1%)	15(6.7%)	158(70.2%)
B46	I feel comfortable when reporting unethical Behaviours	46(20.4%)	22(9.8%)	157(69.8%)
B47	I believe that it is part of my responsibility to report unethical behaviours	42(16.4%)	13(5.4%)	170(75.5%)
B48	I know where and how to lodge an unethical complaint in my Municipality	45(20%)	19(8.4%)	161(71.6%)

B49	The municipality provides clear guidelines on how to act ethically	24(10.6%)	79(35.1%)	115(51.2%)
B50	The municipality offers training on how to act Ethically	38(21.3%)	21(9.3%)	156(69.3%)
B51	The behaviour of leaders is consistent with the stated ethics and values of the municipality	33(14.7%)	19(8.4%)	173(76.9%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

The findings suggested that 80.4% agreed that their municipalities had a policy and code of conduct on moral behaviours. Furthermore, 80.2% agreed that there were processes and mechanisms in place to report unethical behaviours. In addition, 74.7% of the respondents agreed that it was very easy to report ethical behaviours in their municipalities. Besides, 67.1% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities reward workers for reporting unethical behaviours. The results indicated that 70.2% of the respondents agreed that the leadership or top management often take positive actions when people reported unethical behaviours. In addition, 69.8% of the respondents agreed that they felt comfortable when reporting unethical behaviours. Moreover, 75.5% of the respondents believed that it is part of their responsibility to report unethical behaviours. About 71.6% agreed that they know where and how to lodge an unethical complaint. The results further revealed that 51.2% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities provide clear guidelines on how to act ethically. Another 69.3% of the respondents agreed that their municipalities offer training on how to act ethically. Finally, 76.9% of the respondents agreed that the behaviour of leaders was consistent with the stated ethics and values of the municipalities.

6.3.1.6 Respondents perceptions concerning appointment irregularities

Table 6.10 displays the results of the respondents' perceptions concerning appointment irregularities.

Table 6.10 Respondents perceptions concerning appointment irregularities

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
B52	The municipality has a clear policy on appointment	87(38.7%)	14(6.2%)	124(55.1%)
B53	Vacancies within the municipality are advertised on public platforms	44(19.8%)	71(31.6%)	110(48.9%)
B54	The applicants are given the opportunity to attend interviews	41(18.2%)	73(32.4%)	111(49.6%)
B55	Applicants are given the opportunity to ask questions during the interviews	98(43.6%)	11(4.9%)	116(51.5%)
B56	Applicants undergo employment testing as well as medical examination before final appointment	88(47.1%)	12(5.3%)	107(47.6%)
B57	The appointment process is very fair and transparent	109(48.4%)	10(4.4%)	106(47.1%)
B58	There is no discrimination in the appointment process	99(44%)	15(6.7%)	111(49.3%)
B59	Appointment in the municipality is based on competency rather than whom you know	49(21.7%)	17(7.6%)	159(70.6%)
B60	The applicants that were appointment possess the required skills, experience and knowledge to function more effectively and efficiently	28(12.4%)	22(9.8%)	175(77.8%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

Approximately 55.1% of the respondents agreed that their municipality had a clear policy on appointment. Moreover, 48.9% of the respondents agreed that vacancies within the municipalities were advertised on public platforms. Besides, 48.5% agreed that the applicants were given the opportunity to attend interviews. In addition, 51.5% of the respondents agreed that they had the opportunity to ask questions during the interviews. In addition, 47.6% of the respondents agreed that applicants undergone employment testing and medical examination before final appointment. Furthermore, 47.1% of the respondents agreed that the appointment

process was very fair and transparent. Furthermore, about 70.6% of the respondents agreed that appointment in the municipalities was based on competency rather than whom you know. Finally, 77.8% of the respondents agreed that the applicants that were appointment possessed the required skills, experience and knowledge to function more effectively and efficiently.

6.3.2 Indicators of good governance

This section describes the respondents’ perceptions concerning the indicators good governance in the South African municipalities. The results are presented in the subsequent sections.

6.3.2.1 Respondents perception concerning accountability

Table 6.11 shows the respondents perception concerning accountability

Table 6.11 Respondents perception concerning accountability

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
C61	The municipality has a good policy on accountable governance	15(9.4%)	32(14.2%)	172(76.4%)
C62	The municipality policy on accountability is very clear to everyone	23(10.2%)	18(8%)	184(81.8%)
C63	I am aware of the policy on accountability in the municipality	32(14.2%)	22(9.8%)	171(76%)
C64	My colleagues hold me accountable for all my decisions and actions	19(8.4%)	27(12%)	179(79.6%)
C65	My manager holds me accountable for all my decisions and actions	41(18.2%)	17(7.6%)	167(74.2%)
C66	My manager is held very accountable for his/her actions at work.	40(17.8%)	22(9.8%)	163(72.5%)
C67	My manager often must explain his/her actions	37(16.5%)	23(10.2%)	165(73.3%)
C68	I hold my manager accountable for all his/her decisions and actions	34(15.1%)	20(8.9%)	171(76%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

About 76.4% agreed that the municipality has a good policy on accountable governance. Moreover, 81.8% of the respondents agreed that the municipalities’ policy on accountability was very clear to everyone. Additionally, 76% of the respondents indicated they were aware of the policy on accountability in their municipalities. Furthermore, 79.6% of the respondents

agreed that their colleagues hold them accountable for all decisions and actions they took. Besides, 74.2% of the respondents agreed that their managers hold them accountable for their decisions and actions. Furthermore, the results indicated that 72.5% of the respondent agreed that their managers often explain their actions. Lastly, 76% of the respondents agreed that they hold their managers accountable for all their decisions and actions.

6.3.2.2 Respondents perception concerning transparency

The results of the respondents' perceptions concerning transparency in the various municipalities are shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Respondents perception concerning transparency

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
C69	The municipality has a policy on transparency	37(16%)	29(12.9%)	160(71.1%)
C70	Every staff in the municipality is aware of the need to be transparent	37(16%)	29(12.9%)	160(71.1%)
C71	The municipality's annual report and budget are widely distributed or published in Government Gazette	44(19.5%)	17(7.6%)	163(72.9%)
C72	The municipality's financial transactions and account are audited by the Auditor General	25(11.1%)	22(9.8%)	178(79.1%)
C73	There is a system of disclosure of business interests by councillors and officials in the municipality	35(15.6%)	17(7.6%)	173(76.9%)
C74	There is a disclosure of information	51(22.7%)	19(8.4%)	155(68.9%)
C75	The information on the business interests of councillors and officials in the municipality is made available to the public	38(16.9%)	29(12.9%)	158(70.2%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results suggested that 71.1% of the respondents agreed that municipalities in KZN had a policy on transparency. Another 71.1% of the respondents agreed that staff in the municipalities were aware of the need to be transparent. 71.9% of the respondents agreed that municipalities annual report and budget were widely distributed or published in Government Gazette. In

addition, 79.1% of the respondents agreed that municipalities' financial transactions and account were audited by the Auditor General. Besides, 76.9% of the respondents agreed that there was a system of disclosure of business interests by councillors and officials in the municipalities. It was found that 68.9% of the respondent agreed that municipalities system for disclosure of business interests by staff members, councillors and officials was effective. Finally, the results suggested that 70.2% of the respondents agreed that information on the business interests of councillors and officials in the municipality was made available to the public.

6.3.2.3 Respondents perception concerning responsiveness

The results of the respondents' perceptions concerning responsiveness in the various municipalities are shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13 Respondents perception concerning responsiveness

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
C76	The municipality provides prompt services to the community	59(26.2%)	12(5.3%)	154(68.4%)
C77	The municipality is always willing to help the community	53(23.6%)	18(8%)	154(68.4%)
C78	The staff are never too busy to respond to customers' or community request	55(24.4%)	16(7.1%)	154(68.4%)

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results 78.5% of the respondents agreed that municipalities provided prompt services to the community. 68.4% of the respondents agreed that municipalities were always willing to help the community. Lastly, 68.4% of the respondents agreed that staff were never too busy to respond to customers' or community requests.

6.3.2.4 Respondent perceptions concerning ethical leadership

The results of the respondents' perceptions concerning ethical leadership in the various municipalities are shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14 Respondents perception concerning ethical leadership

No	Statements/Items	Agreed	Neutral	Disagreed
D79	The leaders in the municipality are fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to workers	54(24%)	23(10.2%)	103(65.8%)
80	The leaders in the municipality communicate clear ethical standards for Members	42(18.7%)	28(12.4%)	155(68.9%)
D81	The leaders in the municipality hold the staff accountable	49(21.8%)	22(9.8%)	154(68.5%)
D82	The leaders in the municipality oppose unethical conducts	34(15.1%)	26(11.6%)	165(73.4%)
D83	The leaders set examples of dedication and self-sacrifice for the municipality	55(24.9%)	18(8%)	151(67.1%)
D84	There leaders in the municipality are opened to communication and good listeners	43(19.1%)	23(10.2%)	159(70.6%)
D85	The leaders in the municipality show strong concerns for ethical and moral values	47(20.8%)	76(33.4%)	102(45.3%)
D86	The leaders in the municipality regard honesty and integrity as important personal values	98(43.5%)	23(10.2%)	104(46.3%)
D87	The leaders in my municipality are trustworthy	115(51.1%)	16(7.1%)	94(41.8%)
D88	The leaders in the municipality use their power wisely	43(19.1%)	29(12.9%)	153(68%)
D89	The leaders in the municipality are fair	39(17.4%)	130(57.8%)	149(66.2%)
D90	The leaders in the municipality put the needs of others above their own self-interests	58(25.8%)	22(9.8%)	143(64.4%)
D91	The leader in the municipality acknowledges mistakes and takes responsibility for them	60(26.7%)	16(7.1%)	149(66.2%)

92	The leaders in the municipality are honest and trustworthy	50(22.2%)	19(8.4%)	156(69.4%)
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Source: Field Data (2020)

Most of the respondents (65.8%) agreed that the leaders in municipalities were fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to workers. About 68.9% of the respondents agreed that the leaders in the municipalities communicate clear ethical standards for members. Moreover, 68.5% of the respondents agreed that the leaders in the municipalities hold the staff accountable for their actions. 73.4% of the respondents agreed that the leaders in the municipalities opposed unethical behaviours. Approximately 67.1% of the respondents agreed that their leaders set examples for them to follow. Furthermore, it was discovered that 68% of the leaders in the municipalities used their power wisely. Besides, it was found that 66.5% of the leaders in the municipalities were fair and objective. The results indicated that 64.4% of the he leaders in the municipalities put the needs of others above their own self-interests. The results showed that 66.2% of the leader in the municipalities acknowledged mistakes and accepted the responsibility for their actions. Lastly, 69.4% of the leaders in the municipalities were trustworthy.

6.4 Analysis of the measuring instrument

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and factor analysis were computed to determine the reliability and validity of the scale used. Two sets of factor analysis were computed to assess the validity of the measuring instrument: EFA and KMO Test. EFA is one of the factor analyses that it is used when a researcher does not have any knowledge of the nature or the number factors (Williams, Brown & Onsmann, 2012). EFA allows the researcher to discover the principal variables to build a theory or model through a set of hidden dimensions via a set of indicators. EFA was first performed unrotated, using maximum likelihood extraction and eigenvalues. The EFA using the principal component extraction method was used to reduce the number of factors in the questionnaire.

On the other hand, the KMO test was computed to determine sampling adequacy. The adequacy of the sample was measured by KMO in SPSS. The sampling is adequate or sufficient if the value of KMO is larger than 0.5 (Field, 2000). Pallant (2013) suggests that the value of KMO should be 0.6 and above. Kaiser (1974) recommends a bare minimum of 0.5 and the value between 0.5 and 0.7 are mediocre, value between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, value between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and value between 0.9 and above are superb. This study adopted the

recommendations made by Kaiser (1974).

Moreover, the strength of the relationship in SPSS was measured by a Bartlett Test of Sphericity. It is a measure of a multivariate normality of set of distribution. This test also checks the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. The significant value less than 0.05 indicates that these data do not produce an identity matrix and are thus approximately multivariate normal and acceptable for further analysis (Pallant, 2013; Field, 2000).

In addition, the reliability of each item was also determined using the Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is a statistic commonly quoted by authors to demonstrate that tests and scales that have been constructed or adopted for research projects are fit for purpose (Taber, 2018). The Cronbach's alpha is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. Nunnally (1967) sets the standards for reliability coefficients used in basic research at 0.6, then later increased this to 0.7 (1972). Some scholars offered indications of alpha having a threshold or cut-off as an acceptable, sufficient or satisfactory level. For instance, van Griethuijsen, van Eijck, Haste, den Brok, Skinner, Ayse Savran Gencer, and BouJaoude (2015) argued that most authors consider the Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 or 0.6 as acceptable. George and Mallery (2003:231) provide the following rules of thumb: “ $\alpha > 0.9$ – Excellent, $\alpha > 0.8$ – Good, $\alpha > 0.7$ – Acceptable, $\alpha > 0.6$ – Questionable, $\alpha > 0.5$ – Poor, and $\alpha < 0.5$ – Unacceptable” . This study adopted the guidelines provided by Nunnally (1967). The results of EFA, KMO and Bartlett Test of Sphericity are presented below.

6.4.1 Fraud and bribery

The results of the KMO test was 0.87, which suggested a high suitability for the items measuring fraud and bribery. In addition, Bartlett's test was significant at 1%, indicating the adequacy of the sample. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.94, indicating that the internal consistency for the items is higher than the recommended value of 0.70. Additionally, the item-total-correlations suggested that all the items are greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was computed to evaluate the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for fraud and bribery. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items B16 and B18 were not suitable in measuring fraud and bribery as common manifestation of corruption in South African municipalities because they are less than the threshold (0.30). Therefore, these items

were dropped.

6.4.2 Mismanagement of government funds

The results of the KMO score was 0.93, indicating a high suitability for the items measuring mismanagement of funds. Bartlett's test was significant at 1%. The results implied that the sample from which the data was collected is adequate. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.96, indicating that the internal consistency for the items is higher than the recommended value of 0.70. Additionally, the item-total-correlations suggested that all the items are greater than 0.30 threshold.

Moreover, the component matrix was computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for mismanagement of government funds. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items B22 and B26 were not suitable in measuring mismanagement of funds as a common manifestation of corruption because their values were less than 0.30. Therefore, these items were dropped.

6.4.3 Abuse resources

The results of the KMO score was 0.87, indicating a high suitability for the items measuring abuse of resources. The Bartlett's test was also significant at 1%, indicating that sample used was sufficient and adequate. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.93, indicating that the internal consistency for the items is higher than the recommended value of 0.70. Besides, the item-total- correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for abuse of resources. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items B28 and B31 were not suitable to measure abuse of resources as a common manifestation of corruption. Therefore, these items were dropped.

6.4.4 Procurement irregularities

The KMO score was 0.90, which suggest a high suitability for the items measuring procurement irregularities. The Bartlett's test was also significant at 1%, suggesting that the sample selected for the study was adequate. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.94, indicating that the internal consistency for the items is higher than the threshold. The item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for abuse of resources. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items B35, B36, B37 and

B39 were not suitable to measure procurement irregularities as a common manifestation of corruption. Therefore, these items were dropped. The following section shows the results of the study concerning unethical behaviour.

6.4.5 Unethical behaviour

The KMO score was 0.90, which indicate a high suitability for the items measuring unethical behaviour. The Bartlett's test was also significant at 1%. This imply that the sample was sufficient. The reliability score was 0.92, indicating that the internal consistency for the items is higher than the threshold. The item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for abuse of resources. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items B44 and B45 were not suitable to measure unethical behaviour as a common manifestation of corruption. Therefore, these items were dropped. The following section shows the results of the study concerning unethical behaviour.

6.4.6 Appointment irregularities

The results of the KMO score was 0.80, which shows a high suitability for the items measuring appointment irregularities. The results of the Bartlett's test was significant at 1%. The results imply that the sample was sufficient. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.89, indicating that the internal consistency for the items was higher than the threshold (0.70.) The item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for appointment irregularities. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that all the items were suitable to measure appointment irregularities as a common manifestation of corruption.

6.4.7 Accountability

The results of the KMO score was 0.90, which shows a high suitability for the items measuring accountability. The results of the Bartlett's test was significant at 1%, indicating that the sample used was sufficient. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.94, indicating that the internal consistency for the items was higher than the recommended threshold. The item- total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for appointment irregularities. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that items C63 and C68 were not suitable to measure accountability as an indicator for good governance. Therefore, these

items were deleted.

6.4.8 Transparency

The results of the KMO score was 0.85, which shows a high suitability for the items measuring accountability. The results of the Bartlett's test was significant at 1%. The results imply that the sample was sufficient. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.92, exceeding the recommended threshold (0.70). Furthermore, the item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for appointment irregularities. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that all the items were suitable to measure transparency as an indicator for good governance. The next section shows the results of responsiveness as an indicator of good governance.

6.4.9 Responsiveness

The results of the KMO was 0.71, which indicate a high suitability for the items measuring responsiveness. Moreover, the results of the Bartlett's test was significant at 1%. The results imply that the sample was sufficient. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.82, exceeding the recommended threshold (0.70). Additionally, the item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for responsiveness. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that all the items were suitable to measure responsiveness. The following section shows the results of the items measuring ethical leadership.

6.4.10 Ethical leadership

The results of the KMO was 0.91, which indicate a high suitability for the items measuring ethical leadership. The results of the Bartlett's test was significant at 1%. The results implied that the sample was sufficient for the study. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.92, exceeding the recommended threshold (0.70). Furthermore, the item-total-correlations indicated that all the items were greater than 0.30 threshold. The component matrix was further computed to determine the most correlated item(s) of the dataset for ethical leadership. The results of rotated component matrix suggested that 4 items (C79, C81, C82 and C84) were not suitable to measure ethical leadership. Therefore, these items were deleted.

6.5 Factor analysis

The EFA using principal component extraction was further computed to reduce the number of

items in the measuring instrument. Moreover, the reliability of the items that were retained after the EFA was determined. The results of the factor loading for the various constructs, with the reliability values, Eigenvalues, mean, and standard deviation are shown in Table 15.

Table 6.15 Exploratory factor analysis: Principal component extraction method

Rotated Component Matrix ^a									
Items	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
B9	.784								
B10	.611								
B11	.652								
B12	.673								
B13	.470								
B14	.640								
B15	.546								
B16	.504								
B17	.553								
B18	.421								
B19		.350							
B20		.606							
B21		.583							
B23		.548							
B24		.583							
B25		.460							
B27			.854						
B29			.757						
B30			.550						
B32			.448						
B33			0.441						
B34				.732					
B38				.461					
B40				.450					
B41					.715				
B42					.719				
B43					.494				
B46					.413				
B47					.446				
B49					.367				
B52						.459			
B60						.363			
C61							.650		
C65							.585		
C63							.570		
C67							.558		
C66							.557		
C64							.518		
C71								.817	

C69								.747	
C73								.695	
C72								.597	
C76								.534	
C74								.510	
C70								.446	
C80									.592
C83									.553
C88									.437
C89									.364
C90									.394
C91									.321
Cronbach's α	0.94	0.95	.092	0.88	0.88	0.55	0.92	0.93	0.94
Eigenvalue	33.66	7.82	4.94	3.49	2.08	1.52	1.20	1.14	1.02
% of Variance	47.41	11.02	6.96	4.91	2.94	2.14	1.69	1.61	1.44
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.									
a. Rotation converged in 21 iterations.									

Source: Field Data (2020)

Table 6.15 shows the retained items for the 9 factors after processes of the dimension reduction from the factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores ranged between 0.55 and 0.95. The results indicated that 9 factors could be extracted. These are labelled as follows: Factor 1 (fraud & bribery), Factor 2 (misappropriation of funds), Factor 3 (abuse of resources), Factor 4 (procurement irregularities), Factor 5 (unethical behaviour), Factor 6 (appointment irregularities), Factor 7 (accountability), Factor 8 (Transparency) Factor 9 (ethical leadership). These 9 factors explained 80.12% of the variance of the measuring instrument. The items in the questionnaire indicated acceptable loadings of >0.30.

6.6 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics (Mean, lower bound, upper bound, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation) were further computed to assess the perceptions of the respondents concerning ethical leadership, corruption and good governance. Table 6.27 shows the findings of the study.

Table 6.16 Descriptive statistics: Key constructs in the study

Dimension	Mean	95 % Confidence Interval		Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Fraud and bribery	4.15	4.01	4.30	1.08920	1.00	5.00
Mismanagement of funds	3.92	3.76	4.08	1.22008	1.00	5.00
Abuse of resources	4.12	3.98	4.26	1.07038	1.00	5.00
Procurement irregularities	3.95	3.78	4.09	1.24700	1.00	5.00
Unethical behaviour	3.87	3.75	3.98	0.88520	1.00	5.00
Appointment irregularities	3.69	3.57	3.76	0.92650	1.00	5.00
Accountability	4.12	3.99	4.25	1.02240	1.00	5.00
Transparency	4.04	3.89	4.11	1.08308	1.00	5.00
Ethical leadership	3.52	3.37	3.66	1.08023	1.00	5.00

Source: Field Data (2020)

From Table 6.26, the items measuring fraud and bribery (Mean = 4.15), mismanagement of funds (Mean = 3.95), abuse of resources (Mean = 4.12), procurement irregularities (Mean = 3.95), unethical behaviour (Mean = 3.87), appointment irregularities (Mean = 3.69), accountability (Mean = 4.12), transparency (Mean = 4.04), and ethical leadership (Mean = 3.52) had very high Mean scores, exceeding 3.00. Therefore, it can be concluded that all the constructs investigated in this study are very significant. This suggests that a significant relationship existed between ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance.

6.7 Inferential statistics

To provide valid conclusions, inferential statistics such as correlations, linear regression, sample t-test, and ANOVA were applied. The results are presented in the subsequent sections.

6.7.1 Pearson correlation

To determine the relationship between the variables, the Pearson correlation coefficient was computed. The results are presented as follows.

6.7.1.1 Common manifestations of corruption

The results of the common manifestations of corruption in the three municipalities are shown in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17 Common manifestations of corruption

Correlations						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Corruption	1.00					
Fraud and bribery	.957**	1.00				
Mismanagement of funds	.971**	.938**	1.00			
Abuse of resources	.952**	.889**	.919**	1.00		
Procurement irregularities	.918**	.813**	.868**	.894**	1.00	
Unethical behaviour	.852**	.728**	.766**	.762**	.811**	1.00
Appointment irregularities	.721**	.607**	.655**	.670**	.688**	.680**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Data (2020)

There was a strong positive relationship between corruption and fraud and bribery ($r = 0.957$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, a strong positive relationship existed between corruption and mismanagement of funds ($r = 0.971$, $p < 0.01$). Furthermore, a strong positive relationship occurred by corruption and abuse of resources ($r = 0.952$, $p < 0.01$). Besides, the results indicated a strong positive correction between corruption and procurement irregularities ($r = 0.918$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, a strong positive relationship existed between corruption and unethical behaviour ($r = 0.852$, $p < 0.01$). A strong positive relationship existed between corruption and appointment irregularities ($r = 0.721$, $p < 0.01$).

6.7.1.2 Indicators of good governance

Pearson correlations was further computed to determine the relationship between the indicators or good governance in the three municipalities. Table 6.18 shows the research findings.

Table 6.18 Indicators of good governance

Constructs	1	2
Good governance	1.00	
Accountability	.972**	1.00
Transparency	.982**	.910**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results indicated a strong positive relationship between good governance and

accountability ($r = 0.972, p < 0.001$). Additionally, a strong relationship occurred between good governance and transparency ($r = 0.982, p < 0.01$). The overall results suggested that the indicators of good governance in South African municipality include accountability and transparency.

6.7.1.3 Correlations between ethical leadership and corruption

Table 6.19 shows the association between ethical leadership and corruption in the South African municipalities.

Table 6.19 Relationship between ethical leadership and corruption

Constructs	1	2
Ethical leadership	1.00	
Corruption	0.761**	1.00

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results showed a strong positive relation between ethical leadership and corruption ($r = 0.761, p < 0.01$). Thus, ethical leadership had a strong influence on corruption in South African municipalities.

6.7.1.4 Relationship between ethical leadership and good governance

Table 6.20 depicts the results of ethical leadership as a predictor of good governance in South African municipalities.

Table 6.20 Relationship between ethical leadership and corruption

Constructs	1	2
Ethical leadership	1.00	
Good governance	0.733**	1.00

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Data (2020)

The results revealed a strong correlation between ethical leadership and good governance ($r = 0.733, p < 0.01$). The following section shows the relationship of the linear regression.

6.7.2 Linear regression

To respond to the items on the measuring instrument, the independent variables (corruption and good governance) were regressed on the dependent variable (ethical leadership). Table

6.21 shows the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

Table 6.21 Linear regression

Variables	R	R square	Adjusted R square	F	Beta	T	P
Constant	.766 ^a	.587	.583	157.525	-	.794	.000 ^b
Corruption					.556	5.124	.000
Good governance					.223	2.052	.041

Source: Field Data (2020)

The regression model shown in Table 6.31 indicated R square of 0.587 with an Adjusted R square of 0.583. This suggests that ethical leadership explained 58.3% of the variations corruption and good governance. Thus, ethical leadership predict corruption and good governance in the municipalities. The standardised beta value of corruption and good governance ($\beta = 0.556$, $p < .001$), ($\beta = 0.233$, $p > .005$) suggested that ethical leadership contributed more to the fight against corruption than promoting good governance.

6.8 Presentation and analysis of qualitative data

This chapter discusses the qualitative findings that were obtained from the participants through interviews. Interviews were conducted with 12 participants in the three municipalities. The interviews were audio-taped with the permission of the participants. NVivo, version 13.0, was employed to organise and report the main and sub-themes identified in the study. The themes that emerged from the study were presented using mind map. The findings are presented in accordance with the research objective.

6.9 Description of the sample

Table 6.21 shows the description of the sample/participants who participated in the study.

Table 6.21 Description of the sample

Category of the sample	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	7	58.3
Female	5	41.7
Age Group		
26-30 years	1	8.3
31-40 years	3	25
41-50 years	5	41.7
61-60 years	3	25
Race		
African	8	66.7
Indian	3	25
White	1	8.3
Qualification		
National Diploma	2	16.7
Undergraduate	3	25
Honours	4	33.3
Masters	3	25
Tenure		
6-10 years	7	58.3
11-15 years	3	25
16-20 years	2	16.7
Municipality		
eThekwini Metropolitan	4	33.3
uMgungundlovu District	4	33.3
Msunduzi Local	4	33.3
Positions		
Chief Financial Officer	1	8.3
Deputy Financial Officer	2	16.7
Executive Manager	2	16.7
Deputy Executive Manager	1	8.3
Municipal Manager	2	16.7
Deputy Municipal Manager	2	16.7
Employee	2	16.7
Employment Status		
Full-time	12	100

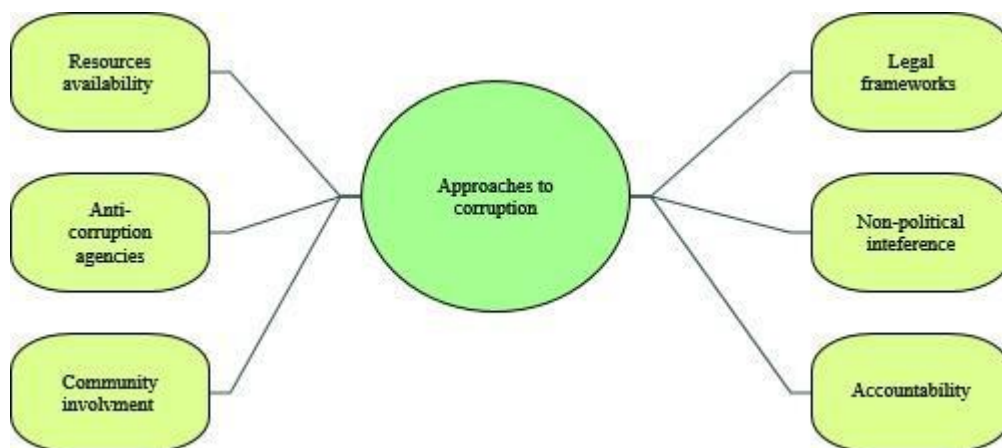
As shown in Table 6.21, males represented 58.3% of the participants, while females constituted 41.7% of them. Also, 41.7% of the participants were between 41-50 years, 25% were between 31-40 years and 61-60 years respectively, and 8.3% were between 26-30 years. Moreover, the findings revealed that 66.7% of the participants were African, 25% were Indian, while 8.3% were White. The results indicated that 33.3% had Honours, 25% had Undergraduate and Masters respectively, while 16.7% had National Diploma. In addition, 58.3% of the participants

had worked between 6-10 years, 25% had worked between 11-15 years, and 16.7% had worked between 16-20 years. Besides, the results showed that 33.3% of the participants belonged to eThekweni Metropolitan, uMgungundlovu District, and Msunduzi Local Municipality respectively. The results revealed that 16.7% of the participants were Deputy Financial Officers, Executive Managers, Municipal Managers, Deputy Municipal Managers and Employees respectively, whereas 8.3% of them were Chief Financial Officer and Deputy Executive Manager respectively. The findings showed that all the participants (100%) were full-time employees in the three municipalities.

6.10 Approaches to curbing corruption in South African municipalities

This study investigated the approaches used by the South African municipalities in curbing corruption. Based on the data, several strategies were identified in fighting corruption in South African municipalities. The findings are shown in the Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5 Approaches to curbing corruption



6.10.1 Theme 1: Provision of resources

The participants were probed on how resources availability influenced the fight against corruption in the municipalities. The findings appeared to show varied perceptions among the participants concerning the provision of resources. While the majority (N = 7) of the participants indicated that provision of resources will help curb corruption, however, a few (N = 4) of them argued that corruption cannot be reduced through provision of resources. Some of the views expressed by the participants are stated as follows.

Participant 1 said that:

Yes. By hiring private agencies that are independent (eThekweni Metropolitan

Municipality).

Participant 2 expressed that:

Physically, if you have motivated leaders in the municipalities, you are fighting corruption. They will also be able to develop whistleblowing mechanisms and establish courts that will adjudicate corruption cases. With these individuals we can be able to curb corruption (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 4 said that:

No. still is not going to help (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.10.2 Theme 2: Legal frameworks

The findings suggested that legal framework is one of the approaches to fighting corruption in South African municipalities. Majority of the participants (N = 8) argued that South Africa has weak legal frameworks which made it difficult for the law enforcement agencies to combat corruption. The participants argued that the anti-corruption laws rather favour the corrupt official. Some of the views collected from the participants in support of the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 2 said that:

No. There is no effective rule of laws in fighting corruption within municipalities. Hence, we have corruption cases that are being investigated without outcomes. Look at what is currently happening in the Zondo commission, and I am not going to explain further (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 indicated that:

No. I think the laws are not strict enough. There is no repercussion for corruption (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 5 said that:

No. If you say law, it only favours the wrong people. You can put laws they are not going to work because those people can pay their ways out. Is all about money (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.10.3 Theme 3: Non-political interference

The participants were further probed on the effectiveness of non-political interference in

fighting corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The findings indicated the fight against corruption can only be won if the politicians refrain from interfering in the works of the municipalities. Most of the participants (N = 10) argued that if there are no politicians involve it will be very easy for people to address corruption. The participants have said the following.

Participant 2 said that:

Yes. I think is the principles of independence and separation of powers. There is also the need to strengthen the municipality structure Act and system Act. Those two Acts must be clear in terms of the fight against corruption. Non-political interference helps build the development of the locality without wasting resources (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 stated that:

Yes. I think political inference is the one that causes corruption To begin with. So, when we stop that I think we will win it (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

On the contrary, a few (N = 2) of the participants argued that corruption will always occur even if there is no political interference. The followings quotes support the views expressed by the participants.

Participant 8 said that:

No. Corruption will always be there. There is nothing we can do. Corruption has nothing to do with political interference. Naturally, some people are corrupt. We cannot continue to blame the politician (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.10.4 Theme 4: Anti-corruption agencies

Moreover, the study investigated the role of anti-corruption agencies in curbing corruption. The findings showed that the anti-corruption institutions or bodies played critical role in the fight against corruption. Most participants (N = 7) were of the view anti-corruption agencies can be strengthen by formulating a strong anti-corruption polices within the municipalities. Moreover, they argued that the anti-corruption agencies operate transparently. Additionally, some of the participants suggested that hiring private agencies that are independent would help to fight corruption in the municipalities. Some of the views collected from the participants which reaffirm the results are presented as follows.

Participant 1 said that:

Yes. By hiring private agencies that are independent (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 2 also indicated that:

Yes. I think it can be created by formulating a strong anti-corruption polices within the municipalities. And operating transparently. Also, to detect mechanisms such as auditing, reporting and as well as accountability (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 expressed that:

Yes. I think not the government, but private agencies should be hired (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 4 said:

Hiring no political staff (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

However, one of the participants disagreed with the majority. The participant argued that the enforcement authorities are not effective enough in the fight against corruption. The participant 9 said the following.

No, it won't help. The anti-corruption agencies have human beings like us. There is tendency for people to be bought. Look at what is going on the country. Corruption is everywhere. If they are effective in performing their tasks corruption would have been reduced (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.10.5 Theme 5: Community involvement

The study further probed the respondents on the role of community participation in fighting corruption in KZN municipalities. The findings revealed that community involvement played a significant role in fighting corruption. From the interviews, most of the respondents (N = 9) opined that the involvement of the community helped to minimise the prevalence of the corruption in the municipalities. The participants said that involving the community in the corruption fight will always help them to take actions against municipalities. Moreover, the argued that harnessing the capacity of the community to fight corruption is essential. The

participants said the following in support of the findings.

Participant 2 indicated:

Harnessing the capacity of the community to fight corruption is essential. I think it will lead to social accountability which will empower citizens with information. This will address corruption from bottom-up. Citizens are critical agent of change because they are the fight one to complaint and strike if there are potential corrupt activities (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 said:

Okay, community involvement will cut down most of the corruption activities because the municipalities will be forced to hire people from the community. So, the entire community will gain but not just an individual (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 8 said:

Community involvement can affect corruption positively if it is non-political. Because most people like money. You can give people money even if it is small, they can do something. So, it is non-political it is possible that the community can come together to fight corruption. It helps to make sure that the community is updated on everything that is happening in their environment (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.10.6 Theme 6: Accountability

The study identified accountability as unique approach for curbing corruption in KZN municipalities. Most of the participants (N = 8) expressed that accountability helps people to be disciplined, hence it can be used as a tool to fight corruption. Additionally, the participants argued that accountability helps people to know that if they are involved in corruption they will get fired. The quotes obtained from the interviews in support of this finding are stated as follows.

Participant 2 said:

There is a principle of accountability in most South African public sector organisations. However, the municipality has a long way to go in fighting corruption and holding people accountable (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 7 expressed:

If individuals are to be held accountable it will help to reduce corruption in the municipalities. People must take responsibility for their actions and inactions

(uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

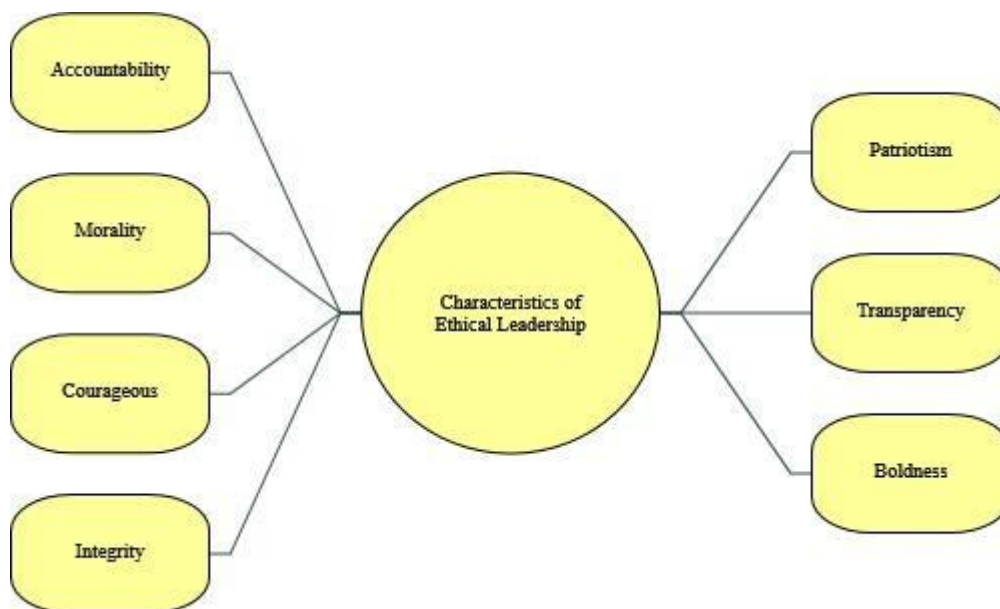
Participant 12 indicated:

Accountability helps people to know that if they are involved in corruption they will get fired. It helps to bring down the number of corruption (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.11 Characteristics of ethical leadership

The study also probed the participants on the characteristics of ethical leadership in the three municipalities. The findings showed that there were no ethical leaders in the KZN municipalities. The findings are shown in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6 Characteristics of ethical leadership



6.11.1 Theme 1: Accountability

The study probed the participants opinion on whether the KZN municipalities are accountable to the community and State. From the interviews, most of the participants (N = 9) argues that the municipalities in KZN lacked the principle of accountability. Moreover, the participants expressed that the municipalities failed to win the fight against the corruption because the leaders are not hold accountable for their actions and inaction. Some of the views expressed by the participants which support the findings are stated below.

Participant 1 expressed:

No, the municipalities lack ethical leaders because they failed to uphold the principle

of accountability. The leaders in the municipalities do not qualify to be called ethical leaders because they lack the basic virtues of ethical leaders such as trust and accountability. Most of these leaders are corrupt to the extent that they failed to serve the interest of their constituents. We are all suffering today because of these leaders (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 7 indicated:

No, we do not have ethical leaders in this municipality since they do not respect the principle and value of accountability. The leaders here failed to be accountable for their stewardship (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 10 said:

We lack ethical leaders not only in this municipality. An ethical leader is the one who helps team members to perform at their highest level through trust, and provision of the necessary tools. Unfortunately, this is not the case here. Our leaders failed to hold others accountable. Service delivery continues to deteriorate because of the lack of the failure to accept responsibility (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.11.2 Theme 2: Morality

The findings from the study suggested that the municipalities in KZN lacked moral leaders. Most of the participants (N = 9) indicated that their leaders lacked virtues such as aspirations, principles and values. Moreover, the participants argued that their leaders lacked moral leadership because they do not possess qualities like honesty and humility. Some of them further suggested that they do not lead by example since they asked their subordinates to do anything they have not already accomplished. The quotes obtained from the interviews which reaffirm the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 1 said:

No, we don't have morally upright leaders here. Moral leaders are not corrupt. They do the right thing. A moral leader has personal values like trust, honesty, and credibility. Unfortunately, most leaders in this municipality do not possess these values. If we have morally upright leaders' corruption would have been minimised (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 indicated:

Sorry, we do not have such leaders in this organisation. To me, a moral leader is the one that is driven by principles such as self-discipline, honesty and trust. I am not sure that such leaders exist in this municipality (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 8 expressed:

This cannot be true because such leaders do not exist here. To be honest with you I do not see such people in this municipality. Moral leaders are not corrupt, but they are truthful and credible. I cannot see these people in this workplace (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.11.3 Theme 3: Courage

The findings revealed that courageous leadership is not an indicator of good governance in the KZN municipalities. Majority of the participants (N = 8) claimed that leaders in their municipalities were not courageous because they failed to communicate openly and to act on performance challenges. Furthermore, the participants said that their leaders were not courageous because they failed to lead by example. In addition, the participants argued that their leaders failed to give them the confidence required to perform the job to the best of their ability. Some of the view collected from the participant which support the findings are stated as follows.

Participant 2 said:

To be honest, this organisation does not have leaders who courageous because they failed to instil confidence in people to perform their job. Some of the leaders do not encourage their subordinates to strive towards achieving the desired goals and objectives set by the local government (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 5 said:

No, I do not think that this municipality has courageous leaders because they failed to take the right decisions. Most of the leaders in the municipality failed to take decisions to deal with, for example conflict of interest. Also, they are not bold to confront others and situations. They also failed to inspire others with their vision (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

Participant 11:

No, our leaders are not courageous. Most of these leaders are not willing to take risks.

Governance is about risks taking. Unfortunately, these leaders are not risk takers. More so, they are not willing to make mistake (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

6.11.4 Theme 4: Integrity

The study also probed whether the three municipalities have leaders with integrity. The overall findings (N = 8) revealed that the KZN municipalities lacked leaders with integrity. The views expressed by the participants are captured below.

Participant 1 said:

No, I do not think that we have leaders with integrity within our current municipality. It is worth noting that leaders with high integrity do not engage in criminal and corrupt practices. The seemingly increasing rate of corruption in the municipalities points to the lack of leaders with moral integrity. To me, there is no such leadership here (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 expressed:

Well, at the moment, I think such leaders are lacking in this municipality. If there is any, I cannot see them because leaders who demonstrate integrity garner trust among their followers. The leaders here lack integrity because of the non-demonstration of truth and credibility (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 5 indicated:

No, I'm afraid I disagree with you because there are no ethical leaders in the municipality. There are no leaders with integrity here. Corruption is on the rise in the country. This is the demonstration that we lack leaders with integrity (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.11.5 Theme 5: Patriotism

The findings suggested that KNZ municipalities lacked. Majority (N = 11) argued that their municipalities failed to appoint patriotic leaders. They believed that their leaders do not have the love and sympathy for the country. Moreover, the participants said that their leaders were not loyal, hence this affected the development of their local government. The views expressed by the participants are stated as follows.

Participant 2 said:

The leaders here are not patriotic. They don't care about the future of this nation. They

are only interested in making money for themselves and their family. They do not have this country at heart. There is corruption everywhere. These leaders are not trustworthy (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 7 indicated:

No, we do not have patriotic leaders in this municipality. A patriotic leader is the one who inspire people to give their best to their nations. Unfortunately, I cannot see such leaders in this municipality (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 8 believed:

I think you are joking because we do not have such leaders here. To my understanding, a patriotic leader understands the imperative of building bridges across groups of people, that connects us within the workplace and the society. Such leaders demonstrate that they have all it takes get it done. Moreover, such leaders devote their resources serving other people irrespective of their background. I cannot see such leaders in today's workplace (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.11.6 Theme 6: Transparency

Besides, the probed the participants whether the leaders within the KZN municipalities were transparent. Majority (N = 10) of the participants said that their leaders were not transparent. They argued that their leaders were implicated or cited in corruption related cases. Some of the views expressed by the participants are stated as follows.

Participant 2 said:

Specific attributes define transparent leaders. A transparent leader strives to practice what he preaches, sets crystal-clear expectations, and communicates effectively with every team member. Unfortunately, the leaders in this municipality do not demonstrate these qualities that constitute transparency. Most of the leaders are too corrupt (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 5 expressed:

I am not sure, but I know that it is hard to find transparent leaders these days. A transparent leader demonstrates qualities like trust, honesty, and openness. Moreover, the leader keeps the team in the loop, shares information freely, and invites open communication within the organisation. When you look at all these qualities of a

transparent leader, you will agree that there is none in this municipality (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

Participant 7 reported:

No, the leaders are not transparent. When you look at what is going on in the country you will understand that we lack transparent leaders. Corruption is everywhere. The leaders are not honest and trustworthy. I feel sad about way our leaders are managing things (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

6.11.7 Theme 5: Boldness

The study examined whether the leadership of the municipalities demonstrate boldness in decision- making and governance. The findings (N = 10) demonstrated that the leadership of the municipalities lack the courage and boldness to make decisions. The participants argued that their leaders do not inspiring hope and collaborate with them. Moreover, the stated that their leaders were not confident to take certain crucial decisions that will benefit the citizens. Additionally, they said that their leaders were unwilling to take risks to develop innovative ways of running the municipalities.

Participant 1 said:

I am not sure whether we have courageous and bold leaders in this municipality. These days, because of the fear of victimization and politics people are not willing to take bold decisions even if such decisions will benefit the majority. Our leaders are now becoming coward because they fear for their lives and positions. I think where this country is heading towards, we need leaders who are bold and courageous to taken decisions even if their own people are not in favour of them (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality).

Participant 3 expressed:

One cannot see bold leaders here. A bold leader is the one who takes responsibility for his actions. The question is, have you ever seen or hear our leaders taking responsibility of their actions and inactions? Our leaders are afraid to speak about issues that affect their constituents. They are afraid to criticse their own people who are doing wrong things. The only leader who was bold and courageous was the former President (Nelson Mandela). He was fearless, and willing to take personal responsibility for his actions (uMgungundlovu District Municipality).

Participant 5 indicated:

I am not sure that we have bold and fearless leaders in the municipality. People are afraid to speak out. The leaders failed to take bold decisions. More so, they do not have the courage to speak against corruption and injustice in the system (Msunduzi Local Municipality).

6.12 Chapter summary

The quantitative results identified the common manifestation of corruption in the KZN municipalities: fraud bribery, resources abuse, procurement irregularities, unethical behaviour and appointment irregularities. Moreover, the results identified the indicators of good governance in the municipalities, including accountability and transparency. The overall results showed that ethical leadership significantly impacted corruption and governance in the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. On the other hand, the qualitative findings revealed the approaches to corruption in KZN municipalities: resource availability, anti-corruption agencies, community involvement, legal framework, non-political interference, and accountability. Moreover, the study found there is a lack of ethical leaders within the three municipalities.

Chapter Seven: Discussion of the Results

7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to discuss the results that were obtained from the study. The discussion is done as per the research objectives. The first objective investigated the most common manifestations of corruption within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The second objective determined the approaches adopted by the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in curbing corruption. The third objective identified the indicators of good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The fourth objective analysed the characteristics of ethical leadership within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities and the fifth objectives explored the effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing corruption and promoting good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities.

7.2 Objective 1: Common manifestation of corruption

Objective one investigated the manifestations of corruption in municipalities. This objective was investigated and achieved through the quantitative research method. The results indicated different forms of corruption within the municipalities. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.2.1 Fraud and bribery

The results of the Pearson correlations coefficient showed a strong positive relationship between corruption and fraud and bribery ($r = 0.957, p < 0.01$). However, the qualitative study has no findings concerning the relationship between fraud, bribery and corruption. The quantitative results are consistent with previous findings. Fraud has been perceived as actions or behaviours, particularly by public servants, other persons or entities to influence someone to offer certain benefits that would not have been accrued to that person (Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). According to Zahra *et al.* (2005), fraud is the deliberate actions taken by some personalities, especially at the managerial positions to influence, con, persuade, swindle, or cheat investors. Fraud may take different forms, including self-dealing, withholding vital information and cover-ups. Akers and Bellovary (2006) point out that fraud represents the misrepresentation of facts in pursuit of personal gain. In a similar opinion, Dycks *et al.* (2013) concurred that fraud encompasses practices such as nondisclosure and misrepresentation. For Harrison (2014), fraud is any unethical businesses deals which has the tendency to result in financial loss to the victims. KPMG (2013) discovers that fraud cost the African continent approximately \$5.5 billion 2012. Within the South African public sector,

evidence suggests that the common form of corruption include fraud (Munzhedzi, 2016). Munzhedzi (2013) confirms that procurement fraud costs South Africa taxpayers millions of rand annually. Another study reveals that greater management autonomy in the public sector creates more avenues for fraud and corruption since public officials are freed from traditional budgetary control measures (Munzhedzi, 2016).

On the other hand, bribery has been considered as the most common type of corruption (Munzhedzi, 2013). Cleveland *et al.* (2009) believe that bribery is an immoral and unethical practice or behaviour where a person offers something, especially money in exchange for favour. Yun (2010) concurs that bribery is cooperation between corrupt parties which leads to extortion. Bribery is a common phenomenon, especially within public institutions which undermine institutional credibility.

7.2.2 Mismanagement of funds

The study identified mismanagement of funds as a common manifestation of corruption in municipalities. The results of the Pearson correlation coefficient showed a strong positive relationship between corruption and mismanagement of funds ($r = 0.971$, $p < 0.01$). These findings agreed with empirical research. Bukuluki (2013) postulates that corruption represents the abuse or improper management of public office to obtain private gain. Furthermore, Rangongo *et al.* (2016) and Van Rooyen (2012) believe that globally, countries, including South Africa, are confronted with financial management issues. It can be argued that in South Africa, although the PFMA1 mandates public officials or accounting officers to charge officials who make unauthorised, irregular, or fruitless and wasteful expenditures, the situation is far from reality. Similarly, Gordhan (2014) argues that even though South Africa has comprehensive and progressive laws to address procurement-related challenges, lack of financial control continues to manifest in all spheres of government.

Rangongo *et al.* (2016) contend that the common causes of financial mismanagement include lack of knowledge and understanding of financial management laws, the appointment of incompetent public officials, improper monitoring and control of funds, inadequate policies of finance management, and employment and appointment of dishonest government officials. Munzhedzi (2013) also concurs that the local sphere of government is often characterised by financial management challenges, such as corruption.

7.2.3 Procurement irregularities

Moreover, the results indicated a strong positive correlation between corruption and procurement irregularities ($r = 0.918$, $p < 0.01$). The findings which emerged from this study are supported by existing research. Fourie and Malan (2020) postulate that public procurement fulfills an essential function in terms of economic development and public expenditure. Public procurement plays a significant function in an economy and public spending throughout the world because it is considered an indicator of government efficiency (OECD, 2017). In the last decades, the South African government has acknowledged the importance of public procurement on productivity through its cost-saving initiatives. Public procurement practitioners (Ambe & Badenhorst-Weiss, 2012) believe that public procurement concerns the government's responsibility to deliver goods, services, and infrastructure to citizens. World Bank (2020) reports that public procurement is a vehicle that promotes good governance and embeds the effective and efficient use of public resources.

Like any other country, the South African procurement system has been granted constitutional status and recognised as a tool for addressing past discriminatory policies and practices. For instance, the Constitution requires that regulatory frameworks be prescribed or promulgated to regulate procurement process. It is a constitutional requirement that procurement process be fair, equitable, transparent, competitive, and cost-effective. Also, Section 76 (4) of the PFMA regulates the public procurement process, where the National Treasury is tasked with developing regulations to ensure the public procurement system complies with section 217 of the Constitution (Watermeyer, 2011). Commenting further on the public procurement process, Ambe and Badenhorst-Weiss (2012) believe that the PPPFA was promulgated to ensure that public procurement conforms to the provisions of the Constitution. Although the legal reforms, the South African procurement process appears to be faced by several predicaments, including but not limited to procurement irregularities (Smart Procurement, 2011). According to Moeti (2014), the procurement process is characterised by fraud and bribery in most cases.

Transparency International (2011) also reports that procurement irregularities constitute common manifestations of corruption in South Africa. Bruce (2012:15–28) argues that procurement corruption includes “extortion and bribery, the involvement of the private sector with administrative officials, misappropriation, embezzlement, fraud or theft that includes abuse of telephones.” In a similar study, Munzhedzi (2016) argues that the most significant restrictive factor hampering public procurement is corruption.

7.2.4 Unethical behaviour

The results indicated a strong positive relationship between corruption and unethical behaviour ($r = 0.852, p < 0.01$). However, in the case of the qualitative research, no evidence exists on corruption and unethical behaviour. The quantitative findings reaffirm the results of previous empirical research. According to the Daily Sun (2012) cited by Manala (2014), the corruption index report revealed that South Africa's image keeps worsening. In South Africa, evidence shows that the common manifestation of corruption within the public sector are unethical behaviour and criminal conduct (Public Service Commission, 2011). Transparency International (2011) has also identified various forms of corruption in South Africa, including unethical behaviour. One research (Ahiaga-Dagbui & Smith, 2014) suggests that corruption in most industries is attributed to many factors, including unethical behaviour. Frynas (2010) claims that in most cases, the inducement for unethical behaviour is very lucrative, which is more reason why people engage in corrupt deals. Evidence suggests that unethical behaviour occurs, particularly in the public sector, because of poor remuneration and unattainable organisational goals (Rose-Ackerman & Palifka, 2016).

7.2.5 Appointment irregularities

The results seemed to show a strong positive relationship between corruption and appointment irregularities ($r = 0.721, p < 0.01$). These findings are consistent with a previous report released by Transparency International (2011), which identified various forms of corruption in South Africa, including appointment irregularities. According to Napier (2018), appointment irregularity is common in the South African public sector. In a similar view, Kanyane and Koma (2014) contend that the political appointment of officials without the required qualification and skills has tremendously affected the performance of municipalities. For this reason, Koma and Modumo (2016) suggest that the appointment of public officials should be devoid of politics. In South Africa, the appointment of public officials is considered a means to control and manipulate bureaucrats and civil service (Heywood, 1997).

7.3 Objective 2: Approaches to curbing corruption in municipalities

Objective two explored the approaches adopted by the KZN municipalities in curbing corruption. The objective was investigated and achieved through qualitative research approach. The study identified the approaches adopted by the KZN municipalities in curbing corruption, including resources availability, anti-corruption agencies, community involvement and participation, legal frameworks, non-political interference, and accountability. These findings

are discussed as follows.

7.3.1 Resources availability

The findings showed mixed reactions among the research participants. While the majority (N = 7) of the participants indicated that provision of resources will help curb corruption, however, a few (N = 4) of them argued that corruption cannot be reduced through provision of resources. Majila (2012) in his empirical research discovers that anti-corruption agencies are ineffective in fight corruption due to insufficient resources. Ajide (2020) admits that financial inclusion improves the control of corruption. Sharma and Paramati (2020) confirm that financial development is a critical tool for combating corruption.

7.3.2 Anti-corruption agencies

The findings (N = 7) indicated that the anti-corruption institutions or agencies played a significant role in combating corruption. The study recommended that anti-corruption agencies can be strengthened by formulating strong anti-corruption policies within the municipalities. Moreover, evidence showed that the anti-corruption institutions operated transparently and independently. The findings are consistent with the study conducted by Meagher and Volland (2006), which states that the South African government has implemented an approach called the “multi-agency model” from the United States of America and Western Europe to help strengthen the anti-corruption agencies. The authors argued that the model ensures the implementation of mechanisms to deal with gaps, weaknesses, and new opportunities relating to corruption. Boone (2002:43) claims that “South Africa has not less than twelve (12) anti-corruption agencies”. Nevertheless, Majila (2012) suggests that anti-corruption institutions are ineffective in fighting corruption due to insufficient resources, lack of political will, inadequate laws, lack of accountability, and the non-involvement of the community. Against this background, Berning and Montesh (2012:7) suggest that the government should ensure that anti-corruption agencies operate independently without political interference.

7.3.3 Community involvement and participation

The qualitative findings (N = 9) revealed that community participation played an active role in combating corruption. The study found that the participation of the community in the fight against corruption helped to minimise the prevalence of corruption in the municipalities. According to Devarajan *et al.* (2013), civil society participation and involvement helps to reduce corruption, inefficiency, and waste, particularly in government institutions. In South Africa, the Constitution forms the foundation for community participation in governance. The

Constitution empowers civil society to hold the government accountable for its commitments and promises (Bovens *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, it encourages democratic participation within the domains of the public service, empowers citizens, promotes active citizenship, and improves the capacity of the state to fulfil its public service mandate.

7.3.4 Legal frameworks

The findings (N = 8) suggested that South Africa has weak legal frameworks that support the fight against corruption. Ever since South Africa gained her independence in 1994, the democratically elected presidents have initiated several interventions or mechanisms to combat corruption, particularly in the public sector. One of such mechanisms in the legislative framework. The fight against corruption cannot be successful without the support of government legislative framework. Majila *et al.* (2017) admit that curbing corruption is the major priority of the South African government. Georgieva (2017) posits that South Africa has broad policy or comprehensive regulations to fight corruption.

However, Masiloane and Dintwe (2014) argue that despite several legislation to combat fraud and corruption in the South Africa's public sector, the statistics and reports of corrupt activities remain epidemic. This suggests that the legislative framework alone is not sufficient in fighting corruption. The National Planning Commission (2011:446) also confirms that the anti-corruption legal framework is weak to adequately protect the whistle-blowers, and poor supply chain prescripts. The DPSA (2003) reports that the anti-corruption laws are fragmented. According to DPSA (2003), there are capacity constraints affecting the compliance with the legal frameworks. Godi (2007) concurs that the public sector lacks the capacity to enforce the compliance with the anti-corruption regulations, and the legislative mandates of some law enforcement and other agencies overlap. Woods (2011:5) believes that corruption in South Africa can be attributed weak application of laws and regulations.

7.3.5 Non-political interference

The findings (N = 10) suggested the fight against corruption can only be won if the politicians refrain from interfering in the works of the municipalities. Van der Merwe (2006) argues that to combat corruption, there is a need for strong political will. Van der Merwe (2006) explains that politicians should declare action of zero tolerance to corruption at all levels. According to Van der Also, it is suggested that efforts should made at the prevention and detection as deterrence for corrupt behaviour (Van der Merwe, 2006).

7.3.6 Accountability

The findings (N = 8) identified accountability as unique approach for curbing corruption in KZN municipalities. The findings are consistent with previous research. Abrha (2016) sees accountability as the ability to hold public officials responsible for their actions. Accountability is a key determinant of good governance. The Constitution of South Africa makes the provision for the public officials to be hold accountable for their actions. In Sections 1 (c and d) and 2 of the Constitution were designed to promote accountability. Any conduct contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution is considered invalid. The Constitution and other laws stipulate that legal actions or disciplinary actions should be taken against public officials who failed to account for their stewardship. It is suggested that accountability should be when an unethical behaviour or maladministration have occurred, especially in public administration (Shafritz *et al.*, 2016).

Rose-Ackerman (2013) believes that accountability helps to reduce the possibility of corruption by reducing the information asymmetry between citizens and elected politicians. It is suggested that public sectors official should be held responsible for their actions during the tenure of their office (Brusca *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, Schatz (2013) recommends that accountability mechanisms must be inclusive and broad to effectively fight practices. Other findings also demonstrate that accountability reduces corruption and abuse of resources, ensures compliance with standards and procedures, and improves performance and organisational learning (Mauro *et al.*, 2019).

7.4 Objective 3: Indicators of good governance

Objective three examined the predictors of good governance within the KZN municipalities. This objective was achieved via the quantitative phase. The results identified transparency and accountability as the indicators of good governance in the KZN municipalities. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.4.1 Transparency

The Pearson's moment correlations showed a strong association between good governance and transparency ($r = 0.982$, $p < 0.01$). The results are consistent with previous findings. For instance, Michael *et al.* (2012) concur that transparency is an important indicator of good governance, which relates to the establishment of any policy. Transparency relates to the availability of useful information to the general public (Abrha, 2016). In the context of South Africa, the principle of transparency requires the legislator to institute the following measures:

develop detailed and clear legislation; access to important information, develop clear legal mandate of national administrative authorities, and design and implement division of responsibilities (De la Harpe *et al.*, 2008). According to Governance for Sustainable Human Development (2005), transparency can be achieved through making information accessible to the public. According to World Health Organization (2019), transparency entails the creation of awareness about citizens' rights and entitlements. Moreover, it involves the procedures adopted by the government in decision-making. Transparency may help combat corruption by "shedding light in dark corners" and making it more likely that corrupt acts will be detected (Coicaud, 2016).

7.4.2 Accountability

The results ($r = 0.972$, $p < 0.001$) indicated a strong positive relationship between good governance and accountability. As mentioned earlier, in South Africa, political representatives, and government officials are accountable for their act. Shafritz *et al.* (2016) also confirm that public officials, including politicians are required to be accountable for their actions. The Constitution and other laws stipulate that legal actions or disciplinary action may be taken against public officials who failed to account for their actions. It is suggested that accountability is used as a mechanism when an unethical behaviour or maladministration have occurred (Shafritz *et al.*, 2016).

7.5 Objective 4: Characteristics of ethical leadership

Objective four determined the characteristics of ethical leadership within the KZN municipalities. This objective was determined through the qualitative phase. The overall findings showed that there were no ethical leaders within the KZN municipalities. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.5.1 Accountability

The study elicited the participants opinion on whether the KZN municipalities were accountable to the community and state. The findings ($N = 9$) suggested that the municipalities in KZN lacked the principle of accountability. It was found that the municipalities failed to win the fight against the corruption because the leaders were not hold accountable for their actions and inactions. According to Othman and Rahman (2014) and Schwartz (1968), accountability constitutes a unique attribute of ethical leadership. Accountability is rooted in good governance and the fundamental values of a democratic society. Othman and Rahman (2014) point out that

accountability includes duties and obligations, independence, sincerity, and collectivism.

In South Africa, since the adoption of the Constitution, several financial management reforms have been initiated to hold people, especially the leaders, accountable for their actions (Tsheletsane & Fourie, 2014). The PFMA creates a culture of performance through the appointment of managers to manage and hold people accountable for their stewardship. The accountability and service delivery issues in South Africa require ethical leaders to take personal responsibility for their actions. Resick *et al.* (2011) contend that accountability involves compliance with government regulations. Hardy and Van Vugt (2006) claim that accountable governance eliminates unethical behaviours such as corruption, fraud, and misuse of state resources.

7.5.2 Morality

The findings suggested that the municipalities in KZN lacked moral leaders. Most of the participants (N = 9) indicated that their leaders lacked virtues such as aspirations, principles and values. Moreover, the participants argued that their leaders lacked moral leaders because they do not possess qualities like honesty and humility. Extant literature suggests the definition of ethical leadership contains two fundamental dimensions: moral person and moral manager (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Treviño *et al.*, 2000). To lead ethically, leaders are required to be authentic moral persons (Treviño *et al.*, 2000). A moral person has the leadership traits such as integrity, honesty, and trustworthiness (Treviño *et al.*, 2000). Research suggests that ethical leaders who possess the above leadership qualities are able to better manage their followers (Toor & Ofori, 2009; Brown & Treviño, 2006). Scholars (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Brown & Mitchell, 2010) postulate that moral leaders have a proven reputation for leading ethically. This is because the followers imitate the leader and return their honesty, integrity, and respect (Mayer *et al.*, 2009).

On the other hand, ethical leaders are considered moral managers because they have the ability to influence followers' ethical behaviour (Van Wart, 2011; Brown & Treviño, 2006). A moral manager communicates ethics and values to their followers to enable them to meet their performance target. Another study suggests that ethical leaders influence employees' moral behaviour (Moore *et al.*, 2019).

7.5.3 Courage

The findings (N = 8) indicated that the KZN municipalities lacked courageous leaders. The

results seemed to suggest that the leaders in the municipalities were not brave because they failed to communicate openly and act on performance challenges. Courageous leaders are those who make tough decisions, inspire tough people, and achieve challenging goals. Research (Sebaly, 2017) identifies three components of courage: diversity, pain, and choice. According to Şen *et al.* (2013), courageous leaders have the exceptional intellectual and emotional capability to cause drastic changes. Moreover, they take risks and deal with complex problems within the organisation. They solved many difficult situations by utilizing those courage-related characteristics. Şen *et al.* (2013) further suggest that ethical leaders have the courage to take decision towards the achievement of exceptional outcomes. The courage characteristics are rooted in science and the liberal arts domain. There are a variety of courage characteristics that play an essential role in effective leadership practices. Tkachenko *et al.* (2020) found that behavioural courage was positively associated with job performance. Jones and Davis (2020) claim that courageous leaders are those that speak or voice out the challenges that confront them.

7.5.4 Integrity

The findings further indicated that the leadership in the municipalities lack the integrity. Peterson and Seligman (2004) claim that the term ‘integrity’ refers to personal values that guide the leader’s behaviour. According to Koehn (2005), integrity represents an important leadership virtue that drives the leader towards achieving organisational goals. Tulberg (2012) postulates that organisations that prioritise integrity create a better working environment for their employees. It has been argued that integrity increases organisational outcomes such as performance (Kar, 2014). Moreover, it has been argued that leaders with integrity are incorruptible because of their values. According to Van Wart (2014), leaders with a high level of integrity display loyalty and commitment towards their organisations.

7.5.5 Patriotism

The study further probed the participants on whether their municipalities have patriotic leaders. The findings suggested that KNZ municipalities lacked. The majority (N = 11) argued that their municipalities lack patriotic leaders. They believed that their leaders did not have the love and sympathy for the country. Research suggests that patriotism refers to an attachment to a particular political grouping, although not necessary to its existing form of government (Galston, 2010).

7.5.6 Transparency

Besides, the probed the participants on whether the leaders within the KZN municipalities were transparent. The findings (N = 10) showed that were no transparent leaders within the KZN municipalities. The findings are supported by previous research. Transparency is an essential characteristic an ethical leader should possess (Niculescu, 2015). Similarly, Albu and Flyverbom (2019) contend that the conceptualisation of transparency is rarely subject to critical scrutiny. In most cases, transparency denotes information sharing and the quality of the information shared (Albu & Flyverbom, 2019). It has been found that leaders' transparent behaviour positively impacted employee psychological safety, affecting employees' ability to become creative (Yi *et al.*, 2017). From the affective perspective, it has been argued that transparent leaders treat employees with honesty. From a cognitive standpoint, transparent leaders provide more information for employees to function more effectively and efficiently. Moreover, they provide employees feedback to assist them in enhancing their attention on work (Yi *et al.*, 2017). It has also been found that transparent behaviour contributes to employee creativity by providing helpful information (Zhao & Olivera, 2006).

7.5.7 Boldness

Lastly, examined whether the leadership of the municipalities demonstrate boldness in decision- making and governance. The findings (N = 10) reflected that the leadership of the municipalities lack the boldness to make decisions. According to Matsushita (1994), a bold leader stands for his or her values good. Unfortunately, such leadership are lacking in the contemporary organisations.

7.6 Objective 5: Relationship between ethical leadership, corruption and good governance

The objective five investigated whether ethical leadership influences corruption and good governance within the municipalities. This objective was determined via the quantitative phase. The Pearson correlation showed a positive relationship between ethical leadership and corruption ($r = 0.761$, $p < 0.01$) and good governance ($r = 0.733$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the linear regressions showed that ethical leadership predict corruption ($\beta = 0.556$, $p < .001$), and good governance ($\beta = 0.233$, $p > .005$) in South African municipalities. These findings agreed with previous findings. A study conducted by Naidoo (2011) shows that ethical leadership helps curb corruption. Bashir and Hassan (2020) examined the role of ethical leadership in combating corruption and found a negative association between ethical leadership and corruption. Asencio

(2019) also discovers a strong link between ethical leadership, bribing and favouritism in government agencies. According to Asencio *et al.* (2017), to address corruption in the public sector, there is the need for leaders who demonstrated ethical leadership behaviours.

Hechanova and Manaois (2020) also explored the role ethical leadership in fighting corruption in an organisation. The results indicated that ethical leadership predicted organisational norms and controls. Moreover, it was discovered that ethical leadership had indirect effect toward employees' attitude toward corruption through organisational norms and control (Hechanova & Manaois, 2020). Othman and Rahman (2014), in their study, established a strong link between ethical leadership and good governance. Likewise, Agbim (2018) found that ethical leadership positively influenced corporate governance, corporate performance and corporate social responsibility. Similarly, Naidoo (2012) discovers that ethical leadership positively and significantly influenced good governance. Nafi and Kamaluddin (2020) discovered that good governance was positively affected by ethical leadership in academic institutions. Kosgey *et al.* (2020) also examine the effect of ethical leadership practices on governance in Uasin Gishu county and found a positive association between the ethical leadership practices and good governance.

7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the findings obtained from the study. The study identified the common manifestation of corruption in KZN municipalities, including fraud, bribery, abuse of resources, procurement irregularities, unethical behaviour and appointment irregularities. Moreover, the study found there were no ethical leaders in KZN municipalities. Additionally, the discovered that transparency and accountability constituted the indicators of good governance. The study found that ethical leadership positively influenced the fight against corruption. In addition, the findings revealed that ethical leadership had a significant effect on good governance within the municipalities.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The chapter concludes with the directions for future research. The conclusions and recommendations are linked to the research objectives. The first objective sought to investigate the most common manifestations of corruption within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The second objectives determined the approaches adopted by the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in curbing corruption. The third research objective was to identify the indicators of good governance within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The fourth research objectives analysed the characteristics of ethical leadership within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities. The fifth objective assessed what type of relationship exist between ethical leadership, corruption and good governance.

8.2 Conclusions of the study

Objective one investigated the common manifestations of corruption within the KN municipalities. The objective was achieved through the quantitative approach. The common manifestations of corruption identified in the KZN municipalities included bribery and corruption, abuse of resources, procurement irregularities, unethical behaviour, and appointment irregularities.

Objective two examined the approaches adopted by the KZN municipalities in curbing corruption. This was achieved via the qualitative study. The findings indicated that the approaches to reducing corruption were resource availability, strengthening anti-corruption agencies, community involvement, strong legal frameworks, non-political interference, and accountability.

Moreover, objective three explored the indicators of good governance. This objective was determined through the quantitative study. The study identified accountability, responsiveness, and transparency as the indicators of good governance.

Objective four investigated the qualities or characteristics of ethical leaders. This objective was investigated and achieved via the qualitative study. The findings showed that the key attributes of ethical leadership in KZN municipalities included patriotism, ethics, moral standard, courage, and boldness.

Objective five assessed the effect of ethical leadership on corruption and good governance within the KZN municipalities. This objective was also achieved quantitatively. Pearson's correlation revealed a significant relationship the dependent (ethical leadership) and independent variables (corruption and good governance). Moreover, the results of the linear regression confirmed that a significant relationship existed between ethical leadership, corruption and good governance.

8.3 Recommendations of the study

Concerning the findings, the following recommendations are necessary as far as ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance are concern.

8.3.1 Strengthen the anti-corruption agencies

Given the alarming rate of corruption in public sector organisations, it appears that the anti-corruption approaches are not helpful anymore. To minimise the prevalence of corruption within the public sector, the anti-corruption agencies need to be strengthened. There is a need for strong political will and unquestionable support at the highest political level to achieve this. Moreover, there is a need for high coordination, collaboration, cooperation, and information sharing with the anti-corruption agencies. Additionally, the government should grant the personnel powers to access relevant documentation and question witnesses. Furthermore, to build a robust anti- corruption agency, personnel should have the ability to investigate, detect, examine and analyse information.

8.3.2 Community involvement

Community involvement or participation serves as an effective means of social regulation. This study recommends that to win the war against corruption, the citizens must be involved because they are the lifeblood and drivers of change. To address corruption in South Africa, the State and anti-corruption agencies must involve the community and civil society groups like non-profit organisations, (NGOs). Civil society as an independent body that represents the interest of the society should be actively engaged in corruption-related cases. They should take reasonable steps to enable and strengthen community participation in corruption cases. Moreover, a strong legislative framework must support community involvement in the fight against corruption. Besides, the government must be willing to engage constructively with the community or civil society. Additionally, the community and civil society must be informed about the government's anti-corruption approaches and institutions, their functions, and powers

in fighting corruption. The community and civil society should be allowed to submit a proposal concerning the new legislation.

8.3.3 Accountability

The term accountability has received special attention from scholars of different disciplines. One principle of accountability states that public sector officials must be responsive to the members of the public they interact with but accountable to their superiors. Accountability has two elements: answerability (holding people responsible for their actions) and enforceability (punishing people for corruption or poor performance). Accountability allows for the punishment of appointees who are involved in corruption-related activities. To minimise corruption, much attention should be given to the ways of making the sector to be more accountable. The parliamentary system and anti-corruption agencies should allow for more robust and more immediate monitoring of the executive by the legislature, which should increase accountability. Besides, the government should build a healthy relationship with the citizens.

8.3.4 Transparency

Transparency concerns the provision of information that people require to engage in the decisions that affect them. It represents the dialogue between public sector organisations and stakeholders about the provision of information. In developed countries such as New Zealand, the citizens have the right to transparency. Moreover, in South Africa, transparency constitutes one of the principles of public procurement and good governance. For these reasons, the study recommends transparency, particularly in the government procurement system. The government and procurement official should provide access to procurement information, especially for new and emerging contractors. Public sector organisations should provide relevant information to the public about their activities.

8.3.5 Provision of resources

To win the war against corruption, the anti-corruption agencies must be adequately resourced, including human resources, financial resources, and equipment. The human resource represents the most valuable resource among all the resources in an organisation. To curb corruption in South Africa, qualified and experienced people should be appointed to the anti-corruption agencies. People with the experience, skills, knowledge, and track records in combating corruption should be assigned to head the anti-corruption agencies. Apart from human resources, the government should provide technological devices to enable the anti-corruption

agencies to carry out their mandate. Besides the human resources and provision of equipment, adequate budget should be allocated to the anti-corruption agencies.

8.3.6 Political will

Without political will at the highest levels, it will be difficult to combat corruption effectively. If the government intends to fight corruption, it should ensure that the anti-corruption agencies are given adequate resources. Moreover, there is the need for adequate legal frameworks to support the anti-corruption agencies to help law enforcement agencies to investigate corrupt officials. To carry out effective enforcement, the anti-corruption agencies need strong power to prosecute offenders. The government need to demonstrate the political will by holding its officials responsible and accountable for their actions. The anti-corruption agencies should demonstrate professionalism when dealing with corruption related issues.

8.3.7 Legislative reforms

It is an undeniable fact that there exist numerous anti-corruption legal frameworks in South Africa. Since the 1994 transition, the South African government has introduced several interventions or mechanisms to help curb corruption. However, given the level of corruption, particularly in the public sector it seems that the anti-corruption legal framework is weak to protect, especially the whistle-blowers. Moreover, evidence suggests that there are capacity constraints affecting the compliance with the legal frameworks. Based on the evidence, it can be concluded the anti- corruption legal frameworks are ineffective. This study, therefore, recommends the need for legislative reforms to help curb corruption within the South African public sector. In addition, the framers of the legal frameworks need to provide clarity of the laws. Additionally, the anti- corruption agencies need to enforce the compliance with the legal frameworks that prohibit corruption.

8.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The scope of the study was limited to ethical leaderships, corruption and good governance in the KZN municipalities. This implies that the findings from the study can only apply to the municipalities within the KZN. To generalise the results, future studies should compare KZN municipalities with the municipalities in other provinces. The study was limited to ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance. Therefore, future studies should compare the leadership styles that support the fight against corruption and good governance. Another limitation was the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the COVID-19 restrictions, remote data

collection methods were adopted, instead of physical contact. This has affected the data collection process and interaction with the participants on the field. Hence, future studies should consider physical contact with the participants.

8.5 Chapter summary

The chapter presented the conclusions and recommendations that were obtained from the study. The study identified the common manifestation of corruption in KZN municipalities, including fraud, bribery, abuse of resources, procurement irregularities, unethical behaviour and appointment irregularities. Moreover, the study found there were no ethical leaders in KZN municipalities. Additionally, the discovered that transparency and accountability constituted the indicators of good governance. Lastly, the study found that ethical leadership positively influenced corruption and good governance in KZN municipalities. The recommendations made included strengthening the anti-corruption agencies, community involvement, accountability; transparency; provision of resources; political will; and legislative reforms.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire



College of Law and Management Studies
Graduate School of Business and Leadership
Questionnaire

Research Topic: Ethical Leadership Framework to Curb Corruption and Promote Good Governance in South Africa: A Case of the KwaZulu Natal Municipalities

Section A: Biographical Information

This section of the questionnaire provides information about the respondents in relation to gender, age, race, educational qualification, tenure, municipality, position, and employment status.

Please put an X in the most appropriate box which relates to your biographical information

A.1 What is your gender?

Male	
Female	
Other (Specify)	

A.2 Which age group do you belong to?

18-25 years	
26-30 years	
31-40 years	
41-50 years	
51-60 years	
61 year and above	

A.3 What is your race?

African	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	
Other (Specify)	

A.4 What is your highest educational qualification?

Matric	
Certificate	
National Diploma	
Undergraduate	
Honours	
Masters	
Other (Specify)	

A.5 How long have you being working with this municipality?

2-5 years	
6-10 years	
11-15 years	
16-20 years	
Above 20 years	

A.6 Which of the municipality do you belong to?

eThekwini Metropolitan	
, uMgungundlovu District	
Msunduzi Local	
Other (Specify)	

A.7 Which of these positions do you occupy in the municipality?

Office of Mayor	
Chief Financial Officer	
Deputy Financial Officer	
Executive Manager	
Deputy Executive Manager	
Municipal Manager	
Deputy Municipal Manager	
Junior employees	
Other (Specify)	

A.8 What is the nature of your employment status?

Part-time	
Fixed-term	
Contract	
Full-time	
Other (Specify)	

Section B: Common Manifestations of Corruption in the Municipality

This section of the questionnaire contains questions on the common manifestation of corruption in the municipality. Please indicate with a cross (X) in the appropriate box which relate to each question or item using the 5-point Likert scale below: The response choice scoring weights are: Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1; Disagree (D) = 2; Neutral (N) = 3; Agree (A) = 4; and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5.

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Fraud and bribery						
B9	The municipality's main trading account is located in South Africa					
B10	The municipality is subjected to regular financial audit by an independent auditor or certified public accountant					
B11	The municipality has a code of conduct or policy which includes zero tolerance of bribery					
B12	The municipality provides training to staff in relation to bribery and corruption					
B13	I am satisfied that no employee, managers and other staff members in the municipality has been subjected to investigations or prosecutions concerning: bribery, corruption, money laundering, anti-trust, fraud, exports and customs regulations or data privacy					
B14	In my municipality, there is a full disclosure of conflict of interest					
B15	I am glad that the municipality instituted measure to reduce or eliminate tender rigging					
B16	The staff members in my municipality does not accept gifts from clients, politicians and the public					
B17	The municipality has a policy against passing of confidential information to third parties					
B18	The officials in the municipality do not receive kickbacks from suppliers, contractors and other agencies whom contracts have been awarded to.					
Mismanagement of government/municipality funds						
B19	There is prudent allocation and direction of public funds					
B20	The municipality is able to finance all its projects					
B21	The municipality's operations and activities are not run on debt					
B22	The municipality's projects are completed timely					
B23	There is assessment of risks involved in management of finances in the municipality					
B24	The municipality has effective auditing controls in place					
B25	There is monitoring of how finances are utilised by all departments and persons in the municipality					
B26	The municipality operates a reliable accounting and integrated financial management system					
Abuse of the municipality resources						
B27	The municipality has a policy on the allocation and use of resources					
B28	The municipality's policy on the allocation and use of resources is communicated to every worker					
B29	The staff in the municipality are aware of the policy on the allocation and use of the resources					

B30	The resources in the municipality are allocated to the right departments and individuals					
B31	The resources allocated to the various departments and individuals are properly accounted for					
B32	Effective control measures are in place to enable better employability/allocation of available resources					
Procurement irregularities						
B33	The municipality has a clear policy on procurement process					
B34	The policy on procurement process is communicated to all the stakeholders					
B35	The municipality's policy on procurement process complies with the international and national laws which regulate procurement process					
B36	The procurement process in the municipality is clear and fair					
B37	The procurement process in the municipality is very transparent					
B38	There is enough information on the tender process in the municipality					
B39	There is transparency of bid process in my municipality					
B40	There is equal access to procurement opportunities in the municipality					
Unethical behaviour						
B41	The municipality has a policy and code of conduct on ethical behaviours					
B42	There are processes and mechanisms in place to report unethical behaviours					
B43	It is very easy to report ethical behaviours in the municipality					
B44	The municipality rewards workers for reporting unethical behaviours					
B45	The leadership or top management often take positive actions when people reported unethical behaviours					
B46	I feel comfortable when reporting unethical behaviours					
B47	I believe that it is part of my responsibility to report unethical behaviours					
B48	I know where and how to lodge an unethical complaint in my municipality					
B49	The municipality provides clear guidelines on how to act ethically					
B50	The municipality offers training on how to act ethically					
B51	The behaviour of leaders is consistent with the stated ethics and values of the municipality					

Appointment irregularities						
B52	The municipality has a clear policy on appointment					
B53	Vacancies within the municipality are advertised for everyone to apply					
B54	The applicants are given the opportunity to attend interviews					
B55	Applicants are given the opportunity to ask questions during the interviews					
B56	Applicants undergo employment testing as well as medical examination before final appointment					
B57	The appointment process is very fair and transparent					
B58	There is no discrimination in the appointment process					
B59	Appointment in the municipality is based on competency rather than whom you know					
B60	The applicants that were appointment possess the required skills, experience and knowledge to function more effectively and efficiently					

Section C: Indicators of Good Governance

This section of the questionnaire contains list of items on the indicators of good governance in the municipality. Please indicate with a cross (X) in the appropriate **box** which relate to each question or item using the 5-point Likert scale below: The response choice scoring weights are: Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1; Disagree (D) = 2; Neutral (N) = 3; Agree (A) = 4; and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5.

No	Statement	1	2	3	4
Accountability					
C61	The municipality has a good policy on accountable governance				
C62	The municipality policy on accountability is very clear to everyone				
C63	I am aware of the policy on accountability in the municipality				
C64	My colleagues hold me accountable for all my decisions and actions				
C65	My manager holds me accountable for all my decisions and actions				
C66	My manager is held very accountable for his/her actions at work.				
C67	My manager often must explain his/her actions				
C68	I hold my manager accountable for all his/her decisions and actions				

Transparency					
C68	The municipality has a policy on transparency				
C69	Every staff in the municipality is aware of the need to be transparent				
C70	The municipality's annual report and budget are widely distributed or published in Government Gazette				
C71	The municipality's financial transactions and account are audited by the Auditor General				
C72	There is a system of disclosure of business interests by councillors and officials in the municipality				
C73	The municipality's system for disclosure of business interests by staff members, councillors and officials is effective				
C74	The information on the business interests of councillors and officials in the municipality is made available to the public				
Responsiveness					
C75	The municipality provides prompt services to the community				
C76	The municipality is always willing to help the community				
C78	The staff are never too busy to respond to customers' or community request				
Equity and inclusiveness					
C79	The municipality has a clear policy on equity and inclusiveness				
C80	Every employee in the municipality is aware of the policy on equity and inclusiveness				

C81	The working environment in the municipality is conducive enough to accommodate people from diverse backgrounds				
C82	The is a place where I am able to perform up to my full potential				
C83	I feel valued as an individual in this municipality				
C84	The municipality has a strong commitment to diversity, equity, and inclusion				
C85	The municipality provides enough programmes and resources to foster the success of a diverse workforce				
Effectiveness and efficiency					
C86	The staff in the municipality has a meaningful and shared purpose				
C87	Every worker in the municipality understands his/her role				
C88	The roles and responsibilities of the workers are clearly defined				
C89	Every worker in the municipality takes personal responsibility effectiveness and efficiency				
C90	The workers in my municipality have the skills, experience and knowledge required to do their job effectively and efficiently				
C91	The employees in my municipality address and resolve issues quickly				
C92	Every worker in the municipality has a strong sense of accomplishment relative to his/her work				
C93	The resources available in the municipality are utilised to their fullest				

Section D: Effectiveness of Ethical Leadership in Curbing Corruption and Promoting Good Governance

This section of the questionnaire contains lists of items on effectiveness of ethical leadership in curbing

corruption and promoting good governance. Please indicate with a cross (X) in the appropriate **box** which relate to each question or item using the 5-point Likert scale below: The response choice scoring weights are: Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1; Disagree (D) = 2; Neutral (N) = 3; Agree (A) = 4; and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5.

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Ethical leadership						
C94	The leaders in the municipality are fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to workers					
C95	The leaders in the municipality communicate clear ethical standards for members					
C96	The leaders in the municipality hold the staff accountable for using ethical practices in their work					
C97	The leaders in the municipality oppose the use of unethical practices to increase performance					
C98	The leaders set examples of dedication and self-sacrifice for the municipality					
C99	There leaders in the municipality are opened to communication and good listeners					
C100	The leaders in the municipality show strong concerns for ethical and moral values					
C101	The leaders in the municipality regard honesty and integrity as important personal values					
C102	The leaders in my municipality can be trusted to carry out promises and commitments					
C103	The leaders in the municipality use their power wisely					
C104	The leaders in the municipality are fair and objective when evaluating member performance and providing rewards					
C105	The leaders in the municipality put the needs of others above their own self-interests					
C106	The leaders in the municipality acknowledges mistakes and takes responsibility for them					
C107	The leaders in the municipality are honest and can be trusted to tell the truth					
C108	The leaders in the municipality keeps their actions consistent with their stated values					
C109	The leaders in the municipality set examples of ethical behaviour in their decisions and actions					

Thank you

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

Research Title: Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic on small and medium enterprises within the construction industry in KwaZulu-Natal province, South Africa

Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment

Department of Construction Management and Quantity Surveying

Durban University of Technology

Section A: Biographical Information

This part of the questionnaire contains questions on the demographic information of the participants. Please indicate your selection with an X.

1. What is your gender?

1	Male	
2	Female	
3	Other	

A2. Which age group do you belong to?

1	20-25 years	
2	26-30 years	
3	31-35 years	
4	36-40 years	
5	41-45 years	
6	46-50 years	
7	51-60 years	
8	61 years and above	

A3. What is your race?

1	African	
2	Indian	
3	Coloured	
4	White	
5	Other (please specify)	

A4. What is your highest qualification?

1	Diploma	
2	Postgraduate Diploma	
3	Bachelor's Degree	
4	Honours/BTech	
5	Masters	
6	Doctorate	
7	Other (please specify)	

A5. Which of these organisations do you belong to?

1	DlaminiNdlovu Consulting Engineers	
2	Escongwenibhb Consulting Engineers	
3	Vumesa Consulting	
4	Iserafi Trading Enterprise, Zamahlobo Trading Enterprise	
5	Esethu Trading Consulting	

A6. How long have you been working in your organisation?

1	< 2 years	
2	2-5 years	
3	6-10 years	
4	11-15 years	
5	16-20 years	
6	> 21 years	

A7. Which position do you currently occupied in your organisation?

1	CEO	
2	Director	
3	Managing Director	
4	Chief Finance Officer	
5	Deputy Finance Officer	
6	Manager	
7	Employee	
8	Other	

Section B: COVID-19 Pandemic

B1. Describe what you know about the COVID-19 pandemic

.....

B2. Describe the type of policy your organisation has towards the mitigation of the spread of the COVID-19 infection at the workplace

.....

B3. What measures or interventions do your organisation put in place to reduce the spread of the COVID-19 among workers?

.....

Section C: Effect of COVID-19 pandemic on the financial performance

C1. Does the COVID-19 pandemic had any impact on your financial performance? Yes/No

C2. If yes, describe how does the COVID-19 impacted the financial performance of your organisation.

.....

.....C3. How does the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the company's ability to remain competitive?

.....
.....
C4. How does the COVID-19 pandemic affected the organisation from meeting the stakeholders demands?
.....
.....

C5. What kinds of financial implications created by the COVID-19 pandemic in your organisation?
.....
.....

Section D: Impact of COVID-19 on the productivity

D1. Does the COVID-19 pandemic impact productivity of the organisation? Yes/No

D2. If yes, describe how does COVID-19 pandemic productivity of the organisation?
.....
.....

D3. What kind of skills and competencies required by employees to perform their job?
.....
.....

D4. Describe how the failure by employee to perform their job impacted the productivity of the organisation?
.....
.....

Section E: Impact of COVID-19 on Employees

E1. Does the COVID-19 pandemic impacted employees in your organisation? Yes/No

E2. How does the COVID-19 pandemic affect employees stress level within the organisation?
.....
.....

E3. Describe how the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in burn out among employees
.....
.....

E.4 How does the COVID-19 pandemic impacted employees' income or wages and salaries in the organisation?
.....
.....

E5. How does the COVID-19 pandemic affected job loss in the organisation?
.....
.....

Section F: Factors Influencing Organisations in Fighting the COVID-19 pandemic

F1. How does government regulations affect your organisation during the COVID-19 pandemic?
.....
.....

F2. How does access to finance affect the organisation in dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic?
.....
.....

F3. Identify and explain other factors that impacted the ability of the organisation to mitigate the COVID-19 pandemic.

.....
.....

Section G: Strategies to Mitigate COVID-19 Pandemic

E1. Describe how remote working helps in mitigating the spread of the COVID-19 infection among employees?

.....
.....

E2. Explain how creativity and innovation can help mitigate the negative consequences of COVID-19 pandemic in your organisation?

.....
.....

E3. Describe how can technology adoption helps in addressing the consequences of COVID-19 pandemic in your organisation?

.....
.....

E4. What other strategies does your organisation adopted to reduce the negative consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic?

.....
.....

Thank you for the participation

Appendix C: Gatekeepers Permission Letters

Enquiries: P Khuluse/ A Dorasamy

23 July 2019

Mr Sihle Ndlovu
Private Bag X9986
JHB
2146



As per email: sihle_ndlovu2000@yahoo.co.uk

Dear: Mr Ndlovu

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK TO CURB CORRUPTION AND PROMOTE GOOD GOVERNANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE OF KWAZULU NATAL MUNICIPALITIES

Your correspondence regarding the above has reference.
Please be advised that you are hereby granted permission to conduct your research within uMgungundlovu District Municipality, subject to the following conditions:

1. Letter from your institution confirming ethical clearance;
2. Ensure that the Office of the Municipal Manager is informed when you commence with your research in the municipality.
3. You are required to forward a copy of the completed research report to the Office of the Municipal Manager, Dr Raymond Ngcobo as per the contact details;
4. None of the information and/or findings obtained during the research project will be used to construe the Municipality in a negative light and/or against the Municipality in any court of law;
5. The Municipality will not be responsible and expected to provide resources for your study such as transport, research assistants, etc.
6. The Municipality must be informed of any publications or paper that will be published or presented containing municipal information.

I trust that above is in order.

Yours faithfully


P K DORASAMY
MANAGER: INTERNAL AUDIT

Office of the Municipal Manager
PO Box 5235, Pietermaritzburg, 3209
242 Longholshe Street, Pietermaritzburg, 3201
Tel: 033 657 6783 Fax: 033 394 9512

The Msunduzi Municipality
OFFICE OF THE MUNICIPAL MANAGER

Private Bag X 321
Pietermaritzburg
3200
(033) 392 2882

City Hall, Chief Albert Luthuli Street
Pietermaritzburg
3201
www.msunduzi.gov.za



Enq: M C Jackson

Tel. 033 392 2882

E-mail: madeleine.jackson@msunduzi.gov.za

19 March 2018

Dear Sihle Ndivu
As per email: sihle@londolozaamanzi.co.za

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK TO CURB CORRUPTION AND PROMOTE GOOD GOVERNANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE OF KWAZULU NATAL MUNICIPALITIES

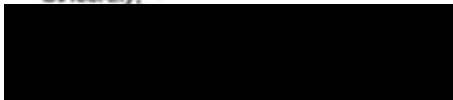
Your correspondence regarding the above has reference.

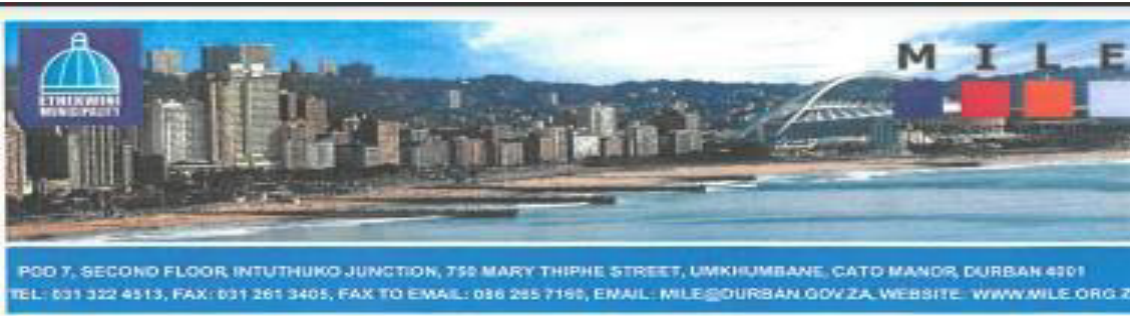
Please be advised that you hereby granted permission to conduct your research within Msunduzi Municipality, subject to the following conditions:

- (i) Letter from your institution confirming ethical clearance;
- (ii) Ensure that the Office of the City Manager is informed when you commence your research in the municipality.
- (iii) You will forward a copy of the completed research report to the Office of the Municipal Manager, c/o Ms. Madeleine Jackson as per the above contact details;
- (iv) None of the information and/or findings obtained during the research project will be used to construe the Municipality in a negative light and/or against the Municipality in any court of law.
- (v) The municipality will not be responsible and expected to provide resources for your study such as transport, research assistants, etc.
- (vi) The municipality must be informed of any publication or paper that will be published or presented containing municipal information.
- (vii)

I trust the above is in order

Sincerely,





PO BOX 7, SECOND FLOOR, INTUTHUKO JUNCTION, 750 MARY THIPHE STREET, UMKHUMBANE, CATO MANDR, DURBAN 4301
TEL: 031 322 4513, FAX: 031 261 3405, FAX TO EMAIL: 036 265 7190, EMAIL: MILE@OURBAN.GOV.ZA, WEBSITE: WWW.MILE.ORG.ZA

For attention:
Chair of Ethics Committee

4000

15 July 2019

RE: LETTER OF SUPPORT TO S.L NDLOVU STUDENT NUMBER 215081029 - GRANTING PERMISSION TO USE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY AS A CASE STUDY

The City Integrity and Investigations Unit (CIU) and eThekweni Municipal Academy (EMA), have considered a request from SIBILE LLOYD NDLOVU to use eThekweni Municipality as a research study site leading to the awarding of a Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) entitled: "Ethical Leadership Framework to Curb Corruption and Promote Good Governance in South Africa: A Case of the KwaZulu Natal Municipalities."

We wish to inform you of the acceptance of his request and hereby assure his of our utmost cooperation towards achieving his academic goals; the outcome which we believe will help our municipality improve its service delivery. The student is reminded of the ethical considerations which have to be prioritized when engaging our city officials during the course of the research. We also stipulate as conditional that the student is supported by her supervisor to present the results and recommendations of this study to the relevant city unit on completion of the research study. The forum will be facilitated by MILE and the student must contact the MILE Office on 031 3224513 or by mail, collin_ndllovu@durban.gov.za to confirm a date for this presentation.

Wishing Mr. Ndlovu all the best in his studies.

[Redacted Signature]

M Mbuso Ngobo
Head: City Integrity and Investigations Unit
eThekweni Municipality

[Redacted Signature]

Dr M. Ngubane
Head: eThekweni Municipal Academy
eThekweni Municipality

I, Sibile Lloyd Ndlovu hereby accept as conditional that I will comply fully as per the conditions stipulated above.

Signed: [Redacted Signature]

Date:

Appendix D: Informed Consent Form

UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

APPLICATION FOR ETHICS APPROVAL For research with human participants

Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date: March 2020

Greetings,

My name is **Sihle Lloyd Ndlovu**, a doctoral student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in the Graduate School of Business and Leadership. My email address is 215081029 @ukzn.ac.za and cell phone number is 0736987233. Dr. Emmanuel Mutambara is my supervisor, who is also located in the same School. His email address is mutambarae@ukzn.ac.za.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research into “**Ethical leadership framework to curb corruption and promote good governance in South Africa: A case of the KwaZulu-Natal Municipalities**”. The study investigates how ethical leadership helps eliminate corruption and promote good governance in the South African public sector. Besides, the study aims to make appropriate recommendations on the strategies to be adopted by the institutions mandated to fight corruption in South Africa. The data will be collected using interviews and questions. Both data collection process involves the following procedures. A written permission will first be obtained from the participating organisations (eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality, uMgungundlovu District Municipality, and Msunduzi Local Municipality). The potential participants will then be contacted for their voluntary participation. The duration of your participation if you choose to participate and remain in the study is expected to be approximately three months. The study is not funded by any individual, group or organisation.

The study does not involve any risk and/or discomfort. I hope that the study when completed will create the following benefits, namely: expand existing knowledge on ethical leadership, corruption, and good governance globally; make appropriate recommendations to the government, anti-corruption agencies, and the municipalities in South Africa on the approaches or strategies to fight corruption and promote good governance; and help to identify the common manifestations of corruption within the KZN municipalities. The study does not involve any further procedure or treatment.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number HSSRC/00000986/2020).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on the contact details above or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION
Research Office, Westville Campus

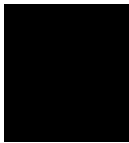
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban 4000 KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Your participation in the study is voluntary and by participating, you are granting the researcher permission to use your responses. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in the study. Your anonymity will be maintained by the researcher and the School of Management, I.T. & Governance and your responses will not be used for any purposes outside of this study.

All data, both electronic and hard copy, will be securely stored during the study and archived for 5 years. After this time, all data will be destroyed.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in the study, please contact me or my research supervisor at the numbers listed above.

Sincerely



Sihle Lloyd Ndlovu

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I,have been informed about the study entitled **“Ethical leadership framework to curb corruption and promote good governance in South Africa: A case of the KwaZulu-Natal Municipalities”**.” by Sihle Lloyd Ndlovu. I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on 215081029@stu.ukzn.ac.za /0736987233

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION
Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban
4000
KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO

Signature of Participant

Date

Appendix E: EC Approval



26 August 2022

Sihle Lloyd Ndlovu (215081029)
Grad School of Business & Leadership
Westville Campus

Dear SL Ndlovu,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/0000986/2020

Project title: Ethical Leadership Framework to Curb Corruption and Promote Good Governance in South Africa: A Case of the KwaZulu Natal Municipalities

Amended title: An ethical leadership framework to curb corruption and promote good governance in South Africa: A case of selected KwaZulu-Natal Municipalities

Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 17 August 2022 has now been approved as follows:

- Change in title

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)
