

**Exploring Social Marketing Options
for Conducting Anti-Corruption Campaign in Indonesia**

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Abstract

Social marketing has been widely used to promote social change for the benefit of individuals and society. It has been established as an evidence- and insight-based approach to a social campaign that focuses on changing people's behaviour. As it has recorded much success in campaigning behaviour change in the case such as public health campaign, pro-environment, smoking and drinking problem and many more. Social marketing is then believed can be a promising approach for an anti-corruption campaign.

This PhD research aims to develop a model of intervention for an anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia. It focuses on the possibility of normalising the value system to build barriers to corruption and developing an intervention model using social marketing approaches.

According to the literature on anti-corruption movement, values have been given much attention to reducing corrupt behaviour. Even though values are relatively stable, however, it may change across time and situation. One factor that can influence the change is social norms, as individuals learn from their environment. In the context of corruption, individuals learn how society expects them to behave (injunctive norms) and what most people do in society (descriptive norms). In a place where corruption is systemic, the everyday corrupt practices can be found common that people will not fear to violate the rules as many people do the same.

The research is interested in examining the interplay between values and social norms in corrupt behaviour. In particular, it seeks evidence on the relationship between social norms to corrupt behaviour and the influence of values in that relationship.

The thesis adopted a mixed-method approach by implementing three-stage of studies. Each study provided valuable input to inform the next, albeit in conjunction with other relevant literature. The research focused on young adults in Indonesia as the target audience. It started with Study 1, which was a qualitative study. It aimed to explore the types of common corruption the young adults perceive and find early evidence of whether values act as an inhibitor to corrupt acts. The findings of the study with 13 participants informed that bribery, nepotism and

gratification are among the common corrupt practices in everyday activities. It is also informed early evidence that values act as an inhibitor to corrupt behaviour.

Study 2 was to continue the research by testing the model of relationships between values, social norms and corrupt behaviour. It was a quantitative study by surveying 554 young adults. The study was to examine the relationships between the social norms and predicted behaviour to corruption. It was also to test whether values act as moderators to the relationship between social norms and predicted behaviour to corruption.

The findings of Study 2 informed that social norms influence people's tendency to do small-scale corrupt practices. Moreover, the values of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature influence the relations between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour.

The research findings suggest that developing and running an anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia requires a combination of personal and social factors. It shows that values are essential in limiting people's behaviour towards everyday corruption. However, another factor, descriptive norms, is evidently also strong in terms of its influence on people's behaviour in this context.

Therefore, addressing the findings in the previous two studies and supported by secondary research, Study 3 developed ten proposed concepts that aim to seek evidence on the potential use of social marketing options for the campaign. Concept testing was conducted by focus group discussions involving five groups from 33 young adults as participants. The proposed concepts were tested to assess their acceptability and feasibility.

Looking at the problem of corruption in Indonesia, it may resemble a collective action problem. It thus shows that collective action from many people in society is needed. The problem will not go away with only one or a few persons avoid corruption, but it needs many people. It shows that corruption is nationally patterned; thus, a substantial change in societal norms is required, which will take time and considerable effort. Every element and actor need to work together simultaneously to effectively tackle and eradicate corruption in the country. Therefore, the research argues that the combination of multifaceted campaigns based on an ecological model is crucial to the success of anti-corruption campaign. A model is built by emphasising norms

changing campaigns by utilising the values (Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature) that moderate the tendency of people behaving corruptly in a common corrupt situation.

Collectively, the findings in this research have led to several contributions for both knowledge and practice. It enriches the development of the conceptual framework of behavioural change with the potential use of social marketing approaches for the anti-corruption campaign. The research also provides valuable input to the policymaker / anti-corruption programme initiator in conducting an anti-corruption campaign targeting the young adults in Indonesia.

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Works during my PhD

Paper presenter:

“Environmental documentaries, corruption issues and social marketing approach” – ICOBAR (International Conference on Biospheric Harmony Advanced Research) 2021 – 4th quarter forthcoming issue 2021, IOP – Earth and Environmental Science (EES). Bina Nusantara University, June 24-25, 2021 – virtual edition.

“Can a value system be built to increase barriers against corruption?” – 5th ICRN Forum Bergen (Interdisciplinary Corruption Research Network) in corporation with the Global Integrity – June 17-18, 2021 – virtual edition.

“Exploring social marketing options for anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia” – Ignite presentation at UWE Doctoral Symposium (2017) - Supported by the British Academy of Management (BAM) Leadership and Leadership Development SIG, Bristol, UK.

“The ethics of (anti) corruption attitudes in Indonesia: Overcoming the obstacles between formal regulations and cultural values” – Bath Spa University Early Stage Researcher Conference (2016), Bath Spa University, Bath, UK.

Poster presenter:

“The potential use of social marketing approaches for conducting anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia (Part-1): Towards understanding people behaviour in everyday forms of corruption” – Poster and Proceedings of the World Social Marketing Conference (June 2019) - Fuse World Changing Events, Edinburg, UK.

“Towards understanding people behaviour in everyday forms of corruption in Indonesia: Evidence from the pilot study”- UWE Doctoral Symposium (2018) – Bristol Leadership and Change Centre, Bristol, UK.

“Exploring social marketing options for anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia” – SWDTC (South West Doctoral Training Conference) – student conference (2016) -Exeter University, Exeter, UK.

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CHAPTER ONE: THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

1.0 Introduction

The thesis focuses on the potential offered by behaviour change techniques as a means for developing anti-corruption campaigns. It aims to improve current understanding of this issue by exploring the use of social marketing approaches in promoting anti-corruption behaviour among the younger generation in Indonesia. This will provide the basis for conducting anti-corruption campaign using social marketing approach.

This chapter one describes the context and narrative of this research. It starts with a description of thesis structure. The chapter continues with an overview of the research problem. It highlights the gaps in knowledge and outlines the various approaches taken to address the research questions and objectives. It then presents the contributions made by this thesis with respect to the relevant parties. Finally, the chapter presents a summary.

1.1 Thesis structure

The thesis consists of nine chapters. This **Chapter one** sets out the rationale and aim of the study. It reviews current research on corruption, anti-corruption initiatives, and social marketing. It also highlights the factors that influence human behaviour in the context of corruption. The chapter also presents the key theoretical arguments, highlights the knowledge gaps that urgently need to be filled, and clarifies the research problems addressed in this thesis. It also presents an overview of the methodology, language translation process and the contributions that arise out of this research.

Chapter two provides an extensive review of the phenomenon of corruption, including its definitions, consequences, measures, and causes, as well as theories related to corruption. The chapter also discusses current anti-corruption initiatives. It then focuses on the main issues or problems pertaining to corruption and the anti-corruption movement in Indonesia.

Chapter three then explains the theoretical foundations for this research. It provides a detailed explanation of social marketing theory, social norms, human values, and beliefs. The chapter also discusses the potential use of behavioural change approaches for anti-corruption initiatives in Indonesia, followed by a presentation of the research propositions and hypotheses tested in this thesis.

Chapter four presents the methodology of the thesis. It highlights the research problems, research philosophy, research approaches, and the overall design. It also provides a detailed explanation of the three studies carried out in this thesis: Study 1 – understanding the everyday forms of corrupt behaviours according to young adults in Indonesia, Study 2 – testing and refining the model, Study 3 – testing the proposed concepts or intervention models. The research methods adopted for each study are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter five presents the findings and analysis of Study 1, which was a qualitative interview with young adults in Indonesia. The findings in this stage provide essential information from which a behavioural process model was developed. More importantly, the findings were also used to develop the questionnaire utilised in the survey (Study 2).

Chapter six reports and discusses the findings of Study 2, which was a quantitative survey of young adults. Structural Equation Modeling was used to test the ability of the model to predict people's behaviour concerning corruption. This chapter clarifies the level of empirical support found for the hypotheses. The findings of this stage also provided significant information for the next research stage in Study 3.

Chapter seven presents the findings of the concept testing, which comprised Study 3 of this PhD. It offers a qualitative insight into the public response regarding the concepts (intervention model) proposed by the author. The chapter also discusses the social marketing approaches or techniques that may be adopted for behavioural change in the anti-corruption programme.

Finally, **Chapter eight**, it comprises an overarching discussion of the research and conclusions drawn from the research. It begins with discussion of each stage of the research and presents the professional outcomes and overall results. The chapter also considers implications from both theoretical and practical perspectives. The limitations of the research are reviewed and addressed. Finally, because the research has opened up opportunities for further research, recommendations are made as to the directions such research could take.

As the next parts in this chapter, the context and narrative of the research will be described. It begins with an introduction to understand the research problem as follows.

1.2 Towards understanding the research problem

Corruption is a complex problem for human society. It poses severe challenges to any country and is thus a concern for many parties. Corruption can occur in many forms of dishonest, illegal, or unethical behaviour. For example, it can be the act of accepting money and other rewards for a contract, the violation of procedures for personal gain, common theft, bribery, extortion, nepotism, favoritism, fraud, and embezzlement (Alatas, 2015; Yeganeh, 2014; United Nations, 1990).

Corruption represents a significant obstacle to a country's development. In Indonesia, corruption pervades almost all aspects of life from policy (strategic) to operational levels. According to the Corruption Perceptions Index published by Transparency International in 2018, Indonesia is ranked 89th in the world with a score of 38 (out of 100) (Transparency International, 2018a). The further score from 100, the more corruption happens in a country. In the previous two years (2016 – 2017), its score was 37 while in 2015 it was 36. Therefore, there has been no significant achievement made during those years in fighting corruption (Transparency International, 2016; Transparency International, 2017).

Alatas (2015) argues that the level of corruption in Indonesia has been systemic since the publication of his first book, "The sociology of corruption" in 1968. He contends that, among Asian countries, corruption in Indonesia is extremely entrenched and appears to be a way of life.

In one of the examples he cites, Alatas reported that one of the ministers of the Indonesian government claimed that corruption had taken place because the salaries paid to public officials in Indonesia are insufficient and this induces low-level corruption. However, Alatas argued that the fact salaries were insufficient was itself attributable to a higher level of corruption.

As a developing country, the problem of corruption identified in its CPI score represents a threat to the development of Indonesia. It shows how serious the problem is and that it may slow economic growth (What we do: Transparency International, 2013). Evidence shows that most developing-world success stories begin with open markets and domestic anti-corruption efforts, as was the case in Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong, and China (Cardy, 2005).

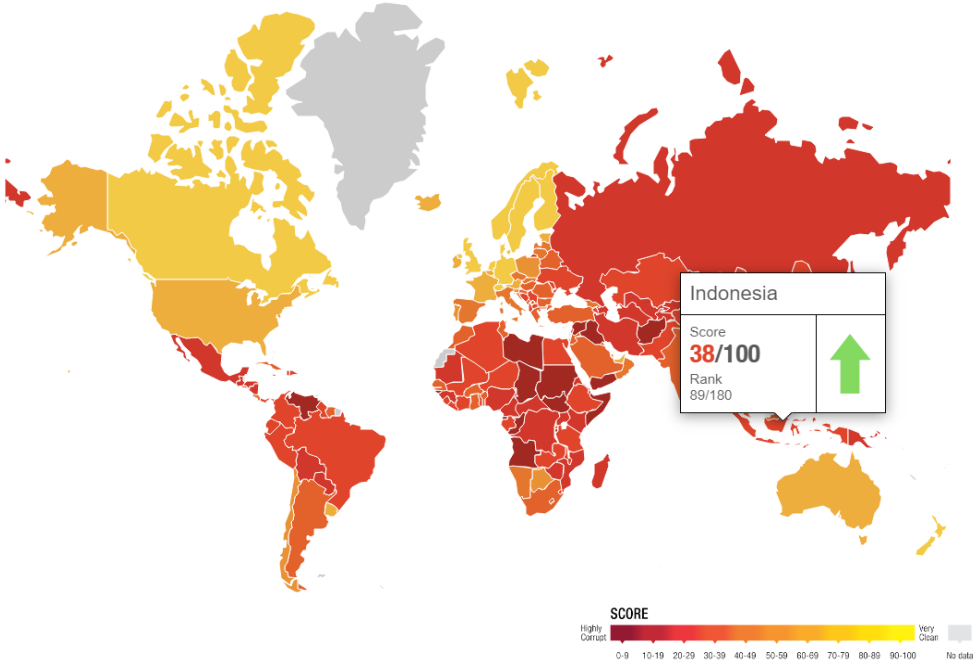


Figure 1 - 1: The position of Indonesia based on CPI score in 2018 (Transparency International, 2018)

Historically, the battle against corruption in Indonesia began in the independence era (1945) and has continued to the present day (Juwono, 2016). To tackle the problem of corruption, Law

No.3/2002, KPK or *Komisi Pemberantasan Korupsi* (Corruption Eradication Commission) was established to coordinate and organise all efforts towards fighting corruption. According to Juwono (2016), KPK is the most effective anti-corruption agency in Indonesia's modern history, despite continuing problems regarding the ongoing existence and independence of the organisation and, inevitably, corruption. As the agency of corruption eradication movement in Indonesia, KPK was involved in this PhD research as one of the references. In one of the studies in this research, KPK staff were interviewed to gain additional insights to enrich the study.

1.3 The influence of norms in corrupt behaviour

In this part, it is briefly introduced the definition of corruption. Detailed definitions will be discussed later in Chapter two. Corruption can be defined as the abuse of a person's power for personal gains or benefits (De Graaf, 2007; Gephart, 2009; Klitgaard, 1988). Many studies on corruption refer to this definition in order to understand, from a political perspective, someone's motivation for engaging in corrupt behaviour. From an economic perspective, it also shows that corruption involves the exchange of material goods or money (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011; Yeganeh, 2014). This type can relate to the rational approach to understand corruption.

An economic approach based on rational choice theory to explain people's motivation for engaging in corruption currently holds a dominant position in research in this field (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011; Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2012; Tavits, 2010). It may also become the most influential with respect to policy formulation (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011). Rational choice theory explains that, when carrying out corrupt practices, people weigh the benefits and costs in relation to the power they hold (Klitgaard, 1988; Nye, 1967; Rose-Ackerman, 1999).

However, economic rationality is not always the reason for corruption. Another type of corruption is more systemic. It concerns cases where corruption is more institutionalised and becomes the norm (Heilman and Ndumbaro, 2002). In this respect, Heilman and Ndumbaro (2002) argue that corruption does not depend on the individual as it is embedded in society and has become part of daily life. Thus, corruption is tolerated, accepted, and institutionalised to the extent that individuals who give and accept bribes have internalised such behaviour. For

example, if a police officer demands some money from the driver of a car who has been stopped for speeding, this is based on his or her belief that the driver wants to avoid the hassle of receiving a traffic ticket.

Corruption should not be viewed solely as an individual decision as the influence of society also plays a significant role through culture, norms, and education (De Graaf, 2007). Research has highlighted the importance of norms as a powerful influence on engagement in corruption (Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2009; Gino, Ayal and Ariely, 2009; Gorsira, Denkers and Huisman, 2016; Köbis *et al.*, 2015).

Social norms have been extensively studied, particularly in social psychology (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991; Schwartz, 1977). These refer to the standards of appropriate behaviour that are widely accepted by many people in a community. Norms have both intersubjective and evaluative dimensions (Finnemore and Sikkink, 1998). Cialdini *et al.* (1990) define social norms as an individual's perceptions of the beliefs and behaviour of relevant others. They divided social norms into two forms: injunctive norms (individuals' perception of what is commonly (dis)approved of, and descriptive norms (individuals' perception of what is commonly done). More details on social norms are described in Chapter 3.

Gorsira *et al.* (2016) found that corruption-control programmes based solely on rational choice theory may not be the most effective. They argued that social norms are one of the crucial drivers of corrupt behaviour. Gino *et al.* (2009), for instance, explored the influence of social norms on unethical behaviour. They found that the engagement of an individual in unethical behaviour does not appear to depend on the calculations of cost and benefits, but rather on the social norms pertaining to such behaviour. Dong *et al.* (2009) also reported that the decision to bribe public officials depends on the frequency of that corrupt behaviour in a society. The more frequent it is, the more people think it is common. Their study indicates that the perceived activities of peers influence the level of corrupt behaviour. Research conducted by Köbis *et al.* (2015) found that perceived descriptive norms can have an impact on corrupt behaviour. In their experimental study, they showed that a decrease in perceived descriptive norms leads to a

decrease in corrupt behaviour. Therefore, as one of the focuses, this thesis is interested to know how this factor influences the tendency to engage in corrupt behaviour. Further details on research problem are later explained.

1.4 Anti-corruption initiatives: Values as forces inhibiting corrupt behaviour

An individual's moral level, according to Kohlberg (1976), is one of the factors that prevent them from performing deviant behaviour (Meliala, 1994). Thus, for people with a certain moral level, corruption is categorised as a deviant behaviour that needs to be avoided (Heuvel, 1980, cited in Meliala, 1994). In addition, levels of religious observance and honesty also inhibit people from engaging in corruption (Alatas, 1975, in Meliala, 1994). Therefore, it is argued that moral values can be utilised as an influential factor in educating people on anti-corruption.

Research on values and corruption has been conducted by several scholars and has shown that certain values prevent people from becoming corrupt. For instance, Tatarko and Mironova (2016) found that Conformity-Rules value and Universalism-Concern value (Schwartz's terms of human values) decrease the acceptability of corruption. Values also influence decision making in relation to unethical behaviour (Fritzsche and Oz, 2007). For example, altruistic values contribute to ethical decision making while religiosity values have been found to prevent corrupt behaviour (Pop, 2012).

According to Warburton (2013), when an individual has reached a personal decision regarding whether to instigate or accede to an attempted corrupt practice, he or she has crossed their decisional threshold. Warburton (2013) argues that two competing forces act on them as they reach this threshold. Firstly, there are motivational or excitatory forces that energise them to participate in a corrupt transaction. Secondly, there are inhibitory forces that lower the tendency of an individual to cross the decisional threshold. These include factors such as moral inhibition, perceptions of sanction, and perceptions of the consequences of sanction (Warburton, 2013).

Because inhibitory forces such as moral level and honesty are believed to be important factors restraining people from participating in a corrupt transaction, anti-corruption organisations have

made it part of their agenda to instil (moral) values in their target audiences, and some have started to target and deliver these to children. As part of their prevention programmes, anti-corruption agencies in Hong Kong, the Republic of Korea, and Indonesia have developed and delivered value-based education to instil anti-corruption (moral) values such as honesty in children. This is based on the belief that such values can protect children from complying with corrupt behaviours in the future.

Hong Kong's ICAC (Independent Commission Against Corruption) performs three functions in relation to tackling corruption: investigation, prevention, and public education. These are structured to be interdependent and each of them builds on the strength of the others (Panth, 2011). For the moral development programme, ICAC has produced various moral education modules that serve different objectives and are targeted at specific life tasks undertaken by young people. It is a whole-school approach that aims to reach pupils through various channels. It is also a whole-person approach that aims to help and guide young people to progress in their self-development through a focus on integrity, positive work ethics, and social responsibility (Wing Lo, 1998).

Through its ACCRC (Anti-Corruption and Civil Rights Commission), the Republic of Korea delivers anti-corruption education in primary and secondary schools, as well as in high schools. For primary school students, the textbooks focus on values related to anti-corruption such as honesty, responsibility, faithfulness, self-control, self-esteem, compliance with the law and regulations, patriotism, fairness, community spirit, and civil duties. In secondary school, students are taught about the causes of corruption, the negative impact of corrupt practices, and the solution to problems arising from corruption. In high schools, students are taught about the ethics of dealing with corruption issues, ethical values for public officials, and business ethics. Various ways to combat corruption are also proposed, and there is an emphasis on the importance of integrity (UNODC, 2017).

Indonesia's KPK (Corruption Eradication Commission) models itself on Hong Kong's ICAC, but with some additional programmes such as added prosecutorial powers for prevention and

investigation (Panth, 2011). To build a culture of anti-corruption, KPK aims to instil anti-corruption values at every level of education. KPK developed its anti-corruption modules following workshops conducted with experts and professionals. These modules, as a tool of the prevention programme, teach nine anti-corruption values: honesty, caring, discipline, independence, responsibility, hard work, modesty, bravery, and fairness. The modules are intended for early year learners up to university students. In cooperation with the ministry of education, the modules are delivered using a whole-school approach (Rahim, 2012). Their implementation is currently a result of voluntary action by the school. In addition to the modules, several tools have also been developed such as board games and videos (KPK, 2017) as part of their education programmes.

All the above anti-corruption organisations exhibit similarities in their preventive programmes as all aim to educate and instill moral and other values such as honesty, trustworthiness, and responsibility into the young generation as one of their key target audiences. Those who develop such programmes believe that anti-corruption value-based education has to start as early as possible to create a non-corrupt generation. Several studies have indicated the effectiveness of value-based education in encouraging more positive behaviour (Schmidt, McAdams and Foster, 2009; Kunduroglu and Babadogan, 2010; Lovat *et al.*, 2011). However, there is only soft evidence regarding the result of the education process (Panth, 2011). More on this matter is explained in Chapter 3.

Efforts made to tackle corruption by instilling anti-corruption values into their target groups have a point as research on anti-corruption highlights the importance of instilling anti-corruption values primarily through education (Carr and Jago, 2014; Lukito, 2016). The anti-corruption agencies mentioned previously also deliver values education as one of their strategies in tackling corruption.

However, although people's values are relatively stable, these may change across time and situation (Doring, Daniel and Knafo-Noam, 2016; Milfont, Milojev and Sibley, 2016). For example, although honesty is a value strongly upheld by most people in Indonesia, corruption rates remain

high, despite promoting contrary values (Lukito, 2016). It is because, as previously mentioned, there are other factors, such as social norms, as one of external elements which influence corrupt behaviour. Thus, it is believed that an emphasis on values education will not be enough to influence people's tendency to engage in corrupt behaviour. This research is interested to study the interplay between values and social norms in influencing corrupt behaviour.

1.5 Social marketing for social change

Social marketing has been widely used to promote social change for the benefit of individuals and society. There have been many recorded successes in social marketing campaigns: for example, in promoting healthy foods (Wang *et al.*, 2008), physical activity (Wong *et al.*, 2004), encouraging breastfeeding and reducing smoking (Lowry *et al.*, 2009; Khowaja *et al.*, 2010), solving the alcohol problem and reducing drink driving (Cismaru, Lavack and Markewich, 2009; Rotschild, Mastin and Miller, 2006), and encouraging the reading of books (Martinovic and Vranesevic, 2004). Social marketing has utilised evidence- and insight- based approaches to develop a social campaign that focuses on influencing people's behaviour (French and Gordon, 2015).

iSMA, ESMA, and AASM (2013) define social marketing as follows:

Social marketing seeks to develop and integrate marketing concepts with other approaches to influence behaviours that benefit individuals and communities for the greater social good. It seeks to integrate research, best practice, theory, participant, and partnership insight to inform the delivery of competition sensitive and segmented social change programmes that are effective, efficient, equitable, and sustainable (French and Gordon, 2015, p. 20).

Hastings and Domegan (2014) also noted that social marketing draws on insight from commercial marketing, which has been successful in influencing consumption behaviour and activities of social goods; as well as curbing its excesses to reduce the potential harms to the consumer (Hastings and Domegan, 2014, p. 14). Social marketing can be adopted to facilitate planning that

will effect social change. In order to do so, non-profit organisations, government agencies, and multilateral public sector institutions should increasingly utilise marketing concepts to reach beyond promotion. All elements of the marketing mix can be coordinated to design, implement, and control a programme that influences the acceptability of social ideas (Holden, 2002).

Although public health remains dominant in the area of social marketing (French, 2010), the discipline has branched out to address a variety of social problems (Wood, 2016). Indeed, social marketing has become a feasible alternative to behavioural change across a range of contexts (Lee and Kotler, 2008; Peattie and Peattie, 2011). For example, Kindra and Stapenhurst (1998) suggest that the social marketing approach has helped to discourage fraud and corruption. Its aim, they argue, has been to raise awareness about the cost of corruption to a country, highlight the concerns within national institutions, increase understanding of the causal factors and the myriad manifestations of corruption amongst staff in national institutions and the public, and influence people's behaviour (Kindra and Stapenhurst, 1998). However, a campaign to increase awareness does not always work to motivate or impel people to change their behaviour to avoid fraud and corruption. Although awareness is an essential element, several studies have found that increasing awareness alone is not sufficient to effect behaviour change (Audrain-McGovern, Hughes and Patterson, 2003). Therefore, an intervention model for anti-corruption that aims to change people's behaviour is likely to be more effective; however, how to achieve this remains as yet unknown.

It is widely acknowledged that corruption is a highly complex problem. It takes various forms and fulfils various functions in different contexts. The corruption phenomenon also ranges from the single act of a payment contradicted by law (Berger, 2014; Moldovan and Van de Walle, 2013; Brown, 2006) to an endemic malfunction of a political and economic system (Persson *et al.*, 2013; Batory, 2012). The problem has been seen as either a structural problem of politics or economics (Zhang, 2015; Klitgaard, 1988) or as a cultural and individual moral problem (Köbis *et al.*, 2015; Fotaki, Alshehri and Kauser, 2015; Meliala, 1994). The study of corruption has thus become multi-disciplinary and somewhat dispersed, ranging from theoretical modeling of very general situations (Alford, 2013; Jancsics, 2014; Yolles, 2009) to detailed descriptions of a single

corruption scandal (Gold, 2019; Hamid, 2014). Nevertheless, despite the complexity, it is useful to combine country-specific knowledge and thematic knowledge when tracing the roots of corruption to understand its varieties and to suggest solutions and cures (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011).

Because of this complexity, opportunities are available for a researcher to focus on or select an issue that has been overlooked by other researchers yet is significant. Thus, this research explores the potential of social marketing approaches as an alternative to behavioural change in the anti-corruption movement, particularly in Indonesia. Further explanation will be elaborated later in Chapter 3.

1.6 The research narrative

In order to understand the research problem, one needs to understand the research context. As mentioned earlier, the study focuses on how values and social norms influence people behaviour towards corruption. The following sub-chapters will explain where the context lies.

According to the type, corruption can be divided into two main types: grand corruption and petty corruption (Rose-Ackerman, 2008). Grand corruption usually involves the highest ranking public officials while petty corruption involves exchanges of smaller amounts of money or favours (Mashali, 2012). This thesis primarily focuses on petty forms of corruption that happen in everyday life and will show the level or size of corruption. The term petty corruption in this thesis, is used interchangeably with small-scale corrupt acts or everyday forms of corruption as it essentially refers to the small types of corruption that happen in everyday life.

Petty corruption is commonplace in public services. “Whenever a public official has discretionary powers over distribution to the private sector of a benefit or cost, incentives for bribery are created” (Rose-Ackerman, 1997, p. 31). In contrast to grand corruption, research on petty corruption is generally scarce (van Vuuren, 2004), even though it can be equally damaging. Therefore, it is fruitful to discuss the context of petty corruption. A more detailed explanation of issues related to corruption is presented in Chapter 2 of this thesis. The elaboration will include

types of corruption, consequences, measures, theories of corruption, and the anti-corruption movement.

Corrupt acts involve the interface between public officials and private citizens (or sector) (Rose-Ackerman, 1997; (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011). If public officials are the ones who misuse their power for private benefits, then private citizens are those who are willing to pay or use bribes. It means that every individual contributes to corrupt acts (Tavits, 2010). Thus, in this context, it is also necessary to pay attention to private citizens. Even though public and private integrity both need to be established, this thesis limits its focus to a strategy that can be used to build the integrity of private citizens so that they can be aware of and avoid involvement in such acts. Nevertheless, it has been aware that focusing on private citizens alone will not work on its own. Other factors or actors related in this context also need attention (e.g., the officials, bureaucracy).

This thesis argues that tackling corruption is an issue that belongs not only to the government and civil society but to everyone in the country. It highlights the narrative that everyone has the responsibility to participate in anti-corruption behaviour. The active participation of the public in preventing corruption in their environment is essential. If possible, individuals should not only prevent corruption in themselves; they should address corruption in their wider environment. This is because talking about corruption and tackling a single corruption norm will never be sufficient (Jackson and Köbis, 2018).

1.7 Knowledge gaps and research questions

This study aims to fill existing gaps in knowledge in the following ways. Firstly, it fills a gap in anti-corruption initiatives. It raises the possibility of public participation contributing to an anti-corrupt system by recognising corrupt acts and reducing the compliance with corrupt practices. As anyone can contribute to a corrupt system, this study therefore contributes to an approach to conducting an anti-corruption campaign that focusing on building people integrity.

Secondly, there is minimal research on petty corruption, especially in relation to young adults. Therefore, to develop an anti-corruption programme for young adults as a target group, it is

important to understand how they perceive the normality of small corrupt acts in everyday life and how values and social norms interplay in this context.

Thirdly, the intervention will adopt social marketing approaches. It is believed that such approaches can contribute to the literature on the potential use of social marketing techniques to influence people's behaviour so that they avoid becoming involved in corrupt acts. Thus far, little is known about the use of social marketing in this context. Furthermore, because young adults are the target group of anti-corruption programmes, the thesis identifies the behavioural change techniques that may suit the character of the younger generation and thus promote anti-corruption behaviour.

The following research questions were therefore formulated:

1. What type of behaviours are considered everyday forms of corruption in Indonesia?
2. What factors that influence people to comply with everyday forms of corruption? (Is there any early evidence that values can build resistance to corrupt behaviour?)
3. Can the value system be built up as a barrier to corrupt acts?
4. How can social marketing approaches be applied in an anti-corruption campaign?

1.8 Overview of methodology

To address the research gaps and answer the research questions, the research process shown in Table 1-1 was followed. This shows the sequential steps involved in the mixed methods approach that was adopted.

Study 1 in this PhD research answered research questions one and two. This was a qualitative study that sought to explore the perceptions and opinions of young adults in Indonesia regarding everyday forms of corruption. It included types of everyday forms of corruption, normality (in terms of how commonly people carry out the acts), and factors that may help people become resistant to carrying out corrupt behaviour.

Study 2 was a quantitative study that examined the behaviour change model using Structural Equation Modelling. It aimed to examine whether values influence the relationship between social norms and the tendency to engage in corrupt behaviour [[and therefore answers research question three. The data was collected through a survey of young adults in Indonesia.

Finally, Study 3 was in a concept testing format. It aimed to test the acceptability of certain concepts proposed by the researcher. The proposed concepts or models used social marketing approaches to change people's behaviour concerning everyday forms of corruption. Five small focus groups comprising young adults were conducted to gain feedback, identify barriers, and assess their likelihood to follow the proposed concepts.

The researcher also conducted three interviews with the initiators of the anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia. The results provided insightful information that is presented in the discussion chapter as part of the professional outcome.

Table 1 - 1: Overview of the research methodology adopted in the thesis

Research gaps	Research phases	Research questions and objectives	Methods	Analyses
<p>(Gap 1) Lack of understanding of the normality of everyday forms of corruption, according to young adults.</p> <p>(Gap 2) Lack of identification and understanding of factors that enable people to resist corrupt practices in Indonesia, according to young adults.</p>	Study 1	(RQ1) What type of behaviours are considered everyday forms of corruption?	Literature review In-depth interview	Thematic analysis
		(RQ2) What factors enable people to resist corrupt practices? (Is there any early evidence that values can build resistance?)		
(Gap 1 and 2) Lack of confirmation that the value system can be built as a barrier to corrupt acts.	Study 2	(RQ3) Can the value system be built up as a barrier to corrupt acts?	Survey	Structural Equation Modelling
(Gap 3) Lack of understanding of the potential use of social marketing techniques for anti-corruption campaign.	Study 3	(RQ4) How can social marketing approaches be applied in an anti-corruption campaign?	Focus group discussion	Qualitative data analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994)

1.9 Language translation process

The research involved the use of two languages: English and Indonesian. Since the PhD research is UK-based, English is predominantly used in activities such as writing up the body of the thesis, reading the materials (e.g., literatures, theories), and communicating the findings (e.g., supervisory team, conferences). Meanwhile, the Indonesian language was used because the research context is about a major issue in Indonesia; moreover, the participants/respondents were Indonesian young adults. Therefore, translation processes (English – Indonesian, and vice versa) were needed and undertaken in several phases of the research in all studies involved in this thesis.

As mentioned above, for the communication purposes, translated materials (into English) were needed to communicate with the English-speaking supervisory team, to apply ethical clearance from the university ethics committee, to disseminate findings and communicate with other scholars in conferences or seminars, and more. Thus, many research materials needed to be provided in English, such as research information sheets, interview guide, scale/questionnaire, participants' quotes, research notes, and some of the processes involved in data analysis.

During the fieldwork, the researcher also needed to explain (interpret) and translate some of the research materials into the Indonesian language, such as the research information sheet, participant consent letter and questionnaires. It was to ensure that participants completely understood the materials they were given.

Conducting research that involves more than one language required a considerable amount of additional effort. It was especially the case concerning the content of the translated materials. For instance, the Indonesian language is more descriptive than English, and therefore in many cases, more words were needed to describe an English term. Another case was that sometimes the researcher could not find the equivalent meaning for a word of Indonesian language to be translated into English, because it was a very specific context to Indonesia. Thus, to solve those problems, the original words were used, and footnotes were provided to describe the meaning

(for example, some Indonesian terms: “*anak titipan*”, “*uang damai*” – see more detail in Chapter 5).

To ensure the translated materials were correct in relation to the wording and context, the researcher asked a service from a translator and several fellow Indonesian scholars to check on the materials translated. This worked well and was helpful as the researcher received valuable feedback and suggestions on improving the materials. The details on the language translation process are also described in Chapter 4 (see section 4.6.3.1).

1.10 Research contributions

The main contributions of this research are two-fold:

- Theoretical contribution

The study enriches the development of a conceptual framework of behavioural change in relation to values and social norms. It will stimulate further research on anti-corruption campaigns with different scopes. The study also provides an empirical exploration of the theoretical concepts of values, social norms, corruption and anti-corruption issues. In particular, the research fills the gap in the potential use of social marketing techniques to influence people’s behaviour to avoid everyday forms of corrupt practices.

- Practical contribution

The thesis provides valuable input and vital feedback to the policymaker and anti-corruption practitioners / initiators of anti-corruption campaigns in Indonesia targeted at the young generation on the most effective means of implementing the campaigns. The intention is to offer an anti-corruption strategy or intervention model that is context-specific to the problems faced by the country. Understanding the conditions of the country where a campaign needs to be developed will increase its potential effectiveness.

1.11 Summary

The chapter has explained the research background and rationale. The research that focuses on preventive anti-corruption programme in Indonesia, aims to fill the knowledge gaps mainly in the field of social marketing and anti-corruption initiatives by exploring social marketing techniques for the anti-corruption campaign.

Thus, it has presented the research questions in order and the methodology to answer those questions. Some theoretical and practical implications have been presented as the expected contributions of this research to scholarship and practitioners. The intention is to use this initial learning to add to the literature on developing behaviour change techniques to support anti-corruption, particularly regarding values and social norms.

The next following chapters examine the research agenda that begins with the literature that covers explanations about corruption and the anti-corruption movement.

CHAPTER TWO: CORRUPTION AND ANTI-CORRUPTION CAMPAIGN

2.0 Introduction

The chapter presents a review of literature that encompasses the definition of corruption, its consequences, measures of corruption, its causes, and several theories that purport to explain the phenomenon. In the next section, the corruption and anti-corruption movement in Indonesia are delineated to elucidate the research problem. It includes an explanation of corruption that is specific to the Indonesian context. Anti-corruption initiatives around the world are described, followed by a specific focus on anti-corruption initiatives in Indonesia. The chapter then ends with an overall summary.

2.1 Definition of corruption

According to the Merriam-Webster online dictionary, corruption is defined as follows:

- (a) Dishonest or illegal behavior, especially by powerful people (such as government officials or police officers);
- (b) Inducement to do wrong by improper, unlawful means (such as bribery);
- (c) Dishonest or illegal behaviour;
- (d) Immoral conduct or practices harmful or offensive to society.

The origin of the word corruption is “corrupt”, which is defined as follows:

- (a) To change from good to bad in morals, manners, or actions;
- (b) To degrade with unsound principles or moral values;
- (c) Implies loss of soundness, purity, or integrity.

(Merriam-webster dictionary, 2017).

According to its literal definition, corruption refers to acts conducted by powerful people through illegal or unlawful means that degrade moral values and cause harm to society. The term “powerful” refers to those who occupy a senior position in society, which usually, from an organisational perspective, refers to public officials who “misuse the entrusted power for private or personal gains” (De Graaf, 2007; Gephart, 2009; Klitgaard, 1988). They are said to be powerful as they have discretionary power when performing their job and the opportunity to cover any potentially improper behaviour.

Much of the literature focuses on the role of a public officer (state) in defining corrupt behaviour. For example, Colin Nye (1967, p. 416) defines corruption as ‘behaviour that deviates from the formal duties of a public role (elective or appointive) because of private-regarding (personal, close family, private clique) wealth or status gains’ (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011, p. 9). Mushtaq Khan (1966, p. 12) gives a similar definition, describing it as “behaviour that deviates from the formal rules of conduct governing the actions of someone in a position of public authority because of private-regarding motives such as wealth, power, or status” (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011, p. 9). Another definition by Alatas (2015) shows more on the characteristics of corruption practices. Corruption is “subordination of public interests to private aims involving a violation of the norms of duty and welfare, accompanied by secrecy, betrayal, deception and a callous disregard for any consequence suffered by the public” (Alatas, 2015, revised edition, p. xi).

These definitions adopt an economic perspective on corruption, which views it as based on an exchange of material goods or money. There is also a market-like situation in that an element such as scarcity becomes one of the most significant reasons for corruption and provides opportunities for individuals to use their wealth to buy power (political opportunities) or to use their power to obtain wealth (economic opportunities). Therefore, most scholars have understandably paid considerable attention to economic and political perspectives on corruption.

From a legal perspective, as highlighted by Williams (1987, pp. 15-16), corruption is defined as “behaviour that violates specific rules governing the way public duties should be performed”,

including illegal exchanges of political favours for private rewards (Dimant, 2013). Lipset and Lenz (2000, p.112) define corruption as “efforts to secure wealth or power through illegal means – private gain at public expense.” Corruption can take various forms, such as fraud, bribery, extortion, embezzlement, tax evasion, kickbacks, and other types of illicit behaviour (Klitgaard, 1988).

Anthropology scholars have explained why corruption exists despite its negative effects. They adopt an approach that is based on contextual morality, which means moral standards are seen as socially and culturally constructed (Torsello and Venard, 2016). Sociologists, on the other hand, are typically interested in the emergence and acceptance of social norms in people’s behaviour, which will either conform to or diverge from these norms. From this perspective, “corrupt” behaviour is not always considered unethical and in many social contexts continues to constitute the norm (Fein and Weibler, 2014). Alatas (1980, p. 25) argues that “corruption is not restricted to the acts of specific decisions. It is a process involving attitude build-up, deliberate planning, historical antecedents, social mobility, group affiliation, and other sociological factors” (Dimant, 2013, p. 24).

Other scholars, however, view corruption as an “exchange relationship” (Van Duyne, 2001; Jancsics, 2014) between a decision-maker and an interested person who is offering or promising an advantage in exchange for the desired outcome. The decision-maker thus engages in the illegal act of this “exchange relationship”. This perspective views corruption from a behavioural standpoint. In the following definition of corruption, there is a clear “semantic intersection” of several overlapping concepts:

Corruption is an improbity or decay in the decision-making process in which a decision-maker (in a private corporation or in a public service) consents or demands to deviate from the criterion that should rule his decision-making, in exchange for a reward or the promise or expectation of a reward (Van Duyne, 2001, p. 75).

This definition extends beyond politics, public administration, or good governance. Even principal-agent theory (which is based on an economic perspective) originates from this behavioural foundation (Van Duyne, 2001).

Another definition of corruption by Anand, Ashforth and Joshi (2004) stated that corruption is a “misuse of an organisational position or authority for personal or organisation (or sub-unit) gain, where misuse in turn refers to departures from accepted societal norms” (Anand et al., 2004, p.40). The definition gives the possibility of those who are involved in corrupt practices to rationalise their actions as “normal”. As the individuals interpret their actions suits to societal standards.

From the definitions mentioned above, in the context of everyday corrupt practices, it can be concluded that corruption is an exchange behaviour for private gain that violates certain rules and refers to the accepted norms in the community. This is the definition that was therefore adopted in this research.

2.1.1 Who is corrupt?

Most research on corruption focuses on the context of political corruption. This refers to government officials who abuse their power for personal or group gain. However, contemporary research on corruption has been extended to the area of private corruption. The focus of research on corruption has therefore broadened to include private sectors as well as government officials.

Rose-Ackerman (1978) claims that “corruption exists at the interface of the public and private sectors” (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011, p. 8). This implies that the parties involved in a corrupt act are not solely the public officers, as another party is present that accepts the ‘ideas, ‘usually the private-sector (the roles can also be changed, in terms of who initiates the inducement and who accepts it). It is supported by Heidenheimer et al. (1989, p. 6), who defines corruption as:

A transaction between private and public-sector actors through which collective goods are illegitimately converted into private-regarding payoffs (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2011, p. 8)

This view is supported by Tavits (2010), who states that when public officials abuse their duties by taking bribes (for example), the decision of private individuals to pay the bribes or engage in corrupt practices also contributes to the corrupt system (Tavits, 2010). There is little difference between public officials and private citizens in terms of the tendency to engage in corrupt behaviour. The decision to behave corruptly is influenced by a personal definition of corruption and a perception of how widespread corrupt activities are. Moreover, Tavits (2010) explains that if public officials are those who misuse their power for private gain, then the citizen is willing to pay bribes. This means that every individual can be in the position of someone who feeds the corrupt system, contributes, or participates in corrupt practice.

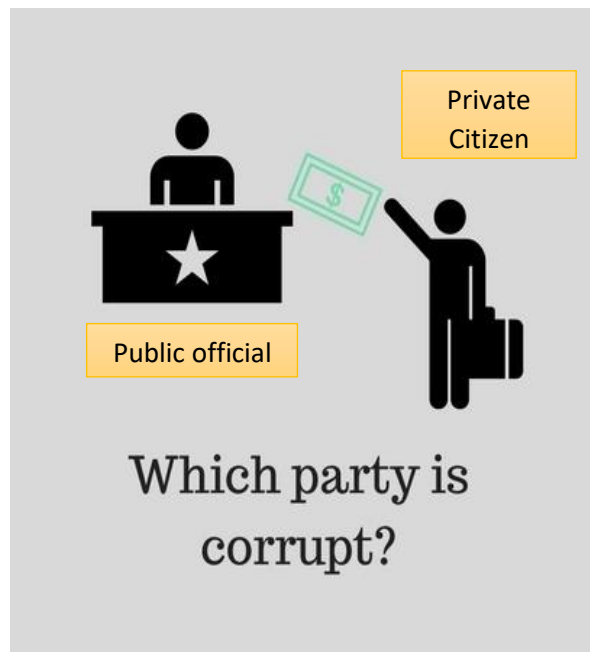


Figure 2 - 1: Actors involved in corrupt practices (Author generated)

When an individual tries to influence professional decisions by offering, giving, or promising money, goods, or services, he or she engages in active bribery. At the same time, an individual who requests, accepts, or expects gifts in exchange for his or her power commits passive bribery (Gorsira, Denkers and Huisman, 2016). Therefore, those who commit corrupt practices can actively or passively contribute to the corrupt system.

Notably, a great deal of research on corruption has focused on public officials as the party that accept or expect money, goods, or services from other parties (such as private citizens or businessmen), or they induce the bribery (Bahn, 1975; Hamid, 2014; Pande and Jain, 2014). Less common is research that focuses on the people (public citizens) who may offer or give money, goods, or services in order to achieve their goals; or have been influenced by their environment to comply with everyday corruption. Thus, this research is interested to focus on the public point of view, who most of the time becomes the victim of the corrupt practices. It is interested to examine how the people maintain their integrity when facing with the everyday corruption.

2.1.2 Types of corruption

As mentioned in the earlier chapter that there are two types of corruption, grand corruption and petty corruption (or small-scale corrupt acts of everyday forms of corruption, used interchangeably). Grand corruption or called political corruption “leads to state failure as certain branches of governance may be organized as a ‘bribe machine’, nominal democracy may have a corrupt electoral system, and high-level government officials can collect kickbacks from private contractors (Rose-Ackerman, 2008, p. 331). Grand corruption mostly involves a large sum of money and takes place at the public sphere’s top level of management and within the highest level in private business.








































Even though it is small-scale, petty corruption “can lead to the inefficient and unfair distribution of scarce benefits...encourage officials to create red tape...and lower state legitimacy” (Rose-Ackerman, 2008, p. 331). Petty corruption (administrative corruption) refers everyday corruption that occurred at the interface between public institutions and citizens. Even though petty

corruption involves relatively modest sums of money, however, when it is endemic, it can result a great cost (Rose-Ackerman, 2008). This research is interested to focus on the small-scale corrupt acts that happen in daily activities; In which more people are exposed to that situation.

Alatas (2015) emphasises three types of corruption: bribery, extortion, and nepotism. They are not completely identical; however, their characteristics refer to the understanding of corruption Alatas (1980) mentioned above. Bribery is the act of accepting gifts bestowed by a private person with the aim of inducing the recipient to give special consideration to the interests of the donor. This may also imply the act of offering such gifts or other tempting favours. Extortion refers to the demanding of gifts or favours in the execution of public duties. Finally, nepotism is the appointment of relatives, friends, or political associates to public offices regardless of their merits and the consequences for public wealth (Alatas, 2015). Another type of day-to-day corrupt practices is gratification. According to Alatas (2015), it is the most prevalent forms of corruption in Asia. Gratification, according to the Law in Indonesia No. 31 of 1999, refers to a “reward in the broad sense, including money, goods, discounts, fees, interest-free loans, travel tickets, lodging, tours, free medicine, and other facilities, whether it was received at home or abroad, done through the use of electronic devices or not” (Fazzan and Ali, 2015, p. 6). Gratification has been found to be common in Indonesia (Setiawan, 2013). However, the tradition of gift-giving is prohibited by the Anti-corruption Act No. 20 of 2001, especially for state officials, judges, lawyers, and members of the Indonesian National Police, which contrasts with the wider culture in society.





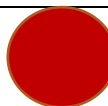
Following Table 2-1 shows how people in Indonesia engaged in small-scale corruption, in particular for bribery, in comparison to other countries. The area of corruption includes to public school, public health, ID, voters’ cards, and permits, utilities, dealing with police and courts. It can be seen that in Indonesia, the bribery in relation to ID, voters’ cards and permits, and police business (16-30% respectively) are higher than other area of services.

Table 2 - 1: Services for which people pay bribes in certain countries (Pring, 2017, p. 18)

Place	Public school	Public hospital	ID, voter's card, permit	Utilities	Police	Courts
Australia				0		
Cambodia						*
China				*		
Hong Kong			0	*	0	*
India						
Indonesia						
Japan	0	0	0	0	0	*
Malaysia						
Mongolia				*		*

Note:

The size of the circle corresponds to the proportion of service users who had paid a bribe.

0					
0%	1-5%	6-15%	16-30%	31-45%	46-60%

Based on the degree of tolerance for corruption, Heidenheimer (1989, p. 161) (in Guo and Li, 2015) divided corruption into three categories: black corruption, grey corruption, and white corruption. Black corruption refers to practices that are commonly regarded as corruption, such as graft, bribery, fraud, embezzlement, extortion, smuggling, and tax evasion. By contrast, grey corruption is on a smaller scale and includes practices such as taxpayer-financed banquets, the misuse of government cars, and traveling abroad at public expense. Finally, white corruption is considered even less strict, and thus, people in society may not consider such practices to be corrupt, for example, giving or receiving gifts. Both grey and white corruption have penetrated deep into public life, influencing the behaviour of both public officials and ordinary citizens (Guo and Li, 2015).

Referring to the above categories or types of corruption, this research focuses on small-scale types of corruption, which are the typical practices that happen in day-to-day life. This encompasses (and is limited to) bribery, nepotism, and gratification. Potentially, people will experience this when they interact or deal with public sectors such as those in public administration, health, and education. As suggested by the Broken Windows theory (Alford, 2013), which is explained in the next sub-section, the practices may look simple but could nevertheless represent a potential danger for society and the state.

2.2 The Consequences of corruption

Corruption undoubtedly brings negative consequences to society. Research indicates that among the negative impacts of corruption are a delay in economic development, international trade, and investment (see Glynn et al., 1997), and a negative impact on economic growth (Mauro, 1995). Corruption hinders the inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI) to host countries (see Zhao et al., 2003), reduces the level of human capital, and destroys confidence in both public and private institutions (Husted, 1999). Economists also refer to indicators that might be influenced by corrupt practices, such as GDP per capita, government expenditure, and foreign aid (see Kuton et al., 2007; Ashour, 2006; Svensson, 2005, cited in (Seleim and Bontis, 2009)).

A substantial body of evidence also shows that corruption has serious costs for the economy both in terms of slowing growth and increasing inequality (Mauro, 1995) (see Ades and DiTella, 1996; Gupta, Davoodi, and Alonso-Terne, 1998); as well as its effects on democracy in terms of decreasing government effectiveness; stability (see Adsera, Boix, and Payne, 2000; La Porta et al., 1998; Mauro, 1995); and political legitimacy (see Della Porta, 2000; Doig and Theobald, 2000, Morris, 1991) in (Seleim and Bontis, 2009).

There are those who may see corruption as “grease for the wheels of the economy” (see Meon and Sekkat, 2005). Few questions the “contribution” of corruption to the flexibility of the system and the welfare of (public) officials. This is because, in some countries, some forms of petty corruption continue to be accepted and justified; it is considered a means of smoothing the process of social exchange (Truex, 2010; Torsello and Venard, 2016). Nevertheless, there is general agreement among scholars that corruption has more negative impacts on society and a detrimental effect on economies (Mauro, 1995). The widespread nature of corruption indicates there is something wrong with the relationship between the state and society (Rose-Ackerman, 1999). Rose-Ackerman (1999) argues that to chase after the economic purposes only by doing all the efforts is not worth pursuing. This is because corruption tends to distort the economic benefits, favouring only those who have power and leading to a less equitable income distribution (Rose-Ackerman, 1999 , p.33). Thus, for whatever reason, corruption is unacceptable as it is a betrayal of trust.

2.3 The Measures of corruption

Several tools are used to measure corruption, such as the Corruption Perception Index (CPI), the National Integrity System (NIS), Bribery Index, and the Global Corruption Report. Among the various tools and measures, the most well-known and commonly used indicator of corruption is Transparency International’s Corruption Perception Index (CPI). This is an index that draws on numerous surveys of experts and general public perceptions of corruption in countries around the world (Lipset and Lenz, 2000). It ranges from 100 (free/very clean) to 0 (totally corrupt). It was first launched in 1995.

According to the CPI, the cleanest country in the world in 2018 was Denmark (with a score of 88), followed by New Zealand (score 87) and Finland (score 85). The countries that were perceived as highly corrupt in 2018 were North Korea and Yemen (score 14), South Sudan and Syria (score 13), and Somalia (score 10) (Transparency International, 2018a).

Although CPI is known as the best 'measure' of the level of global corruption, there have been debates around its construction and methodology. For instance, De Maria (2008) explains that CPI is only capable of calculating proxies of corruption, and it fails to pay attention to cultural variance; it is also business-centric in style. De Maria argues that the purpose of CPI is to serve western economic and geopolitical interests that have been embraced by the respective governments and donor organisations.

De Maria (2008) also points out that the CPI is wrongly misunderstood as measuring "corruption" per se when it actually measures perceptions. Is the measurement of perception as good as the measurement of the substance of "corruption"? Several studies have suggested it is not. For instance, Mocan (2004) found that the correlation between perceived corruption and actual corruption is low. Weber Abramo (2005) and Andvig (2005) report similar findings in that perceived corruption is not related to the action of bribery (De Maria, 2008).

Razafindrakoto and Roubaud (2010)'s findings support the fact that the use of an indirect measure of corruption based on perceptions (particularly expert opinions) is questionable. They argue that "the experts do not provide a good gauge of the real level of corruption; they systematically overestimate the frequency of corruption" (Razafindrakoto and Roubaud, 2010, p. 1057).

It is clear that corruption is difficult to define; it is difficult to observe as well as to measure (Collins, Uhlenbruck and Rodriguez, 2009). The empirical study of corruption is also challenging. Those who engage in corruption try to cover up their involvement and do not want to provide evidence. It is often because the crime is committed consensually between two or more parties,

and tends to stimulate secrecy in that they do not want to provide any information (Gorsira, Denkers and Huisman, 2016; Rabl and Kuehlmann, 2008; Thachuk, 2005).

Nevertheless, in spite of its weaknesses and challenges, CPI can be used as a warning of corruption and an indication of economic development around the world for any concerned parties. This enables the respective countries and other parties to know how serious the problem is. Thus, they can take any necessary action related to their interests or goals.

Given the social impact of corruption, perceptions of corruption assume a central role in the debate on issues affecting social interactions. According to Melgar et al. (2010, cited in Tomo et al., 2019), a high level of perceived corruption could have more devastating effects than the corruption itself. It can create a culture of distrust towards institutions. This can have negative effects on the economy in terms of growing institutional instability and a deterioration of the relationships among individuals, institutions, and states (Tomo, Todisco and Mangia, 2019).

Having seen the various levels of perceived corruption around the world, the question arises as to what factors drive differences in the level of corruption; and why some countries are (perceived) as more highly corrupt than others. As an illustration, a CPI score that becomes a 'country portrait' of its level of corruption, describes how corrupt acts are socially patterned in that particular country. It shows the degree of acceptability and highlights the contextual effects of corruption, such as the country's cultural values and norms.

2.4 The Causes of corruption

Several studies that have strived to identify the cause or determinants of corruption have focused on the character of the individual. They are concerned with the internal world of the actors, such as their motivation and/or the psychological process associated with the dilemmatic situation they face (Köbis *et al.*, 2016; Rusch, 2016; Zaloznaya, 2014;), or their exceptional and problematic bad character (Jancsics, 2014).

Other studies have revealed that the causes of corruption are related to the quality of the government (Persson *et al.*, 2013; Rose-Ackerman and Palifka, 2016; Rothstein, 2005; Rose-Ackerman and Palifka, 2016; Rothstein, 2005; Rose-Ackerman and Palifka, 2016; Rothstein, 2005). Dimant (2014), for instance, reported that the efficiency of public administration influences the level of corruption. Such efficiency is determined by the quality of regulations and permits. Unclear regulations drive an increasing level of corrupt practices (Dimant, 2014). The penalty systems in place or legal enforcement when caught are also a factor that determines the probability of accepting corrupt practices. Moreover, Dimant (2014, cited in Witt and Dryden-Witte, 2001, p. 4), contends that an individual's engagement in a criminal behaviour is influenced by the expected gains in relation to what can be earned legally, the risk of being caught, and the severity of the punishment.

Political and economic conditions can also be the causes of corruption, according to some researchers. For instance, Goel and Nelson (2005) identified a relationship between policy and corrupt activity. States that are less corrupt usually have a well-regulated financial sector and only a minimal informal economy or black market. The opposite is the case for states with a high level of corruption. In addition, Goel and Nelson also found that countries with higher economic and political freedom tend to have lower levels of corruption. Economic factors, such as lower salaries and a poor incentive structure, are also considered sources of corruption in some countries (Klitgaard, 1988; Rose-Ackerman, 1999). A number of researchers have also found that the low salaries are given to state officials also influences corruption, as they try to improve their financial condition by receiving bribes (Sumah, 2018). The degree of corruption can also be influenced by the dissatisfaction state officials feel with their work or place of work (Sardzoska and Tang, 2009).

Corruption also occurs because of a country's historical background (Treisman, 2000) and cultural values (Yeganeh, 2014). Indeed, culture and corruption are closely interrelated (Barr and Serra, 2010; Husted, 1999). Culture is shared among group members that have common values and beliefs. It interacts with corruption through formal institutions and social norms, both of which can differ across countries (Banuri and Eckel, 2012). Therefore, social norms are believed to be

one of the significant elements that explain why corruption in some countries is higher than in others.

Several researchers have established a critical relationship between corruption and social norms. For instance, Fisman and Miguel (2006) found a positive relationship between social norms and corruption by evaluating the parking tickets given to diplomats stationed in New York City. They found that diplomats from high-corruption countries commit parking violations more often (Fisman and Miguel, 2006). Dong, Dulleck and Torgler (2009) found that the willingness to engage in corrupt activities is influenced by the perceived activities of peers and other people. They found that disutility guilt depends negatively on the number of people involved in corruption. The higher the perceived corruption of other individuals, the more justifiable the corruption (Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2009). Thus, a person's willingness to become involved in corrupt activities depends on the behaviour of other citizens.

2.5 Theories of corruption

2.5.1 Principal-agent theory

Attempts to understand the problem of corruption have attracted research from multidisciplinary perspectives. A range of theories has thus tried to explain this phenomenon and identify its causes. This then provides signposts on ways to solve or reduce the problem.

One popular theory is the rational choice theory. A great deal of literature has focused on this economic consideration as the dominant factor in explaining corruption (Nye, 1967; Rose-Ackerman, 1999; Klitgaard, 1988). This theory argues that corruption is the result of the negative incentive structures, independent of time, place, and cultural or socioeconomic contexts (Klitgaard, 1988). This theory encompasses the principal-agent theory, which has also been used to explain the corruption phenomenon.

Principal-agent theory that emphasises more on rational perspective takes place in individual calculations on whether to do corruption or not. The theory posits that corruption is situated in

the interaction and interrelations that exist within and outside public bodies. In principal-agent theory, principled principals are corrupt and not acting in the interest of the society but instead pursuing their own narrow self-interests (Ugur and Dasgupta, 2011).

According to Klitgaard (1988), Rose-Ackerman (1978), Williams (1999) (Persson *et al.*, 2013 p. 452), the two key assumptions of the theory are:

- (1) A goal conflict exists between so-called principals (who are typically assumed to embody the public interest) and agents (who are assumed to have a preference in favor of corrupt transactions insofar as the benefits of such transactions outweigh the costs);
- (2) Agents have more information than the principals, which results in an information asymmetry between the two groups of actors.

Many organisational studies and economics scholars have placed an enormous amount of attention in their research on rational choice theory. It is primarily because economics and administrative measures have long been the pressures that have led people to commit corrupt acts. However, Alatas (2005) argues that focusing only on economic and administrative perspectives will not be sufficient in the fight against corruption; researchers also need to consider the perspective of human behaviour (Alatas, 2015).

In this theory, monitoring and punishment is essential to curb corruption. However, in situations where there is a lack of reliable punishment, corrupt behaviour transforms into a problem of collective action (Rothstein, 2000).

2.5.2 Collective action approach to corruption

Some researchers argue that corruption should not solely viewed as the problem of principal-agent, it also should be viewed from the problem of collective action (Persson *et al.*, 2013; Mungiu-Pippidi, 2011; Rothstein, 2011a) especially in the context of systemic corruption. The logic of collective action problem was expressed by Mancur Olson (1965). It is the ability of collectives to work towards the production of public goods which are non-excludable (impossible to exclude people from using it) and non-rivalrous (a person's use of the goods does

not reduce its availability for others to enjoy) (Marquette and Peiffer, 2015 p. 3). However, because of these characters, it creates the opportunity for some people to be “free-riders”. It refers to some people who do not contribute their fair share towards the production of the goods, but still can benefit from it. Thus, when people know that their level of contribution to the production of the collective benefit does not impact their beneficiary status, they tend to opt for free ride. When this situation happens, individuals will be less prone to contribute to the collective benefit when they know that others will just be free riders on their efforts (Marquette and Peiffer, 2015). Moreover, Marquette and Peiffer (2015) add that collective action approach shows that the problem of corruption is a manifestation of the problem of freeriding itself. When someone engages in a corrupt behaviour, it shows that he/she has put their personal interest ahead of the larger public’s interest.

Therefore, it opens possibility to view corruption problem as a collective action problem. The situation was explained by Gunnar Myrdal (1968, p. 409) as a situation where any actor who faces a social dilemma will reason as follows: “Well, if everybody seems corrupt, why shouldn’t I be corrupt” (Myrdal, 1968, in Persson et al., 2013, p. 457). According to this approach, although most people morally condemn corrupt practices, the cost bearing will be higher and therefore they choose corrupt alternatives in preference to non-corrupt practices (Persson *et al.*, 2013).

2.6 Historical perspectives on corruption in Indonesia

Indonesia is located in Southeast Asia, and its population has been projected to reach 270 million people by the end of 2020. Looking at the demographics for the same year, 16.19% of Indonesian citizens are aged 20 – 29 years. This cohort is included as part of the productive group. Indonesia is currently entering an era of demographic bonus, where the size of the productive age population is greater than the size of the unproductive age population (Kusnandar, 2020b). The productive age includes people who are 15 – 64 years of age (over 185 million people). People in the unproductive age are children aged between 0-4 years (66 million) and elderly people over 65 years (over 18 million people).

It is the world's fourth most populous country (after China, India, and United States of America), the most populous Austronesian nation, and the most populous Muslim-majority country (Kusnandar, 2020a). With Jakarta as the capital, Indonesia has 34 provinces that are spread out across the country.



Figure 2 - 2: The position of Indonesia in the world (Ontheworldmap.com, 2020)

Indonesia has a long history of corruption. Suharto, the president of Indonesia from 1967 – 1998, presided over 31 years of power that was abused by public servants at all levels. The most well-known of Suharto's corrupt practices was nepotism, where top posts were given to his close relatives (Panth, 2011). Not a single person from any political party or any social or administrative group has denied the prevalence of corruption in Indonesia. Although sufficient quantitative data are lacking, the effects are too obvious to hide (Alatas, 2015).

However, when Suharto stepped down in 1998, this marked the end of a new era and the beginning of the reformation era, signaling a shift in the prevalence of corruption in the country. This was fueled by the impact of a more democratic political governance structure, the emergence of free media, and greater freedom of expression. It was most notably driven,

however, by the establishment of KPK (Corruption Eradication Commission) in 2002, and its functioning as the most effective anti-corruption agency in Indonesia's modern history (Juwono, 2016).

The shift towards anti-corruption behaviour appears to be more evident among young people, as shown by a survey of the Index of anti-corruption behaviour (IPAK – *Indeks Perilaku Anti Korupsi*) conducted by the Central Agency of Statistics (BPS – *Badan Pusat Statistik*). The survey measured the level of permissiveness towards corruption practices on a scale of 0 – 5. A figure closer to 5 shows that people are more resistant to corrupt practices, while a figure closer to 0 indicates that more people are more permissive when it comes to corrupt practices (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2017). The survey identified an increase in anti-corruption behaviour in Indonesia in 2017 (an index of 3.71) compared to 2015 (an index of 3.59).

Historically, the efforts of governance reform to eradicate corruption in Indonesia have never been consistently applied. The continuing existence of significant obstacles and barriers imposed by interest (or political) groups, as well as law enforcement agencies, shows that corruption remains largely intact (Juwono, 2016; ACCH, 2017). Therefore, moving the focus from downstream to midstream level may be significant for the anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia.

2.7 Anti-corruption movement

In this thesis, as the aim is to explore social marketing approaches for anti-corruption campaign, issue on anti-corruption movement is presented in this section. Countries that have suffered from corruption have fought back by creating several important anti-corruption initiatives. These have been introduced and conducted with varying levels of success, and have included protecting whistleblowers, building anti-corruption agencies, enlightening citizens, and empowering third parties (Kubbe and Engelbert, 2017).

A range of tools and techniques have also been used to fight corruption, such as education (preventive programme), investigation, and public campaigns, usually involving multiple partners

(media, civil society, government institutions). This has been achieved through coalition-building and networking using a combination of modern information communication technology (e.g., Internet and social media, mobile phones, radio shows, advocacy campaigns), social accountability tools, and developing a curriculum with anti-corruption messages (e.g., such as in Indonesia, Hong Kong) (Panth, 2011).

Given the urgency of fighting corruption, in December 2002 under Law No. 3/2002, the government of Indonesia established a commission responsible for organising all efforts to eradicate corruption practices in the country. The Corruption Eradication Commission (*Komisi Pemberantasan Korupsi* or KPK) has a responsibility to not only act as an enforcement agent but also to coordinate preventive actions in any related field to reduce the increasing number of corruption practices. Thus far, KPK has been conducting anti-corruption campaigns through preventive actions. This increases the awareness of people while educating them about the corrupt practices that might take place around them and the dangers these can cause. An integrated marketing communication program is being conducted by the initiator through advertising, public relations, events (workshops, seminars, youth camps, fairs), and movies. This campaign is targeting various segments of the population in Indonesia (Rosidah, Luthfia and Respati, 2014).

Based on several research studies, reports on KPK's websites (www.kpk.go.id; www.acch.kpk.go.id; www.kanal.kpk.go.id), and the author's previous personal communication, KPK's existing anti-corruption campaign can be illustrated as shown in Figure 2-5. It consists of two major sections. First is a campaign for children and teenagers that aims to promote the nine values of anti-corruption (honest, concerned, disciplined, responsible, courageous, independent, hardworking, modest, and just). This largely utilises an educational approach.

KPK's nine values of anti-corruption were produced by a panel of experts in Indonesia that consisted of education professionals/practitioners, teachers, and members of society. They met to discuss the values that need to be promoted to build an anti-corruption culture in the country. They devised the nine values and the anti-corruption modules for educational purposes (Rahim, 2012).

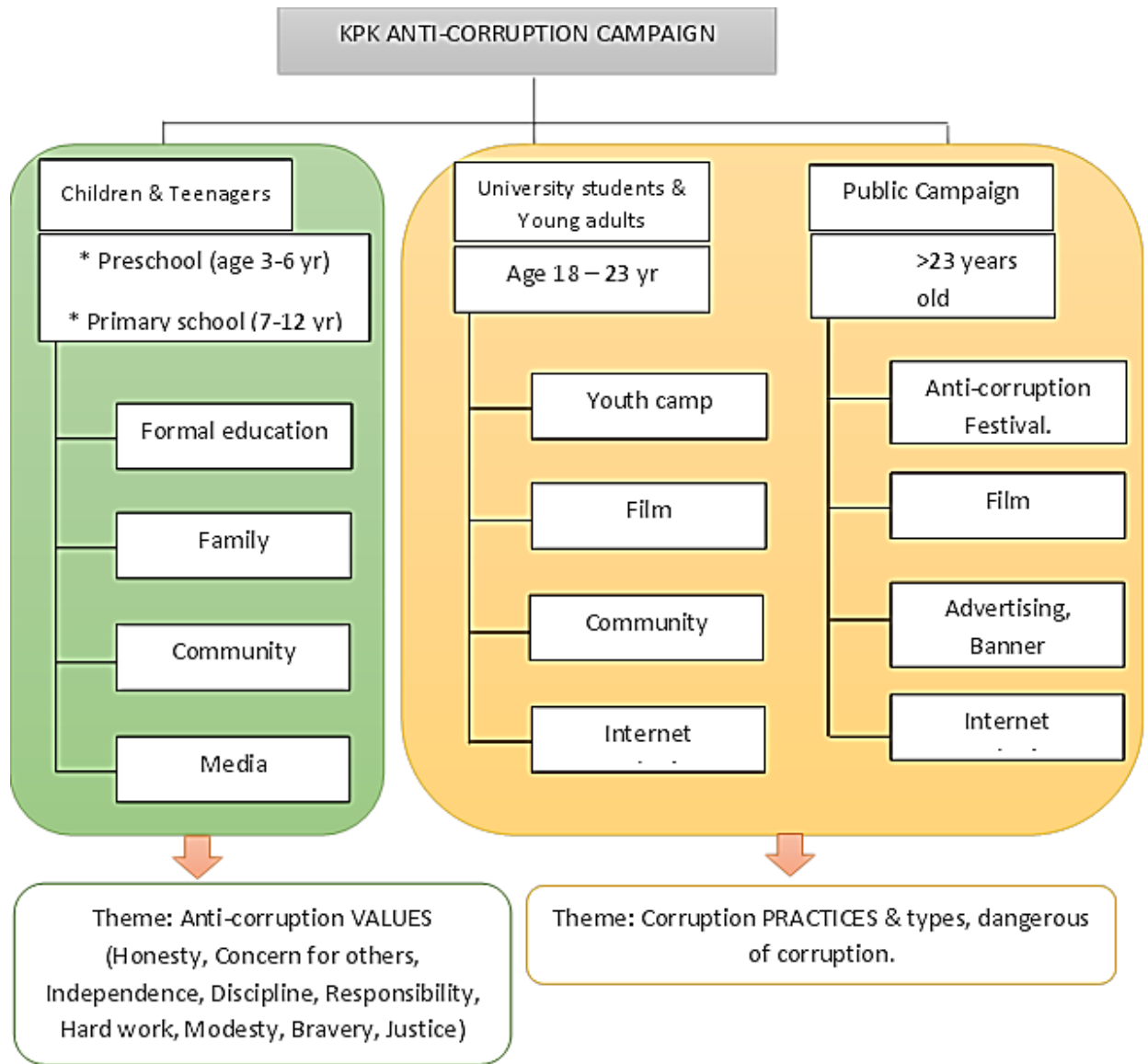


Figure 2 - 3: Anti-corruption campaign by KPK Indonesia (Rosidah, Luthfia and Respati, 2014)

Children are one of the key targets of KPK’s anti-corruption campaign, which aims to introduce and instill anti-corruption values into children as early as possible. It is assumed that this generation will have been contaminated less by corrupting behaviour than older target groups. Thus, it will be easier to introduce them to integrity-based behaviour.

Another campaign that is targeted at young adults and the public at large aims to increase their awareness and knowledge on issues such as corruption practices and the dangers of corruption. It is expected that, with this knowledge, they will know the type of acts they are going to be involved in and the damage this will cause to wider society. The campaign also aims to increase public participation against corruption. A lesson that can be learned from the Indian anti-corruption campaign in this respect is that when people are not afraid to stand up against corruption, corrupt officials become scared. Additionally, using nonviolent tools to fight corruption is less likely to invite retaliation (Panth, 2011).

The importance of education on moral values has become the primary agenda of several anti-corruption agencies (e.g., Indonesia, Hong Kong, Nigeria). As well as Indonesia's KPK, this model of the campaign has also been implemented by Hong Kong's ICAC (Independent Commission Against Corruption). They introduced anti-corruption values to children through an education programme and educated young adults on the corrupt practices they will face or have already interacted within day-to-day activities. The young adult learns more about these norms as they work or enter adulthood life (Huberts, 2000; Marquette, 2007).

Moreover, consideration of the importance of values in an anti-corruption programme invites further discussion on the role of human value systems, especially when people are facing a situation (norms) that contradicts the values they hold. Will the value system that has been built since childhood be sustained or will it be changed by a new set of norms? People have learned that integrity (the quality of being honest) should be maintained; however, when they try to acquire their first Identity (ID) card, they witness many people not playing by the rules. For example, some people give or offer a small bribe to the officer to speed up the process. Hence, it is argued that the development of a value system alone will not effectively work to combat corruption. To reduce corrupt practices, a value system needs to be supported by a positive environment that can encourage people in the community to maintain their integrity.

2.8 Summary

Corruption has been extensively researched from various perspectives, including those of political science, economics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. These have adopted different approaches to understanding corruption, its research context, and methodology, as well as approaches to anti-corruption activities. The chapter has presented some definitions and approaches to understand corruption from various perspectives.

In addition to its complexity, there is also no clear-cut definition of corruption. Each perspective provides its own understanding. Hence, no “general theory” of corruption has been constructed, despite efforts to do so. However, all definitions mentioned earlier refer to an “act,” how it is created, and the role of the human decision-making process in becoming involved in these acts. Therefore, this research adopts a behavioural perspective, arguing that people actively learn how to act in their own specific context, including corrupt acts. It focuses on the behaviour of individuals who intend to engage in corrupt practices (e.g., paying a small bribe). It is particularly concerned with the factors that influence these individuals to comply with corrupt practices, such as value systems and social factors.

The chapter contributes to the research by providing some perspectives to understand corruption issues. Hence, it will be used to explain the analysis of the research in the later chapters. In the next part, there will be an explanation on some major theoretical foundations in order to build the conceptual framework of the research.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theories adopted in this research. It describes the major theories used to explain the conceptual framework of the research, which are social marketing, social norms and the theory of human values.

Other theories or approaches were also drawn on to support the proposed intervention models in Chapter 7 (Concept testing). These include persuasion theory, relationship marketing, and CBSM (Community-based social marketing). However, all these theories will not be the focus of this chapter. They will only be briefly discussed in Chapter 8.

The following section will explain the conceptual framework, based on the theories mentioned earlier, that was used to test the propositions and hypotheses. The chapter ends with a summary of the theoretical foundations of the research.

3.1 Social marketing

Social marketing has established a body of evidence and insight-based approaches that have given risen to a social campaign that focuses on influencing people's behaviour. Its most significant contribution lies in not merely persuading people to behave in socially beneficial ways but in empowering them to do so (French and Gordon, 2015). A core feature of social marketing is a commitment to a process that seeks to engage citizens and all relevant stakeholders in developing solutions to social challenges that are valued and are subject to broad civic support (French and Gordon, 2015, p. 15).

Kotler and Zaltman (1971) define social marketing as follows:

It is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving consideration of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971, p. 5).

Hastings and Domegan (2014) state that social marketing takes ideas from the techniques and procedures of commercial marketing and applies them to non-commercial activities such as health and social behaviours. As such, “social marketing critically examines commercial marketing so as to learn from its successes and curb its excesses” (Hastings and Domegan, 2014, p. 14).

Furthermore, French and Gordon (2015) state:

Social marketing practice is guided by ethical principles. It seeks to integrate research, best practice, theory, audience, and partnership insight to inform the delivery of competition sensitive and segmented social change programmes that are effective, efficient, equitable and sustainable (French and Gordon, 2015, p. 4).

Since the 1960s, social marketing has been applied to promote traffic safety, tobacco control, drug prevention, childhood immunisations, and environmental behaviour, as well as improved nutrition and diets, with significant success. It has most often been used to provide solutions in the public health arena (Grier and Bryant, 2005; Helmig and Thaler, 2010). Looking at different field, thus, this PhD research is interested to explore the potential use of social marketing approaches for an anti-corruption campaign. The goal of which is to influence individuals to adopt integrity-based behaviour in their daily lives.

3.1.1 The perspectives adopted

The use of social marketing, as an approach towards planning social change, is based on several critical perspectives. Because it follows commercial ideas, one of the approaches adopted in social marketing is to use the concept of 4Ps developed by McCarthy.

Marketers view the marketing problem as one of developing the right *product* backed by the right *promotion* and put in the right *place* at the right *price* (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971, p. 7).

Similarly, as with commercial marketing, the product in a social marketing campaign is designed on the basis of research conducted with target audiences so that it is created appropriately. Kotler and Zaltman (1971) admit that this 'package of social ideas' is more challenging to sell than the product in commercial marketing. Thus, the seller must find a desirable package so that people are willing to purchase it. The seller should also develop appropriate communication strategies and tactics to make the product familiar, acceptable and desirable to the audience. Moreover, adequate and compatible distribution should be provided so that a motivated audience can know where to obtain the product. As a final element, the price represents the cost of the product and 'includes money costs, opportunity costs, energy costs, and psychic costs' (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971, p. 9). The buyer has to accept the cost to buy the product (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971).

Moreover, the relational strategy used in commercial marketing needs to be adopted by social marketers. Over the last decade, there has been a paradigm shift in commercial marketing from transactional marketing to relationship marketing. Hastings (2003) argues that this has provided a good opportunity for social marketers to consider this relational concept as it has much to contribute in terms of enhancing the success of a social marketing campaign (Hastings, 2003).

Hastings (2003, p. 9) suggests the following ideas for social marketers:

1. Social marketers should think in terms of relationships, not transactions.
2. These relationships should be nurtured not just with customers but also suppliers, stakeholders, competitors, and employees.
3. Outcomes, although ultimately governed by the bottom line, should give as much emphasis to service quality as the sales graph.

Another perspective adopted in social marketing is the multidisciplinary approach. This is appropriate as social marketing deals with various campaigns such as health prevention, environment protection, and dealing with social problems. A large number of scholarly works can be found in various fields, such as psychology, sociology, and marketing.

In social marketing, there has also been the development of a social marketing mix. This is known as the EDMC framework and consists of Education, Design, Marketing, and Control. The framework is described as follows:

Table 3 - 1: The Educate-Design-Marketing-Control framework (Tapp, 2017; French and Blair-Stevens, 2010) adapted by (Tapp, 2017)

Edu-Marketing	<p>Marketing works with education to offer persuasive information, teach, build confidence, skills, and training.</p> <p>Population level persuasive education can change cultures.</p>
Design-Marketing	<p>Marketing partners with experts in policy, systems, physical design, safety systems, technology, mobile devices, signage, and urban planning.</p> <p>Marketing partners up with service deliverers.</p>
Classical Social Marketing	<p>Marketing dominates the behaviour change proposition.</p> <p>Marketing works largely on its own in designing the intervention.</p>
Control-Marketing	<p>Marketing works with experts in law and regulation to create regulations that citizens and industry will accept.</p> <p>Marketing the role of police, fines, or other penalties using laws.</p>

Peattie and Peattie (2003) suggest that it is more beneficial for social marketing to use concepts and techniques from other disciplines and that the focus should be on improving the effectiveness of its solutions (Peattie and Peattie, 2003). According to Wymer (2011), social marketing should not limit its scope to the behaviour change framework (individual approach) nor limit its strategy by solely using marketing concepts. Currently, more research is needed to including concepts from fields other than marketing. There has also been a call for more research on social advocacy and social change issues (Wymer, 2011). Wymer adds that to develop effective social marketing solutions, “social marketers” should be able to understand the cause of the social problem. They should therefore broaden their knowledge by drawing on other perspectives (disciplines). By doing so, social marketers will focus not only on individual change but also on social change, which will increase the effectiveness of any social marketing solution.

For example, in the case of corruption, it is argued that corruption is caused by social factors such as cultural norms. If corrupt practices that become common behaviour (norms) are viewed as a social problem by other fields (such as sociology, social psychology) other than social marketing, it raises a question on how a social marketer can influence human behaviour.

3.1.2 Process of social marketing

To evaluate whether a campaign should be categorised as a social marketing campaign, there are several elements that can be used as benchmark criteria. These have been developed based on Andreasen’s six-point criteria (2002) and include voluntary behaviour change, audience research, audience segmentation, the use of a social marketing mix, exchanges, and competition. The NSMC (National Social Marketing Centre) has now expanded this into eight criteria, as follows:

Table 3 - 2: Andreasen’s Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria (NSMC, 2016)

Elements	Intervention Criteria
Behaviour	Aims to change people’s actual behaviour.
Customer orientation	Focuses on the audience (understands their lives, behaviour and the issue) using a mix of data sources and research methods.
Theory	Uses behavioural theories to understand behaviour and inform the intervention.
Insight	Customer research identifies ‘actionable insights’ – pieces of understanding that will drive intervention development.
Exchange	Considers the benefits and costs of adopting and maintaining a new behaviour; maximises the benefits and minimises the costs to create an attractive offer.
Competition	Seeks to understand what competes for the audience’s time, attention, and inclination to behave in a particular way.
Segmentation	Avoids a ‘one size fits all’ approach: identifies audience ‘segments’, which have common characteristics, then tailor interventions appropriately.
Methods Mix	Uses a mix of methods to bring about behaviour change. Does not rely solely on raising awareness.

The above criteria stand as a strategic view of a social marketing approach that extends it beyond a simple communication model or a nudge-based intervention. The benchmarks lay the ground

for social marketing and elucidate its role in relation to other behaviour change fields (Dibb and Carrigan, 2013).

Social marketing benchmarks, as shown on Table 3-2 above, should aim to change people's actual behaviour. This is based on the fact that social marketing strives to change people's knowledge, attitudes, and ultimately their behaviour (Andreasen, 2003). In this research, the focus of behaviour change is to reduce compliance or avoid small-scale corrupt practices among individuals within the target group. At upper levels, it is to promote and sustain responsible behaviour in the community.

Secondly, the campaign needs to focus on the target group(s) by understanding their lives, behaviour, and issues. For example, in Study 1, the researcher conducted several in-depth interviews with young adults to understand their perceptions and opinions towards small-scale corrupt practices. For target groups at midstream and upstream levels, the initiator should know and understand their issues and problems. For example, at an upstream level, it is important for the initiator to identify and understand relevant stakeholders, key market segments, and their needs, as this is the benefit to create the motivational exchanges and the implementation and evaluation of the programme (Hastings, 2007).

In terms of implementation, the third element, behavioural theories, needs to be applied. The aim of this is to understand the target group's behaviour and to inform how the intervention will work. A range of supporting behavioural theories were adopted in this research, such as social norms, persuasion and marketing frameworks, and norms activation.

The next element is insights, which aim to identify elements of understanding that will shape the intervention. Gaining insights into what drives the behaviour of the target audience in order to influence them is important (Gordon, 2013). Thus, Gordon (2013) explains that the initiator should gain an understanding as to what drives and motivates the target group as well as identify the key factors and relevant issues that influence them. At an upstream level, opinion polls, electoral considerations, media issues, and so forth can be utilised to identify actionable ideas for intervention development.

Exchange is another important social marketing benchmark. This is defined as “an exchange of goods, services, resources, or values between two or more parties with the expectation of some benefits that will satisfy their needs” (Bagozzi, 1975; Houston and Gassenheimer, 1987; in Gordon, 2013, p. 1534). Exchange can be in any form; it does not necessarily have to be monetary in nature. For example, it could refer to social satisfaction when individuals perform the desired behaviour (e.g., “it feels right to be part of the positive change”), social sanctions, or a shared sense of purpose. Individuals can also be provided with the experience of feeling less victimised by a corrupt system, particularly in public services. At midstream and upstream levels, the exchange can be somewhat different. The incentives offered to managers, educators, policy makers, and politicians should be attractive and not simply abstract promises. Thus, identification and assessment of their motivational exchanges is required to make the benefits appear more attractive (Gordon, 2013). Another alternative is to adopt relational thinking. This involves building a relationship with policy makers (for example) to identify their motivational exchanges as a level of trust and recognition is established (Hastings, 2003).

Another element of the social marketing mix involves undertaking a competitive analysis. Understanding the competition helps the initiator to accelerate the changes desired. Thus far, the competition identified in this research is current individual behaviour that complies with small-scale corrupt acts. As an alternative, a positive norms intervention (social norming approach) is proposed as another behavioural means of ensuring norms changing. A computerised system is also proposed to increase efficiency and as a means to help individuals change their current behaviour. Because upper level decision making is more of a complex process (Gordon, 2013), different approaches for midstream and upstream levels can be applied. Competition in these levels could come from other stakeholders and pressure groups, as well as public opinion that impedes the changes desired (Gordon, 2013).

As mentioned earlier, when developing an intervention, the marketer or initiator should avoid a ‘one size fits all’ approach. Thus, segmentation is essential, and it would be beneficial to plan and implement different strategies for different segments. At an individual level, the initiator can segment target groups based on common characteristics such as demographics (age group,

gender, educational background, ethnic minorities, geographic location, and so on). The segment can also be based on psychographic characteristics (e.g., lifestyle, social class, attitudes, and so on).

Midstream and upstream levels can involve the use of a range of related segments in societies, such as educational institutions, educators, managers, politicians, lawmakers, media, and so forth. Different approaches can be adopted according to organisational structure and objectives, political interests and manifestos, policies, and press releases (Gordon, 2013).

Finally, the marketing mix should be adopted to bring about the desired behaviour change. The marketer or initiator should understand that they cannot rely solely on one method to influence their target group. They should use a mix of methods to encourage people to change their behaviour. The most prominent marketing mix is based on four Ps (4Ps) of marketing. Product, Price, Place and Promotion (firstly expressed by McCarthy, 1960). It is then imported to social marketing by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) to articulate the concepts of this field.

Along the way, there has been debates on questioning the fitness of the purpose and the efficacy of the model. In order to better understand and utilize more on social marketing activities, it is considered that another model, such as COM-B (Capability-Opportunity-Motivation behaviour) model by Michie et al. (2011) can fit more in the context. Further explanation on COM-B model can be found in below section 3.1.3.2 in this chapter. The following Table 3-3 shows the comparison of understanding on each component of 4Ps to COM-B model, bridged by the alternative of 4Ps by Peattie & Peattie (2003) as a result of their critiques to 4Ps model.

Table 3 - 3: Comparison of 4Ps and COM-B model (Tapp and Spotswood, 2013, p. 214)

4Ps	Alternative 4Ps by Peattie & Peattie (2003)	COM-B by Michie et al. (2011)
Product	Benefits, advantage or gain from doing something	Motivation or Motive that drives the behaviours
Price	Costs or effort needed to enact the behaviour change	Skills or capability (including psychological and physical ability) to enact a behaviour.
Place	Accessibility	Opportunity (including social and physical environment) that enables behaviour.
Promotion	Social communication	Communication techniques

To link the COM-B model to a social marketing activity, simple clusters have been designed by Tapp & Spotswood (2013) to group social marketing programmes into coherent groups to identify and select the strategic choices. Figure 3-1 below, shows the design clusters and its hierarchy for social marketing activities.

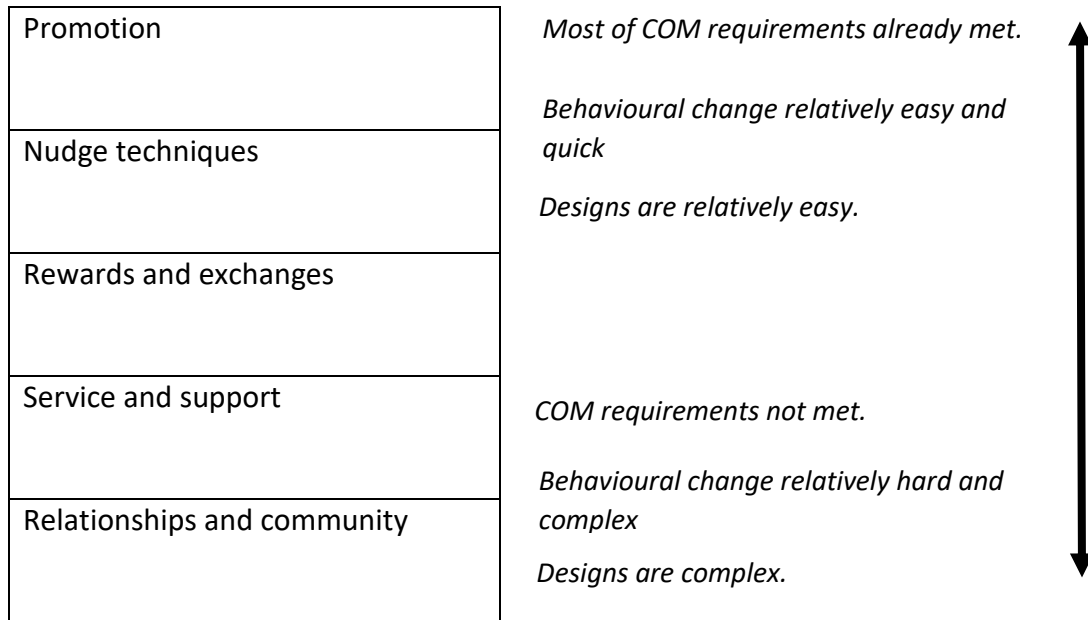


Figure 3 - 1: Design clusters of and the hierarchy in social marketing designs (Tapp & Spotswood, 2003, p. 218)

The above framework presents some categories that serve different aims according to the level of complexity of the social marketing design. Firstly, promotion is the simplest and most recognizable activities to non-marketers. It is applied to many of communication techniques in various areas, such as public health, road safety and environment. Nudge techniques is to get attention or gently give signal to act. For example, pledge signing, opt in/out schemes, changing physical layout, etcetera. Exchange programmes are presenting rewards to those who change their behaviour, such as financial rewards in return for weight loss. Service and support programmes apply the theory of service marketing and practices from commercial sector for designing a social marketing programme. Finally, relationships and community strategies are long term and complex in nature. It relates to co-creation philosophy and requires the active role of community members to generate solutions (Tapp & Spotswood, 2013).

3.1.3 Social marketing intervention models

3.1.3.1 Social ecological model (in social marketing)

Among many components of social marketing, the thesis concentrates on the social-ecological model. The model, developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1981), is amongst the approaches used by social marketing researchers to understand social change. It adopts a wider perspective on change. According to Alderson (1957), the theory explains how the individual and group are loosely bonded in the system, permitting it to operate as a whole while at the same time allowing for parts to be altered and modified by some of those individuals or groups (Hastings and Domegan, 2014).

Social-ecological model can be adapted for social marketing design. According to this model, the social environment is a set of four structures nested around the individual: the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem (Collins, Tapp and Presley, 2010).

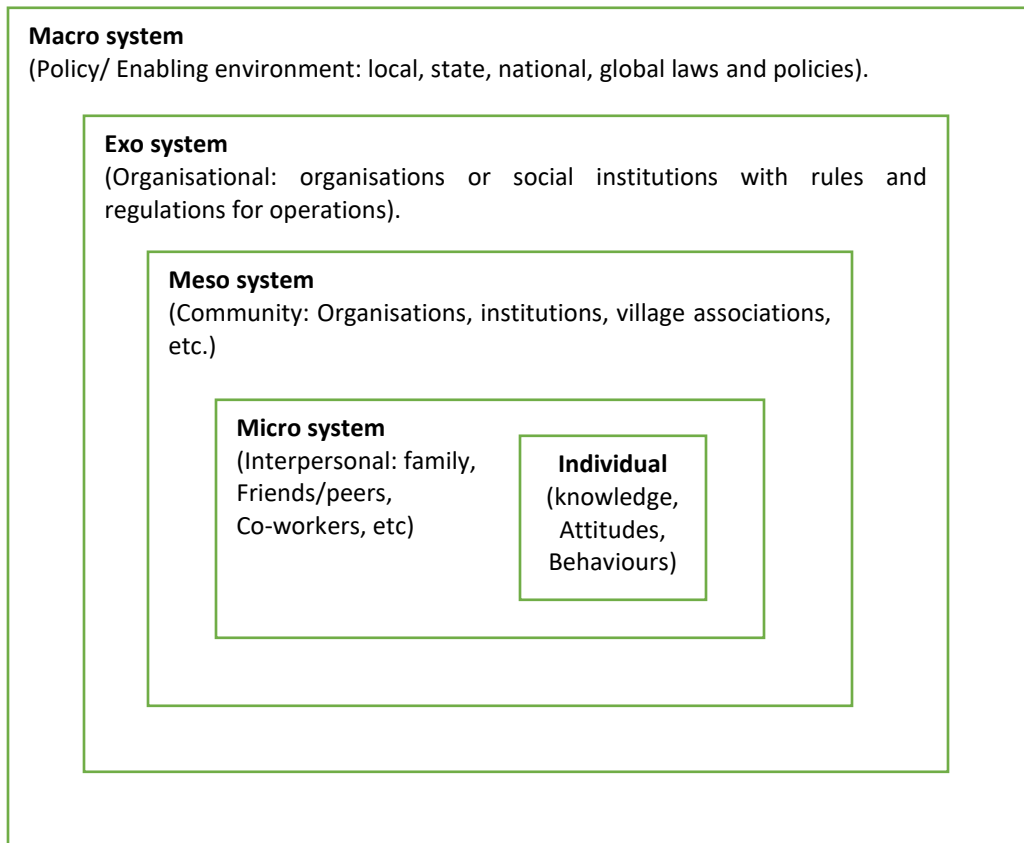


Figure 3 - 2: The Social Ecological Model (based on Bronfenbrenner, 1981, adapted by Tapp, 2017)

On the above Figure 3-2, Social ecological model is presented. The model consists of some level that influence human life. It begins with the lowest level which is the individual level. It shows the character and capability of the individuals which includes factors such as knowledge, attitude, and their behaviour. Microsystem is “a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics” (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 22). A setting is a place where the person readily engages in face-to-face interaction, for example, home, school, daycare, playground, and forth. Mesosystem “as a set of interrelations between two or more settings in which the developing person becomes an active participant” (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 209). Exosystem is defined as “consisting of one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active

participant but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in that setting” (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 237). Macrosystem refers to “the consistency observed within a given culture or subculture in the form and content of its constituent micro-, meso-, and exosystems, as well as any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies” (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 258).

The Social Ecological Model has been widely used as an effective approach to public health prevention and control by using a combination of interventions at all levels of the model. For each level, an initiator or organiser can develop a strategy appropriate to the scope of the target audience. The use of this model can be integrated with social norms that, as perceived standards of acceptable behaviour deeply rooted in one’s beliefs, are the most difficult to change. Various approaches can be adopted to shift social norms toward positive norms, such as through behaviour change communication (at an individual level), behaviour change communication and social change communication (at an interpersonal level), social change communication (at a community level), social mobilisation (at an organisational level), and advocacy (at a policy or national level) (UNICEF, 2004). The thesis argues that the ecological model can be used to explain corruption and is integrated with social norms to stimulate people to engage in corrupt behaviours.

3.1.3.2 Behaviour change model: COM – B System

COM-B system is a model that consists of three essential elements, which are Capability, Opportunity, and Motivation (COM-B system) for behaviour change (Michie, van Stralen and West, 2011). Moreover, Michie et al. (2011) add the model provides systematic way for characterising interventions that are linked to a model of behaviour. It can enable the outcomes to be linked with action mechanism and can help the evaluations should the intervention does not achieve the desired behaviour.

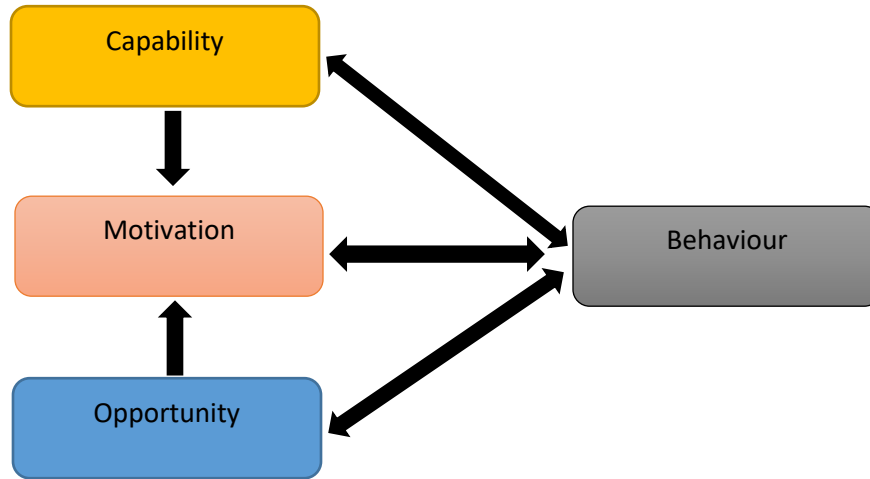


Figure 3 - 3: The COM-B system – A framework for understanding human behaviour (Michie, van Stralen and West, 2011, p. 4)

Figure 3-3 above shows the potential influence of each components in the system. For example, Capability can influence Motivation, so can Opportunity. When the behaviour is enacted, it can alter Capability, Motivation and Opportunity. Capability in the model refers to the individual’s psychological and physical capacity to engage in the activity concerned. It includes having the necessary knowledge and skills. Capability consists of physical capability and psychological capability (capacity to engage in the necessary thought processes, comprehension and reasoning). Motivation refers to all those brain processes that energize and direct behaviour, not just goals and conscious decision-making. It includes habitual processes, emotional responding, as well as analytical decision making. It consists of reflective processes (involving evaluations and plans) and automatic processes (involving emotions and impulses that arise from associative learning and/or innate dispositions). Lastly, opportunity refers to all factors that lie outside the individual that make the behaviour possible or prompt it. Opportunity consists of physical opportunity (afforded by the environment) and social opportunity (afforded by the cultural milieu) (Michie, van Stralen and West, 2011 p. 4).

All the components are expressed in the behavioural change wheel (BCW) in below Figure 3-4 to guide in designing intervention models needed. The three layers shows all COM components, intervention functions, and policy categories.

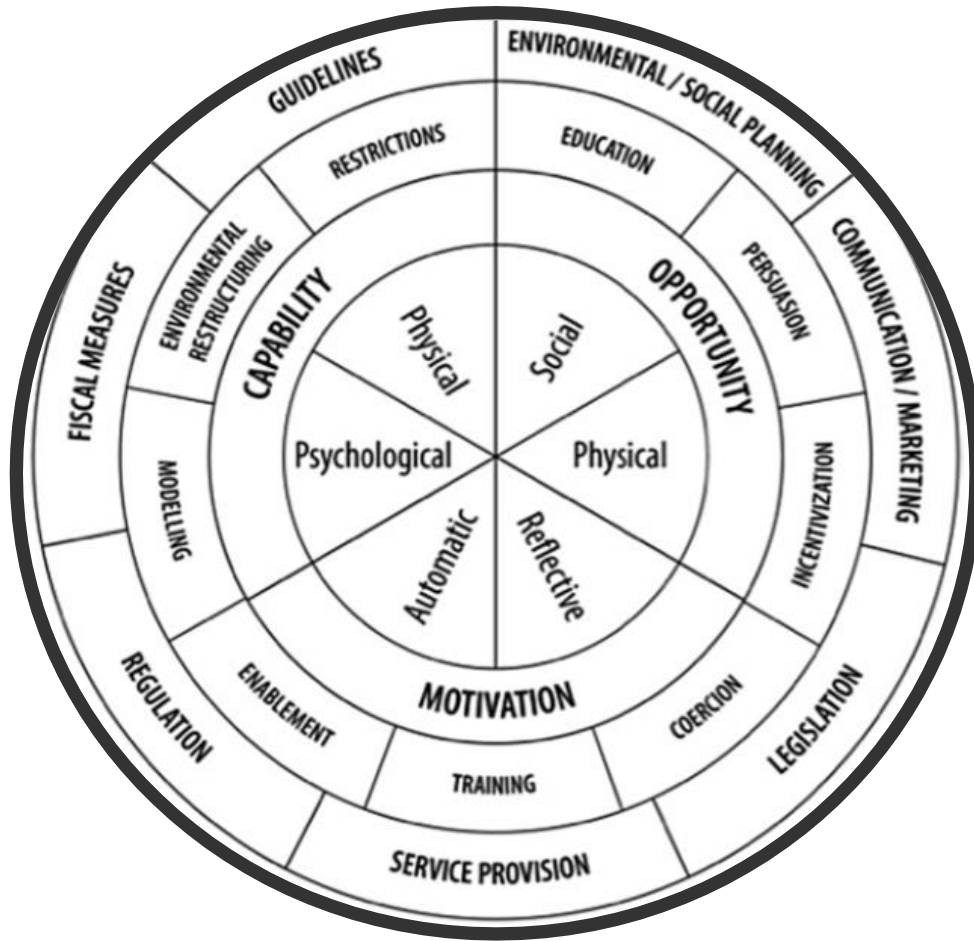


Figure 3 - 4: The Behaviour Change Wheel (Michie et al., 2011)

There are nine intervention functions and seven policy categories that are linked to a model of behaviour. The intervention functions include education, persuasion, incentivisation, coercion, training, restriction, environmental restructuring, modelling and enablement (see Table 3-4 below).

Table 3 - 4: Behaviour Change Wheel – Intervention functions (Michie et al., 2016, p. 9-10)

Intervention function	Definition	Intervention function	Definition
<i>Education</i>	Increasing knowledge or understanding	<i>Restriction</i>	Using rules to reduce the opportunity to engage in the target behaviour (or to increase the target behaviour by reducing the opportunity to engage in competing behaviours)
<i>Persuasion</i>	Using communication to induce positive or negative feelings or stimulate action	<i>Environmental restructuring</i>	Changing the physical or social context
<i>Incentivisation</i>	Creating an expectation of reward	<i>Modelling</i>	Providing an example for people to aspire or to imitate
<i>Coercion</i>	Creating an expectation of punishment or cost	<i>Enablement</i>	Increasing means / reducing barriers to increase capability (beyond education and training) or opportunity (beyond environmental restructuring)
<i>Training</i>	Imparting skills		

Moreover, Michie et al., (2016) explain that intervention functions refer to activities that aimed at changing people behaviour; meanwhile policy categories are actions of responsible authorities to enable or support the intervention. Actions in policy categories in BCW include communication/marketing, guideline, fiscal measures, regulation, legislation, environmental/social planning and service provision (see Table 3-5 below).

Table 3 - 5: Behaviour Change Wheel – Policy categories (Michie et al., 2016, p. 14)

Intervention function	Definition	Intervention function	Definition
<i>Communication / marketing</i>	Using print, electronic, telephonic, or broadcast media	<i>Legislation</i>	Making or changing laws
<i>Guidelines</i>	Creating documents that recommend or mandate practice. This includes all changes to service provision	<i>Environmental / social planning</i>	Designing and/or controlling the physical or social environment
<i>Fiscal measures</i>	Using the tax system to reduce or increase the financial cost	<i>Service provision</i>	Delivering a service
<i>Regulation</i>	Establishing rules or principles of behaviour or practice		

The following Figure 3-5 illustrates the methods for designing behaviour change interventions using BCW analysis. The methods below will be applied for developing proposed concepts in the concept testing (Study 3 in Chapter 7).

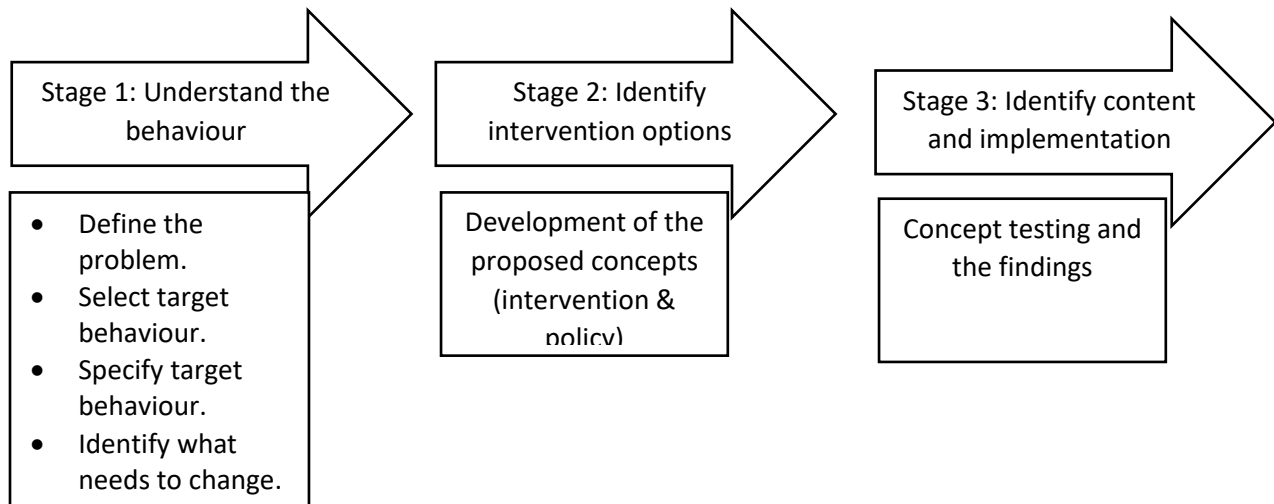


Figure 3 - 5: Methods for designing behaviour change interventions – applied in this thesis (adapted from Michie et al. (2011))

Table 3 - 6: APEASE Criteria by Michie et al., (2016, p. 12-13)

Criterion	Description
Affordability	An intervention is affordable if within an acceptable budget it can be delivered to, or accessed by, all those for whom it would be relevant or of benefit.
Practicability	An intervention can be delivered as designed through the means intended to the target population.
Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness	Effectiveness refers to the effect size of the intervention in relation to the desired objectives in a real world context. Cost effectiveness refers to the ratio of effect to cost.
Acceptability	It refers to the extent to which an intervention is judged to be appropriate by relevant stakeholders (public, professional, and political).
Side-effects / safety	Unwanted or unintended consequences.
Equity	The extent to which an intervention may reduce or increase the disparities in standard of living, well-being or health between different sectors of society.

Prior to implementing the interventions, it is important to understand the context within the area of which the interventions are to be delivered. Thus, there is APEASE criteria to determine which of the interventions are appropriate for their context and most likely to have an impact (Michie et al., 2016). The details criteria can be found in the above Table 3 – 6.

3.2 Social norms

Having discussed social marketing and behaviour change theories, it moves on to the theory on social norms. Social norms are understood as shared understandings of accepted forms of behaviour. They govern human behaviour when adapting to their environment. Cialdini et al. (1991) categorise norms as either descriptive or injunctive norms. Descriptive norms are an individual's perceived prevalence of a particular behaviour; whereas injunctive norms are an

individual's perception of how influential others expect them to behave (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991). Descriptive norms motivate people by providing evidence as to what is likely to be effective and adaptive behaviour: "If everyone is doing or thinking or believing it, it must be the sensible thing to do or think or believe" (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991, p. 203). By contrast, injunctive norms refer to what ought to be done. They constitute the moral rules of a group. These norms motivate action through the promise of social rewards and punishment (informal sanctions) (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991).

Bicchieri (2016, cited in House, 2018), explains that social norms influence human behaviour by changing people's social expectations of how others behave (referred to as empirical expectations) and how others expect them to behave (referred to as normative expectations) (House, 2018). According to Budge et al. (2009, cited in Lindner, 2014), social norms are shared by other people and sustained by their approval and disapproval. Thus, one way to accommodate such behaviour is by allowing guilt disutility when individuals have failed to follow social norms (Lindner, 2014; Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2012).

Norms become the social standards with which to guide human behaviour. Research indicates that many useful approaches based on social norms have been developed that explain conditional cooperation in human activities. Conditional cooperation refers to a situation in which individuals are assumed to be more willing to contribute when others do the same. This behaviour may be due to conformity, social norms, or reciprocity (Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2012).

3.2.1 Social norms approach

The power of social norms is well-established, and thus a large number of researchers have adopted such norms as a conceptual model for behaviour change techniques (Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren, 1990; Goldstein, Cialdini and Griskevicius, 2008; Köbis *et al.*, 2015; Köbis *et al.*, 2019; Ostrom, 2014).

Social norms can also motivate many forms of social behaviour. For instance, research has shown that social norms can be used to increase prosocial behaviour such as charitable giving (see

Argerstrom et al., 2016; Nook et al., 2016), and the re-use of towels in a hotel (see Cialdini et al., 1990; Cialdini et al., 2006; Schultz PW et al., 2007). In terms of injunctive norms, research indicates that these are more effective at reducing selfishness in a cooperative dilemmatic situation, such as the theft of petrified wood from a state park (see more on Cialdini et al., 2006) (House, 2018).

The construct of social norms can be found in several existing conceptual frameworks, such as the social norms approach (SNA) to social marketing and the theory of normative social behaviour. The social norms approach is a conceptual framework that focuses specifically on the role norms play in human behaviour. This approach has been used most prominently in relation to anti-binge drinking (studied by Berkowitz, 2005; Borsari and Carey, 2003; Perkins, 2003). It has also been used to encourage sustainable behaviour (studied by Allcott, 2011; Burchell et al., 2013; Lapinski et al., 2007).

In some cases of social norms campaign, Berkowitz (2005) explains that there is misperception that leads to the problem behaviour such as binge drinking on college students. In his study, it is mentioned that the misperceptions are correlated with drinking problem that makes it able to predict how individuals drink (e.g., Perkins and Wechsler, 1996; Clapp and McDonnell, 2000). The misperception is led because of pluralistic ignorance and false consensus. Berkowitz (2005) states that individuals incorrectly perceive the behaviour of their peers and other community members to be different from their own, but in fact they are not. This misperception is known as pluralistic ignorance. Meanwhile, false consensus refers to the overestimating of the alcohol use of their peers.

Therefore, social norms approach has been conducted to correct those misperceptions of the college students. The message is disseminated through desirable behaviour to as many group members as possible. It can be via publicity events, posters, t-shirts, and so on. An example of the message that might be conveyed is “Eighty-five percent of students on our campus drink 0, 1, 2, 3, or at most 4 drinks when they party” (Miller and Prentice, 2016, p. 341). However, this norm-based intervention is more appropriate in a situation that relates to an exaggerated

estimate of drinking norms whereby correcting students' misperceptions will curb their drinking behaviour (Perkins, 2003).

Another theory that illustrates the power of social norms as a lever for social influence is the focus theory of normative conduct (Goldstein and Cialdini, 2007). This postulates that normative behaviour is not only influenced by individuals' perception of what is commonly (dis)approved of – injunctive norms – but also by people's perceptions of what is commonly done – descriptive norms. Both kinds of social norms appear to affect whether individuals engage in or refrain from corruption.

3.2.2 Social norming campaign – promoting positive behaviour

In this research, the approach of using social norms to change the social problem is quite different. As corruption is real and has attacked all levels of society, thus, a campaign that aims to build new norms or revise the current norms may be promising to be applied. The thesis argues that social norming campaign can be done in this context.

Social norming campaign is an approach that aims to promote and build positive image or positive behaviour in society. Adopting the theory of normative conduct, people need to see more on what should be done by many people in society to maintain the integrity behaviour. It aims to create new norms or normalise new behaviour. It is expected that by increasing the visibility of positive behaviour, will influence people to build their confidence in showing their integrity behaviour, and can increase the trust of the target audience. At the end it is to reduce the compliance with or tolerance to small-scale corrupt practices. The process is described in Figure 3-6 below.

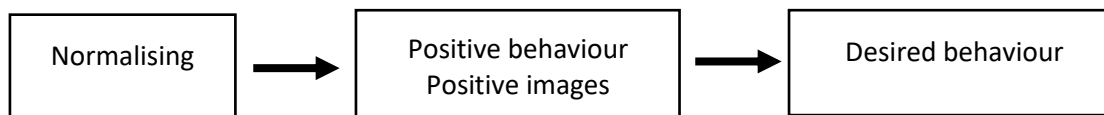


Figure 3 - 6: Social norming campaign

A study by Köbis et al. (2019) provided evidence for the effectiveness of positive descriptive norms in campaigns to reduce corruption. Their experimental study examined the dynamic of using messages containing descriptive norms on posters to reduce bribery. They found that perceived bribery was less common and engaging in bribery tended to be less frequent when posters were displayed.

3.3 Values in human life

As mentioned earlier, this research is interested to seek explanation on the role of personal factor such as values in anti-corruption behaviour. Thus, besides theories on social marketing and social norms that have been presented above, in this research, human values theory is also discussed.

Rokeach (1973) defines values as “enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Reich and Adcock, 1976, p. 18). Furthermore, in Reich and Adcock (1976), Rokeach believes that values determine people’s attitudes and subsequent behaviour. He also emphasises that values have an enduring quality. He allows for both an emotional component (good or bad feelings towards something) and a motivational component (striving towards attainment).

Values in human life refer to those things that people hold important. Values motivate people, influence their attitudes and behaviour, and enable them to justify their behaviour (Schwartz and Cieciuch, 2016). Values have attracted a great deal of research interest as they are considered central to understanding people’s social behaviour. Research on values can guide and explain people’s attitudes and norms as well as their behaviours (Schwartz, 2011).

Values can be defined as:

Trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or group. The basic values are organised into a coherent system that underlies and can help to explain individual decision making, attitudes, and behaviour. The coherent structure arises from the social and psychological conflict

or congruity between values that people experience when they make everyday decisions (Schwartz, 1992, 2006) (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012, p. 664).

Human values are relatively stable across contexts and time, but it can change. Values affect people's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour. They are viewed as principles guiding people's lives (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Although the nature and structures of values may be universal, they differ among individuals and groups. Thus, what is important to one person may differ from others, depending on which values they hold. Individuals and groups have their own values priorities or values hierarchies that also differ from one another (Bardi *et al.*, 2009). Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (1992) contend that personal values hierarchies are important in determining perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours.

3.3.1 Values theories

Among the most prominent values theorists are Gordon Allport (1930) who proposed a theory of personality types, Milton Rokeach (1970s) who proposed a theory of values as beliefs that serve as guiding principles, and Shalom Schwartz (in the 1990s) who proposed a theory of values as goals that motivate people and guide their behaviour. This research focuses primarily on the latter.

The reason for adopting Schwartz's values theory is that it is a prominent theory that comprehensively explains values as comprising motivational goals. Schwartz's framework of values is widely accepted in social psychology for several reasons, as follows:

1. The framework is theory-driven; its central elements are derived from earlier work in the social sciences.
2. Most importantly, to operationalise the cultural dimensions, it uses value measures shown to have cross-culturally equivalent meanings at an individual level.
3. The data that validate the theory were collected relatively recently.

(Licht, Goldschmidt and Schwartz, 2007, p. 662).

The idea underpinning Schwartz's theory is that values form a circular structure that displays the motivations underlying each value. It also captures conflicts and compatibility among the values (Schwartz, 2012). The theory initially consisted of 10 values (Self-direction, Stimulation, Hedonism, Achievement, Power, Security, Conformity, Tradition, Benevolence, and Universalism) based on their underlying motivations. The refined theory consists of 19 values and is more accurate in expressing the central assumption of the original theory (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012).

The key feature of values theory is that there are interrelationships among the values that form a quasi-circumplex (a circle without specific gradients) of motivational conflicts and compatibilities (Bardi *et al.*, 2009, p. 913). The circular structure is portrayed in Figure 3-7, which shows the inter-associations among the values. Thus, one value shares motivation with adjacent values in the circle and has a conflicting motivation with those on the opposite side of the circle. The circle can be explained as comprising four general types of values or values dimensions. There are two pairs of conflicting higher order values dimensions: Openness to change versus Conservation, and Self-enhancement versus Self-transcendence.

Viewing values as organised along two bipolar dimensions enables us to summarise the oppositions between competing values. The contrasting dimension of Openness to change and Conservation captures the conflict between values that emphasise independence of thought, action, and feelings and readiness for change (Self-direction, Stimulation) and values that emphasise order, self-restriction, preservation of the past, and resistance to change (Security, Conformity, Tradition) (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012).



Figure 3 - 7: The circular motivational continuum of 19 values in Schwartz's refined values theory (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012, p. 669)

Moreover, Schwartz *et al.* (2012) explain the second pair of dimensions that contrast Self-enhancement and Self-transcendence values as capturing the conflict between values that emphasise concern for the welfare and interests of others (Universalism, Benevolence) and those that emphasise the pursuit of one's own interests and relative success and dominance over others (Power, Achievement). Hedonism shares elements of both openness to change and self-enhancement. Additional elements are i) Face values that share elements of both Self-enhancement and Conservation, and are in conflict with Self-transcendence, and ii) Humility values share elements of both Conservation and Self-transcendence and are in conflict with Openness to change and Self-enhancement.

Table 3 - 7: The 19 values in Schwartz's value refined theory (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012, p. 669)

No.	Values	Conceptual definition in terms of motivational goals
1	Self-direction thought	Freedom to cultivate one's own ideas and abilities
2	Self-direction action	Freedom to determine one's own actions
3	Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and change
4	Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification
5	Achievement	Success according to social standards
6	Power-dominance	Power through control over people
7	Power-resources	Power through control of material and social resources
8	Face	Security and power through maintaining one's public image and avoiding humiliation
9	Security-personal	Safety in one's immediate environment
10	Security-societal	Safety and stability in the wider society
11	Tradition	Maintaining and preserving cultural, family, or religious traditions
12	Conformity-rules	Compliance with rules, laws, and formal obligations
13	Conformity-interpersonal	Avoiding upsetting or harming other people
14	Humility	Recognising one's insignificance in the larger scheme of things
15	Benevolence-dependability	Being a reliable and trustworthy member of the ingroup
16	Benevolence-caring	Devotion to the welfare of ingroup members
17	Universalism-concern	Commitment to equality, justice, and protection for all people
18	Universalism-nature	Preservation of the natural environment
19	Universalism-tolerance	Acceptance and understanding of those who are different from oneself.

Looking at the values theory above, the research was interested to apply the theory to explain values influence on how people behave towards everyday corruption. It is expected that values with social focus (such as Tradition, conformity, benevolence) could have higher influence people to be barriers to corruption, than values with personal focus (such as Hedonism, Achievement, Power).

3.3.2 Measuring values

One basis of the values structure is that "actions in pursuit of any value have consequences that conflict with some values but are congruent with others" (Schwartz, 2012, p. 8). This highlights a

values priority that suggests a varying degree of importance; a particular value may be important to one individual, but less important to another.

The current research adopts Schwartz's values theory to understand the underlying motivational goals of the target respondents towards small-scale corrupt practices. Thus, Schwartz's method of values measurement was used. There are several instruments that have been used to measure the 10 values in Schwartz's theory. These are The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (Schwartz, 1992), The Portrait Values Questionnaire-40 (40 items) – (Schwartz, et al., 2001), PVQ-21 containing 21 items (Schwartz, 2003), WBS (Worst-Best Scale) (Lee, Soutar, Louviere, 2008), PBVS-C (Picture Based Value Survey for Children (Doering, Blauensteiner, Aryus, Droegekamp, Bilsky, 2010), VPI (Value Puppet Interview) – (Cieciuch et al., 2011), AVI (Animated Values Instrument) – (Collins et al., 2012), and Generating Value Priorities – the relative importance of the different values (Schwartz, 2012).

The most recent questionnaire recommended by Schwartz is the PVQ-RR (Portrait Values Questionnaire – Revised). This consists of 57 items designed to measure the 19 values (3 items for each value) differentiated in the refined theory (Schwartz et al., 2012). This research therefore adopted this instrument to measure the value levels of the target respondents.

3.4 Towards Building the Conceptual Framework

In this section, all the variables mentioned previously are integrated to build a conceptual framework in the research. It begins with the explanation of relative importance of values in an anti-corruption campaign, social norms in anti-corruption campaign, and how the interplay of both variables in people's behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts.

The conceptual framework built to understand the research phenomena is described in Figure 3-8 as follows. This also led to the questions addressed in this research.

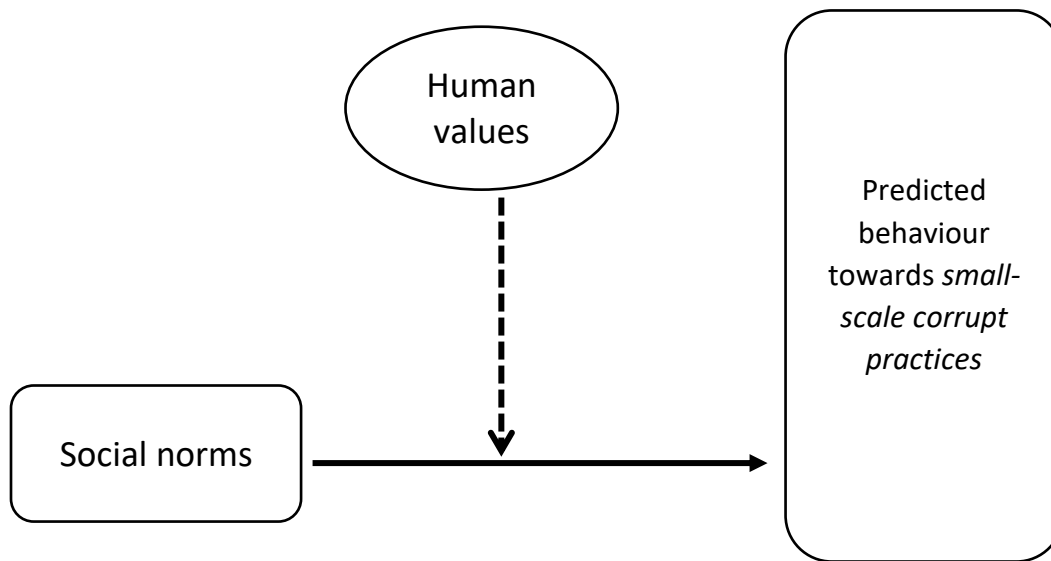


Figure 3 - 8: Conceptual framework of the research (Author generated)

The model does not stress any separation between attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour in terms of the predicted behavior. Instead, it postulates the importance of social norms and values to human behaviour in the context of day-to-day corruption.

3.4.1 The role of values in an anti-corruption campaign

As explained previously, values exert a powerful influence on and thus the explanation for human behaviour. Research indicates that values have internal and external dimensions that influence attitudes. In turn, attitudes have been found to influence behaviours as the final phase in the value-attitude-behaviour hierarchy (Homer and Kahle, 1988).

According to Kahle (1980), cited in Homer and Kahle (1988), values are the most abstract type of social cognition, and reflect the most basic characteristics of adaptation. The abstractions serve as prototypes from which attitudes and behaviours are produced. Thus, cognition and values guide people regarding which situations to enter and what they should do in those situations. Thus, the sequence of the influence flows from abstract values to midrange attitudes, and then to specific behaviours or values → attitude → behaviour hierarchy (Homer and Kahle, 1988).

This research focuses on values rather than attitudes. This is because values are more resistant than attitudes as they are more central to a person's self-concept (Rokeach, 1973). In addition, social marketing aims to change people behaviour beyond mere attitudinal change. Thus, in terms of understanding the research problem, focusing on values provides an insightful basis on which to devise strategies that influence people to develop the desired behaviour.

In the context of corruption, several research studies have focused on the effect of values and behavioural tendency on corrupt practices. For instance, Tatarko and Mironova (2016) analysed the association between personal values and the acceptability of corruption in Russia, France, Germany, and Latvia. They found that two values that reduce the acceptability of corruption are conformity-rules and universalism-concern. The conformity rules value refers to compliance with regulations, laws and formal obligations, and it is more on external motivation. Whereas the universalism-concern value implies on the desire for equality, justice and protection of all people (Schwartz, 2012). This value is decreased by internal motivation due to certain moral attitudes. The finding of the research also shows the value of power is related to the acceptability of corruption. The power values describe the importance of social status and prestige to individuals, and their desire to dominate and possess resources (Schwartz, 2012).

In their research, it was found that values and the acceptability of corruption are cross-culturally different. For Russian and French, Universalism-concern is expressed more significantly. To be more specific to Russia, according to their perspective, laws and formal rules are less effective to reduce the acceptability of corrupt practices than inner morality. It is because the Russian traditionally perceive laws as unfair as it allows people rely on their own principles when assessing the correctness of their behaviour (Znakov, 1997, in Tatarko & Mironova, 2016). Moreover, in Germany and Latvia, the Conformity-rule value (willingness to obey laws and rules) can limit the acceptability of corrupt behaviour.

A research conducted by Pande and Jain (2014) also show similar research. They examined the relationship between values and corruption permissiveness. It was found that the corruption permissiveness of government servants in India is predicted by values of Self-directedness, Security, and Power (Pande and Jain, 2014). Based on this evidence, this research aims to

examine the evidence that values can inhibit or limit people's behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices.

Because values are believed to be consequential for human behaviour, anti-corruption agencies in countries such as Colombia NSIC, India (The Zero Rupee programme), Hong Kong ICAC, and Indonesia KPK, have adopted an educational approach to children in order to introduce the appropriate (anti-corruption) values (e.g., honesty). This is based on the belief that values can shape children's tendency to act. In addition, by educating the children about honesty, it is believed this will help or facilitate the dissemination of the values to grown-ups, such as their parents (Panth, 2011). The Hong Kong ICAC (Independent Commission Against Corruption) has developed anti-corruption education that consists of a series of moral education programmes aimed at primary and secondary school students. The modules cover topics on money, justice, anti-corruption, and prosocial behaviour. The impact of this programme has been found to be both significant and substantial (Ma, 2009).

Although each value is relatively stable, there is a possibility for changes across time and situation. Value changes can be a result of changes in self-conceptions or definition of the self, which would include sudden and drastic changes in personal circumstances such as illness, accident, loss of a job, change in occupational role, or mandatory retirement. (This leads to changes in individual needs and perceptions of societal goals and demands.) They can also be the result of an increase in self-awareness, which is motivated by a need for maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem, and for consistency between an individual's conception of self and their beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviour (Rokeach, 1979). Another thing that should be considered is that values are found to be able to limit people behaviour in corrupt situation. However, it does not stimulate people to do corruption (Tatarko & Mironova, 2016) but other factors do, such as social norms.

3.4.2 Social norms and anti-corruption

Social norms can lead an individual to believe that others expect them to be prosocial and that if they are selfish, there will be a punishment. Thus, social norms can impel an individual towards a cooperative option by changing their set of preferences, which will lead them to feel good by cooperating, and ashamed or guilty at being selfish (House, 2018).

As noted previously, norms can change over time and space. It is thus argued that creating a “clean” environment will lead a member of society to follow its norms or culture (the way things get done in a certain place). This is also because “living in a relatively corruption-free environment may lead to changed attitudes about its acceptability” (Rose-Ackerman, 2008, p. 234). Therefore, social norms theory is used in this research to explain the kind of conditions in which people will or will not comply with rules or regulations and how to influence people to meet and conform to normative standards.

In this respect, a lesson can be learned from the zero-rupee programme in India, which consisted of an effort to change descriptive norms. According to Anand (the president of 5th Pillar and the initiator of this programme), the programme allowed its users to make a cutting statement without any grand moralising about the “war on bribery and corruption.” Its help in transforming social norms is the key to fighting petty corruption as it transforms the descriptive norm so that people say no to corruption (Carr and Jago, 2014).

Experimental research to change descriptive norms has also been conducted by using a poster to nudge people (Köbis *et al.*, 2019). Rabl and Kuehlmann (2008) found that people’s desire to act corruptly was weaker if those people important to the actor did not accept corruption. Tavits (2010) found that people were less susceptible to corruption when they perceived that their peers did not engage in corruption (Gorsira, Denkers and Huisman, 2016). Thus, the application of social norms to reduce corruption holds substantial promise.

3.4.3 Values and social norms in people's behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts

Values are relatively stable but may change depending on the time and situation. Becoming a member of a social class also influences individuals to change or modify their values. In this instance, an individual learns about social norms as an expectation shared by group members that specify appropriate behaviour, thoughts, feelings, and attitudes. The influence is clearly strong, in that if the class we belong to defines the individual's environment to some extent, then the values transmitted through the socialisation process must be congruent with the class structure (Reich and Adcock, 1976).

It is believed that influencing people's values will change their attitudes and consequently their behaviour. Influencing people's existing values in terms of what they believe and what they know, for example by providing information regarding moral obstruction or the illegality of bribing a state officer, may influence people's attitudes toward bribing. This approach has been adopted by anti-corruption agencies in several countries through value-based education (or anti-corruption education programme). However, whether value-based influencing be sufficient to bring about behaviour change still need to be confirmed. Other factors, such as social norms have been evidently contributed to behaviour change. Thus, the interplay between values and social norms need to be confirmed, especially in the context of anti-corruption campaign.

Values theory has been drawn on by scholars to explain corruption. For instance, research by Kravtsova et al., (2017) shows the importance at a societal level of generating postmaterialist values (civic activism, support for democracy and transparency, generalised trust, social justice and impartiality – Inglehart, 1981; Welzel, 2010; Welzel and Inglehart, 2008; Welzel et al., 2003, all cited in Kravtsova et al.,2017). They found that people who place a stronger emphasis on postmaterialist values were more likely to justify bribery. However, the "ecological effect" shows the opposite, in that a higher prevalence of postmaterialist values induces greater disapproval of bribery . This demonstrates the importance of norms in fostering values (Kravtsova, Oshchepkov and Welzel, 2017).

It has been argued that a corrupt act is not an innate behaviour as an individual learns from their environment. There is a learning process experienced by the individual regarding what most people do in society (descriptive norms). The individual also learns about the way society expects him or her to behave (injunctive norms) in order to be accepted in social groups. In the context of corruption, several scholars (Jancsics, 2014; Warburton, 2013; Heilman and Ndumbaro, 2002) have suggested that corruption involves interaction between individuals, which accommodates the influence operating between these individuals.

This research argues that certain human values influence the relationships between social norms and the intention to behave towards small-scale corrupt practices. Values limit human behaviour, but they do not stimulate them to perform certain behaviours (Tatarko and Mironova, 2016). The stimulation can come from social norms. Den Niuewenboer and Kaptein (2008) argue that social factors can inhibit, enable, or stimulate individuals to engage in corruption. For example, a person who is at the first time caught of traffic violation. He/she does not have any idea how to deal with it, but they knew that other people have solved it with small bribery to the officer. The person may have a dilemma in this situation as their values were against the common corrupt practice. This situation shows how values and norms can be odds with each other. The interplay between both is very important to decide whether to choose to bribe or not.

Anti-corruption values

Hubert et al. (2007, cited in Lasthuizen, 2008) explain that integrity is crucial for everyone, not only public institutions but also private organisations. A violation of integrity can cause a decrease in the trust of a person or organisations. For example, when integrity is at stake in public institutions, people may not trust governments to run their services. Likewise, in a private company, integrity is a crucial element that becomes the basic requirement for the company to function smoothly as it can strengthen stakeholder confidence (Shaw, 1997), reduce external regulation (Hill, 1990) and conflict (Schwartz and Gibb, 1999), and enhance cooperation with stakeholders (Shaw, 1997) in (Lasthuizen, 2008). Conversely, when integrity is violated, such as

through fraud and corruption, it can cause financial losses (Cohan, 2002), decreases in stakeholder commitment, and organisational bankruptcy (Lasthuizen, 2008).

Huberts (1998) defines integrity as “the quality of acting in accordance with relevant, socially accepted moral values, norms, and rules” (Lasthuizen, 2008, p.4). In an organisation, integrity can be defined as “the quality of employee behavior in accordance with the values, norms, rules, and obligations of the organization and its environment”. Thus, integrity violation can therefore be defined as “a violation of these moral values, norms, rules, and obligations.” Types of integrity violations, according to Huberts et al. (1999), include “corruption, fraud and theft, conflict of (private and public) interests through gifts, jobs and activities, improper use of authority, abuse and manipulation of information, discrimination and sexual harassment, waste and abuse of organizational resources and private time misconduct” (Lasthuizen, 2008. p. 4).

In the integrity programme introduced by KPK to children, the value of honesty has become a priority. Honesty is described as the act of telling the truth, acting right, engendering trust, being responsible (for what has been mandated/trusted), and appreciating the property of others (KPK, 2008). Therefore, for the purpose of this research, the above description was adopted as a working definition of anti-corruption values.

It is believed to be the case that people refrain from self-interested behaviour not because they fear legal sanctions but rather because of their sense of right and wrong. Ariely (2013, cited in Zhang (2015), shows that there are individuals who, when given the opportunity to cheat (even when the probability of detection is zero), do not cheat (very much) (Zhang, 2015).

In discussing the relationship between values, attitudes, and behaviour, Cook and Selltiz (1964, cited in Reich and Adcock, 1976) argue that some factors may intervene between the value-attitude orientation and subsequent behaviour. Firstly, there may be other motives or personal dispositions that clash with the behavioural expression. Secondly, there may be situational factors, such as norms surrounding the appropriateness of the behaviour and the expectations of others, that are relevant and may be crucial in determining whether the value-attitude

orientation will be expressed. This thesis attempts to explain the role of values as influencer to the relations between norms and tendency to behave corruptly in everyday activities.

3.4.4 The potential use of social marketing techniques in anti-corruption campaign

As stated earlier, Kindra and Stapenhurst (1998) argued that a social marketing approach can be used as a strategy to fight corruption. This is because it can discourage fraud and corruption. According to them, this can be achieved by raising awareness about the cost of corruption to a country, mainstreaming concerns about corruption within national institutions, increase understanding of the causal factors and variety of manifestations of corruption amongst staff in national institutions and the public, and influence people's behaviour.

As an effort to fill the gap with the work of Kindra and Stapenhurst (1992), this research proposes social marketing as behaviour change techniques for anti-corruption campaign. It goes beyond increasing awareness of the danger of corruption; it is more to influence people to adopt new behaviour that comply with anti-corruption.

Social marketing can be useful in encouraging people to act according to existing norms that denounce corruption or can help establish new norms of behaviour that are averse to corruption practices. However, it must be noted that changing social norms takes time and requires long-term efforts (Lindner, 2014). Campaigns that aim to change attitudes and promote anti-corruption behaviour can adopt social marketing approaches and utilise behavioural change theories to reduce corruption.

Among the principal theoretical models commonly used in behavioural change research, this research adopts several major theories, including values theory (Pop, 2012; Heilman and Ndumbaro, 2002; Chabova, 2017; Pande and Jain, 2014; Tatarko and Mironova, 2016) and social norms (Köbis *et al.*, 2015; Jackson and Köbis, 2018; Kubbe and Engelbert, 2018; Fisman and Miguel, 2006; Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2009), both of which are used to explain corruption using social marketing approaches.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the major theories that are adopted in this research. They are social marketing theory, social norms and values theory. This is the focus of the research which is to discuss corruption not only from individual perspectives but also from a national (societal) level. Even though an individual's perspective on the acceptance of corruption (e.g., values orientation) is valuable as it shapes their behaviour, it is also important to understand the acceptance of corruption at a societal level (e.g., norms). It therefore follows that if policies aimed at reducing corruption target individuals, they will be ineffective if there is a high level of acceptance of corrupt practices among the wider population.

In addition to the major theories of values and social norms, other theories or approaches are drawn on for the proposed intervention models. A brief explanation of these approaches can be found in Chapter 7 (concept testing). The approaches include theories such as relationship marketing, persuasion and marketing frameworks, and community-based social marketing.

A conceptual framework is developed to understand the relationships between all the variables in this research. It then will contribute to the next stages in this thesis as the basis for developing the propositions and hypotheses of the research.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes and explains the methodology employed in the research. It begins with the research questions and the objectives of the PhD. This is followed by a discussion of the research philosophy, which explains the ontological and epistemological assumptions adopted in the research. The following section describes the research design, which consists of three studies.

The method employed for each study is elaborated in each section, including the development of the interview schedule or measurement scale, the data collection technique used, the quality criteria employed, data preparation, and data analysis. The data collection procedures are then elaborated on further to explain the establishment of ethical guidelines, and the translation process. The chapter ends with a summary of the research methodology.

4.1 Research questions and objectives

The primary purpose of this research project was to create and introduce a set of intervention models that will enable people to resist corrupt practices and make corrupt behaviours (socially) unacceptable. The research questions were as follows:

1. What type of behaviours are considered everyday forms of corruption in Indonesia?
2. What factors influence people to comply with everyday forms of corruption? (Is there any early evidence that values can build resistance to corrupt behavior?)
3. Can the value system be built as a barrier to corrupt acts?
4. How can social marketing approaches be applied in an anti-corruption campaign?

Further details on the research questions and objectives of this PhD are presented in the section on research design.

4.2 Research philosophy

Given the nature of the research, pragmatism was adopted as the research paradigm. Kuhn (1970) stated that a paradigm is 'a set of generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists' (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, p. 39).

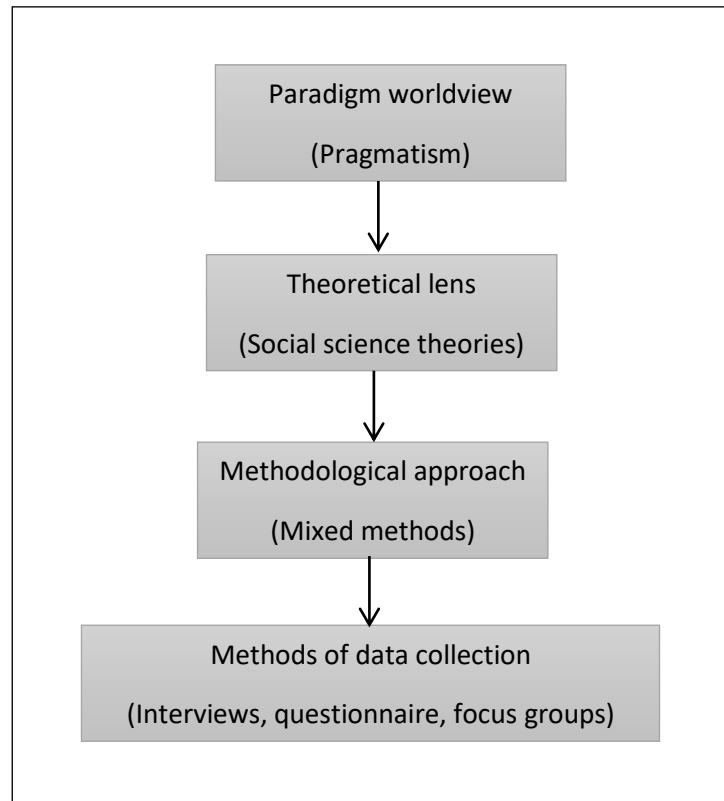


Figure 4 - 1: Level of developing the research study
(Adapted from Crotty, 1998 as cited by Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007)

Pragmatism is one of the philosophical assumptions utilised by mixed method researchers. Although, as a methodological approach, the use of mixed methods remains a matter of debate as do its philosophical assumptions, a framework is needed to reflect on how the philosophy fits into the overall design of the research.

Although researchers are still searching for the assumption that best fits mixed methods, I adopted pragmatism because of its importance. Pragmatism encompasses many ideas, including using “what works,” engaging diverse approaches, and valuing both objective and subjective perspectives (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

Table 4 - 1: Research paradigm and its typical methodology
(Author adapted from Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007)

	(Post) positivism	Constructivism	Advocacy and Participatory	Pragmatism
<i>Characteristics</i>	Determination Reductionism Empirical observation and measurement Theory verification	Understanding Multiple participant meanings Social and historical construction Theory generation	Political Empowerment and issue-oriented Collaborative Change oriented	Consequence of actions Problem centered Pluralistic Real-world practice-oriented
<i>Methodology</i>	Deductive Often associated with quantitative approaches	Inductive Typically associated with qualitative approaches	Participatory More often associated with qualitative than quantitative approaches	Combining Typically associated with mixed methods research

Pragmatism is based on the philosophical assumption that a problem is a consequence of actions rather than antecedent conditions (Creswell, 2014). It was therefore well suited to this research. This is because the focus was on understanding the problem addressed (constructivism) alongside a desire to predict and control (positivism). Adopting either positivism or constructivism alone would not have been sufficient to answer the research questions in this thesis.

4.3 Research approaches

Aligned with the research paradigm, the mixed methods approach was therefore adopted, which integrates both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Combining methods in this way utilises their complementary strengths and nullifies non-overlapping weaknesses. Accordingly, the data generated from both methods is also mixed (Punch, 2014).

Table 4 - 2: Comparison of research approaches (Creswell, 2014)

Qualitative research	Quantitative research	Mixed Methods research
Involves emerging questions and procedures; data collected in participant’s setting; inductive data analysis (from particulars to general themes); researcher making interpretations.	Data analysed using statistical procedures;	The combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a complete understanding of the research problem.
The report is in a flexible structure.	The final report has a set structure.	
Inductive style, focus on individual meaning, the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation.	Testing theory deductively, protection against bias, control for alternative explanations, able to generalize and replicate the findings.	

The study of corruption involves focusing on complexities to explain the phenomena, hence the adoption of a mixed-methods approach. One approach alone would not have been sufficient. Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches therefore provides a better understanding and thus strengthens the findings (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

4.4 Research design

The research was divided into 3 phases, as shown in Figure 4-2 below. Study 1 was a qualitative study that comprised the first phase of the research. It was an exploratory study that served as initial learning to add to the existing literature. Its aim was to better understand the context of

everyday forms of corruption in Indonesia. It strove to discover the type of everyday corrupt acts that normally happen, and, in particular, to find early evidence to show that values act as an inhibitor to corrupt practices. The findings from the qualitative study informed the next stage of the study, which consisted of a model of the behavioural process adopted towards everyday forms of corruption.

Study 2 constituted the second phase and comprised a quantitative survey of young adults in Indonesia. It tested the ability of the model to predict people’s behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. Specifically, it examined the relationship between social norms and behavioural intentions towards small-scale corrupt practices in Indonesia. Additionally, it also tested the possibility of building a value system as a barrier to corrupt practices by exploring its effect on the relationship between social norms and behavioural intentions towards small-scale corrupt practices.

Finally, Study 3 consisted of concept testing by conducting a qualitative study. Its purpose was to determine the right intervention models using social marketing approaches by testing their acceptability among young adults in Indonesia. Focus group discussions were conducted to collect data for this purpose.

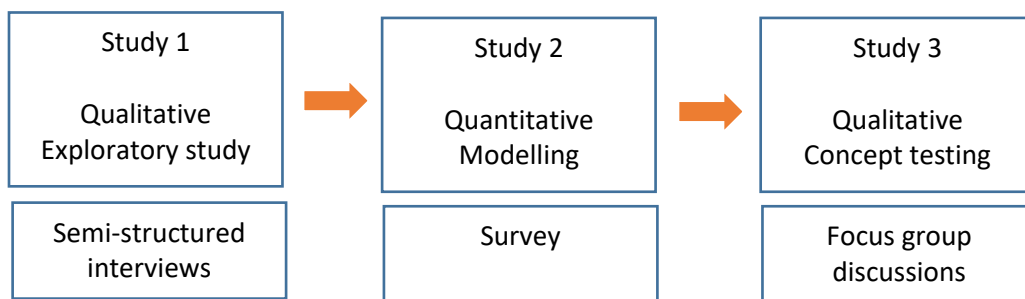


Figure 4 - 2: Phases of the PhD research

A summary of the objectives and research questions is presented in Table 4-3 as follows.

Table 4 - 3: The research questions and objectives of the PhD research

Studies	Objectives	Research Questions	Methods
Study 1 – Qualitative study: In-depth interviews	<p>(1) To better understand the context of corruption in Indonesia, including identifying and describing everyday forms of corruption.</p> <p>(2) To understand underlying factors that influence people to comply with everyday forms of corruption.</p> <p>a. To find early evidence to show whether values act as an inhibitor to corrupt behaviour.</p>	<p>(1) What types of behaviours are considered common corrupt practices in daily activity?</p> <p>(2) What factors influence people to comply with everyday corrupt practices?</p> <p>a. Is there any early evidence to suggest that values can build resistance to corrupt behaviours?</p> <p>b. How is the role of social norms in this context?</p>	<p>Semi-structured interviews</p> <p><u>Sampling:</u> Non-probability sampling (convenience).</p>
Study 2 – Quantitative study: Modelling	<p>(3) To test the behaviour model’s ability to build barriers to prevent everyday forms of corruption.</p> <p>a. To explain the interplay between social norms and values related to people’s behaviour in everyday forms of corruption.</p> <p>b. To test whether the model can predict people’s behaviour towards everyday forms of corruption.</p>	<p>(3) Can the value system be built as a barrier to corrupt acts?</p> <p>a. What is the relation between social norms and people behaviour in everyday forms of corruption?</p> <p>b. Do values influence the relationships between social norms and people behaviour towards everyday forms of corruption?</p> <p>c. How likely is it that the model can predict people’s behaviour towards everyday forms of corruption?</p>	<p>A survey of Indonesian young adults was conducted.</p> <p><u>Sampling:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The primary survey targeted a minimum of 500 respondents. - It employed a combination of a web-based questionnaire and paper-based questionnaires.

Study 3 – Concept testing	(4) To develop and propose intervention model using social marketing approaches.	<p>(4) How can social marketing approaches be applied in an anti-corruption campaign?</p> <p>a. Presumably, the power of values exists. How can the ability of values be supported to reduce compliance-driven corrupt behaviours?</p> <p>b. How can social marketing approaches be utilised based on the above results to reduce corruption?</p>	<p>Focus group discussions with young adults in Indonesia.</p> <p><u>Sampling:</u> Non-probability sampling (convenience).</p>
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4.5 Fieldwork Study 1: The in-depth interviews

As the preliminary stage, a qualitative exploratory study (Study 1) was conducted with young adults who live in Indonesia. This study aimed to understand better the context of corruption in Indonesia, which included identifying and describing everyday behaviour that may provide examples of small-scale corrupt acts. It also explored the young adults' point of view on everyday (small-scale) corrupt acts.

4.5.1 Sampling process

Study 1 served as a pilot project that was conducted prior to the main study. According to Polit et al. (2001, p. 467), a pilot study is a "small-scale version(s), or trial run(s), done in preparation for the major study" (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001, p. 1). The purpose of the pilot research was to provide input for the main study by giving feedback on any potential practical problems in the research procedure, suggestions on the appropriateness of proposed methods, and to highlight any problems with the research.

The interview method was chosen to address the complexity of researching corruption. It provided the flexibility needed to address this topic as it was essential to build rapport, trust, and confidence in the participants so that they felt able to express their real opinions and experience. It also enabled the researcher to understand the perspective of the participants, as each interview differed depending on the participant's level of interest and the knowledge built by the researcher (Daymon and Holloway, 2011). The semi-structured interview was considered the ideal approach as its characteristics were well-suited to the purpose of this study. This type of interview allows interviewees to express their opinions and experience, and for the interviewer to probe their replies (Bryman, 2012).

Young adults (18-25) were chosen as the target participants. Most are of the millennial generation. Millennials are those people born between 1980 and 1996 (Howe and Strauss, 2000). Howe and Strauss (2000) contend that people in this generation are more idealistic than those in previous generations. This generation supports social rules as they have been raised in a structure that has significant concerns for their safety.

In terms of the research context, young adults were targeted because they are at a critical stage where they have begun to enter the workplace and use public services, such as making their national identity card, obtaining a driving licence, or making arrangements for marriage. They are more independent in terms of deciding for themselves. Thus, their opinions and experiences provided valuable input that helped answer the research questions. As a consequence, the anti-corruption programmes that were developed should be able to meet their needs and align with their level of critical thinking.

Table 4 - 4: Participants taking part in the in-depth interviews in Study 1

Participants
<u>Young adults (18 – 25 years old)</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Convenience and snowball sampling 2. Comprised one-to-one long-distance conversation through internet-based media 3. Number of participants = 13

Non-probability sampling was adopted for the semi-structured depth interviews. Potential participants were approached through the researcher’s own networks (such as mailing lists, WhatsApp groups). Thirteen young adults were selected as the participants through convenience sampling. This sampling method was applied because it made the sample easy and convenient to recruit. Some participants were also recruited through a referral from other participants (snowball sampling).

Table 4 - 5: Types of sampling (Levine, 2008)

Types of Samples		
Probability Sampling	Simple random	Every individual from the frame has an equal chance of being selected
	Stratified	Divide the population into two or more subgroups (strata), then individuals selected with a simple random from each strata.
	Systematic	Divide frame of N individuals into groups of k individuals: $k=N/n$. Randomly select an individual from the 1 st group; select every k th individual thereafter.
	Cluster	The population is divided into several "clusters," each representative of the population.
Non-probability Sampling	Judgment	The researcher has the opinions on pre-selected experts in the subject matter.
	Snowball	Individuals selected based on a referral from other survey respondents.
	Quota	Similar to stratified sampling. Certain population subgroups (e.g., age, gender, geographic region) are used as strata. Use non-random sampling until the desired quota of samples is filled.
	Convenience	Individuals selected based only on the fact they are easy, inexpensive, or convenient to sample.

4.5.2 Development of interview guide

The interview covered topics that explored the understanding and perceptions held by young adults in Indonesia of day-to-day informal acts that can be defined as corruption practices. These include behaviours that are common practices which affect the everyday life of the general public, such as being issued police or traffic tickets, recruitment of government officials, and making or renewing documents or licences: some affect employees (recruitment) and some are for specific situations (academic cheating).

As mentioned earlier, a projective technique was adopted in the interview whereby several cases were illustrated using a third-party method. This involved asking indirect questions to elicit what participants thought would happen next or would normally happen in day-to-day activities. This technique enabled the researcher to tap into participants' motivations and values. As an indirect method, this technique also helps investigate deeper feelings (Green, 1984), emotions, and perceptions (Cotte and Latour, 2009).

The criteria for the cases were obtained from several works of literature that addressed specific issues relating to small-scale corrupt practices. Several surveys described everyday corrupt practices such as bribery, gratification, and nepotism (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2012; Transparency International Indonesia, 2012; Transparency International-Korea, 2013). The researcher incorporated these topics into the interview guide.

According to a 2012 survey on anti-corruption behaviour by Statistics Indonesia (*Badan Pusat Statistik Indonesia*), there are certain types of behaviour that the public can recognise as typically happening around them. Of the day-to-day practices included in the survey, the following examples include the percentage of people who think it is common (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2012, p. 15-19):

1. Someone gives money or goods in the process of recruiting a public official or private employee (19%).
2. Someone gives money to the police officer to avoid receiving traffic tickets (32%).

3. Someone gives more money to the police officer to speed up the process of making or renewing their driving licence and vehicle registration card (39%).
4. Someone gives more money to the officer to speed up the administration of their identity card and family card (45%)
5. Someone guarantees that their family/relatives/friends will be accepted as a public officer or private employee to maintain or strengthen their familial relationship or friendship (47%).

Academic peers, fellow researchers in the United Kingdom and Indonesia, checked the scenarios and questions to confirm their relevance. These common scenarios were then presented to the participants as the cases and interview questions.

Table 4 - 6: Questions in the interview guide

No.	Case	Question
1	Traffic ticket	A young man is stopped by a police officer when he is caught speeding on an empty road. He follows the order to pull over. Can you explain what will happen next? How would the man handle the problem?
2	Administration services	A young lady has just turned 17 years. Thus, by law, she needs to have her National identity card (ID). She showed up at the local district office and filled in the form. She saw there was a long queue and was informed that it would take a couple of weeks to process the ID card. An officer approached her and implicitly offered her a quicker way. What do you think the young lady would do?
3	Recruitment process (in special case: civil servant)	When Eddy graduated from university, he applied for a job as a public servant in a ministry. For him, this would be an ideal job, as it can give him financial security in the future. However, the competition is very stiff, and he realizes that the grades on his university transcript are not that good. What do you think normally happens in the process of recruiting a civil servant? Why?
4	Recruitment process (nepotism and gratification)	Soni is working as a recruitment manager. His company is currently looking for a new account manager. A son of his ex-boss has applied for this position. The ex-boss has already sent a package of nice things to Soni's house on two occasions. Do you think this is a coincidence? What do you think will happen?

5	Specific situation: Academic cheating	Amy was worried about an assignment in a module. As the deadline drew closer, it seemed that she could not get the assignment done as she found it difficult. The thought came into her mind to copy a friend's assignment or even buy it. Does this still commonly happen nowadays? Why do you think this?
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4.5.3 Analysis of the interviews: Thematic data analysis

The interview data was analysed using the technique of thematic analysis. This is a method for “identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns or themes within data” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 6). Due to its flexibility, the prevalence of certain acts can be determined. The method helps derive key insights that depend not only on quantifiable measures but also on how the data relates to the research question.

When analyzing the data, abductive thematic analysis was applied whereby the coding used both inductive and deductive approaches. “The idea of inductive coding (open coding) is to become grounded in the data and to allow understanding to emerge from a close study of the texts. It is to discover patterns of behaviour or thought in a set of texts” (Bernard, 2000, p. 444).

Miles and Huberman (1994, cited in Bernard,2000), suggest that the search for themes can start with general themes derived from the literature, adding more themes and sub-themes as the analysis progresses. Thus, the researcher will have a general idea what they are looking for and will be aware of the larger themes in the data yet will remain in a discovery mode (Bernard, 2000). NVIVO software (version 11) was used to facilitate a more systematic data analysis.

4.5.4 Quality criteria in the interviews

4.5.4.1 Social desirability bias

Based on the research objectives, the interview questions related to concepts such as values and normative behaviour. There may therefore have been a tendency among individuals to give an answer that will impress the researcher, such as pretending to be individuals who have high integrity and not to be corrupt. This creates a social desirability bias. Thus, to reduce this, a

projective technique was employed whereby indirect questions were presented to the participants. This method has been used frequently in marketing or social sciences to reduce social desirability bias. Most importantly, it can reduce the bias on variables subject to social influence (Fisher, 1993). Thus, questions were asked using a third-party technique where participants had state how or in what way they will act to handle a particular problem.

4.5.4.2 Reliability and validity

Demonstrating integrity and competence in research is equally essential for both quantitative and qualitative research. Reliability and validity need to be established to ensure the rigour of the research. In qualitative research, reliability is concerned with the extension or reproducibility of the results (Crescentini and Mainardi, 2009). Conversely, validity can be defined as “the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers” Hammersley (1990, p. 57, cited in Crescentini and Mainardi (2009).

The procedures used to establish reliability and validity in Study 1 followed the criteria proposed by Bryman (2004). This helped to establish the trustworthiness of the research and consisted of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmatory.

Table 4 - 7: Trustworthiness criteria (Bryman, 2004)

Trustworthiness criteria	Description of criterion
Credibility	Ability to demonstrate that the research was carried out in a way that ensures that the subject was accurately identified and described.
Transferability	Results of the analysis apply to a wider population
Dependability	Complete records are kept of all phases of research with peers acting as auditors.
Confirmatory	Concerned with ensuring that the researcher can be shown to have acted in good faith, and not overtly allowed personal values or theoretical inclinations to sway the conduct of the research.

Credibility reflects the internal validity of the research, which denotes the extent to which the scales used measure what they purport to measure. In this research, credibility was determined by utilising the snowball method to select the participants. The honesty of the participants was also scrutinised by enhancing the thick description of their responses to understand their answers. The research also applied triangulation by integrating and comparing the data collected with the literature and other methods of data collection employed in the PhD.

Transferability refers to the external validity of the research (Bryman and Bell, 2007) which in this research was achieved by the use of thick descriptions. Specifically, the researcher compared the richness of the participants' responses to other contexts to assess the validity of the research.

The reliability of this research refers to dependability in the sense that a thorough and detailed approach to record-keeping was employed. This was achieved by keeping records of all interviews, and then transcribing and analysing them. The results were discussed with the supervisory team; the transcriptions of the key data were translated into English and reviewed by academic peers to ensure the reliability of subsequent data interpretation.

Finally, the confirmatory criterion was applied to ensure the results were free from researcher bias. This was achieved by sending the transcriptions to the participants to confirm their responses.

A similar process of establishing trustworthiness was also applied in the qualitative approach adopted in Study 3 (focus group discussion). The methodology of Study 3 is presented in a later section in this chapter.

4.5.5 Data collection process

Interviews with 13 young adults in Indonesia were conducted from 14 December 2017 – 8 January 2018. Demographic information on the participants is presented in the following Table 4-8.

Table 4 - 8: Profiles of research participants

Participants	Age	Gender	City	Education level	Occupation
1	24	Female	Jakarta	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
2	24	Female	Jakarta	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
3	23	Female	Jakarta	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
4	24	Male	Wonogiri (Central Java)	Completed undergraduate university	NGO
5	23	Male	Jogjakarta (Central Java)	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
6	24	Female	Jogjakarta (Central Java)	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
7	18	Female	Riau (Sumatera)	Completed high-school	University student
8	23	Male	Temanggung (Central Java)	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
9	22	Male	Jogjakarta (Central Java)	Completed high-school	University student
10	24	Female	Jakarta	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
11	24	Female	Jakarta	Completed high-school	Private employee
12	24	Female	Jakarta	Completed undergraduate university	Private employee
13	22	Female	Jogjakarta (Central Java)	Completed high-school	Housewife

Once the participants were contacted and had agreed to participate, they were sent the research information sheets and a consent form. This ensured they knew what this would entail: it provided them with background information to the study, the research objectives, and how it would be conducted. The participants were also informed of their rights in the research, the confidentiality of their answers, and how their data would be treated. They were also provided with the researcher's contact information should they have any further questions.

The interviews were conducted using long-distance conversation via a WhatsApp voice call. This application was chosen to ensure the flexibility of the fieldwork. At that time, the researcher was in the United Kingdom while the participants were located in several places in Indonesia. By using WhatsApp, the time of the interview could be scheduled at a convenient time and place for both parties. The researcher could also reach participants from several cities in Indonesia (e.g., Jakarta, Jogjakarta-Central Java, Riau-Sumatera).

This media was also chosen because it had end-to-end encryption, which meant the messages, photos, videos, voice messages, documents, and calls (whatever is applicable) were secure and could not fall into inappropriate hands, which included the WhatsApp company or the provider of the application. Thus, it maintained the security and confidentiality of the conversation (Ngan, 2018; WhatsApp company, 2017).

However, the researcher was aware that different techniques of data collection can result in various data or responses. Because the interviews were not conducted face-to-face, the researcher paid careful attention to the tone of their voice, the quality of response, and the pace of the discussion when assessing the interest and knowledge of participants on the research topic. The main disadvantage of using a WhatsApp application lay in the quality of the internet connection.

The researcher was also aware that the relationship they developed with the participants could affect both their responses and the researcher's understanding of the phenomena. The rapport between the researcher and the participants was built to ensure they felt free and comfortable during the conversation. They were therefore expected to give and share genuine opinions and experiences regarding the issues addressed.

Overall, each interview consisted of three main sections. The first was a pre-interview session, designed to establish rapport between the researcher and the participants. In this session, the researcher explained the purpose of the research, raised their motivation, and briefly informed them as to the duration of the interview.

The second section was the primary interview where demographic and personal information were elicited from participants (e.g., making a decision about everyday life in their surroundings). The participants were then asked to give their opinion and knowledge on several cases that used projective techniques, as mentioned previously (see table 4-6). Additional questions were also asked to assess whether they could identify the relations and fine lines between all the cases, particularly with regard to small-scale corrupt practices in Indonesia.

The final section in the interview was a closing section in which the researcher aimed to maintain rapport with the participants by sharing information about their research interest and the topic of the study. Participants were then asked whether they would be willing to be contacted again should further data or information be needed.

All interview sessions were audiotaped with the permission of the participants. Once the interviews were completed, the data was transcribed verbatim in Microsoft Word. All quotes were encoded using NVivo11 for further data analysis.

4.6 Fieldwork Study 2: Testing the model

This section elaborates the methods related to Study 2. The study adopted a quantitative approach that involved conducting a survey. It tested a model of the behavioural process that explains the relationships among social norms, values, and behavioural intentions towards small-scale corrupt practices. In particular, it assessed how effectively the model could predict people's behaviour in the context of small-scale corrupt practices. The results were expected to inform the creation of intervention models for concept testing (Study 3).

4.6.1 Quantitative research design

This study consisted of a cross-sectional survey. A sample was recruited and selected to examine the predictive ability of the behavioural model. Generalisation to the broader population was then applied based on the results obtained. For Study 2, survey design was considered the best option with regard to collecting the data and information needed to test the model. According to Bryman (2016), survey design can include a self-administered questionnaire, interview, structured record review, and structured observation. Study 2 employed a self-administered questionnaire as this provides an effective and efficient means to access information. It is also cheaper and quicker to administer (Bryman, 2016) and diminishes the influence of the interviewer. This method is also believed to increase the likelihood of respondents reporting their true opinions or experience, as it can decrease feelings of shame and embarrassment and thus elicit more honest responses (Krumpal, 2013). The data collected consisted of the perceptions held by young adults in Indonesia towards small-scale corrupt practices.

4.6.2 Scale development procedures

4.6.2.1 The constructs and measuring items of the values scale

The scale consisted of two main parts, measurement of values and non-values. The measurement of values was achieved using Schwartz's PVQ-RR (Portrait Values Questionnaire-Revised), which consists of 57 items measuring 19 values that represent underlying motivational structures

(Schwartz *et al.*, 2012). The measurement of non-values was developed from the qualitative study and the literature and is elaborated in the next section.

The Schwartz PVQ-RR, which is in English, was translated into the Indonesian language by a translator as the format of the questionnaire was designed in the Indonesian language. All items on the translated value scale were scrutinised by two academic- scholars in Indonesia (Binus university) to ensure that the language used could be understood by young adults.

Schwartz's value scale comprises four dimensions covering 19 values components. Those values dimensions are Openness to change (OTC), Self-Enhancement (SE), Conservation (CO), and Self-Transcendence (ST). Each value dimension consists of several values components. OTC includes the values of Hedonism, Stimulation, Self-direction action, and Self-direction thought. SE includes the values of Achievement, Power-dominance, and Power-resources. CO includes the values of Security-personal, Security-societal, Tradition, Conformity-rules, and Conformity-interpersonal. CO may also include the values of Face and Humility if no structural analysis is carried out to check their location in the sample. Alternatively, they could be treated as separate values (Schwartz, 2009). In this research, Face and Humility were included as part of CO. Finally, ST includes the values of Benevolence-dependability, Benevolence-caring, Universalism-concern, Universalism-nature, and Universalism-tolerance.

Schwartz's value questionnaire was used since it has established validity and reliability to study human values. Referring on what has been discussed earlier in Chapter 3, some of the Schwartz's values are related to integrity behaviour, such as Conformity-rules and Universalism-concern (Tatarko & Mironova, 2016).

Each value component was addressed by three items in the questionnaire, as shown in Table 4-9:

Table 4 - 9: PVQ-RR Schwartz's Value Survey (Schwartz *et al.*, 2012)

Values Components	Statements	Number
Self-direction-thought	Being creative is important to him.	V1
	It is important to him to form his own opinions and have original ideas.	V23
	Learning things for himself and improving his abilities is important to him.	V39
Self-direction-action	It is important to him to make his own decisions about his life.	V16
	Doing everything independently is important to him.	V30
	Freedom to choose what he does is important to him.	V56
Stimulation	He is always looking for different kinds of things to do.	V10
	Excitement in life is important to him.	V28
	He thinks it is important to have all sorts of new experiences.	V43
Hedonism	Having a good time is important to him.	V3
	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to him.	V36
	He takes advantage of every opportunity to have fun.	V46
Achievement	He thinks it is important to be ambitious.	V17
	Being very successful is important to him.	V32
	He wants people to admire his achievements.	V48
Power-dominance	Having the feeling of power that money can bring is important to him.	V6
	Being wealthy is important to him.	V29
	He pursues high status and power.	V41
Power-resources	He wants people to do what he says	V12
	It is important to him to be the most influential person in any group.	V20
	It is important to him to be the one who tells others what to do.	V44
Face	It is important to him that no one should ever shame him.	V9
	Protecting his public image is important to him.	V24
	He wants people always to treat him with respect and dignity.	V49
Security-personal	He avoids anything that might endanger his safety.	V13
	His personal security is extremely important to him.	V26
	It is important to him to live in secure surroundings.	V53
Security-societal	It is important to him that his country protect itself against all threats.	V2

	He wants the state to be strong so it can defend its citizens.	V35
	Having order and stability in society is important to him.	V50
Tradition	It is important to him to maintain traditional values or belief.	V18
	Following his family's customs or the customs of a religion is important to him.	V33
	He strongly values the traditional practices of his culture.	V40
Conformity-rules	He believes he should always do what people in authority say.	V15
	It is important to him to follow rules even when no one is watching.	V31
	Obeing all the laws is important to him.	V42
Conformity-interpersonal	It is important to him to avoid upsetting other people.	V4
	He thinks it is important never to be annoying to anyone.	V22
	He always tries to be tactful and avoid irritating people.	V51
Humility	He tries not to draw attention to himself.	V7
	It is important to him to be humble.	V38
	It is important to him to be satisfied with what he has and not to ask for more.	V54
Benevolence-dependability	It is important to him to be loyal to those who are close to him.	V19
	He goes out of his way to be a dependable and trustworthy friend.	V27
	He wants those he spends time with to be able to rely on him completely.	V55
Benevolence-caring	It is important to him to help the people dear to him.	V11
	Caring for the well-being of people he is close to is important to him.	V25
	He tries always to be responsive to the needs of this family and friends.	V47
Universalism-concern	Protecting society's weak and vulnerable members is important to him.	V5
	He thinks it is important that every person in the world have equal opportunities in life.	V37
	He wants everyone to be treated justly, even people he does not know.	V52
Universalism-nature	He strongly believes that he should care for nature.	V8
	It is important to him to work against threats to the world of nature.	V21

	Protecting the natural environment from destruction or pollution is important to him.	V45
Universalism-tolerance	He works to promote harmony and peace among diverse groups.	V14
	It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him.	V34
	Even when he disagrees with people, it is important to him to understand them.	V57

4.6.2.2 The constructs and measuring items of non-values scales

The second group describes the constructs of non-values. It consists of Social Norms and Predicted Behaviours towards Bribery, Nepotism, Gratification, and Academic Cheating. The statements or items in this section were developed based on literature and the findings from Study 1 (in-depth interviews with young adults). The questions were scrutinised by two academic-peers from Indonesia (Binus University, Indonesia) to ensure they contained the elements needed to measure these constructs and were appropriate to the research context.

Social Norms

Social norms are standards or rules that tell members of a group or society how they should behave. The perceived norms can be divided into Descriptive norms and Injunctive norms. Descriptive norms denote the extent to which individuals perceive that others perform the behaviour. Injunctive norms are individuals’ perceptions of whether others approve or disapprove of a behaviour (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991; Jackson and Köbis, 2018; Köbis *et al.*, 2019; Zhao, Zhang and Xu, 2017). In this research, descriptive norms specifically referred to the respondents’ perceptions of other people in their environment or neighbourhood whom they know to be engaging in small-scale corrupt practices in everyday life. The injunctive norms measured the extent to which they perceived that people important or close to them disapprove of small-scale corrupt practices.

The descriptive and injunctive norms encompassed four types of everyday corrupt practice: (small-scale) bribery, gratification, nepotism, and academic cheating. The following are the definitions that were adapted to create the items in the questionnaire.

Table 4 - 10: Type of everyday corrupt acts

Type of everyday corrupt acts	Definition and references
Bribery	The act of accepting gifts bestowed by a private person with the object of inducing him/her to give special consideration to the interests of the donor (Alatas, 2015).
	The act to influence professional decisions by offering, giving, or promising money, goods, or services (active bribery). The act to request, accept, or expect gifts in exchange for his or her power (passive bribery) (Gorsira, Denkers and Huisman, 2016).
Nepotism	The appointment of relatives, friends, or political associates to public offices regardless of their merits and the consequences for public wealth (Alatas, 2015).
	Staffing posts with family members and friends, taking care of matters through connections, backing, and arrangements (Kubiak, 2001).
Gratification	The giving of a gift, whether goods or money, as a token of gratitude to the services provided by staff (Fazzan and Ali, 2015).
	A reward in the broadest sense, including money, goods, discounts, fees, interest-free loans, travel tickets, lodging, tours, free medicine, and other facilities, whether received at home or abroad, and carried out through the use of electronic devices or other means (The Law of the Republic of Indonesia - Article 12B (1) of Law No. 31 Year 1999 jo. Law No. 20 Year 2001 on Eradication of the crime of corruption)
Academic cheating	Unauthorised or unethical educational activity (e.g., an act concerning examinations) (Park, Park and Jang, 2013).
	Act of bypassing learning in an effort to obtain higher grades (Alt and Geiger, 2012)

In addition to these everyday corrupt practices, this research also presented a special case in the form of honesty/integrity in the academic arena. This is because many young adults are still university students; thus, it provided them with an everyday context that was of direct relevance to them. Academic cheating, also known as academic misconduct or academic dishonesty, shares

similar characteristics with small-scale corrupt practices in terms of prevalence and neutralisation. This unethical behaviour includes, for example, exam-cheating and plagiarism, which occurs due to competition among students (e.g., for higher grades, better jobs). Thus, this type of misconduct challenges the preservation of academic integrity.

Research has also shown there is a tendency to extend academic cheating behaviours to unethical practices after graduation (Park, Park and Jang, 2013). For instance, several studies have shown that nursing students who cheated in the classroom are more likely to manipulate clinical data in the future than non-cheaters (Harding *et al.*, 2004; Harper, 2006).

Like small-scale corrupt practices, academic cheating can be influenced by individual factors (e.g., demographics, ethical beliefs, attitudes) and social factors (e.g., perceived prevalence of peers' cheating) (Harding *et al.*, 2004; McCabe, 2001). Thus, some students may justify and normalise misconduct as customary behaviour. Because of the potential danger and similar prevalence to small-scale corrupt practices, the researcher decided to include academic cheating as one of the types included in this study. The following are the items used in the scales:

Descriptive norms

Item	Type of corruption	Statement
ND_5	Bribery	I know that many people still pay an officer to avoid a traffic ticket.
ND_13	Bribery	In dealing with the administrative process when making or renewing a driving licence, I often see people pay an officer extra money to avoid an uncomfortable situation (e.g., long queue, bureaucracy).
ND_15	Bribery	Many people pay extra money to an officer when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity cards, family cards) to speed up the complicated administrative process and/or avoid a long queue.
ND_23	Bribery	I know that many people pay extra money in a recruitment process to increase their chance of getting the job.
ND_25	Bribery	Many people around me still pay extra money to an officer when dealing with licencing / permit administration processes (such as business licence, building permits, etc.) to avoid the bureaucracy and speed up the administration process.
ND_11	Nepotism	Many people around me think it is normal if a recruiter treats one candidate in job recruitment in a more pleasant way than others to repay the past kindness of the candidate's parents.

ND_20	Nepotism	To increase the chance of being accepted for a competitive job, such as becoming a civil servant, some people use help from their connections.
ND_27	Gratification	Many people around me still send gifts to their business partners, officials, clients, or customers so that their errands/ businesses can go smoothly.
ND_28	Gratification	Many people I know accept a gift(s) from their business partners, clients, or customers.
ND_26	Gratification	Many people still think that sending gifts to smooth a business matter is an appropriate act.
ND_1	Academic cheating	Many students around me are still asking and/or sharing answers during the exam with their friends.
ND_4	Academic cheating	Many people believe that a student who copies another student's assignment is lazy.
ND_8	Academic cheating	Many people think that severe sanctions/punishment for a student who copies another student's assignment makes them afraid and will therefore avoid doing this in the future.

Injunctive norms

Item	Type of corruption	Statement
NI_12	Bribery	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that paying a small amount of money to avoid a traffic ticket is inappropriate.
NI_14	Bribery	According to people who are close to me (such as parents/ sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend/ peer), paying extra money when making or renewing a driving licence to speed up the administration process is acceptable.
NI_17	Bribery	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend / peer) do not allow me to give a small amount of money to an officer to speed up the process when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity card, family card, etc.).
NI_18	Nepotism	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that it is inappropriate if someone is accepted to work for a company because of their connections.
NI_24	Gratification	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that sending a gift to a

		member of a selection committee during a recruitment process is inappropriate.
NI_22	Academic cheating	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that it is inappropriate if a student copies another student's assignment when sufficient time has already been given to prepare it.

Predicted behaviour

This section refers to behavioural intention or the tendency to comply with small-scale corrupt acts. The different types of behaviour were divided into (small-scale) bribery, nepotism, gratification, and academic cheating. The context used was based on the findings from Study 1 and literature regarding small-scale corrupt acts (including bribery, nepotism, gratification, and academic cheating) (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2012; Badan Pusat Statistik, 2017; Transparency International-Korea, 2013).

Item	Type of corruption	Statement
Beh_6	Bribery	If I get a traffic ticket when I am driving, I will give an amount of money to the officer to avoid the ticket.
Beh_7	Bribery	I prefer to pay some extra money to an officer to speed up the process of making or renewing my driving licence.
Beh_16	Bribery	I prefer to pay an amount of money to an official when making or renewing my residential documents (such as resident identity card, family card, etc.) to avoid bureaucracy.
Beh_31	Bribery	I think avoiding a traffic ticket by paying a small amount of money to an officer is inappropriate.
Beh_32	Bribery	I pay an amount of money to an officer to avoid traffic tickets because people around me do the same.

Beh_21	Nepotism	When applying for a job, I will ask for help from my personal or parents' connections to increase the chance of being accepted.
Beh_10	Nepotism	I believe that asking for help from a personal connection when applying for a job is acceptable.
Beh_19	Nepotism	It is appropriate to access our connections when we need to in a job application process.

Beh_9	Gratification	I will report to the company I work for when receiving gifts from business partners or clients.
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Beh_29	Gratification	I will accept gifts when my business partners, clients, or customers send them to me.
Beh_30	Gratification	I send gifts to my business partner, officials, clients, or customers.

Beh_2	Academic cheating	If there is an opportunity, I look at my notes during an exam
Beh_3	Academic cheating	During an exam, I sometimes ask and/or share answer(s) with my friend(s).

4.6.2.3 Measurement scale

The questionnaire in this study consisted of three main sections. The first section was the value scale which comprised 57 items or statements. The second section comprised 31 items regarding perceived social norms and the intention to behave (predicted behaviour) towards small-scale corrupt acts. The third section elicited demographic information from the respondents.

A Likert scale was used as the response format for the questions. On the value measure, the respondents were asked to respond on the following six-point scale: “Very much like me”, “Like me”, “Somewhat like me”, “A little like me”, “Not like me”, and “Not at all like me”.

The non-values measure was responded to on a seven-point scale: “Strongly agree”, “Agree”, “Slightly agree”, “Neither agree nor disagree”, “Slightly disagree”, “Disagree”, and “Strongly disagree”.

4.6.3 Procedures for data collection

4.6.3.1 Translation and pre-test of the questionnaire

Before the primary fieldwork began, the questionnaire was tested using a pilot study. According to Polit et al. (2001, p. 467), a pilot study is “a small-scale version(s), or trial run(s), done in preparation for the main study” (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001, p. 1). In this study, the aim of the pilot was to test and provide input for the main study on any practical problems in the research procedure, the appropriateness of the proposed methods, and any potential research

problems. It assessed the question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty, and clarity of the instructions. This was especially important as one of the scales (the value scale) was translated from English into Indonesian. Thus, it was critical to know that the translated version was understood by the respondents in terms of its wording and context.

As noted previously, Schwartz's PVQ-RR scale (portrait verbal questionnaire – revised version) was used to measure the values while other scales were used to measure the perceived norms and predicted behaviour (developed based on the findings from Study 1). The pilot study was designed in two stages. In the first stage, the questionnaire was sent to two academic experts who scrutinised each statement and provided qualitative feedback on improvements, for example, in relation to the phrasing and wording used.

In the second stage, the questionnaire was sent by email to 100 recipients recruited from the researcher's personal contacts. Overall, 58 respondents completed and returned the online questionnaire. Qualtrics was used as the platform for the pilot online survey.

An internal reliability test was then conducted on the data collected. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were produced for each construct. This determined whether each item was understandable based on whether there was a relatively high inter-correlation with other items measuring this particular construct.

The feedback gathered from the pilot study was compiled and examined. The results of the statistical test and the qualitative feedback become the references upon which to revise the items in the questionnaire. Several modifications and improvements were made to the original questionnaire, such as rewording and rephrasing the sentences. No technical problems were found with respect to the online questionnaire and no suggestions were made regarding its presentation, implying that most respondents were able to respond to the survey smoothly.

The Cronbach's Alpha results for the values components were satisfactory. As shown in Table 4-10, many values components had $\alpha > 0.60$. However, values such as Self-direction-thought, Self-direction-action, Stimulation, Achievement, Face, Humility, Security-personal, and Universalism-tolerance obtained $\alpha < 0.60$. If a scale has an Alpha lower than 0.70, it should be assessed for

any sources of measurement errors, such as inadequate sampling of items, administration errors, situational factors, sample characteristics, number of items, and theoretical errors in developing the measurement scale (Gable and Wolf, 1993).

Table 4 - 11: Cronbach's Alpha for values components in the pilot study

No.	Values	Dimension	Alpha
1	<i>Self-direction (thought)</i>	Openness to change	0.520*
2	<i>Self-direction (action)</i>		0.335*
3	<i>Stimulation</i>		0.332*
4	Hedonism		0.820
5	<i>Achievement</i>	Self-enhancement	0.587*
6	Power-dominance		0.701
7	Power-resources		0.665
8	<i>Face</i>		0.464*
9	<i>Humility</i>		0.311*
10	<i>Security-personal</i>	Conservation	0.498*
11	Security-societal		0.789
12	Tradition		0.753
13	Conformity-rules		0.715
14	Conformity-interpersonal		0.648
15	Benevolence-dependability	Self-transcendence	0.696
16	Benevolence-caring		0.857
17	Universalism-concern		0.770
18	Universalism-nature		0.709
19	<i>Universalism-tolerance</i>		0.458*

Note: * $\alpha < 0.60$

The Cronbach's Alpha for the non-values constructs, which were Descriptive norms, Injunctive norms, and Predicted behaviour, are presented in Table 4 – 12.e. Although Descriptive norms and Predicted behaviour obtained larger alphas, the alpha for Injunctive norms was less than 0.60.

Table 4 - 12: Cronbach's Alpha for non-values constructs in the pilot study

No.	Constructs	Alpha
1	Descriptive norms	0.846
2	Injunctive norms	0.582
3	Predicted behaviour	0.852

The wording and phrasing of each item that had an alpha less than 0.60 (see Table 4-11 above) was re-assessed and amended where necessary to reduce risks or problems. None of the items were deleted as the researcher was still able to revise the items affected in this pilot stage. The revised (final) version of the questionnaire was then used for the primary fieldwork.

4.6.3.2 Sample size

Different sampling methods can determine the sample size chosen. Several rules of thumb have been adopted, such as a minimum sample of 100 or 200 (Gorsuch, 1983; Guildford, 1954), 5 or 10 observations per estimated parameter (Bentler and Chou, 1987; Bollen, 1989), or 10 cases per variable (Nunnally, 1967). However, following these approaches may be insufficient as they are not model-specific and can lead to over or underestimation of the sample size (Wolf *et al.*, 2015).

Because SEM was used to test the proposed statistical model, determining a sufficient sample size was critical. This is because the goodness of a model's fit is influenced by the sample size, which may vary from model to model (Wolf *et al.*, 2015). The sample size for SEM should take into account the multivariate normality of the data, estimation technique, model complexity, the amount of missing data, and the average error variance among the reflective indicators (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019, p. 632).

Study 2 followed the approach suggested by Hair et al. (2019), which was to determine the minimum sample size based on the complexity and essential measurement characteristics of the model. Thus, the possible identification of the proposed model can be ensured.

Table 4 - 13: Suggestions for minimum sample sizes (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019, p. 633)

Minimum sample size – 100	Models containing five or fewer constructs, each with more than three items (observed variables), and with high item communalities (0.6 or higher).
Minimum sample size – 150	Models with seven constructs or less, at least modest communalities (0.5) and no under-identified constructs.

Minimum sample size – 300	Models with seven or fewer constructs, lower communalities (below 0.45), and/or multiple under-identified (fewer than three) constructs.
Minimum sample size – 500	Models with large numbers of constructs, some with lower communalities, and/or having fewer than three measured items.

Thus, because the study comprises 11 constructs, and only a small number of the constructs had fewer than three measured items, a minimum sample of 500 respondents was required.

4.6.3.3 Data collection process

A population is the entire group under study as specified by the objective of the research (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1993), while a sample refers to the group of people in the population selected for the research (Kremelberg, 2011). The sample in this study comprised young adults in Indonesia (18 – 25 years) who were selected using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling.

Data collection was conducted in September – November 2018. The process consisted of two phases. In the first phase, respondents were invited to complete an online questionnaire (web-based survey). A web-based survey is a type of internet survey posted on the web or electronic bulletin boards. The respondents typed (or clicked) their responses into automated response mechanisms, scrolling down the menus to select options or blank areas for open-ended questions. The study used Qualtrics as the basis for the online questionnaire as it is relatively safe and recommended for use by the university. A web-based survey also has other advantages as it is speedy, inexpensive, and can be delivered instantaneously worldwide with no manpower costs or any postal fees. It also has the ability to automatically verify and store respondents' answers using database technology (Rice *et al.*, 2017; Fleming and Bowden, 2009; Dillman, 2000).

The respondents were recruited through the researcher’s connections. In addition to asking them to complete the questionnaire, the researcher encouraged the participants to distribute the link

to the online survey to their networks, such as friends, students, and families (snowball effect). It was also distributed through groups in social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter) and mailing lists.

However, during this first phase, the response to the online questionnaire was very slow. Due to the time constraints placed on the study, a decision was made to recruit respondents using paper-based questionnaires as the second phase. The combination of an online questionnaire and paper-based questionnaires (mixed-mode survey) was suggested by Dillman (2000) as a more dynamic approach to conducting a survey. He argued that the use of different approaches “provides an opportunity to compensate for the weaknesses of each method” (Dillman, 2000, p. 218). Manfreda et al. (2008, cited in Millar and Dillman, 2011) add that the response rate for online surveys is typically lower than for paper-based questionnaires. The online survey also has limited coverage as not everyone has an internet connection and is computer literate, and there is also the potential for fraud (Dillman, 2000; Rice *et al.*, 2017).

Therefore, the use of a paper-based questionnaire complemented the application of an online survey. Additionally, the length of the questionnaire that may influence the response rate was another consideration to combine the data collection technique with a paper-based questionnaire (Rice *et al.*, 2017). To reach young adults in Indonesia, the survey was conducted at various universities in several cities. This included Jakarta and its neighbouring towns (Bogor, Depok, Tangerang, Bekasi); several cities in Java (Yogyakarta, Semarang, and Surabaya), and Sulawesi / outside Java (Makassar).

Although the higher response rate (Nulty, 2008) that was achieved enabled the researcher to obtain a large number of respondents in a relatively shorter time, the paper-based survey also has some disadvantages. For example, it is resource-intensive in terms of both manpower and financial investment (the cost of traveling, copying, and labour) and there is also the possibility of error in data entry (Fleming and Bowden, 2009; Dillman, 2000). Nevertheless, the relative weaknesses of each approach were compensated for by the strengths of the other and this was ultimately beneficial to the data collection process.

4.6.4 Data preparation

4.6.4.1 Treatment of missing data

Missing data will affect the generalisability of the results. The researcher should therefore specify the patterns and relationships of the data identified as missing (Hair Jr et al., 2019). Therefore, in the process of data preparation, it is essential to assess whether there are missing values in the data and provide a remedy as required.

The process of implementing a remedy in this study followed the recommendation from Hair Jr et al. (2019). It was felt that the missing data could not be ignored as it occurred because respondents failed to complete the entire questionnaire. It was found that the missing data occurred at item-level, where values were not available because the respondents did not answer the question(s).

Using SPSS, a missing value analysis with a MCAR test was conducted to identify whether the data was missing completely at random (MCAR) or missing at random (MAR).

4.6.4.2 Recoding and reversing items

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire in this study consisted of three sections. The first section contained the 57 values items. As the process is going to create central values, thus, recoding the items can make easier to understand and draw conclusion. The items were recoded as follows:

Table 4 - 14: Coding for the values items

Original codes	Descriptions	Recoded to
1	Very much like me	3
2	Like me	2
3	Somewhat like me	1
4	A little like me	-1
5	Not like me	-2
6	Not like me at all	-3

The second section contained the non-values items. It comprised the constructs of Descriptive norms (8 items), Injunctive norms (5 items), and Predicted behaviour (18 items). These items combined both positive and negative statements, as follows:

Table 4 - 15: Number of items

Factors	Positive items	Negative items
Descriptive norms	8	0
Injunctive norms	4	1
Behaviour tendency	11	7

The items were coded as follows:

Table 4 - 16: Coding for non-values items (Positive items)

Original codes	Descriptions	Recoded to
1	Very agree	3
2	Agree	2
3	Slightly agree	1
4	Neither agree nor disagree	0
5	Slightly disagree	-1
6	Disagree	-2
7	Very disagree	-3

Table 4 - 17: Coding for non-values items (Negative items)

Original codes	Descriptions	Recoded to
1	Very agree	-3
2	Agree	-2
3	Slightly agree	-1
4	Neither agree nor disagree	0
5	Slightly disagree	1
6	Disagree	2
7	Very disagree	3

The final section consisted of demographic questions. This yielded categorical data on gender, marital status, occupation, city of residence, and monthly expenditure (data in group range). Each was coded using nominal data (gender, marital status, occupation, and city of residence) or ordinal data (monthly expenditure).

4.6.4.3 Outliers

As mentioned earlier, the study consisted of two major scales. The first of these, Schwartz's value scale, is an established measure. Thus, there were no univariate outliers of concern as the items were measured on a predefined scale. An outlier is "a case with such extreme values on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that they distort statistics" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001, p. 66). For the other scale, non-values scale was developed by the researcher. For this scale, outliers were checked using SPSS analysis.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the procedure for identifying outliers depends on whether the data are grouped. "If the analyses will be with ungrouped data (such as regression, canonical correlation, factor analysis, structural equation modeling or time-series analysis), univariate and multivariate outliers are sought among all cases at once" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001, p. 107). Because the analyses in this study involved factor analysis and structural equation modeling, the search for outliers was conducted simultaneously with the data analysis.

4.6.4.4 Statistical assumptions

Before the multi-variate analyses was conducted, several statistical tests were performed to check the assumptions underlying the data, which relate to normality and linearity. Several techniques can be used to investigate the normality of the data — for example, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Field, 2009). The analysis compares the set of scores in the sample data to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. If the p-value > 0.05, the result is non-significant, which means that the data is normally distributed.

However, because the items in the questionnaire were on ordinal scales, the usual tests of normality were not performed. Nevertheless, as it is advisable to measure normality, the skewness and kurtosis of the data was assessed. Skewness is the degree to which a variable's distribution is asymmetric (it can be either positive or negative), whereas kurtosis is an index of the peak and tails of the distribution (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). Several suggestions have been made with regard to determining normality using this technique. For instance, skewness values falling outside the range of -1 to +1 indicate a skewed distribution. There is also a consensus among scholars that skewness values around 2.0 and kurtosis values of 7.0 are indicative of a non-normal distribution (West, Finch and Curran, 1995). According to Byrne (2016), absolute values of skewness higher than 3.0 are extreme. Absolute values of kurtosis greater than 10.0 indicate a potential problem, and values greater than 20.0 suggest a severe problem in the data.

Another statistical assumption that should be met before a model is tested is the assessment of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity refers to a situation in multiple regression, where some independent variables are highly linearly related. According to Hair Jr *et al.* (2014), in an ideal situation an independent variable should correlate more strongly with the dependent variable than with other independent variables. Multicollinearity creates shared variance between variables. Thus, the problem of multicollinearity can decrease the ability to predict the dependent measure and the estimation process.

Multicollinearity was assessed by measuring the tolerance and its inverse, the variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance measures "the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables" (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). When tolerance is high, a small degree of multicollinearity is indicated. As a second measure of multicollinearity, VIF was calculated as the inverse of the tolerance value. Thus, assessing a small degree of multicollinearity involves identifying small VIF values as indicators of low correlation among variables. When the tolerance is less than 0.20, and the VIF value exceeds 4.0, there is a problem with multicollinearity (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).

4.6.5 The analysis of the quantitative study

4.6.5.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) explores the data in the study; it informs the researcher how many factors are needed to best represent the data (Hair Jr et al., 2010). Using EFA, the measured constructs are related to every factor by a factor loading estimate. It is to check how every factor contributes to a particular construct. A simple structure results when each measured construct loads highly on only one factor; consequently, it has smaller loadings on other factors (e.g., loadings less than 4) (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, Hair Jr et al. (2010) add that utilising EFA can identify the separate dimensions of the structure and determine the extent to which each construct is explained.

EFA is derived from statistical results, not from theory. Thus, the researcher runs the software and allows the underlying pattern of the data to determine the factor structure. During the application of EFA, the researcher uses an established guideline provided in literature to determine which variables load on a particular factor and how many factors are appropriate (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).

An exception was made for the Schwartz's PVQ-RR scale, as conducting EFA on this scale is not recommended. This is because EFA is not suitable for finding a set of relations among variables or constructs that form a circumplex (polar coordinates representation), as is the case for the values data (Schwartz, 2009). Therefore, as an alternative to establishing the construct, the researcher calculated Internal Reliability using Cronbach's Alpha to examine the internal consistency of each value component, as suggested by Churchill (1979) (in Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002).

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is a common indicator used to assess reliability (Cronbach, 1951). It is considered the most appropriate means of determining the reliability of a measurement scale. Nunnally (1978) asserted that 0.70 is an acceptable reliability coefficient, although lower thresholds are sometimes used in the literature. As Straub (1989, p. 151) notes: "High correlations between alternative measures or large Cronbach's Alphas are usually signs that the

measures are reliable.” Thus, in this study, the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient that will be applied is 0.70 and above.

4.6.5.2 Testing the model

For the purpose of modeling, the data collected from the survey was analysed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). This is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis testing) approach to the multivariate analysis of a structural theory that relates to a particular phenomenon (Byrne, 1998). According to Bentler (1980), SEM has become a popular methodology for non-experimental research, where methods for testing theories are not well developed and ethical considerations make the experimental design unworkable (Byrne, 2016). Thus, it can be utilised to address numerous research problems that may arise in non-experimental research.

When conducting SEM, two main steps are followed: CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and SEM. CFA involves examining whether the variables appear to be measuring the construct in a reliable manner. When a certain number of variables are present in the model, CFA will determine whether they correlate and are distinct from each other. If they are, then SEM can be conducted to investigate the statistical relationship between these constructs. When conducting modeling using SEM, the model is decomposed into two sub-models, a measurement model and a structural model.

CFA differs from EFA in terms of its underlying philosophical stance. While EFA is based on statistical results, CFA is based on the theory used in the study. A CFA test tells the researcher how well the theoretical specification of factors matches the reality or actual data. Thus, CFA enables the researcher to either confirm or reject the preconceived theory (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010)

For this study, SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 24 was used for data analysis, and AMOS (Analysis for Moment Structures) version 25 was used to run SEM. AMOS is developed within the Microsoft Windows interface. The researcher first built the model of interest, then worked directly from this model to conduct various analyses.

4.6.5.2.1 *Measurement model*

The measurement model aims to test whether the observed variables measure the latent variables (as they should). It defines relations between the observed and unobserved variables. It also provides the link between scores on a measuring instrument (i.e., the observed variables) and the underlying constructs that are created to measure these (i.e., the unobserved variables). It specifies the pattern, whereas each measure loads a loading factor. Additionally, it provides measurement properties such as the reliability and validity of the observed variables (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989).

In the measurement model, all items were scrutinised to determine whether they fit well into the model. This is conducted to refine the model. Consequently, some items were removed when it does not fit well with the model. The removal process was based on statistical data and conceptual argument on the incompatibility of the items to the constructs.

The following Figure 4-3 illustrates the model that will be tested in Study 2. It shows the relation of descriptive and injunctive norms to predicted behaviour in everyday corruption. There are also the relations of values to the relationships between norms and predicted behaviour.

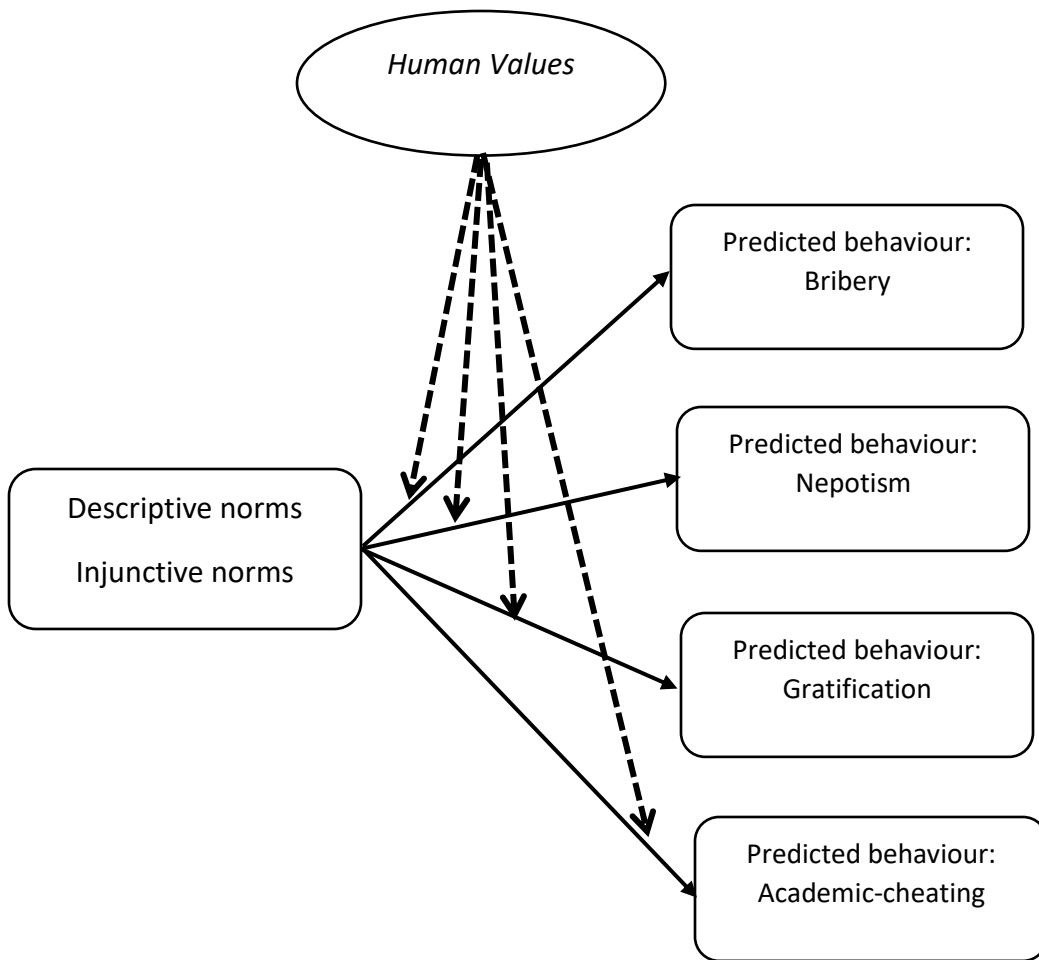


Figure 4 - 3: The proposed model (Author generated)

4.6.5.2.2 Structural model

The structural model defines relations among the unobserved (latent) variables. It examines which latent variables influence changes in the values of other latent variables. As Hair (2010, p. 692) states, “A set of one or more dependence relationships link the hypothesized model’s constructs (i.e., the structural theory). The structural model is most useful in representing the interrelationships of variables between constructs”. For the structural model, hypotheses testing was conducted. The hypotheses are described later in Chapter 6.

4.6.5.2.3 Moderating analysis

A moderator is “a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable” (Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). The moderator hypothesis is supported if the interaction or path analysis is significant.

Using AMOS version 25, moderation testing was conducted. Multi-group CFA was suggested as an alternative, where the data were divided into groups based on the purpose of the study and the path of interest was a constraint that was equal across the groups (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019; Zainudin, 2014). In this study, the moderator data (values components) was divided into two groups (low and high). The division of groups followed the recommendation of Hair Jr *et al.* (2019) in finding the mode of each value component and then dividing them around the modes. It was recommended that data should be bi-modal to create relatively equal groups. The data for the divided groups were run at the same time using multi-group analysis in AMOS.

The next process involved testing the constrained and unconstrained paths on each group. Referring to the table of Chi-square distributions (Appendix xx), the chi-square difference between the constrained and unconstrained models was assessed. The value difference was compared with the critical statistical value in the table against the degrees of freedom and the level of significance. For instance, if the value differs by more than 3.841 (df = 1, significance level of 5%), then the moderating effect occurs in that path.

4.6.5.2.4 Fit indices

The measurement of the model was conducted using the AMOS programme with the method of Maximum Likelihood (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). The criteria of fit indices used were CMIN (Minimum discrepancy or Chi-square value) and the degrees of freedom (df), CFI (Comparative Fit Index), RMSEA (Root mean square error of approximation; parsimony corrected), and SRMR (Standardised root mean square residual; absolute/residual based). It is sufficient to have three or four fit indices to prove a model fit (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). This should include one incremental index and one absolute index. Therefore, indices of chi-square value and df, RMSEA, SRMR (as

absolute of fit indices), and CFI or TLI (as an incremental fit) provide sufficient information to evaluate a model fit (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014).

One of the fit indices that should be considered in testing the goodness of a model is chi-square value. The primary task of the model-fitting process is to determine the goodness-of-fit between our current model (hypothesized model) and the sample data. Thus, the researcher used the specified model along with the sample data to test the model (Byrne, 2016). A p-value of a chi-square value denotes the likelihood of obtaining a chi-square value that exceeds the chi-square value when H_0 is true. The higher the probability associated with the chi-square value, the closer the fit between the hypothesised model (under H_0) and the perfect fit (according to Bollen, 1989a, cited in Byrne, 2016). Thus, it shows a good fit of a model when a high chi-square probability can be obtained.

According to Byrne (2016), the Chi-square value (CMIN or Minimum discrepancy) offers a quick overview of the model fit. It is a statistical measure of the likelihood ratio test. To be a good model fit, the p-value of CMIN or X^2 should not be statistically significant (p-value > α), or H_0 must not be rejected. If the latter is the case, it suggests that the fit of the data to the hypothesised model is not entirely adequate. The test statistic indicates that, given the present data, the hypothesis bearing on the value relations (as summarised in the model) represents an unlikely event (occurring less than one time in a thousand under the null hypothesis), and should be rejected. However, if H_0 is true (not rejected), this means that the model fits the population perfectly.

However, the chi-square value is extremely sensitive to sample size; thus, it is no longer relied upon as the only basis for the acceptance or rejection of a good model fit (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003). AMOS output also provides further criteria for the model fit. Thus, with the specified model, the researcher uses the criteria, with the sample data, to test the model. CFI is an improved version of the NFI (Normed Fit Index). It is normed; thus, the values range between 0-1, with higher values indicating a better fit. RMSEA represents the error of approximation in the population. SRMR is the average value across all standardized residuals and ranges from 0-1. In a well-fitting model, this value will be small (0.05 or less). Lower SRMR values

represent a better fit. Thus, the rule of thumb is that an SRMR over 0.1 suggests a problem with the fit (Byrne, 2016). Table 4 - 17 shows the fit indices and cut-off values that were used to evaluate the model.

Table 4 - 18: Fit indices criteria

Model Fit Measure	Acceptable threshold levels
CMIN (X^2)	$0 \leq X^2 \leq 2df$
p-value	$0.05 < p \leq 1.00$ (Good fit) $0.01 \leq p \leq 0.05$ (Acceptable fit) (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003)
X^2/df	$0 \leq X^2/df \leq 2$ (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003)
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	$RMSEA \leq 0.05$ (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003) $RMSEA < 0.07$ or 0.08 depending on the number of observed variables and number of observations (Hair Jr <i>et al.</i> , 2010) $RMSEA < 0.03$ (excellent fit)
SRMR (Standardised Root Mean Square Residual)	$SRMR \leq 0.05$ (Good fit) $0.05 \leq SRMR \leq 0.10$ (Acceptable fit) (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003)
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$ (Good fit) and $0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$ (Acceptable fit) (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Mueller, 2003) $CFI \geq 0.95$ (good fit) (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008) $CFI \geq 0.90$ (good fit, depending on the number of observed variables and number of observations) (Hair Jr <i>et al.</i> , 2010)

The use of cut-off values is based on model characteristics such as sample size, model complexity, and degrees of error in the model specification to evaluate the accuracy of the difference is based on the measurement of the fit indices (Marshe, Hau and Wen, 2004). Thus, simpler models and smaller samples will require stricter evaluation than more complex models and larger samples.

4.6.6 Quality criteria in the quantitative study

4.6.6.1 Social desirability bias

Questions relating to social desirability shape how respondents answer them. If answers that suggest deviations from social norms are socially undesirable, norm-conforming behaviours that are considered socially desirable will be self-reported to gain social approval (Fowler Jr, 1995).

The research avoided social desirability bias in several ways. For instance, self-administered survey modes were used to increase the reporting of potentially sensitive questions. The presence of the interviewer or researcher was also minimised to decrease subjective feelings of shame and embarrassment when answering such sensitive questions. Several techniques related to the context and wording of the questions were adopted. Regarding the statements on the questionnaire, the flow or order of the questions (statements) was set in such a way that the level of sensitivity or social desirability was reduced. For instance, an informal style was adopted by embedding questions that sound more sensitive into a series of questions that were more general (less offensive). The flow of the questions was also randomised so that respondents did not answer the questions in the same order (Garland, 2019).

Regarding the wording of the questions, to reduce sensitivity, loaded words, such as 'cheating,' 'favouritism,' 'corrupt,' and so on were avoided, as these were words that implied certain acts were wrong and thus sounded judgmental. Both positive and negative words were combined in the statements.

4.6.6.2 Reliability and validity

To ensure that the scales measured what they purported to measure, quality benchmarks were applied. In statistical analysis, these are the criteria of reliability and validity. Reliability refers to

the consistency of the instrument in producing the same result across different situations (Field, 2009). Among the techniques used to test reliability, the prominent factors are stability, internal reliability, and inter-observer consistency (Bryman, 2012).

The measurement of reliability is based on correlations between the individual items that build the scale relative to their variance. High inter-item correlation shows that the items on the scale have strong relationships with the latent construct and measure the same thing. The coefficient of Cronbach's Alpha is one of the essential criteria used in the construction of a measure, although it is not the only way to measure reliability.

In this study, two processes were employed to measure reliability. In the first process, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to measure the reliability of the value scale as a preliminary effort to examine its internal consistency. The second process involved calculating the Composite Reliability (CR) of all constructs after running the CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis). The reliability was acceptable at 0.70 and above (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014).

Validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it sets out to measure (Field, 2009). In conducting a validity test, several techniques can be applied, such as measuring criterion validity and content validity. Criterion validity involves comparing the measure to other objective criteria. Criterion validity consists of concurrent and predictive validity. When data are recorded simultaneously using the new measurement and existing standards, this is a test of concurrent validity; when data from a new measure is used to predict observations at a later time, this is a test of predictive validity (Field, 2009).

Regarding other forms of validity, content validity refers to the degree to which the items in the measure represent the construct being measured (Field, 2009). This can be measured by assessing face validity and construct validity. Face validity refers to whether the measurement appears to measure what it aims to measure. Construct validity refers to whether the measure addresses the underlying theoretical concepts of the construct. Construct validity can be divided into convergent and discriminant validity. It is essential to establish both convergent and discriminant validity for a scale. Convergent validity refers to a situation whereby items measure

their intended construct, whereas discriminant validity refers to when the construct as a whole is different from other constructs (Straub, 1989).

The measurement of validity in this study involved assessing construct validity by measuring both convergent and discriminant validity. Both were run with CFA. Convergent validity was obtained by calculating the AVE (Average Variance Extracted). AVE is the average amount of variance of a construct by showing the ratio of sum of squares of standardized factor loadings divided by this sum and total of error variance (Gefen, Straub and Boudreau, 2000). Convergent validity is satisfactory when the AVE of the construct is larger than 0.50 ((Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). Discriminant validity is satisfactory when the squared root of AVE is higher than the correlations among constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), and the maximum shared variance (MSV) is less than AVE.

4.7 Fieldwork Study 3: The concept testing

As the last stage in this PhD research, Study 3 was conducted by carrying out some focus group discussions to collect the data. The aim of this study 3 was to propose intervention models fit for an anti-corruption campaign based on the information from previous studies. At this stage it was assumed that the power of values exists (based on the previous study), and the question was therefore how to use this to reduce compliance-driven corrupt behaviours. In this phase, the researcher proposed several intervention models for the campaign using social marketing approaches. For this purpose, the criteria of social marketing campaigns were used as guidelines.

4.7.1 Sampling process for the focus group discussion

Study 3 was designed as a concept testing study to assess young adults' acceptance of the intervention models proposed by the researcher. A focus group discussion (FGD) is described as "an interactive discussion between six to eight pre-selected participants, led by a trained moderator and focusing on a specific set of issues" (Hennink, Hutter and Bailey, 2011, p. 136). It was chosen because an interactive discussion generates data very quickly. The researcher can identify a range of perspectives on the research topic(s) and can gain an understanding of the issues from the various perspectives of the participants (Hennink, 2013). Thus, to increase the potential effectiveness of the intervention models, it was important to gain insights from the participants into factors influencing or inhibiting them from accepting the ideas presented in an anti-corruption campaign.

The participants were young adults (18 – 25 years), recruited using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling, both of which are non-probability sampling approaches. The researcher initially used personal networks to recruit volunteers for the focus groups. When it became clear that more participants were needed, the researcher asked the volunteers to ask or recruit other people whom they thought may be interested in taking part. The aim was to form groups consisting of six to ten participants per focus group session. To anticipate likely 'no-shows', over-recruitment was performed. The focus group discussions were conducted until saturation of new

information was reached. This reflects the fact that sample size in a qualitative study cannot be pre-determined (Morgan and Scannell, 1998).

4.7.2 Development of the interview guide and proposed concepts

The focus group discussion aimed to acquire valuable input and feedback on the proposed interventions, which comprised an anti-corruption campaign targeted at young adults in Indonesia. Because the focus group discussion was based on information suggested in the previous studies, the guideline for the topics to be covered were also based on this information, as this indicated which conditions or elements may be essential and influential for the intervention models.

For instance, Study 1 (in-depth interviews) provided initial evidence to show that values act as a form of resistance enabling people to refuse to comply with corrupt practices. This is also supported by the findings of Study 2, albeit not for all values. Study 2 (survey) showed that values and descriptive norms were related to predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts; however, descriptive norms were slightly more powerful than values in influencing behaviour. In terms of a moderating effect, only certain values influence the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts. Details of the findings can be found in Chapter 7.

Looking at previous results it can be seen that even though it is limited to certain values, nevertheless value system can be barrier to people from doing corruption. However, focusing solely on values campaign may not be sufficient to conduct anti-corruption campaign, as social norms also found to be an eminent influencer. Thus, social norming campaign should be considered in this matter.

The valuable input mentioned above has been used to develop the proposed concepts in Study 3. Moreover, the methods in selecting and designing the intervention models was using COM-B model by utilizing the behaviour change wheel (BCW) developed by Michie et al., (2011, 2016). Further details on the process can be found in Chapter 7.

The first group discussion served as a pilot or initial interview with a small number of participants. This was to explore ideas for developing the concepts. In this phase, it was suggested that some improvements need to be made to the concepts tested. Some questions were also added as input from the initial interviews. Details of the question guide used in the focus group can be found in Appendix 4-2.

As well as input for the concepts tested, input was also provided into the technique used in the interview. During the pilot interview it was found that the questions were sometimes misunderstood and the researcher needed to provide repeated explanations. Therefore, the decision was taken to use generic pictures taken from Google or created by the researcher to help the participants understand the questions. The following figures are some of the examples.

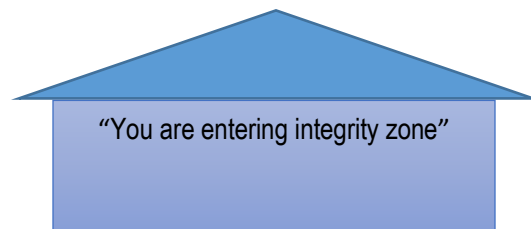


Figure 4 - 4: An illustration of a concept (Author generated)



Figure 4 - 5: An illustration of a concept - "You are entering the area of regulations compliance without corruption" (Author generated)

4.7.3 Analysis of the focus group discussion

The focus group data were transcribed verbatim and analysed using a qualitative technique developed by Miles and Huberman (1994), which consisted of open coding that was then developed into categories and subsequent conclusions drawn. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), a qualitative analysis consists of three flows: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. The following table describes the activities that were conducted and the source of documentation used in this research.

Table 4 - 19: Data analysis process (Miles and Huberman, 1994)

Process	Activities	Source documentation
<i>Data collection</i>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tape recordings of focus group discussions • Notes taken during and after interview discussions • Researcher field notes
(1) Data reduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Giving codes to the initial data set • Adding comment and reflecting (memo) • Identifying similar patterns, phrases, themes and differences between sub-groups and groups. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transcripts • Data coding • Memo
(2) Data display	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing data matrix and data display • Identifying sets of generalisations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spreadsheet analysis of responses
(3) Conclusion drawing and verification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linking the generalisations to theories or constructs • Summary development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expert panel • Theoretical links

4.7.4 Data collection process

Focus group discussions were conducted in May-June 2019. Five groups were formed from 33 participants. Most were university students; only three had already graduated and were currently working. All discussions were face-to-face and conducted in Jakarta. Each discussion lasted between 45 - 60 minutes.

Participants were invited at a time and date that was convenient for them as well as for the researcher. Because most were university students, the venues were in close proximity to the university premises (e.g., privately-hired room at a nearby café, university meeting room). The discussions were conducted in the Indonesian language, which meant that all material was translated into Indonesian. For the purpose of reporting and writing the thesis, all material was then converted back into English. The characteristics of the participants in the focus group are presented in Table 4 – 20, as follows:

Table 4 - 20: Profile of focus group participants

Group number	Number of participants	Participant age and gender	
Group 1 (G1)	5 persons	18F 19F ¹ (2 persons)	23M 24M
Group 2 (G2)	8 persons	19F (2 persons) 20F 21F	18M 19M (2 persons) 23M
Group 3 (G3)	7 persons	19F (5 persons) 18F (2 persons)	
Group 4 (G4)	7 persons	19F 20F (3 persons) 21F	19M 21M
Group 5 (G5)	6 persons	18F (3 persons) 19F (2 persons) 20F	

¹ 19F: The number 19 refers to age, and M (Male)/F (Female) denotes gender.

During the focus group, participants were asked questions using a pre-prepared question guide (Appendix 4-2). However, the researcher also asked additional questions to probe and obtain more in-depth information about some of the topics or issues raised. As explained previously, pictures were also used to help the participants understand the concepts.

The question guide consisted of three main sections: the opening or introductory session, exploratory session, and closing session. In the opening session, the researcher explained the purpose of the research. It also gave the participants the opportunity to become acquainted with each other prior to the discussion. The exploratory session focused on key questions aimed at assessing the likelihood, level of agreement, and acceptability of each proposed concept. In the closing session, the participants were invited to share or suggest ideas concerning the topics of the discussion. The discussion was audiotaped with participants' permission. It was then transcribed verbatim for the purpose of data analysis.

4.8 Interview with key informants

As additional data for this research, interviews with key informants were conducted. They were anti-corruption campaign initiators/activists in Indonesia. Their sharing of experience aimed to help the researcher to get a snapshot of the anti-corruption movement or programme, in particular for young adults. It also sought to confirm the key informants' views on the anti-corruption programme for young adults in Indonesia. The findings of the interviews that served as a professional outcome were described in Chapter 8 to support the general conclusion of the whole research.

4.9 Summary

The chapter has presented a thorough explanation on the methodology employed in this research. It serves the understanding on how the research was carried out. This research followed mixed method procedures to address the complexity of the research and achieve the research objectives.

The research consists of three-stage of studies. Study 1, as the first study, adopted a qualitative approach. It aimed to gain a better understanding on the context of everyday corrupt practices according to the young adults in Indonesia. It includes the types of everyday corruption that commonly done and finding early evidence on the role of values in limiting people behaviour in corrupt situation.

This was followed by Study 2 which was a quantitative study consisting of a survey. The study aimed to examine whether values can be built as barrier to corrupt behaviour. In particular, the relationships between values, social norms and predicted behaviour were tested in a model.

In the final phase, a concept testing was carried out in Study 3. It aimed to seek the potential use of social marketing approaches for anti-corruption campaign. Prior to the concept testing, some concepts with the key propositions were developed.

The methods of each study were elaborated in detail in this chapter. It includes the selection of the participants and sampling process, the development of each interview guide and questionnaire, data collection and data analysis method. Prior to collecting data, ethical clearance was granted for each study. The researcher needed to review any potentially sensitive topic or question to protect the participants. The questions were assessed as low risk as they focused on issues that were common in society. It was also important to ensure that all participants were protected by making no reference to any individual results. Thus, all data was treated anonymously and confidentiality maintained throughout.

The researcher also explained the translation process utilised in this research, which was a significant process and involved considerable effort as more than one language was used in the research. In the following chapters, the findings and analysis for each study are presented in detail.

This chapter contributes to the next phases of research the guidance for conducting the fieldworks of each study. As the next part, it will present the findings and analyses of all the three studies in this research.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF STUDY 1 – IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

5.0 Introduction

This PhD research comprises three studies overall: a qualitative study using in-depth interviews, model testing, and the testing of concepts for the intervention model.

This chapter discusses the findings from the in-depth interviews (Study 1). Study 1 aimed to acquire a better understanding of day-to-day corrupt practices in Indonesia and identify examples of such corruption. It also aimed to elucidate the underlying factors that impel people to comply with everyday forms of corruption. In particular, it sought to find early evidence to show whether values act as inhibitors to corrupt acts. The participants were asked a series of questions relating to their understanding (including perception, knowledge, and experience) of everyday corrupt practices in Indonesia.

The findings emerged from an analysis of the transcripts of in-depth interviews with several young adults in Indonesia. Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data and identify everyday corrupt practices that are still common in Indonesia and the underlying reasons for their prevalence. It also explained the role of values as inhibitors to everyday corrupt practices. Additional findings are then presented as part of the discussion. Several key insights are confirmed and will be integrated into a model of behavioural change for an anti-corruption campaign. The model will be tested further in Study 2. The chapter ends with the overall conclusions drawn from Study 1.

5.1 Overview of the interview process

General observations were made by the researcher during the interviews regarding the interview process and the participants. Almost all the participants displayed an interest in the research topic. Through voice-call interviews, the researcher inferred the motivation of participants from their tone of voice, the quality of responses (including the expression of the words), and the pace of their talk. This gave the researcher opportunities to adapt and adjust the interview according to their knowledge or interests (e.g., the use of local terms, timing, probing). A few participants expressed their enjoyment of the interview as they felt it

accommodated their understanding, opinions, and feedback on the corruption problem in Indonesia.

Although most of the questions were presented in an indirect format (using the third-party technique), some participants referred to their personal experiences. These were treated carefully given the potential for social desirability bias.

The use of the WhatsApp voice call application was found to be effective as the conversation could be set up anytime and anywhere, based on what was convenient for both parties. This suited the lifestyles of participants as young adults at a productive stage of their lives. During the interviews, participants reported that they were either in their offices (at work), engaging in fieldwork (outside the office building where they needed to control their work project), on the campus, or at home. This method, therefore, enabled both parties to avoid traffic congestion (particularly participants who lived in Jakarta) and could be adapted to their working hours. Although there was a 7-hour time difference between the participants (in Indonesia) and the researcher (in the UK), this did not pose any significant problems for the interview process.

Nevertheless, the researcher remained aware of the disadvantages of using the WhatsApp voice-call application. The main problem was the quality of the internet connection. This was particularly pertinent for participants who lived in small cities, where poor internet quality sometimes meant poor quality sound, or even multiple reconnections. Consequently, the researcher needed to repeat the questions and/ask for confirmation of their answers.

In this study, the participants were asked about their understanding on type of behaviours that are considered common everyday corrupt practices based on their experience. They also were asked about factors that according to them influence people to be resist from complying into everyday corrupt practices. The interviewer asked the participants adopting projective technique whereby the cases in the questions were illustrated using a third-party method. The type cases in daily activities and questions that asked to the participants can be found in the following sub-sections.

5.2 Generating the grand themes

The process of data analysis began with familiarisation of the data collected. The next step comprised the generation of codes. According to Boyatzis (1998, cited in Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 88), codes refer to “the most basic segment or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon”. Coding is thus a technique that is extremely helpful in building themes for the later stages of a qualitative analysis.

The researcher read the data repeatedly and broke texts down into informative and manageable segments to which a coding framework could be applied. This process was guided by the research questions, theoretical notions, and also issues raised in the data.

The following figure illustrates the process of generating grand themes based on verbatim responses from the participants.

'Awareness that a behaviour is inappropriate conduct'

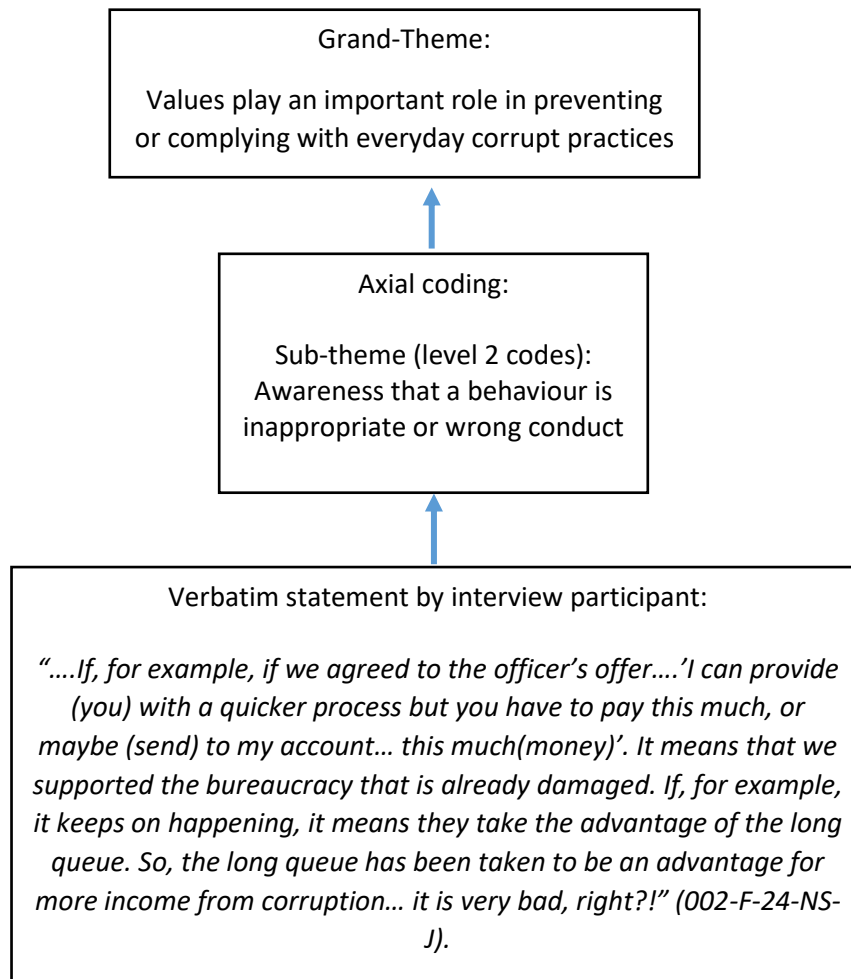


Figure 5 - 1: Thematic analysis coding using verbatim data extraction

Several grand themes were derived from the analysis. These were extracted from the sub-themes generated from the initial basic themes. These grand themes comprised: some types of small-scale corruptions are commonly found in everyday life; the normality of everyday corrupt practices; factors that influence the normality of everyday corrupt practices; and the role of values in preventing or complying with everyday forms of corruption. It also highlights the cultural perspectives on everyday corrupt practices. In the following sections, the detail of each grand theme is discussed. The materials or data that feed into the basic themes and sub-themes are described.

5.3 Types of everyday forms of corruption

Among the types of behaviour (see interview guide in Appendix 4 - 1) presented to the participants, all were perceived to be common in Indonesia. Most participants agreed that behaviours in general/public in everyday life, such as administering traffic tickets, recruitment of government officials/civil servants, the administration process involved in making/renewing national identity card or other documentation/licenses, employee recruitment, and specific situations (academic cheating) can be considered day-to-day corrupt practices in society. These encompass bribery, nepotism, and gratification.

Table 5-1 below presents the findings that confirmed the types of everyday corrupt practices perceived as common. It shows the grand themes as well as the basic and sub-themes that feed into the grand themes. The number of sources and references derived from the coding process using NVivo.

Table 5 - 1: Types of everyday corrupt practices
(Author generated – based on interviews with young adults)

Basic themes	<i>Number of sources and references*</i>	Sub-themes	<i>Number of sources and references</i>	Grand Theme
		Avoiding a traffic ticket by paying the officer on the street.	8 (17)	Types of everyday forms of corruption perceived as common
Take the chance of ‘a shortcut’ (informal practices) to speed up the administration process, if available.	5 (9)	Bureaucracy / complicated administrative process		
Inducement from an insider to help speed up the process.	3 (5)			
Bribery in the recruitment process for civil servants	4 (9)	Small-scale corrupt practices in the recruitment process in private companies and government bodies.		
Nepotism and gratification in the recruitment process	5 (6)			
The intention of gifting is (sometimes) too obvious to smooth their business.	10 (18)			
		Specific situations: academic cheating (includes cheating in an exam, copying assignment/paper)	12 (13)	

The following sub-sections describe the data that feeds into the basic themes and sub-themes. It describes some direct quotes from the participants in the interviews. The quotes were analysed in the first stage of thematic analysis to shape the themes.

5.3.1 Common practices in public services: traffic ticket and administration services

The participants were provided with short stories that related to common practices in everyday life, such as traffic ticket and administration services (e.g., the making or renewing of National Identity (ID) Card, licenses, or legal documents). The cases were developed from secondary sources (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2017; Transparency International Indonesia, 2012) that show the prevalence of these practices.

5.3.1.1 Traffic ticket

The story presented to the participants was as follows:

Case 1 - A young man is stopped by a police officer when he is caught speeding on an empty road. He follows the order to pull over. Can you explain what will happen next? How would the man handle the problem?

In this case, the participants responded with varied reactions regarding what the young man would do. Those stopped by a police officer can either give positive or negative reactions. Using subtle terms such as 'negotiation,' 'offer,' or 'peace', which all refer to small-bribes (giving a small amount of money to avoid a speeding ticket – or using the local term '*uang damai*²'), were perceived as common practices used to solve problems on the road.

"In my opinion, this young man will give an offer; it's like to make 'peace' or so. Because most of them are also like that, (they) seem not interested (because they are lazy) in going to court to settle a ticket. I think it's like that" (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

"... there will be a negotiation, does he want to have a 'deal' or go to court. It is like that. Nowadays, it seems that young people must be choosing the 'shortcut'³, most of them" (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

The above responses were examples of wanting to take a shortcut by offering to give some

² "Uang damai" (uang = money; damai = peace) is a local/Indonesian term for small bribes (giving some money) to the police to avoid a traffic ticket. It could be induced by the drivers/traffic users or implicitly asked for by the officer.

³ A shortcut can refer to an act to speed up the (administrative) process by accepting or asking for an informal service that could be offered/provided by an insider or non-insider.

money to the officer. It is clear that participants think that if someone is caught speeding (or another problem) by the police, he or she is likely to find a way to avoid the traffic ticket by giving or offering some money to the officer. The process may involve a negotiation before they set 'the deal'. In addition, the officer who handles the case also plays a crucial role in deciding whether or not the deal would occur. This type of behaviour is admitted by the participants as one of the everyday corrupt practices that can be found on the street.

However, few participants reported that some people were different. They would not want to follow what many people have done by not giving or offering money to the officer. They did not want to follow the common practices mentioned above but prefer instead to follow the rules and admit the mistakes they have made. They may choose to do this because they accepted their mistakes and do not being defensive, otherwise, the situation could be worse; or they may not want to contribute to a corrupt system.

"I think it's better that way (accept the ticket) instead of being defensive, trying to justify and so forth. There must be a reason why this police officer stopped the person. I think that attitude (to accept the ticket) is better than being defensive" (004-M-24-NS-NJ).

From the responses above, it can be confirmed that giving extra money on the street to officers to avoid traffic ticket is one among the common practices of everyday forms of corruption in Indonesia. Following is another finding of a type of everyday corruption, which is the act of avoiding some intricated administration processes.

5.3.1.2 Administration services

In the interviews, participants were asked for their opinions regarding a case involving making a National Identity Card (ID). In Indonesia, a National Identity Card (or locally called *KTP – Kartu Tanda Penduduk*) is proof of the official identity of residents. Indonesian citizens who are 17 years old or older must own this card.

The question was as follows:

Case 2 - A young lady has just turned 17. Thus, by law, she needs to have her National Identity Card (ID). She showed up at the local district office and filled in the form. She saw there was a long queue and was informed that it would take a couple of weeks to process the ID card. An officer approached her, and implicitly offered her a quicker way. What do you think the young lady would do?

Many people learn that the administration process involved in making an ID-card is time-consuming and (sound) complicated. Thus, they are likely to think that taking a shortcut would be beneficial. A shortcut refers to the extra or informal service or practices provided by an insider (officer) who is supposed to give every visitor an equal formal service. The insider promises that the card can be ready in a shorter time (than standard or official time), and thus this individual does not have to queue or wait for a long time. It saves time even though they have to pay extra. This is reflected in the responses of the participants.

"I think she surely will do it. Want to choose the shortcut, right. Maybe because the process of making it will take a long time and the process will discourage her, surely this girl will also follow that shortcut. If there is a shortcut, why not?" (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

In 2011, the government changed the format of the National Identity Card to one that is electronic (e-card or e-KTP). Later, in mid- 2017, a grand corruption on e-KTP⁴ procurement was revealed. Consequently, the supply of materials for the cards became very constrained. Thus, the process of acquiring the card took much longer (than the official time). A few insiders took advantage of the situation by offering to provide it more quickly if given extra payment.

At the time this corruption case was revealed, many of the participants in this research were obtaining their first national ID card. Thus, the grand corruption of e-KTP extended the research context in this study. Some of the participants thought it was better to wait until the

⁴ In mid-2017, a case of grand corruption on e-KTP (electronic national ID card) procurement was revealed. The case involved the chairman of Indonesia's House of Representatives and many state and private officials (see <https://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2017/03/09/indonesias-house-speaker-allegedly-involved-in-e-ktp-mega-corruption-scandal.html>; <https://jakartaglobe.id/context/more-politicians-grilled-as-kpk-digs-deeper-into-e-ktp-graft>; <https://www.bbc.com/indonesia/indonesia-43579739>)

card is ready. If an officer offered to speed up the process by paying some of the extra cost of their informal service, two of the participants said they would refuse. They thought it would not make any difference as there had been a grand corruption case. The process of getting the card ready would be delayed anyway, with or without extra payment.

“Even from January last year (the interview was December 2017), I made e-ID and, until now, it has not been done yet. And I chose to use formal procedures. And, if for example, I have to wait in the queue (referring to the case in the interview guide), I will wait until it’s finished”. (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

“Yeah, just follow the procedures. To me, if I bribe, what is the guarantee (that my ID card will be ready faster)? It is not clear, not sure whether it’s true or not. We also don’t know where the money will go. And indeed, we all know that the e-ID card was corrupted. So, well...just wait for it”. (001-F-24-NS-J).

From making an ID card, the responses were extended to the processes involved in other public administration services such as making or renewing the driving licence (known locally as *SIM – Surat Izin Mengemudi*) and business licences/permits. The latter are relatively more difficult to obtain than an ID card. Again, it is common for an insider (officer) to help get this ready without much hassle.

“In Indonesia, it’s still very common because I made my driving license almost every time of it didn’t use the right way (did not follow the formal procedure). And it was not just me, but a lot of people who were also there. And even the parking attendant offered me: ‘have you already had an ‘insider’? If not, you can use our help’”. (008-M-23-NS-NJ)

From the responses given, it seems that the informal service offered by insiders is more common for a more complicated administration procedure, such as a business licence that requires more time and documents. This then creates an opportunity for bribery (either induced by the officer or offered by the customer/public).

Meanwhile, for a simpler procedure, such as making or renewing a passport, it is seldom to find an officer that offers an informal service. One participant found the existing procedure is

better and quite efficient. Thus, they would refuse if offered an informal service by an officer or anyone around.

-“I didn’t do it when I renewed my passport. I followed the procedure and didn’t see anyone offer it (informal service). Anyway, it was very simple, you just came and brought along the form, already paid at the bank; So, there will not be any corruption. Make a payment at the bank, take the form and receipt. Then just wait for a moment, take photographs, and in 3 days it can be collected. Easy. I even felt that we don’t need to use any insider’s help. The current procedure, bureaucracy, is already easy and correct (the procedure)” (001-F-24-NS-J).

To conclude, the participants believed it is common for many people to find a ‘shortcut’ by accepting or looking for an informal service from an insider to speed up the administration process involved in making their IDs (or other licences/permits/documents). It is common knowledge that for a more (perceived) complicated procedure or bureaucracy, there will be people (either the public or officer or both) who will try to find a ‘shortcut’ (or opportunity) to make or offer a faster process with informal extra payment. However, for more simple procedures or bureaucracy, people find these easy and convenient; thus, there will be fewer or even no informal services.

5.3.2 Common practices in recruitment processes: private companies and government officials

5.3.2.1 Recruitment process for government officials (civil servants)

In the interview, participants were asked for their opinions on the recruitment of government officials. The case presented was as follows:

Case 3 – When Eddy graduated from university, he applied for a job as a public servant in a ministry. For him, this would be an ideal job as it can give him financial security in the future. However, the competition is very stiff, and he 142tilizin that the grades on his university transcript are not that good. What do you think normally happens in the process of recruiting a civil servant? Why?

Working as a civil servant or government official in Indonesia is promising for many reasons. It offers financial security, lifetime health insurance, a pension package, and several other benefits. In high demand but with limited capacities, competition for such posts is high, which may drive some people (such as the parents of the applicant) to ask for 'help' from an insider to improve the chances of being accepted (or even to ensure acceptance). This case also opened some form of opportunity for an insider, usually individuals who have already worked in that institution and have a high position, to offer 'help'. Help in this context refers to an exchange between the applicant (or their parents) and the insider (officer); whereby the insider promises a higher chance of acceptance in return for extra payment from the applicant. Thus, bribery in the recruitment process for civil servants is still perceived to be common.

"Yes, they pursue prosperity and a 'good name'. Because the civil servants are classified as prosperous. Their lives are peaceful (with financial security). Later, during their old age and when they no longer work (pension), they will still get paid, and receive other supporting stuff as well. So, usually (people) it is more to pursue their welfare for life, because the wife (or husband) and children will surely be guaranteed (their welfare)". (003-F-23-NS-J).

However, none of the participants had worked as a government official. Their knowledge mostly derived from what they had heard or knew about friends' or relatives' experience. Only a few knew about the application process to become a government official.

"As far as I know there are many who carry out bribing. To get accepted as a civil servant, it happens. So if, for example, he/she has a 'connection' (referring to a person who has already worked in that institution/department or is called an insider) ...what I know is maybe some people will choose to just use that way (referring to bribe the insider). 'After all, I will earn more than what I spent now' (the applicant's wish). So, there are many people who have that thought. So...because a civil servant has a lifetime guarantee, I mean, they will receive a lifetime salary. So, yes maybe most people will choose that way when they have money (as grease) and connections" (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

“Indeed, there is a term ‘anak titipan’⁵, that’s what I heard, ‘anak-anak titipan’. So, there are insiders ...so (they) get help from those insiders, and finally (he/she-the applicant) can be accepted as a civil servant” (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

Regardless of the commonality of bribing practices in the civil servant recruitment process, few participants responded by adopting a realistic approach. According to them, what the applicants should do is to study hard to increase their chances of being accepted. Additionally, a career as a civil servant should not be assumed to be an ultimate objective as there are many other career options the applicants can pursue. Therefore, they thought it is better for the applicants to have another plan in place should they not be accepted.

“I think he should keep trying and study and find out his weaknesses and try to improve these. If he is weak in one test...it means that he needs to study harder for another test. Usually, there is more than one test” (003-F-23-NS-J).

“This applicant, if he knows that his grades are not that good, and maybe is not the strongest candidate, I think besides the application to be a civil servant, it’s also better if he applies for another job. So, you have a back-up” (001-F-24-NS-J).

From the responses above, it is found that bribing practices are still common behaviours if someone wants to be accepted as a civil servant. Many of the participants reported bribing practices in this case, as well as utilizing personal networks (nepotism) to become successful applicants. In this case, word of mouth was crucial, as several participants only knew about the recruitment process for government officials from their friends or families (social knowledge) rather than from their own experience.

“Yes, it is still happening a lot. Just last month I found...I experienced it that somebody in my family was like that. He/she was like: ‘If you want to send me a package (gift)...just send it’”. (002-F-24-NS-J)

⁵ ‘Anak titipan’ = an applicant that is looked after/helped by an insider who will keep an eye open for the applicant to ensure a smooth selection process and that they are accepted as an employee. Usually the insider’s motivation is to receive a monetary or non-monetary reward from (usually) the parents of the applicant; or just to pay some debt of gratitude to the (parents) applicant.

5.3.2.2 Nepotism and gratification in the recruitment process

In a recruitment process, for public officials or private employees, there are also indications of day-to-day corrupt practices such as nepotism and gratification.

In the interviews, participants were asked for their opinion on the following case:

Case 4 - Soni is working as a recruitment manager. His company is currently looking for a new account manager. A son of his ex-boss has applied for this position. The ex-boss has already sent a package of nice things to Soni's house on two occasions. Do you think this is a coincidence? What do you think will happen?

Almost all participants were aware that the act described in this case was not a coincidence. They believed that when somebody gives or sends gifts or money to someone, there must be a hidden intention or agenda behind the giving. The sender expects there to be an intervention from the manager to increase their chance of being accepted for the job.

"In my opinion, it's not a coincidence. Because the son was applying for a job at the manager's company, wasn't he?! So, I don't think it's a coincidence. Most likely there's another purpose for sending the parcels" (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

"No, that must be to smooth the process to enable his son to get accepted...a bribe" (011-F-24-NS-J).

"I think it is! (still common). Maybe in a more prestigious institution, such as in governmental institution, I think it is still happening" (011-F-24-NS-J).

Gift-giving seems to be a practice that was commonly perceived in this case. Some of the participants suggested he should refuse the gift. For them, refusing the gift should be fine and the right thing to do. They realised that accepting the gift could potentially bias the manager's evaluation of the candidate. However, the act of refusing was still considered impolite by a small number of participants. There appeared to be a cultural barrier driving this act, the refusal of which may cause the sender to feel offended.

When a couple of the participants were asked whether refusing may be a sign of impoliteness, given that the ex-boss had been so helpful in the past, the following comments were made:

“Well maybe (to be impolite)...it’s hard, isn’t it?! See...at the end the problem is we don’t know whether he sincerely sent the package or not. So, is it because he wants to thank him (the manager)? Or just want to give him something (and expect nothing)? Or is it because his son is in the recruitment process? Or something else?” (001-F-24-NS-J).

“It’s not good (the act of rejection). If I were him, I’d better accept it. In my opinion, better to accept it. Yeah, in the future it is up to him (the manager) what the decision is. If he (the manager) can be objective that’s fine. If for example, he (the applicant) is better than the others, it’s worth it. So, it’s just like a present, a bonus. But if he (the applicant) is not so (good)...that’s okay. Maybe there is another candidate who is better. And he can just thank him for this one (gift). We should not reject a fortune (the gift)” (012-F-24-NS-J).

A few participants hesitated when deciding whether the gift should be rejected or accepted. They needed some time to think carefully in order to make a wise decision. This is because for many people it is impolite to refuse a gift, especially when it comes from someone who you should respect (referring to the ex-boss).

The participants felt that if the manager decided to refuse the gift, this could be for several reasons. For instance, the manager may want to maintain his integrity and professionalism in performing his job. One participant thought the manager may be afraid of getting caught by another authority in the company, which could damage his reputation.

-“Firstly, maybe it’s from himself...he is an honest person, doesn’t want to ‘play dirty’. Then, secondly, maybe the manager is loyal to his company, so he doesn’t want to recruit the wrong person because the company could get an employee that may not be what was required” (008-M-23-NS-NJ).

“Maybe because he is afraid...if, for example, in his company, if he gets caught only because of this gift, his reputation could be in danger or something else (other negative consequences for him)” (013-F-22-NS-NJ).

At this point, the participants were clearly aware that the act of gift-giving was not always a sincere one. Tracing the possible circumstances involved, people should be aware that there may be a hidden purpose behind the act of gift-giving. However, a cultural barrier remains in place that will make it hard for some people to reject the gift as it would offend the sender; especially if the sender is someone he or she respects.

5.3.3 Common practices in specific situations: academic cheating

The specific situation of academic cheating is considered a relevant picture of what commonly happens in the young adults' world. According to a study, there is a tendency for the act of academic cheating to be extended to unethical behaviour after graduation (Park, Park and Jang, 2013). At the time Study 1 was carried out, many young adults were still pursuing a university degree which makes the case of academic cheating is relevant to be asked to them. Thus, this case was added to the interview questions. It assumes that when an individual commits a form of academic cheating, he/she ignores the ethical issues involved. Therefore, providing an example of an academic situation is essential in exploring whether the experience of (potentially) corrupt behaviour (cheating) has already begun during their studies. As such, factors internal to the individual when completing their task are scrutinised, such as honesty, a sense of responsibility, and discipline.

In the interview, the participants were asked for their opinion on a case involving a form of academic cheating which is copying and/or buying an assignment, as follows:

Case 5 - Amy was worried about an assignment in a module. As the deadline drew closer, it seemed that she could not get the assignment done as she found it difficult. The thought came into her mind to copy a friend's assignment or even buy it. Does this still commonly happen nowadays? Why do you think this?

Almost all the participants admitted that the practice still commonly happens. Some of their responses were as follows:

“There are a lot! And it happens not only in private (universities) but also in the public ones. I know this from a few of my friends that study in that public (university). There are many... there is even a whole class.... For a final paper.....a few people even bought it”(hire someone to write up the whole paper) (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

“There are still many. Because what they firstly thought is that the assignment is difficult, and they just didn’t prepare it earlier. And they are also afraid, afraid to fail” (010-F-24-NS-J).

Some of the participants expressed their disagreement with the practice and refused it. To them, it is a source of shame and they are proud to have or show their own work. They believe that creating their own work will give them advantages in their future career.

“In my campus, at least in our department, that hasn’t happened in my batch. Because we were ashamed of each other. It is better....if you can’t do it, just admit it. (It’s better) than doing that (copying another student’s assignment). Later, when they graduated; for example, got the certificate, then applied for a job, and then when you were asked to do or perform something according to your certificate, can you do that? If you can’t, then what are you going to do?” (001-F-24-NS-J).

“I just did my best to answer (assignment), I don’t want to copy....because....if I get a good mark, then it is because of my own effort. There are people who think: ‘it is not right (to do it), what is the good mark for if it’s not from my own work’. I think my own thought (answer) is better.... and better than copying (the answer) from the internet. I used to think that way.” (004-M-24-NS-NJ).

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According to the participants, many people (they know) still engage in this practice for various reasons, such as individual characteristics (e.g., laziness, lack of confidence) or practicality (e.g., not having enough time). In the case of buying an assignment, the same reasons are applied. There are parties that see an “opportunity” to fill the demand by selling the assignment. Another perspective in the case of buying an assignment was to justify it in terms of practicality in that they were too busy to work. They tried to make it seem reasonable to copy or buy an assignment as it was a mutual interaction between themselves and the provider/seller. For example, those who are engaging in part time study while at the same time being very busy with their full-time job just do not have enough time to do the assignments. Thus, with the monetary resources they have, they can ask for help from someone who can provide ‘the service’ to meet the demand.

"In my campus, sometimes....because I am taking the afternoon batch which mostly consists of those who are in employment (have a full time job), they think that: 'I just want to pursue the title (of the degree) so I can get promoted. Quickly graduate, so that I can make my parents proud (of me)'. And, on average, those who I meet in the class (at the afternoon batch), they choose based on their position (at work) to get promoted rather than to seek knowledge (from studying)" (003-F-23-NS-J).

The type of academic cheating found in the interviews extends beyond copying and buying assignments. It also encompasses a more typical form of academic cheating, which is cheating in exams.

"If you ask me...all (copying others' assignments) is still a lot. I can also find on my campus somebody that sells something like that (assignment). And there are also those who cheat in exams...". (003-F-23-NS-J)

From the interviews, it was apparent that the control system is an important factor in preventing cheating. Control (e.g., in the form of punishment) could help to reduce academic cheating (e.g., in exams, plagiarism) as the risks were perceived to be too high. It has been reported by the participants who were studying in university/school that had a strong control system, such as a strict punishment for cheating in exams. For example, in a university, if someone is found cheating in an exam or committed plagiarism in their thesis, they must be prepared to be expelled from the institution.

"Actually, this punishment is correct (expel from university those who were caught cheating an exam). Because of the strict punishment, many people are afraid to cheat...although there are still a few (students) who want to test their luck (try to cheat)" (007-F-18-S-NJJ).

"But thank God my campus is not like that. I mean in my campus...there is a tool to check if the assignment is not original (a copy). It will be considered plagiarism. So, it's better for us to understand the modules instead of lying and not understanding anything" (012-F-24-NS-J).

Regarding the act of reporting any cheating practices, not everyone was enthusiastic about reporting instances where they witnessed or found someone selling assignments. If the act did not involve them personally, they would not bother to tell the authorities (respective office in the campus) about it. They agreed that it can be reported, however, they did not want to interfere in other people's business, unless they were involved in a problem with the related party. There was also a sound of pessimistic on the action that the authorities would take to follow-up the case.

"For me, it's enough for me just to know, because actually I think they (lecturers) have already known (about the practice) that they, the buyers (of an assignment), exist. And during the supervising time, exam, they may also have known that it is not the students' work, they just bought it. Thus, so far, even though I know, it is enough to just know. (I) Do not dare to take any action" (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

"I don't think so. For me personally, if for example I was offered this kind of service (to buy an assignment), I would not report it to the authority of the campus. Because this is how this person earns some money, and this is actually not my business. So, I also do not want because of my report for this person to be expelled (from the university)" (007-F-18-S-NJJ).

From the above data, it is found that academic cheating is conceded to be a common behaviour, particularly among students. Various reasons drive people to commit one form (or more) of academic cheating. There is a tendency that the act could be extended to the student's future activities or workplace (Park, Park and Jang, 2013). Therefore, it is considered crucial to give attention to this act.

As one the grand themes, some typical practices were identified as common corrupt practices in everyday activities. The above cases have showed some corrupt practices in public services, recruitment process, and specific situation in academic cheating. Those types are found to be common or normally occurred when people dealing with those services. Following are the material or data found from the interviews that feed into the next theme, which is the normality of those practices. It is also supported with the raw data taken from the interviews that feed into the theme.

5.4 Perceived common practices of the everyday forms of corruption

As mentioned in earlier chapter, norms can influence people’s behaviour. In addition to their internal standards, people’s behaviour is also influenced by social standards. Table 5-2 below shows the data on how many times the participants mentioned or interpreted those practices above as common. It shows the number of sources and references found from the interviews.

Table 5 - 2: Perceived common practices of everyday corrupt practices

Basic themes	<i>Number of sources and references</i>	Sub-theme	<i>Number of sources and references</i>	Grand Theme
Common academic cheating behaviours among students (includes exam cheating, copying assignments).	12 (13)	Perceived common behaviour in society	12 (58)	Normality of everyday corrupt practices
Common bribing behaviours (e.g., to avoid a traffic ticket, to get accepted for a job, to speed up an administration process).	11 (30)			
Common gift giving behaviours to smooth someone’s business (included in the recruitment process)	5 (7)			
Common behaviours involved in assessing personal or parents’ networks or familial relation to acquire a personal goal (particularly in the recruitment process for a civil servant).	6 (7)			

In this research, it is found that some people justify doing what they know is wrong and make the actions seem reasonable. If everyone is doing it, it must be a sensible thing to do.

“From the above phenomena, it seems that most of the things we consider as negative acts....(but) because it happens very often in society, then...it becomes normal; and no longer viewed as something negative. I think that’s the similarities (between all cases presented to the participants). So, in the end, the mistakes that are too common to be done by the people here, because so many (people) do it, there’s a justification for doing it. So, it is like: ‘I don’t do wrong’.... It is not wrong anymore. It is like that everywhere” (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

Common behaviours were found in all cases presented in Study 1. The participants agreed that many people prefer taking a shortcut by giving some money to the officer to avoid a traffic ticket. It was also felt to be common for people to give gifts to smooth their business. Participants agreed that using or assessing their personal networks in a recruitment process is also something many people do. Additionally, it is common to see some students cheating in exams or copying their friends’ assignments.

People learn about typical patterns of behaviour in society from descriptive norms, what many people usually do. These dictates how most people act in a certain context. In this case, the participants reported that the type of corrupt practices discussed continue to take place.

As well as descriptive norms, injunctive norms also a part of social norms. Both reflect more on external rules regarding how to behave (Kallgren, Reno and Cialdini, 2000). Injunctive norms, however, refer to prescriptive rules of behaviour that people ought or ought not to engage in. Sometimes descriptive and injunctive norms work in a contradictory manner, as shown by the findings in this study. Whereas descriptive norms have the ability to impel people to do or perform or imitate what they perceive as the typical behaviour of others, injunctive norms have the opposite effect.

A few participants showed their disagreement with common behaviours by referring to negative characteristics when describing acts of corruption. This can be seen in the words used in their responses, such as ‘tacky’, ‘stealing’, or ‘dirty’. Using such negative terms associates the corrupt behaviour with the meaning of the words. Such negative behaviours

are therefore constructed as having a bad impact and should therefore not be accepted in the community. Another participant also tried to influence peers to follow the rules.

“But well then I say it’s corny if his parents use a signal by sending a package. ‘Please accept my son, ok’. Oh please, ...these days...so tacky” (001-F-24-NS-J).

-“To others, perhaps the best thing I can do...perhaps, for example, if a friend might get a (traffic) ticket, I will tell him/her: ‘If you may get a traffic ticket, better just accept it (if you get caught breaking a traffic law). After all, it is just to go to court. Later, the money is for the people which is better than you bribe the officer. Maybe small talks (with friends) can be influential.” (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

The above responses were mentioned by participants as young adults to show their disagreement with small-scale corruption. However, the attitude was sometimes portrayed as different for the older cohort, such as their parents.

“Because usually the child will tell the parents, ‘Mom, I am applying for work in here and there, and this is the boss’. Then the parents will say: ‘Oh your dad knows someone who works there.... Ok, later we can... try to send something. Who knows, you can pass the test’. That is what I think...” (003-F-23-NS-J).

“I don’t think it is young people...Perhaps those who are older than me, I guess. It seems that there are a lot of parents (older people) like that.... ‘Oh, come on, my friend also did like this’ (suggested by older people to following what many people have done, even if it is wrong)”. (002-F-24-NS-J).

From their responses, it can be seen that sometimes older people are perceived as following what has become customary in society. This implies that, in terms of injunctive norms, it cannot be assumed that people (who are important to the participants, such as parents, peers, best friends, etc.) in society disapprove of small-scale corrupt practices. In this context, it is found that some officials, who are known as the authority, also shows corrupt behaviour (e.g., asking for some amount of money for someone to avoid a fine). It could then also make injunctive norms does not act as an efficient prescription for people to avoid or prevent their behaviour from corruption. This issue will be discussed later in Chapter 8.

It is proven by the finding that shows some people from the older cohort even allowed or advised young adults to take part in such practices. Parents, relatives, and even in some cases the officials, suggest that giving gifts, ask special access from family or relatives, or pay for extra money, are the common way to settle things. Thus, injunctive norms may seem irrelevant to young adults.

5.5 Factors influence people to comply in everyday corrupt practices

In this section, the findings on reasons why corrupt behaviours on everyday practices have become common are presented. The themes and sub-themes are listed in Table 5-3.

Table 5 - 3: Reasons for the normality of everyday corrupt practices

Basic themes	<i>Number of sources and references</i>	Sub-themes	<i>Number of sources and references</i>	Grand Themes
		Bureaucracy (complicated administration process)	13 (36)	Factors that influence the normality of everyday corrupt practices
		Personal factors (e.g., lazy, selfish)	6 (6)	
Lack of knowledge	5 (12)	Habits and cultured	5 (9)	
Learning from their social environment	7 (10)			
		Inducement from an insider/official	3 (5)	

From the interview, it is found factors that influence the normality of day-to-day corrupt practices are the bureaucracy, habits (cultured), personal factors, and inducement from insider (the officer). Bureaucracy in some public services has resulted in an uncomfortable experience for the public. This can be attributed to unclear information and an intricate and inefficient process that can often be time-consuming. This situation has led some people try and find alternative or informal practices that can offer or give them a more comfortable and quicker result. According to some participants, this situation is made worse by insiders (usually officials) who offer or suggest an informal practice to the public (by giving them a monetary benefit that is not in the official rules).

“Because, if you choose to settle it in court, it usually takes time. The process is really long. So, usually, this person thinks to give ‘uang damai⁶’”. (005-M-23-NS-NJ)

“To be honest, if we go through a formal process, for example through formal procedures, the process is long. It could take weeks, it cannot even (guarantee) the permits will be ready. But I am also surprised....if we pay (offer) more (or extra money), not only is the process faster, the results will also come out quickly. It seems everything is facilitated.” (007-F-18-S-NJdJ)

“If, for example, I took the shortcut to get my e-ID (electronic national identity card), it was because I was not comfortable with the facilities provided by the government. Maybe if it was improved; maybe if the system was not made as complicated as the current process; maybe I wouldn’t be tempted to do that. So, apart from the moral side of this act, there should not open an opportunity (for a shortcut).” (011-F-24-NS-J)

Personal factors also influence the normality of everyday corrupt practices (including academic cheating). This includes issues relating to people's character, such as laziness and selfishness (spoiled people).

“(in the case of academic cheating)...on the other side, there was more misuse by young people who were lazy but had money...so it makes graduates that are not credible, that might cause problems later on... when they apply for a job..(they) rely more on their parents, rely more on other material things. I feel that it is really bad. Shame on you”. (002-F-24-NS-J)

Regarding public services, participants believed that people generally thought these were time consuming, unclear, and intricate administration processes that have led some to try to find a way to shorten them. They thus become result oriented and do not care about any consequences as long as they achieve their goals. Under such circumstances, they do not see it as wrong conduct as they think it is a mutual condition.

⁶ Uang damai = Offering or giving money to an officer to settle the problem on the street right away.

“Mostly, people prefer the instant methods. (They) like the shortcut. If there are shortcuts, why look for formal methods/procedures?” (005-M-23-NS-NJ)

...There are some people who are: ‘It’s no problem doing this (small-bribe), the important thing is I am not detrimental. I am not harming.... because it’s mutual’. That’s the practical purpose (of the bribe)”. (004-M-24-NS-NJ)

According to the participants, another factor that has normalised everyday corrupt practices are habits that have become culturally patterned. As repeated and imitated actions, they have become a form of social knowledge on the (informal) practices people around them engage in.

“...In that case, that means the practice has been entrenched; it has been rooted in the community. Thus, it is considered normal. But it still harms the country when actually the money from the (traffic) ticket should go to the country’s treasury fund, but instead it went into somebody’s private pocket, right?!”. (004-M-24-NS-NJ)

–“Besides economic factors, maybe he follows what has become (social) habits anyway... For example, there are certain habits in a company, so, without any economic reasons, he automatically follows the habits. Because that is what becomes accustomed in that place. So, if he is different from others, he would think: ‘how come I am different...by myself...’. So yeah, (he decided to) just follow it (the custom in his company)”. (011-F-24-NS-J)

People also learn how to act effectively from their environment. They copy or imitate similar acts to solve similar problems. This may be due to a lack of knowledge.

“Yes, sure (people try to bribe an officer to avoid a traffic ticket because they are copying others). It is (because) word-of-mouth too. For example, if someone has tried once and it worked. Surely the others will try the same as well. So, that is the consequence.” (012-F-24-NS-J).

Inducement from insiders or officials has also become significant. As mentioned earlier, this is because an opportunity has become available to fulfil the demands of individuals (particularly the haves) who are looking for a shorter and quicker process.

“The guilty one was the officer. Because most of the time, the visitors came to an office/department...they wanted to ask...‘Sir, how to make this permit? How is the process?’ (because) they did not know the process, let alone have an intention in that direction (bribe). But it seems like the insider gave him this option (to give extra money). Thus, this person who had a good intention at first (to follow procedures), and then because he was offered by an insider (to take a shortcut)...finally both of them became involved in this ‘dirty play’.” (008-M-23-NS-NJ).

“Indeed, there is a term ‘anak titipan’⁷, that’s what I heard, ‘anak-anak titipan’. So, there are insiders ...so (they) get help from those insiders, finally (he/she-the applicant) can become a civil servant” (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

The factors discussed, including internal and external sources, have been reported as the reasons why some people follow day-to-day corrupt practices. Irrespective of whether people were aware that the behaviours can be categorised as small-scale corrupt practices, they tried to justify them using the reasons discussed to make them acceptable. Following is the description of the findings that explain the role of values in prohibiting people from everyday forms of corruption.

5.6 Factors that make people avoid corruption

Although the acts mentioned above were identified as common in the cases provided, there were individuals who reportedly resist following these practices. They chose to refuse to contribute to those acts whereas others did not see it as a (potential) problem.

“Hmm...I can’t say it for everyone, but I think...yes, I often meet friends who do that...(admit their mistakes). If they did wrong, they admit it. In any case. Most likely...they usually admit the mistakes. Ok, apologize, then solve the problem. If it can’t be solved, at the very least admit the mistake, make an apology, do not be full of pride.... then avoid.... or even not admitting the mistakes” (001-F-24-NS-J).

⁷ ‘Anak titipan’ = an applicant that is looked after/helped by an insider who will keep an eye out for the applicant to ensure a smooth selection process and that they are accepted as an employee. Usually the insider’s motivation is to receive a monetary or non-monetary reward from (usually) the parents of the applicant; or simply to pay some debt of gratitude to the (parents) applicant.

Those who refuse believe that, by showing their integrity, they can promise a better tomorrow for the country. They believe that if more people behave with integrity, the system can be improved accordingly. For example, a better service will be provided in the administration process in the public sector (in terms of better quality, affordable price, and shorter time).

“There is....actually, I am one of those people, ‘just give me the ticket, sir’. Because...I mean.... to me personally I know where the money will go (will be allocated) if I got ticketed. Because I think it is going to be more useful if the money goes to things that it should be spent on than...you know...where it (the money) will go if, for example, I accepted the negotiation (bribing)” (006-F-24-NS-NJ).

According to the participants, perceived control and a reporting system are among the factors that may influence the prevalence of everyday corrupt practices. A controlling system (including sanctions and punishment) created in the workplace or university by the institution, as well as supervision from the leaders, is crucial in making corrupt practices less tempting. Control was found to be one of the factors that can influence people when deciding whether to commit any illicit behaviours. When less control is perceived, it may create an opportunity for any party to induce people to engage in corrupt acts. The interview responses suggest that control by an authority can work well as a means to make people avoid any corrupt acts.

For example, sanctions and punishment can be inflicted on corruptors. Several participants felt that the punishment given to the perpetrators of corruption was not as severe as the impact of their crime. They felt it should be more severe and create a deterrent effect to demonstrate the seriousness of the government in eradicating corruption.

“I think the solution should be, the first is that the punishment for the corruptor should be more severe. So, we (should) emphasise the deterrent effect. For example, the death penalty. At least people would think many times before they become involved in corruption. So, that’s first, the punishment or the deterrent effect...whether it is capital punishment or make them (corruptors) poor. The main thing is it should have a high

deterrent effect. Secondly, the level of controlling should be greater". (004-M-24-NS-NJ)

"In my campus, if someone get caught for cheating (in exams), he or she would be expelled straight away (outcome)" (007-F-18-S-NJJ).

"There are actually some officers (policemen) who did not want to accept (the bribes). (This condition) usually occurred because it was under supervision (control). If there was a joint raid from headquarters (supervised by the superiors), you cannot ask for 'a deal'". (003-F-23-NS-J)

The following table shows the reasons people avoiding the everyday corrupt practices, according to the participants. For the detail findings of values in particular, it is presented in the next part.

Table 5 - 4: Factors that make people avoid corruption

Basic themes	Number of sources and references	Sub-themes	Number of sources and references	Grand Themes
		Risk and sanctions	9 (21)	Tendency to avoid corrupt practices
		Reporting and controlling system to prevent everyday corrupt practices	8 (13)	
		Leaders	1 (1)	
		Moral conduct and values	See Table 5-5	

5.6.1 The role of values in everyday corrupt practices

Besides the above factors mentioned that make people to be resistance in corruption, it is also found that participants believed values play an important role in this matter. They believed these could provide a barrier to help people avoid small-scale corrupt practices.

Table 5 - 5: Values as barriers to everyday corrupt practices

Basic themes	Number of sources and references	Sub-themes	Number of sources and references	Grand Themes
		Honesty	9 (20)	Values play an important role in preventing people from corruption
Awareness of moral conduct	6 (15)	Prosocial behaviour		
Prosocial	2 (2)			
		Hard work	3 (3)	
		Discipline	4 (4)	
		Follow the rules / procedures	11 (22)	
Admit mistakes	4 (7)	Take responsibility	6 (9)	
Respect the system or other people	3 (3)			
Shame	2 (4)			

The above Table 5-5 presents the values that, according to the participants, can prevent people from engaging in everyday corruption. Among the values are honesty, prosocial, hard work, discipline, and responsibility.

"....If, for example, if we agreed to the officer's offer....'I can provide (you) a quicker process but you have to pay this much, or maybe (send) to my account... this much(of money)'. It means that we supported the bureaucracy that is already damaged. If, for example, it keeps on happening, it means they take advantage of the long queue. So, the long queue has been taken advantage of to obtain more income from corruption... it is very bad, right?!" (002-F-24-NS-J).

According to the participants, those individuals who do not want to contribute to everyday corrupt practices wish to maintain their integrity. Admitting their mistakes (when they do wrong), being honest, responsible, disciplined, and trustworthy are among the values held by those who resist everyday forms of corruption.

"Yeah, because he feels guilty, he is aware of his surroundings and the traffic law, and he may realise there is a culture of corruption that is very bad in Indonesia. So,

he chooses not to contribute. It is better just to follow the procedure, even though it takes time” (002-F-24-NS-J).

Of all these values, honesty is the fundamental principle that impels people to refuse illicit behaviour. Almost all participants agree that it is a critical factor and extremely relevant in hindering people from behaving corruptly.

“The value of honesty. That is the first. Honest. And they (refer to people who refuse to bribe) must be honest since they are afraid of sin, from a religious view, they are afraid of sin. It is honesty. It is more....fundamental, that is why they reject the illicit behaviour” (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

Other common threads of the projective cases reported by participants were related to discipline, sense of responsibility, and trustworthiness. To respect laws, as well as other people, people must follow the rules and should bear the consequences of their acts.

“If the young man is wrong, he needs to be ticketed, right. He must be responsible for his action” (007-F-18-S-NJJ).

“Maybe a guilty feeling, so he thinks that if he is wrong, just surrender, do not have to deny this with a thousand reasons. Maybe the values of....so it is more toward being responsible for his own mistakes” (007-F-18-S-NJJ).

“Values of self, that he cannot be bribed. To show that he is not an easy person. Then he also respects certain systems. What else? Trustworthiness. It’s more like he works for the company and he is loyal to the company without taking any bribe. Yeah, honesty” (002-F-24-NS-J).

“Maybe they appreciate hard work. They appreciate their own work. (They) believe that: ‘Ok, I can do this, without anyone’s help, and if I need help, then it should be like...ethical and polite’”. (002-F-24-NS-J).

Prosocial quality was also included as a factor that makes people refuse corrupt practices because of their unfairness. Prosocial behaviour refers to any act that benefits other people (de Groot and Steg, 2009). This behaviour comprises a normative basis on which to act and

consider the right or wrong of a practice for the good of other people in the community. Most of the time, acting prosocially entails no direct individual benefits. However, other people may benefit from it. Individuals with a strong selfish and competitive orientation will be less likely to show zero tolerance to corrupt behaviours. It is shown by the following comment from a participant:

“From this young generation, we instil the values of how to behave honestly. The awareness. Because if we are corrupt, it is not only us who lose but also other people around us. It’s wider. In the end, corruption brings a domino effect” (005-M-23-NS-NJ).

5.7 Other findings

5.7.1 Understanding the concept of corruption

Most of the participants agreed that the word ‘corruption’ could represent the situation in the cases provided. They understood that corruption happens when there is an abuse of power. Someone takes something (mostly monetary) that is not his/her rights for his own or group’s benefit, which, sooner or later, can bring harm or loss to the institution or society. However, there is an indication of the lack of understanding about corruption. For example, few of the participants stated that corruption is merely money related. When a case involves a payment of some amount of money to an official, then it can be included as corruption, which they called it as a bribery.

“That is actually not a corruption, but it is bribery....it must be separated between corruption and bribery. That’s different. In this case, it means that the event or the actor, as shown, has already been entrenched. It has been rooted in society. Thus, it is considered a common practice”. (004-M-24-NS-NJ).

“Corrupt is...overall it is taking something that is not ours by right and it will cause loss to others, that’s corrupt. Well, in the first case (traffic ticket), can it be called corruption? I don’t think it is corruption. It depends on each case”. (004-M-24-NS-NJ)

For another case of academic cheating, according to one of them, academic cheating should not be placed in the context of corruption as it does not violate any law. The setting is different from what they know about typical corrupt acts.

“Hmmm...corruption?! Hmm...maybe if it is for the case of traffic ticket, (national) identity card, driving licence, etcetera, I still agree to call it corruption. But if it is only for paying some home-works...something like that, I don’t think it is. I don’t see their correlation with corruption” (11-F-24-NS-J).

It seems that the participants were not fully agree that the common practices in their daily life activities as mentioned above, can be included as everyday forms of corruption. They found that some of the practices are obviously included as corruption, such as bribery. It is because it involves some amount of money that being given to an official. However, some of them found that some other practices such as gift giving, academic cheating, may not be included as corruption.

“It can be considered as corruption as well. But the small-scale (corrupt acts) have already been part of everyday life. So, people are not surprised anymore. But if, for example, the grand corruption that involves trillions...billions (of money) that is what makes people shocked and feel harmed” (010-F-24-NS-J).

Based on this finding, providing the young adults with an understanding on corruption, especially small-scale corruption can be significant. Even though some of them agreed that everyday forms of corruption supposed to be avoided, however, there were still some other young adults who have not had similar understanding. To have the knowledge on the potential danger of everyday forms of corruption in the long run, and the benefits of less corruption in their society to their own lives, can also be significant. Thus, the research found an insight on one of anti-corruption strategies that may still be continuously applied is educational approach with some techniques that more applicable and suitable for young people, for example a discussion type, as expressed by this participant:

“I personally like to have discussions. Discuss with people at the same level. I am very basic to know about corruption. For example, what is corruption, why it happens, there should be lots of discussions among people like us and share experiences and try to find

solutions together. From that point, (we) also need to pay attention to the smallest scale of corruption and what can we do to prevent it". (002-F-24-NS-J)

5.7.1.1 Motivation to change

From the interviews, it is also found that there was a sign of their motivation to change. The young adults seem more critical and open to understand that everyday forms of corruption are equally damaging like grand corruption. They are aware on their role as agent of change that can influence other people.

"I think it goes back to our selves. Be an honest person, obey the rules. Later if we are obedient to the rules and become an honest person, we will influence our children, perhaps to our friends...and it will be contagious". (009-M-22-S-NJ).

The spirit of passing through the positive environment and pay forward and their positive thoughts open possibilities to spread anti-corruption values to young adults. These signs could be utilised as means to targeting their behaviour change.

"Hmm...I can't say it for everyone, but I think...yes, I often meet friends who do that...(admit their mistakes). If they did wrong, they admit it. In any case. Most likely...they usually admit the mistakes. Ok, apologize, then solve the problem. If it can't be solved, at the very least admit the mistake, make an apology, do not be full of pride.... then avoid.... or even not admitting the mistakes" (001-F-24-NS-J).

The young adults are aware that the fight against corruption can take time as it has already been entrenched. The need to cut off the generation to escalate a quicker change has been expressed by them. Moreover, in order to change their behaviour or develop good values they need support from their environment. Togetherness has become something that is important in their life that could be such as with family or friends. The facts provide insight on collective approach that could be proposed as initiative to anti-corruption campaign.

"Actually...moral values are formed by the environment. So, if the environment doesn't support that moral values, it's still difficult. So, it is necessary....to eradicate. A culture like corruption, it takes a long time. Because the generation has to be cut if we want it quickly (changed). If not, that culture is going to be keep inherited" (008-M-23-NS-NJ)

“To me, I can say that I can’t live alone. I really like socializing, social life is very important to me. Friends are very important to me. So, family, friends, people around me are very important to me. It’s really important to have these people around me”
(006-F-24-NS-NJ)

5.7.2 Cultural-perspective of corruption

There are some practices in everyday forms of corruption that cannot be considered black or white. In this study, cultural perspective can be found in contexts such as gratification and nepotism. This perspective refers to term of cultural relativism. A culture, that is defined as particular ways of life (Raymond Williams), can lead to something that regarded as corrupt practices in one culture might not be regarded as corruption in another culture. It is known as cultural relativism (Larmour, 2012). Some of the participants expressed that practices of gratification and nepotism were conducted to show gratitude to someone who has already done you a significant favour or has merit against oneself. Thus, it may not be included as corruption. However, it can be regarded as corruption in another place.

The ideas of culture to understand people understanding on what included as corrupt practices seems to be useful (Larmour, 2012). Some participants showed some hesitation when asked about the case of gift giving, and they were reluctant to say whether the manager should refuse or accept the package.

“How is it?... It is tricky, isn’t it? Personally, I feel it is impolite. Moreover, he had helped me before. But yeah... I’m confused” (011-F-24-NS-J).

In this case, cultural relativism is contrasting with universal values or ethics in anti-corruption movement that declared by the international community and the Transparency International (Larmour, 2012; Rothstein and Torsello, 2013). The term gratification is sometimes problematic. On the one hand, a local tradition considers gift-giving to show gratitude or respect to be a common practice. However, according to anti-corruption law, the practice is not allowed and can be construed as bribery (Larmour, 2012), especially if it involves government officials. Ackerman and Palifka (2016) explained that giving can in some way

influence the decision making of the receiver, even though the sender does not have any intention of asking for something in return (at that time).

“Corrupt is... overall is taking something that is not ours by right and it will cause a loss to others, that’s corrupt. Well, in the first case (traffic ticket), can it be called corrupt? I don’t think it’s corrupt. It depends on each case. In the second case, the issue in licencing, if (I) working for my own company. I give a cake to you: ‘Madam, this is to express my gratitude to you’, I said that to you. So, is it corruption? I don’t think so (004-M-24-NS-NJ)

Public understanding of gratification and nepotism should be assessed carefully. Referring to this finding, understanding how different people weigh corruption differently can be useful to the anti-corruption initiators. They may need to adapt to this culture on how people decide to behave differently. Nevertheless, challenging the culture that has rooted cannot be done easily. The anti-corruption initiator should assess the methods that provide the opportunity for delivering anti-corruption campaign.

5.8 Summary

The chapter has described the findings and analysis of Study 1. The study assessed the understanding of young adults on everyday corrupt practices around them, including the types that are commonly done. It also has assessed the perceived norms guiding common behaviour when facing or dealing with everyday life experiences, such as in public services, recruitment processes, and specific situations such as academic cheating.

The cases provided in the interview questions were confirmed by the participants to be prevalent practices in Indonesia. These everyday forms of corruption are aligned with those identified in the literature, namely bribery, gratification, and nepotism. Factors that influence the normality of such practices were also identified such as bureaucracy, habits and culture, and the inducement from insiders.

The study also found the factors that make people avoid or refuse to small-scale corrupt acts. Early evidence was found that values play important role in inhibiting people from engaging

in corrupt practices. Values can make people to be resistant from corruption. However, the important role of values is a preliminary finding, that will be tested in further study.

Based on the analysis, several additional findings also emerged. These include the general understanding of young adults to everyday corruption. The findings suggest that the young adults have spirit to change, however, their knowledge and understanding on everyday forms of corruption need to be enriched. They also need to be empowered to stand on their feet to stay against corruption, as older people around them sometimes still influence them to comply to the corrupt practices. It is because many people think it is common behaviour, thus everybody does it without any fear. There are also some insights found for building the intervention model that may fit the need of the target audience (young adults), such as campaigning for positive norms and education.

Another finding suggests issues relating to cultural issue. It suggests that paying attention to the cultural perspectives on how people weigh corrupt practices differently will be useful to the anti-corruption initiators in order to assess the methods that can help to challenge the common corrupt practices.

The role of values, norms and tendency to corrupt behaviour is explored using a quantitative approach in the next Study 2. It is to provide further evidence on the relationship between norms and tendency to corrupt behaviour, as well as the role of values in preventing people from engaging in corrupt behaviour. Some insights found in Study 1 can also be addressed in Study 3 (Chapter 7) when developing the proposed concepts for anti-corruption campaign. The next chapter will describe and analyse the findings of Study 2 on testing the model.

CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: STUDY 2 – TESTING THE MODEL

6.0 Introduction

The chapter discusses the findings arising from the data analysis of the survey (Study 2). Primarily, it aims to test the behaviour model's ability to build barriers to prevent everyday forms of corruption. In particular, it is to examine whether a value system can be built as a barrier to corrupt acts. It is also to test whether the model can predict people behaviour towards everyday forms of corruption.

It commences with a presentation of demographic profiles of the respondents, who were young adults in Indonesia. It is followed by a description of data preparation. The chapter details the process of scale refinement in this quantitative study that includes the EFA and CFA process. It continues with hypotheses testing to the proposed behaviour model to address the research question of the study. The data was analysed using Statistic Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 25. It is followed by discussion and implications, as well as limitations of the study. The chapter ends with a summary of the quantitative study.

6.1 Demographic profiles of the survey respondents

Respondents' characteristics regarding their gender, age, marital status, occupation, and monthly expenditure are presented in table 6-1. Overall, the majority of respondents were female (66.6%), and the remaining respondents were male (33.4%). Their age was mainly between 18 – 20 years old (63.9%), followed by the group of 21 – 23 years old (23.5%), and the remaining group was between 24 – 27 years old (12.6%).

Most of the respondents were single-never being married (97.7%), and only 2.2% were married. Many of them were students (82.1%). It is because the distribution of the questionnaires was centralised at several universities, as it was considered as strategic places to recruit young adults as respondents. The respondents mainly had monthly expenses between one to three million Indonesian Rupiah (58.8%), circa GBP 55 – 166⁸. It is followed

⁸ When this chapter was written (in 2020), the exchange rate of GBP 1 is IDR 18.085.

by those who spent less than one million Rupiah (22.7%), between three to five million Rupiah (12.3%), between five to seven million Rupiah (3.8%), and the remaining spent between seven to ten million Rupiah (0.4%) per month.

There were even those who spent more than 10 million Rupiah in a month (1.4%). From table 6-1, it can be seen that those who spent more than 10 million Rupiah in a month (which is considered high compared to the rest of the respondents in the group) were mainly students (7 persons), and one person was not in any employment. It consists of four of the students who lived in the *Bodetabek* area, and three of them lived abroad. *Bodetabek* is a shortcut of four neighbouring cities to Jakarta (the capital of Indonesia); they are Bogor, Depok, Tangerang, and Bekasi. Meanwhile, for the students who lived abroad, it was understandable if their living cost was high. It is because of the different standards and exchange rates of their living costs between the country they lived in and Indonesia.

Table 6 - 1: Respondents' demographic information

Information	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	185	33.4	33.4
	Female	369	66.6	100.0
	Total	554	100.0	
Age	18 – 20 years old	354	63.9	63.9
	21 – 23 years old	130	23.5	87.4
	24 – 27 years old	70	12.6	100.0
	Total	554	100.0	
Marital status	Single	541	97.7	97.7
	Married	12	2.2	99.8
	Missing	1	0.2	100.0
	Total	554	100.0	
Occupation	Full-time employee	37	6.7	6.7
	Part-time employee	29	5.2	11.9
	Entrepreneur	11	2.0	13.9
	Student	455	82.1	96.0
	Housewives	1	0.2	96.2
	Not in any employment	19	3.4	99.6
	Missing	2	0.4	100.0
	Total	554	100.0	

<https://www.exchangerates.org.uk/GBP-IDR-exchange-rate-history.html> (15/10/19)

Monthly expenditure	< IDR 1 million	126	22.7	22.7
	IDR 1 million - < 3 million	326	58.8	81.5
	IDR 3 million - < 5 million	68	12.3	93.8
	IDR 5 million - < 7 million	21	3.8	97.6
	IDR 7 million - < 10 million	2	0.4	98.0
	≥ IDR 10 million	8	1.4	99.4
	Missing	3	0.5	100.0
	Total	554	100.0	

Table 6-2 presents the respondents' information regarding their educational background (the last degree completed), city of residence, and experience of living abroad. The majority of the respondents were high school graduates (78.7%). It is followed by a completed undergraduate degree (17.3%), and diploma/college degree and post-graduate / Master's degree at the same percentage (1.8%).

The respondents mainly lived in major cities in Java Island (39.4%), such as Cirebon, Semarang, Surabaya, Yogyakarta, and Bandung. It is followed by some respondents who lived in *Bodetabek* area (28.3%). Those who live in Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia, were 19%. In this research, there were also respondents (12.3%) who lived in the cities outside Java Island, such as Makassar (Sulawesi), Banjarmasin (Kalimantan), and Aceh (Sumatera). The remaining respondents were at that moment living abroad (1.1%). From the cross-tabulation in table 6-3, it is known that the respondents who lived abroad, were mainly students (5 persons). These respondents have participated as a consequence of the distribution of the online questionnaire. The researcher decided to keep their data for further analysis, as it was a low number of respondents. It also assumed that they were studying at that time, and lived abroad temporarily; thus, their knowledge and experience about Indonesia was still relevant.

Table 6 - 2: Respondents' demographic information – Part two

Information	Categories	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Educational background (last degree completed)	High school graduate	436	78.7	78.7
	Diploma / college	10	1.8	80.5
	Undergraduate degree	96	17.3	97.8
	Post-graduate/master	10	1.8	99.6
	Missing	2	0.4	100.0
	Total		554	100.0
City of residence	Jakarta	105	19.0	19.0
	Bodetabek	157	28.3	47.3
	Cities in Java island (Cirebon, Semarang, Surabaya, Yogyakarta, and Bandung)	218	39.4	86.7
	Cities in Non-Java islands (Makassar, Banjarmasin, Aceh)	68	12.3	99.0
	Others	6	1.1	100.0
	Total		554	100.0
Experience of living abroad	Yes, I have	57	10.3	10.3
	No, I have not	491	88.6	98.9
	Missing	6	1.1	100.0
	Total		556	100.0

Table 6 - 3: Cross-tabulation of the city, monthly expenditure, and occupation

City and occupation			Monthly expenditure					Total
			Less than IDR 1 million	IDR 1 million - less than 3 million	IDR 3 million - less than 5 million	IDR 5 million - less than 7 million	IDR 7 million - less than 10 million	
Jakarta	Occupation	Ful- time employee	0	4	7	1	0	12
		Part-time employee	1	3	2	1	0	7
		Enterpreneur	0	0	1	1	0	2
		Student	11	49	10	4	0	74
		Not in any employment	2	2	2	0	1	7
	Total	14	58	22	7	1	102	
Bodetabek	Occupation	Ful- time employee	0	3	2	0	0	5
		Part-time employee	0	3	2	0	0	5
		Enterpreneur	0	1	0	0	0	1
		Student	19	91	21	8	1	144
		Not in any employment	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Total	20	98	25	8	1	156	
Java	Occupation	Ful- time employee	3	9	3	0	0	15
		Part-time employee	5	7	1	0	0	13
		Enterpreneur	3	4	0	0	0	7
		Student	59	99	12	3	1	174
		Housewives	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Not in any employment	3	4	0	0	0	7	
Total	73	123	17	3	1	217		
Non-Java	Occupation	Ful- time employee	0	5	0	0	0	5

		Part-time employee	0	4	0	0			4
		Entrepreneur	0	1	0	0			1
		Student	19	30	4	2			55
		Not in any employment	0	3	0	0			3
	Total		19	43	4	2			68
Other-abroad	Occupation	Student		1		1		3	5
		Not in any employment		1		0		0	1
	Total			2		1		3	6
Total	Occupation	Ful- time employee	3	21	12	1	0	0	37
		Part-time employee	6	17	5	1	0	0	29
		Entrepreneur	3	6	1	1	0	0	11
		Student	108	270	47	18	2	7	452
		Housewives	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
		Not in any employment	6	10	2	0	0	1	19
	Missing								5
Total		126	324	68	21	2	8	549	

6.2 Data preparation

6.2.1 Missing data analysis

In table 6-4 below, it is found that 509 cases hold no missing values (91.5%) of the primary data for analysis. There are 1 case hold 39 missing values (7%); 2 cases had seven missing values (1.3%), and 3 cases were with only one missing value (0.2%). In total, there was found 8.5% of missing values. According to Hair Jr. et al. (2019), missing data under 10% for an individual case can generally be ignored. However, since the study wants to maintain a high number of cases for further analysis, the missing data in the main fields were considered non-ignorable.

Table 6 - 4: Number of missing data

Missing score(s)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Total percentage (%)
No missing score(s)	509	91.5	91.5
1	39	7.0	8.5
2	7	1.3	
3	1	0.2	
Total	556	100.0	100.0

As the next step, before deciding which method for remedying the missing data, an analysis of missing value in SPSS was conducted. It was to understand the level of randomness of the missing data. A Little's MCAR test was taken with results of a Chi-square value (3545.404; df = 3176) with $p < 0.05$. Since the significance was less than 0.05 (See Appendix 6-1), it means that H_0 was rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that the missing data was not categorised as MCAR (Missing Completely at Random).

Based on the above result, the missing data was remedied using MAR's (Missing at Random) method, whereas MAR analysis methods can be used as well for MNAR (Missing Not at Random) data as well (Humphries, 2019). In this study, a model-based method for MAR missing data was applied. The Maximum Likelihood or EM (Expectation-Maximization) was selected since it can accommodate MAR. It is a single-step imputation and could provide the best statistical results, which are unbiased and efficient (Hair Jr et al., 2019).

6.2.2 Checking on outliers

In this study, outliers were identified utilizing multivariate outliers. The assessment of multivariate outliers was using linear regression in SPSS by producing the Mahalanobis distance. From this result, probabilities were calculated. For those that have probabilities below 0.001, were considered to be removed.

From some linear regressions to check the probability of Mahalanobis distance, two respondents seem to be problematic. Respondent number 174 and 500 had probabilities below 0.001. Therefore, it was decided to remove those two numbers for further analysis. The total sample that was initially 556 respondents has been reduced to 554 respondents for further analysis. Since the study involved a large number of subjects, it is believed that there will not be an issue on generalisation by removing the two respondents.

6.2.3 Assessing normality and multicollinearity

The normality of the data in this study was assessed by measuring the skewness and kurtosis. The skewness of the data ranged from -2.445 – 1.743 (see appendix 6-2). There is no issue with skewness since it is less than 3.0 (Byrne, 2016). The kurtosis ranged from -1.309 – 8.724, which were less than the threshold value if 10 (Byrne, 2016). Thus, it can be concluded that there is no problem with the normality of the data as the skewness and kurtosis were less than the thresholds.

The measure of tolerance and VIF were used to assess multicollinearity. It is found that the tolerance values were ranged from 0.671 – 0.998. Since it was larger than 0.20 as the threshold value, it did not create a problem. VIF values were ranged from 1.065 - 1.490, which were less than the threshold value of 3 (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, it can be concluded that the problem with multicollinearity was not identified. It suggests that there are no issues with independent variables in this study.

6.3 Scale refinement process

The proposed model (see figure 6-1) contains variables or constructs (used interchangeably) that were examined in this study. The study is interested in investigating the direct effect of

Social norms (Descriptive and Injunctive norms) to Predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices, which includes bribery, nepotism, and gratification, as well as a specific condition on academic cheating. Additionally, it is also the interest of the study to test the moderating effect of values on the relationships between Social norms and Predicted behaviour.

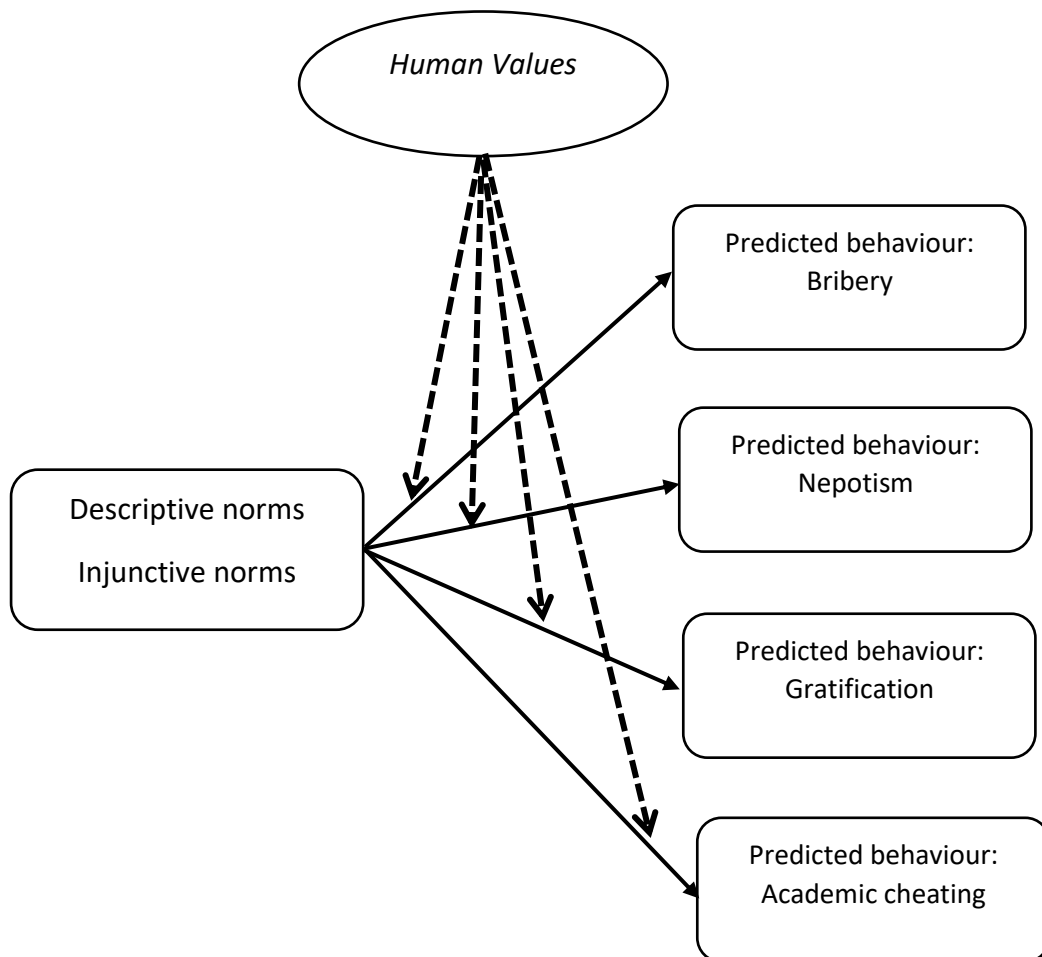


Figure 6 - 1: The proposed model

6.3.1 Measurement of constructs and descriptive statistics

6.3.1.1 Descriptive statistics and internal reliability

Before testing the model using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the constructs were measured beginning with descriptive statistics, continuing to the internal reliability analysis, and then conducting the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The descriptive statistics were

containing mean and standard deviation of each construct. Internal reliability was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha to examine the internal consistency of each variable component as the preliminary phase before further testing. The results are presented in the following tables.

Table 6 - 5: Internal reliability and descriptive statistics of values components

No.	Dimensions	Values	Question numbers	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Std deviation
1	Openness to change (OTC)	Hedonism	3, 36, 46	0.70	1.76	1.05
2		Stimulation	10, 28, 43	0.54	2.08	0.78
3		Self-direction action	16, 30, 56	0.54	2.11	0.74
4		Self-direction thought	1, 23, 39	0.56	1.99	0.73
5	Conservation (CO)	Face	9, 24, 49	0.45	1.42	0.97
6		Security – personal	13, 26, 53	0.56	2.12	0.70
7		Security – societal	2, 35, 50	0.56	1.69	0.89
8		Tradition	18, 33, 40	0.76	0.96	1.27
9		Conformity – rules	15, 31, 42	0.72	1.12	1.16
10		Conformity – interpersonal	4, 22, 51	0.29	2.05	0.67
11	Self-Enhancement (SE)	Humility	7, 38, 54	0.18	1.70	0.98
12		Achievement	17, 32, 48	0.45	1.39	0.98
13		Power-dominance	6, 29, 41	0.72	0.23	1.35
14		Power-resources	12, 20, 44	0.60	0.99	1.11
15	Self-Transcendence (ST)	Benevolence – dependability	19, 27, 55	0.34	1.59	0.76
16		Benevolence – caring	11, 25, 47	0.58	2.18	0.63
17		Universalism – concern	5, 37, 52	0.60	2.15	0.69
18		Universalism – nature	8, 45*	0.70	1.76	1.01
19		Universalism – tolerance	14, 34, 57	0.37	1.90	0.71

* *Universalism-nature reduced to 2 items.*

From the above Table 6-5, it is found that only a few values have reliability coefficients at minimum or larger than 0.70 as recommended thresholds (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2014). They were Hedonism (0.70), Tradition (0.76), Conformity-rules (0.72), Power-dominance (0.72), and Universalism-nature (0.70). One item of Universalism-nature was omitted (V21 - It is important to him to work against threats to the world of nature) to remedy its level of reliability.

The other values components have reliability that lower than 0.70. When a scale has an alpha lower than 0.70, it should be assessed for any sources of measurement errors, such as inadequate sampling of items, administration errors, situational factors, sample characteristics, number of items, and theoretical errors in developing the measurement scale (Gable and Wolf, 1993). The low internal reliability of other values components might also happen because of some factors, such as the translation, social desirability, or culture.

The high-reliability coefficient is usually a sign that the measures are reliable. The coefficient of 0.70 is indicated as an acceptable reliability coefficient, even though lower thresholds are sometimes used in the literature (Nunnally, 1978). However, further analyses in this study aimed to be carried out with the constructs that have a minimum reliability coefficient of 0.70. In table 6-5, the values components for further analyses are highlighted in bold.

Besides values components, other constructs in this study were Descriptive and Injunctive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards corrupt practices. In the following table 6-6, the results of Cronbach's Alpha for the constructs are presented.

Table 6 - 6: Internal reliability and descriptive statistics of non-values variables

No.	Variables	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Standard deviation
1	Descriptive norms	14	0.74	0.60	0.85
2	Injunctive norms	6	0.62	0.80	0.96
3	Predicted behaviour – academic cheating	2	0.79	-0.58	1.65
4	Predicted behaviour – bribery	5	0.82	-0.59	1.36
5	Predicted behaviour – gratification	2*	0.77	-0.21	1.14
6	Predicted behaviour - nepotism	2	0.78	0.58	1.61

**Predicted behaviour – gratification reduced to 2 items.*

Most of the constructs have reliability coefficients above 0.70. It shows that the items in the constructs can consistently yield the same results if it is measured repeated times. However, Injunctive norms had Cronbach's Alpha less than 0.70. However, due to further exploration of the construct's refinement, Injunctive norms were included for further testing.

The reliability coefficient of Predicted behaviour-gratification was poor when all original three items were included. One of the items, Beh_9 (I will report to the company when receiving

gifts from business partners or clients), was then removed because of weak correlation. The final Cronbach's Alpha of this construct was improved with only two items. This poor result of Beh_9 may show that reporting of gratification has not become a standard practice yet in the community. People somehow do not see the obligation of reporting presents they received (if they are public officials), nor aware of an ethical issue in this matter.

6.3.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

As the final preparation for the model testing, EFA was conducted. However, there was an exception for Schwartz's value scale. It was not involved in the EFA process as it is an established measure.

Additionally, Schwartz's value scale is not recommended to have an EFA measure. It is because EFA is not suitable for finding a set of relations among variables that form a circumplex (polar coordinates representation) as do by the value data (Schwartz, 2009). Therefore, the EFA process only included the scale of norms and predicted behaviours. Utilising SPSS, the EFA used Principal Components as the extraction method, with Varimax rotation.

Social norms

Social norms, or also interchangeably written as (perceived) Norms, consist of Descriptive norms and Injunctive norms (Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren, 1990; Tankard and Paluck, 2016). Initially, Descriptive norms consisted of 13 items that describe the normality of small-scale corrupt behaviour in academic cheating (3 items), bribery (5 items), gratification (3 items), and nepotism (2 items).

During the EFA process, two items of Descriptive norms in academic cheating (ND_4, and ND_8) were not loaded, and another 1 item (ND_1) had a factor loading less than 0.60 as the threshold. For the items that were not loaded, it indicates that the factor loadings of the items were less than 0.40, as the EFA process suppressed the small coefficients that below 0.40, as suggested by Field (2009). For the descriptive norms in bribery, there was 1 item (ND_5) that was loaded less than 0.60 as the threshold, as well as two items of Descriptive norms in gratification (ND_28, ND_26). Another 1 item of descriptive norms in nepotism (ND_11) was

not loaded. In total, given the low loading, there were seven items omitted as the results of the EFA process in descriptive norms.

The results of EFA in the following Table 6-7 show that the items of Injunctive norms were reduced to 4 items from initially six items. Those four items represent the description of how people close/important to the respondents behave or think about the appropriateness of small-scale corrupt acts in bribery, gratification, and nepotism. The items of academic cheating (NI_22) was not loaded, and NI_14 was found cross-loaded in this process. Therefore, those two items were removed from injunctive norms.

Table 6 - 7: Rotated Component Matrix – Social norms

Items	Component	
	1	2
ND_25 Many people around me still pay some extra money to an officer when dealing with licencing / permit administration processes (such as business licence, building permits, etc.) to avoid the bureaucracy and speed up the administration process.	0.817	
ND_15 Many people pay extra money to an officer when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity cards, family cards) to speed up the complicated administrative process and/or avoid a long queue.	0.771	
ND_20 To increase the chance to be accepted in a competitive job, such as to become a civil servant, some people use help from their personal connections.	0.742	
ND_23 I know that many people pay extra money in a recruitment process to increase the chance to get the job.	0.731	
ND_27 Many people around me still sending gifts to their business partners, officials, clients, or customers so that their errands/ businesses can go smoothly.	0.712	
ND_13 In dealing with the administrative process when making or renewing a driving licence, I often see people pay an officer extra money to avoid an uncomfortable situation (e.g., long queue, bureaucracy).	0.625	
NI_17 People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend / peer) do not allow me to give a small amount of money to an officer to		0.691

speed up the process when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity card, family card, etc.).		
NI_24 People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that sending a gift to a member of a selection committee during a recruitment process is inappropriate.		0.690
NI_12 People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) would think that paying a small amount of money to avoid a traffic ticket is inappropriate.		0.687
NI_18 People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that it is inappropriate if someone is accepted to work for a company because of their personal connection.		0.659
<i>Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.</i>		
<i>Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.</i>		
<i>a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.</i>		

Social norms had KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy value of 0.803, and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant at $p < 0.01$. The total variance explained identified the factors or components with eigenvalues that explain 51.85% of the variance.

Predicted-behaviour

Predicted behaviour refers to the people's tendency or intention to behave towards small-scale corrupt practices. Four components included as Predicted-behaviours in this study, which are Behaviour-academic cheating, Behaviour-bribery, Behaviour-gratification, and Behaviour-nepotism. These types of behaviours are the example of a range of everyday forms of corruption (Alatas, 2015; Yeganeh, 2014; United Nations, 1990) and were identified in previous Study 1. Those are the type of small-scale corrupt acts that happen in everyday life. The participants agreed that these types of behaviours are still commonly happening in society. Academic cheating was included since it is considered as a special case of dishonesty (unethical) act that may relate to a special type of small-scale corrupt acts among students as the respondents of this study (Alt and Geiger, 2012; Park, Park and Jang, 2013). Thus, this type of behaviour was included in this study.

The results of the EFA process in Predicted-behaviour can be found in the following Table 6-8. There were two items of Predicted behaviour-bribery (Beh_9, Beh_31) and two items of predicted behaviour-academic cheating (Beh_3, Beh_2) that loaded less than 0.60. Thus, those items were omitted. The remaining components have items with factor loading that are larger than 0.60 as the thresholds.

Table 6 - 8: Rotated Component Matrix – Predicted-behaviours

Items	Component		
	1	2	3
Beh_6 If I get a traffic ticket when I am driving, I will give some amount of money to the officer to avoid the ticket.	.877		
Beh_32 I pay some amount of money to an officer to avoid traffic tickets since people around me do the same.	.822		
Beh_7 I prefer to pay some extra money to an officer to speed up the process of making or renewing my driving licence.	.791		
Beh_16 I prefer to pay some amount of money to an official when making or renewing my residential documents (such as resident identity card, family card, etc.) to avoid bureaucracy.	.704		
Beh_10 I believe that asking for help from a personal connection when applying for a job is acceptable.		.859	
Beh_21 When applying for a job, I will ask for help from my personal or parents' connection to increase the chance to be accepted.		.834	
Beh_19 Many people believe that it is appropriate to access our personal connections when we need to in our job application process.		.833	
Beh_30 I send gifts to my business partner, officials, clients, or customers.			.900
Beh_29 I will accept the gifts when my business partners, clients, or customers send to me.			.834
<i>Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.</i>			
<i>Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.</i>			
<i>a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.</i>			

The result of the KMO test of the rotation was 0.81, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at $p < 0.01$. The total variance explained identified the four components that explain 74.68% of the variance.

From the result above, it was confirmed that behaviour-academic cheating was no longer included for further analysis because of low loading factors. Thus, there are only three types of predicted behaviour remained for the next analysis process. It includes predicted behaviour in bribery, nepotism, and gratification.

6.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

To continue the process in Structural equation modeling (SEM), CFA was conducted. Differently with the EFA process that was statistically driven (the factors are derived from statistical results), the CFA process is more theoretically driven. CFA is applied to examine that the theoretical pattern of the factor loadings on the constructs represents the actual data (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). In the CFA, there is a two-step process of analysis; it begins with the measurement model and follows by a test of the structural model.

6.3.2.1 Measurement model

Descriptive norms and Injunctive norms in this study were formed to describe the perceived norms of various corrupt situations or practices, including bribery, nepotism, and gratification (and was with academic cheating). These situations or practices were not measured separately but integrated to form Descriptive and Injunctive norms. Thus, it was necessary to check these integrated constructs before loading them into the overall model. The CFA process was conducted to both constructs, and results are shown below.

Measurement model of Descriptive norms

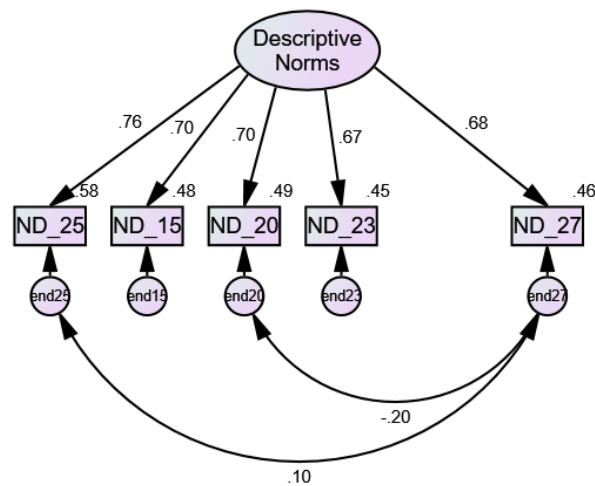


Figure 6 - 2: CFA for descriptive norms

Model fit:

$$X^2 = 4.206, df = 3, p\text{-value} = 0.240$$

$$X^2/df = 1.402; CFI = 0.999; TLI = 0.996; RMSEA = 0.027; SRMR = 0.0119$$

The model fit showed satisfactory results. The Chi-square value over the df was small (less than 2); CFI and TLI were larger than 0.95; RMSEA and SRMR were less than 0.05. As shown in table 6-7 (the EFA result for Descriptive norms), this construct initially consists of six items (ND_25, ND_15, ND_20, ND_23, ND_27, and ND_13). However, the final model of Descriptive norms in figure 6-2 omitted one item ND_13 (In dealing with the administrative process when making or renewing a driving licence, I often see people pay an officer extra money to avoid an uncomfortable situation (e.g., long queue, bureaucracy). It was because of the low loading factor (0.515) in the CFA process for ND_13. It may happen because what people understood as the reason for small bribing when making or renewing a driving licence may not be because of avoiding some uncomfortable situations (e.g., long queue, bureaucracy), but rather because of other reasons (e.g., the inducement of the officials). This reason may become a more substantial reason for this particular behaviour.

From the CFA result, it showed that ND_25 and ND_27 covary, with MI (Modification indices) = 11.771. ND_20 and ND_27 also strongly covary with MI = 12.594. It may happen because people did not really understand the difference in bribing practices in different contexts. Later on, both relationships were made uncorrelated to remedy the condition.

The below table shows the factor loading of each item from Descriptive norms.

Table 6 - 9: Loading factors of items in Descriptive norms

Factor	Code	Statement	Factor loading
Descriptive norms	ND_25	Many people around me still pay some extra money to an officer when dealing with licencing / permit administration processes (such as business licence, building permits, etc.) to avoid the bureaucracy and speed up the administration process.	0.76
	ND_15	Many people pay extra money to an officer when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity cards, family cards) to speed up the complicated administrative process and/or avoid a long queue.	0.70
	ND_20	To increase the chance to be accepted in a competitive job, such as to become a civil servant, some people use help from their personal connections.	0.71
	ND_23	I know that many people pay extra money in a recruitment process to increase the chance to get the job.	0.66
	ND_13	<i>In dealing with the administrative process when making or renewing a driving licence, I often see people pay an officer extra money to avoid an uncomfortable situation (e.g., long queue, bureaucracy).</i>	0.52*
	ND_27	Many people around me still sending gifts to their business partners, officials, clients, or customers so that their errands/ businesses can go smoothly.	0.66

* *The item was omitted*

Measurement model of Injunctive norms

Similarly, with Descriptive norms, the CFA process was also carried out to Injunctive norms (NI). Following is the CFA process for all its items.

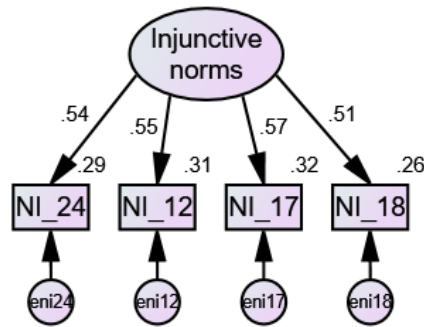


Figure 6 - 3: CFA for injunctive norms

Model fit:

$$X^2 = 17.757, df = 2, p\text{-value} = 0.000$$

$$X^2/df = 8.878; CFI = 0.935; TLI = 0.805; RMSEA = 0.119; SRMR = 0.039$$

The model fit of Injunctive norms did not show satisfactory results. The Chi-square value over the df was high (larger than 2). The CFI was acceptable; however, TLI was low. RMSEA did not show a good indication as it was higher than the maximum thresholds 0.080, even though SRMR was less than 0.05. Besides, the factor loadings of all items in Injunctive norms did not achieve the minimum thresholds of 0.60. The result is presented in Table 6-10 as follows.

Table 6 - 10: Factor loadings of items in Injunctive norms

Factor	Code	Statement	Factor loading
Injunctive norms	NI_18	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that it is inappropriate if someone is accepted to work for a company because of their personal connection.	0.51
	NI_17	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend / peer) do not allow me to give a small amount of money to an officer to speed up the process when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity card, family card, etc.).	0.57
	NI_12	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) would think that paying a small amount of money to avoid a traffic ticket is inappropriate.	0.55
	NI_24	People who are close to me (such as parents / sister-brother/ best friend/ boyfriend-girlfriend /peer) think that sending a gift to a member of a selection committee during a recruitment process is inappropriate.	0.54

Injunctive norms refer to the acceptability of some acts or behaviours in society. When the respondents were asked about the social acceptability of small-scale corrupt acts, the answer could not be confirmed into satisfactory evidence. Thus, it cannot be confirmed on the disapproval of small-scale corrupt practices according to society.

The result of injunctive norms shows how people (who are close/important to the respondents) behave or think towards the small-scale corrupt acts, do not reflect that they disagree with the corrupt behaviour described in the question. On the contrary, they may agree and/or have suggested the respondents follow the compliance to everyday forms of corruption. The respondents may believe that mainly people (close to them) do not consider those small-scale corrupt behaviours as inappropriate. Therefore, the items of injunctive norms were not confirmed.

This particular finding is in line with the qualitative finding in Study 1. The detail is elaborated in Chapter 8 (discussion).

Based on the above results, there is not enough evidence to support Injunctive norms as a useful construct that fits into the model. It also suggests that Injunctive norms are not as dominant as descriptive norms in this context. Therefore, it is decided not to include Injunctive norms in further analyses and focuses more on descriptive norms as a construct that influences corruptive behaviour in this study.

The final measurement model

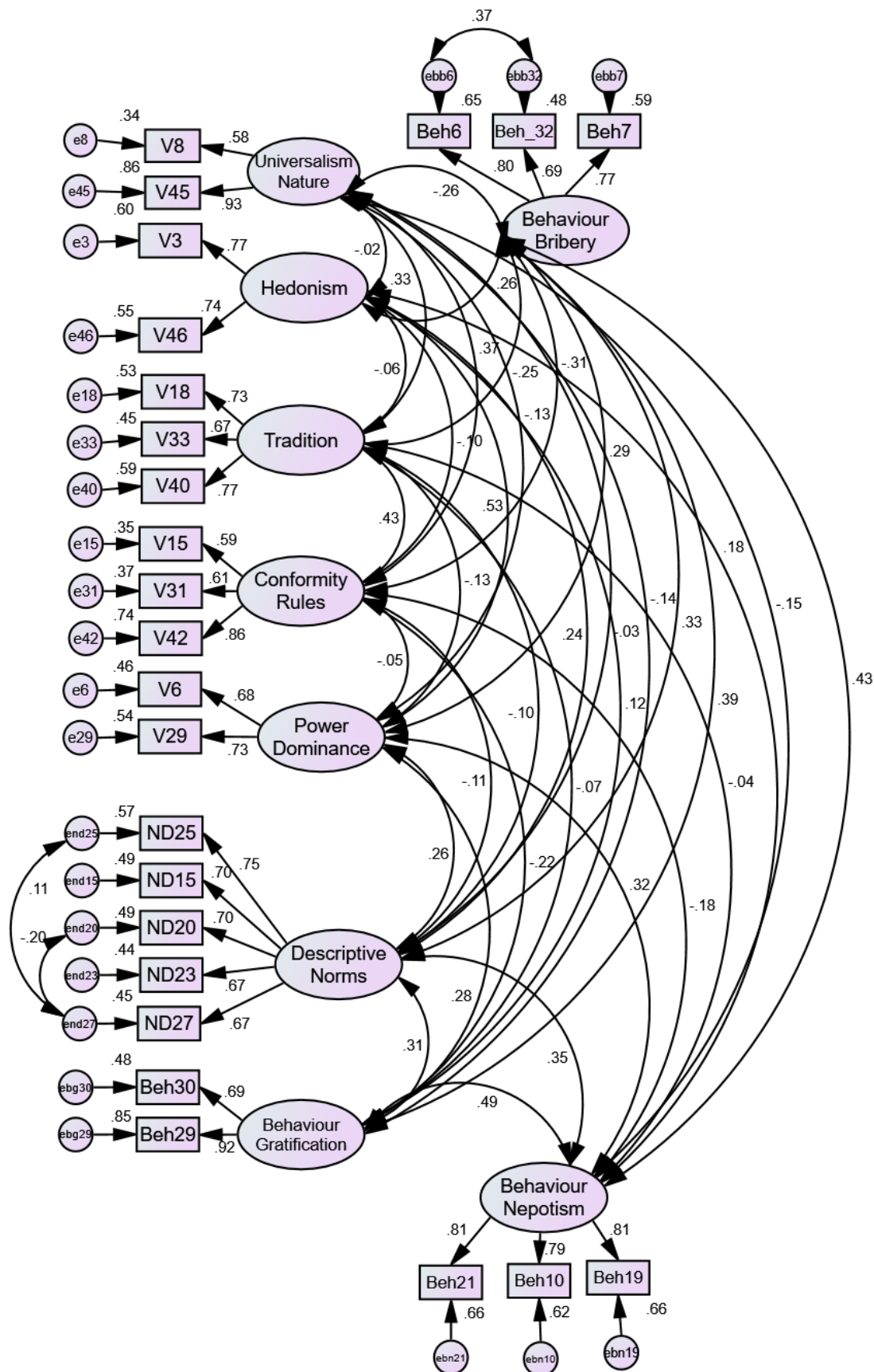


Figure 6 - 4: CFA of all constructs – Final measurement model

Model fit:

$X^2 = 383.063$, $df = 236$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$

$X^2/df = 1.623$; $CFI = 0.968$; $TLI = 0.960$; $RMSEA = 0.034$; $SRMR = 0.0351$

The above Figure 6-4 presents the CFA process of the measurement model. The model fit shows a satisfactory result. Chi-square value over the df is low (less than 2). The CFI and TLI show good fit (larger than 0.95), RMSEA and SRMR are less than 0.050.

Following are the factor loadings of the items in all constructs in the measurement model.

Table 6 - 11: Factor loadings from the CFA process for all constructs

Factor	Code	Statement	Factor loading
Hedonism	V3	Having a good time is important to him.	0.77
	V36	<i>Enjoying life's pleasures is important to him.</i>	0.51 ⁹
	V46	He takes advantage of every opportunity to have fun.	0.74
Tradition	V18	It is important to him to maintain traditional values or beliefs.	0.73
	V33	Following his family's customs or the customs of a religion is important to him.	0.67
	V40	He strongly values the traditional practices of his culture.	0.77
Conformity-rules	V15	He believes he should always do what people in authority say.	0.60
	V31	It is important to him to follow rules even when no one is watching.	0.61
	V42	Obeying all the laws is important to him.	0.86
Power-dominance	V41	<i>He pursues high status and power.</i>	0.64 ¹⁰
	V29	Being wealthy is important to him.	0.73
	V6	Having the feeling of power that money can bring is important to him.	0.68
Universalism-nature	V8	He strongly believes that he should care for nature.	0.58
	V45	Protecting the natural environment from destruction or pollution is important to him.	0.93
Descriptive norms	ND_25	Many people around me still pay some extra money to an officer when dealing with	0.75

⁹ Omitted to correct the AVE of Hedonism

¹⁰ Omitted to correct the AVE of Power-dominance

		licencing / permit administration processes (such as business licence, building permits, etc.) to avoid the bureaucracy and speed up the administration process.	
	ND_15	Many people pay extra money to an officer when making or renewing residential documents (such as identity cards, family cards) to speed up the complicated administrative process and/or avoid a long queue.	0.70
	ND_20	To increase the chance to be accepted in a competitive job, such as to become a civil servant, some people use help from their personal connections.	0.70
	ND_23	I know that many people pay extra money in a recruitment process to increase the chance to get the job.	0.67
	ND_27	Many people around me still sending gifts to their business partners, officials, clients or customers so that their errands/ businesses can go smoothly.	0.67
Predicted behaviour-Bribery	Beh_6	If I get a traffic ticket when I am driving, I will give some amount of money to the officer to avoid the ticket.	0.80
	Beh_32	I pay some amount of money to an officer to avoid traffic tickets since people around me do the same.	0.69
	Beh_7	I prefer to pay some extra money to an officer to speed up the process of making or renewing my driving licence.	0.77
Predicted behaviour-Nepotism	Beh_10	I believe that asking for help from a personal connection when applying for a job is acceptable.	0.79
	Beh_21	When applying for a job, I will ask for help from my personal or parents' connection to increase the chance to be accepted.	0.81
	Beh_19	Many people believe that it is appropriate to access our personal connections when we need to in our job application process.	0.82
Predicted behaviour-Gratification	Beh_29	I will accept the gifts when my business partners, clients or customers send to me.	0.92
	Beh_30	I send gifts to my business partner, officials, clients or customers.	0.69

The above table shows the details of factor loadings from the CFA process of all constructs. Some items were retained since it fulfilled the thresholds. These items were used in further

analyses in this study. However, the model was refined by removing item V36 (Hedonism - V36 - Enjoying life's pleasures is important to him) and V41 (Power-dominance - V41 - He pursues high status and power) to correct the AVE of the related construct. The removed items were written in italic.

Based on the above results following is the measure of validity and reliability of each construct in the model.

Table 6 - 12: Assessing reliability and validity of the constructs

Variables	AVE	CR	MSV	ASV	Hedonism	Conformity-rules	Tradition	Power-dominance	Universalism-nature	Descriptive norms	Beh-Bribery	Beh-Nepotism	Beh-Gratification
Hedonism	0.57	0.73	0.29	0.06	0.75								
Conformity-rules	0.50	0.74	0.18	0.06	-0.10	0.71							
Tradition	0.52	0.77	0.18	0.05	-0.06	0.43	0.72						
Power-dominance	0.50	0.67	0.29	0.08	0.53	-0.05	-0.13	0.71					
Universalism-nature	0.60	0.74	0.13	0.05	-0.03	0.37	0.33	-0.13	0.77				
Descriptive norms	0.50	0.83	0.12	0.06	0.24	-0.11	-0.10	0.26	-0.03	0.71			
Behaviour-Bribery	0.57	0.80	0.18	0.10	0.26	-0.31	-0.25	0.29	-0.26	0.33	0.75		
Behaviour-Nepotism	0.65	0.85	0.24	0.11	0.18	-0.18	-0.04	0.32	-0.15	0.35	0.43	0.81	
Behaviour-Gratification	0.66	0.79	0.24	0.08	0.12	-0.22	-0.07	0.28	-0.14	0.31	0.39	0.49	0.81

AVE (Average Variance Extract) and CR (Composite Reliability) of the related constructs were calculated. Both calculations were needed to assess the validity of the constructs. As suggested by Hair et al. (2014), convergent validity is regarded as satisfactory if the standardised loadings for each item and the coverage AVE are at a minimum or larger than 0.50 thresholds (Hair Jr et al., 2014). In terms of CR, Hair Jr et al. (2014) also recommend that the validity of a construct is satisfactory if the composite reliability of all variables is a minimum of 0.70.

Table 6-3 above presents the measure of reliability and validity of the constructs. It shows that the AVE of all constructs fulfills the minimum of 0.50. It supports the convergent validity of the measurement instrument in this study. The convergent validity has also been indicated by the CR of all constructs that are larger than their AVEs.

The divergent validity can be identified from the results of MSV (Maximum Shared Variance) of each construct that is less than its AVE. Besides, the ASV (Average Shared Variance) of each construct is less than their AVEs. Moreover, each square root of AVE (highlighted and bold) is greater than its inter-construct correlation (italicised).

Reliability shows the internal structure of the construct with multiple indicators. The reliability of all constructs is presented in the calculation of CR. Each construct has CR that is larger than 0.70, except for Power-dominance that is slightly below 0.70. However, according to Bagozzi and Yi, 1988, the recommended level of CR can be a minimum of 0.60. Thus, even though it is not satisfactory, the CR of Power-dominance exceeded the recommended level of ≥ 0.60 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). It is decided that the CR of Power-dominance is acceptable.

6.4 Research hypothesis testing

This study is to investigate the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts. In addition, it is also to examine whether values influence the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour in this research context.

Referring to the previous statistical processes, below is the revised model that is going to be tested.

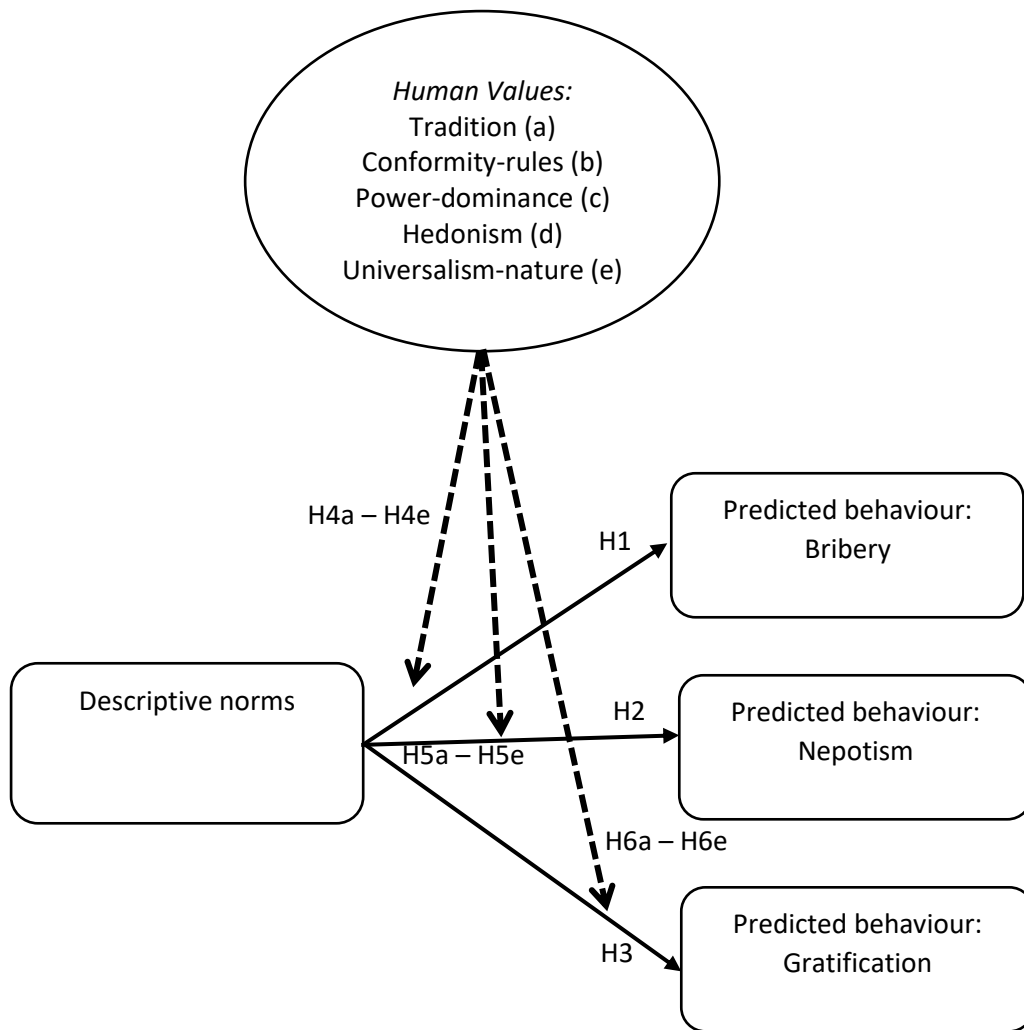


Figure 6 - 5: The revised model

Figure 6-5 shows the revised model after the CFA process of the measurement model. Descriptive norms become the focus as the independent variable that is hypothesised to have a direct effect to the dependent variables, which are Predicted-behaviour in small-scale corrupt practices (bribery, nepotism, and gratification).

In this study, the moderating variables are values components that include Tradition (a), Conformity-rules (b), Power-dominance (c), Hedonism (d), and Universalism-nature (e). The effect of moderating variables was tested to find evidence of whether they influence the relationships of independent and dependent variables mentioned above.

As mentioned above, in the testing of moderating effects, groups of respondents were developed. In this study, the values components as the moderators were developed into categorical variables by dividing the respondents into two groups based on values level, low-level group, and high-level group. It is suggested that the division into groups can be categorised in a way that makes sense, such as based on theory or logic (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019).

The procedure used for the categorical moderators was applied based on their modes. It is suggested that the construct shows bimodality, which is the frequency distribution that shows two clear peaks rather than one), then groups can be created around each mode (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019). However, if the moderator construct shows a unimodal distribution (one peak), then grouping cannot be justified. Furthermore, Hair Jr *et al.* (2019) suggests for a unimodal distribution to delete some fraction of the observations around the median value, and the remaining data will likely have bimodal to put into groups.

Despite some critics to treat normally distributed constructs as categorical for loss of information, this study adopted this suggested procedure by Hair *et al.* (2019), as it can be used as an intuitive way to demonstrate the moderating effect. Groups of low-level and group of high-level for each value component were created around their modes. Group 1 represents low-level values, and Group 2 depicts high-level values.

The value of Tradition showed bimodality (1.67 and 2.00); Thus, Group 1 for this value is score ≤ 1.67 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . Since the remaining values components only had one mode, some adjustments needed to be conducted to create bimodality, as suggested mentioned above. It somehow shows the disadvantage that some samples had to be thrown out.

For Conformity-rules, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.67 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . For the value of Power-dominance, Group 1 is for score ≤ 0.00 , and Group 2 scores ≥ 1.50 . For the value of Hedonism, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.50 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . Lastly, for value Universalism-nature, since it had a very high peak mode (mode = 2), the groups were divided into three, and only two extreme groups were involved for further path analysis. Thus, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.50 , and Group 2 is for score > 2.00 .

6.4.1 Hypotheses testing: Direct effect

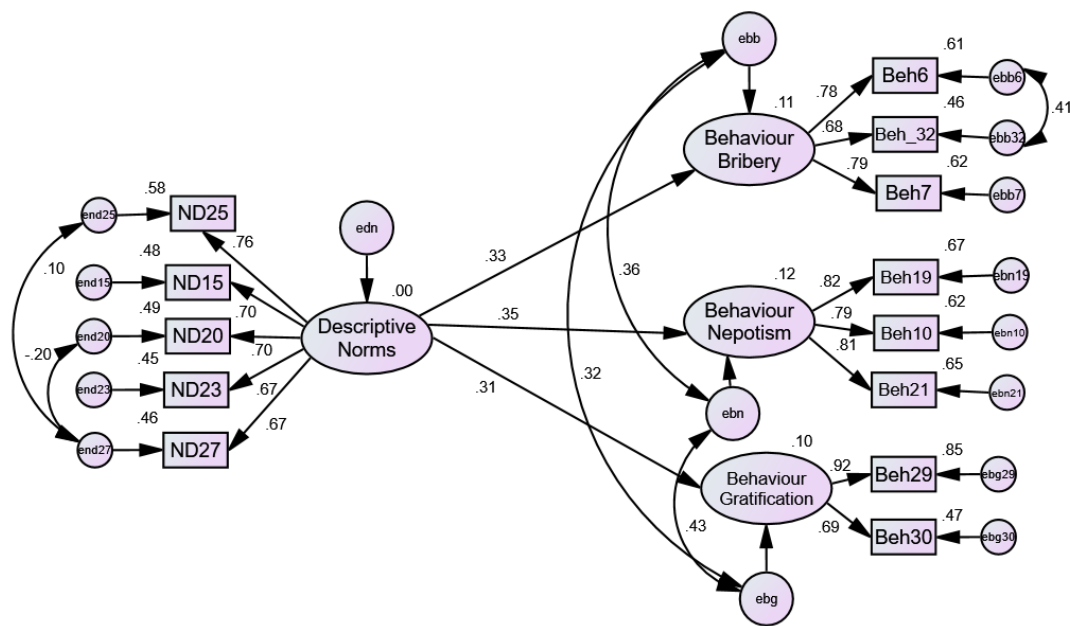
The assessment of the direct effect of Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour was conducted by examining the results or significance of regression coefficients. The following are the hypotheses testing of Hypotheses 1 – 3. It aimed to examine the direct effect of Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour in Bribery, Nepotism, and Gratification.

6.4.1.1 Testing the relationships between independent and dependent variables:

Hypothesis 1. Descriptive norms are related to Predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 2. Descriptive norms are related to Predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 3. Descriptive norms are related to Predicted-behaviour towards gratification



<i>Model Goodness of Fit</i>	
χ^2	102.654
p-value	0.000
df	56
χ^2/df	1.833
CFI	0.984
TLI	0.977
RMSEA	0.039
SRMR	0.032

Figure 6 - 6: Path analysis – the direct effect of descriptive norms to predicted behaviours

6.4.1.2 The result of hypotheses testing – Direct effect of Descriptive norms to Predicted behaviour

Table 6 - 13: Results of the direct effect of descriptive norms to predicted behaviours

Independent variable	Dependent variables	β Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p-value	Std regression weights	Correlations	Results
Descriptive norms	PB*-Bribery	0.417	0.070	5.950	< 0.001	0.33	0.33	H1 – Supported
	PB-Nepotism	0.426	0.064	6.705	< 0.001	0.35	0.35	H2 – Supported
	PB-Gratification	0.305	0.055	5.504	< 0.001	0.31	0.31	H3 - Supported

*PB = Predicted behaviour

The above Figure 6-6 shows the path analysis of the direct effect of Descriptive norms to Predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. The model fit shows satisfactory results. The fit indices indicate good model fit ($\chi^2/df < 2$; CFI and TLI > 0.95 ; RMSEA and SRMR < 0.05).

The results in the above Table 6-13 confirm the positive and significant level of hypotheses H1-H3. With this result, it can be concluded that there are positive relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale bribery ($\beta = 0.417$; $p < 0.001$), nepotism ($\beta = 0.426$; $p < 0.001$), and acts of gratification ($\beta = 0.305$; $p < 0.001$). It suggests that overall, descriptive norms on small-scale corruption are related to the tendency of people to behave corruptly in this context. The more people perceive that small-scale corrupt practices are common, the more they tend to follow and act the same way.

6.4.2 Hypotheses testing: Moderating effects

The moderating effect occurs when the third construct changes the relationship between two related constructs (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019). The test of the moderating effect was carried out by measuring the invariance by constraining the values. As explained earlier in Chapter 4, a multi-group analysis was conducted for the moderation test, that the data was developed into groups. One group is estimated with path estimates calculated freely or separately for each group (unconstrained). Another group is estimated with path estimates constrained to be equal between the groups. Chi-square value was monitored to detect any significant changes with every set of constrained models (Dabholkar and Bagozzi, 2002; Rahman *et al.*, 2018).

The hypothesis of the moderating effect is supported when the path analysis shows a significant difference in Chi-square values between models. It indicates that model fit decreases significantly when the estimates are constrained to be equal. However, if there were no significant changes in Chi-square value when analysing the model fit for the related groups, then invariance was demonstrated. It then suggests that the relationships between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour are similar for all groups of the related value component. Thus, it can be concluded that the moderation does not exist.

6.4.2.1 Multi-group analysis for testing the moderating effect

In the testing of moderating effects, groups of respondents were developed. In this study, the values components as the moderators were developed into categorical variables by dividing the respondents into two groups based on values level: low-level group and high-level group. It is suggested that the division into groups can be categorised in a way that makes sense, such as based on theory or logic (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019).

The procedure used for the categorical moderators was applied based on their modes. It is suggested that the construct shows bimodality, which is the frequency distribution that shows two clear peaks rather than one), then groups can be created around each mode (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2019). However, if the moderator construct shows a unimodal distribution (one peak), then grouping cannot be justified. Furthermore, Hair Jr *et al.* (2019) suggests for a unimodal distribution to delete some fraction of the observations around the median value, and the remaining data will likely have bimodal to put into groups.

Despite some critics to treat normally distributed constructs as categorical for loss of information, this study adopted this suggested procedure by Hair *et al.* (2019), as it can be used as an intuitive way to demonstrate the moderating effect. Groups of low-level and group of high-level for each value component were created around their modes. Group 1 represents low-level values, and Group 2 depicts high-level values.

The value of Tradition showed bimodality (1.67 and 2.00); Thus, Group 1 for this value is score ≤ 1.67 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . Since the remaining values components only had one mode, some adjustments needed to be conducted to create bimodality, as suggested mentioned above. It somehow shows the disadvantage that some samples had to be thrown out.

For Conformity-rules, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.67 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . For the value of Power-dominance, Group 1 is for score ≤ 0.00 , and Group 2 scores ≥ 1.50 . For the value of Hedonism, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.50 , and Group 2 is for score ≥ 2.00 . Lastly, for value Universalism-nature, since it had a very high peak mode (mode = 2), the groups were divided into three, and only two extreme groups were involved for further path analysis. Thus, Group 1 is for score ≤ 1.50 , and Group 2 is for score > 2.00 .

The following are the hypotheses to examine the moderating effect of values components (Tradition, Conformity-rules, Power-dominance, Hedonism, and Universalism-nature) to the relationships between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices.

6.4.2.2 Testing the moderating effects

Value of Tradition

Hypothesis 4a. Value of Tradition moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 5a. Value of Tradition moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 6a. Value of Tradition moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards gratification.

Value of Conformity Rules

Hypothesis 4b. Value of Conformity-Rules moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 5b. Value of Conformity-Rules moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 6b. Value of Conformity-Rules moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards gratification.

Value of Power-dominance

Hypothesis 4c. Value of Power-dominance moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 5c. Value of Power-dominance moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 6c. Value of Power-dominance moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards gratification.

Value of Hedonism

Hypothesis 4d. Value of Hedonism moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 5d. Value of Hedonism moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 6d. Value of Hedonism moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards gratification.

Value of Universalism-nature

Hypothesis 4e. Value of Universalism-nature moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards small-scale bribery.

Hypothesis 5e. Value of Universalism-nature moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards nepotism.

Hypothesis 6e. Value of Universalism-nature moderates the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards gratification.

Following are the hypotheses testing of Hypotheses 4a-6a, Hypotheses 4b – 6b, Hypotheses 4c – 6c, Hypotheses 4d – 6d, and Hypotheses 4e – 6e. It aimed to investigate the moderating effect of values components by measuring the invariance from constraining the variables. The constrained model for each path was run to compare the Chi-square difference (ΔX^2) with the critical statistical value (see appendix 6-4 – Table of chi-square distribution). When the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model was higher than the critical statistical value against the degree of freedom and the significance level, it can be concluded that the moderating effect is significant (Dabholkar and Bagozzi, 2002; Rahman *et al.*, 2018; Zainudin, 2014).

Before the hypotheses testing were conducted, below is the testing of model fit. Below figures are the path analysis to test the moderation of values to the relationship of two other variables. The fitness indexes of multi-group analysis of all models are presented in Table 6-12.

Table 6 - 14: Fitness indexes

No.	Description	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
1	Tradition								
	A. Unconstrained model	159.472	112	1.424	0.002	0.984	0.977	0.028	0.033
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	198.609	137	1.450	0.000	0.979	0.976	0.029	0.037
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	163.318	113	1.444	0.001	0.983	0.976	0.028	0.036
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	160.162	113	1.417	0.002	0.984	0.977	0.027	0.033
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	163.315	113	1.445	0.001	0.983	0.976	0.028	0.035
2	Conformity – Rules								
	A. Unconstrained model	151.995	112	1.357	0.007	0.986	0.980	0.026	0.032
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	216.013	137	1.577	0.000	0.972	0.968	0.033	0.046
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	165.105	113	1.461	0.001	0.981	0.974	0.029	0.044
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	155.053	113	1.372	0.005	0.985	0.979	0.026	0.035
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	155.547	113	1.377	0.005	0.985	0.979	0.026	0.035
3	Power Dominance								
	A. Unconstrained model	165.398	112	1.477	0.001	0.979	0.971	0.030	0.032
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	237.120	137	1.731	0.000	0.961	0.956	0.037	0.056
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	166.342	113	1.472	0.001	0.979	0.971	0.030	0.032
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	167.606	113	1.483	0.001	0.979	0.971	0.030	0.036
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	165.475	113	1.464	0.001	0.980	0.972	0.030	0.032
4	Hedonism								
	A. Unconstrained model	166.533	112	1.487	0.001	0.979	0.971	0.031	0.030
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	200.469	137	1.463	0.000	0.976	0.973	0.030	0.033
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	166.835	113	1.476	0.001	0.980	0.972	0.030	0.030

	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	166.541	113	1.474	0.001	0.980	0.972	0.030	0.030
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	168.500	113	1.491	0.001	0.979	0.971	0.031	0.032
5	Universalism-nature								
	A. Unconstrained model	243.998	118	2.068	0.000	0.937	0.916	0.053	0.068
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	298.378	140	2.087	0.000	0.922	0.915	0.054	0.084
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	249.261	119	2.095	0.000	0.934	0.914	0.054	0.076
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	244.882	119	2.058	0.000	0.937	0.917	0.053	0.070
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	244.707	119	2.056	0.000	0.937	0.917	0.053	0.067

The result in Table 6-14 shows that all models are a good fit based on the fit indices. The Chi-square values over the df are relatively low ($\chi^2/df \leq 2$), only the value of Universalism-nature that was slightly above 2. Almost all CFI and TLI were mainly > 0.95 ; only the value of the Universalism-nature value was below 0.95 but still higher than 0.90, which is acceptable. Almost all RMSEA were less than 0.050; only the value of Universalism-nature was slightly above 0.050, but still under 0.080. Lastly, the SRMR of the values was mainly below 0.050; only the value of Universalism-nature was larger than 0.05 but still less than 0.10. Overall, the results show that the models were in a good fit.

Below is Table 6-15 that summaries the results of the hypotheses testing.

Table 6 - 15: The results of hypotheses testing

No	Description	Comparative model	Chi-square value	Df	Chi-square difference	Df difference	p-value	Statistical significance	Results
1	Tradition								
	A. Unconstrained model		159.472	112			0.002		
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	B vs A	198.609	137	39.137**	25	0.000	p < 0.05	Groups are different at the model level
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	C vs A	163.195	113	3.723	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H4a is rejected
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	D vs A	160.162	113	0.690	1	0.002	p < 0.05	H5a is rejected
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	E vs A	163.298	113	3.826	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H6a is rejected
2	Conformity – Rules								
	A. Unconstrained model		151.995	112			0.007		
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	B vs A	216.013	137	64.018**	25	0.000	p < 0.05	Groups are different at the model level
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	C vs A	165.105	113	13.110*	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H4b is supported
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	D vs A	155.053	113	3.058	1	0.005	p < 0.05	H5b is rejected
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	E vs A	155.547	113	3.552	1	0.005	p < 0.05	H6b is rejected

* Significant at $\alpha = 5\%$, chi-square difference > 3.841 ($\Delta df=1$)

** Significant at $\alpha = 1\%$, chi-square difference > 37.652 ($\Delta df=25$)

Table 6 - 15: The results of hypotheses testing - continued

No	Description	Comparative model	Chi-square value	Df	Chi-square difference	Df difference	p-value	Statistical significance	Results
3	Power Dominance								
	A. Unconstrained model		165.398	112			0.001		
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	B vs A	237.120	137	71.722**	25	0.000	p < 0.05	Groups are different at the model level
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	C vs A	166.342	113	0.944	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H4c is rejected
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	D vs A	167.606	113	2.208	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H5c is rejected
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	E vs A	165.475	113	0.077	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H6c is rejected
4	Hedonism								
	A. Unconstrained model		166.533	112			0.001		
	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	B vs A	200.469	137	33.936	25	0.000	p < 0.05	Groups are not different at the model level
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	C vs A	166.835	113	0.302	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H4d is rejected
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	D vs A	166.541	113	0.008	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H5d is rejected
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	E vs A	168.500	113	1.967	1	0.001	p < 0.05	H6d is rejected
5	Universalism-nature								
	A. Unconstrained model		243.998	118			0.000		

	B. Constrained model - Structural weights	B vs A	298.378	143	54.38**	25	0.000	p < 0.05	Groups are different at the model level
	C. Constrained - Only DN --> Bribery	C vs A	249.261	119	5.263*	1	0.000	p < 0.05	H4e is supported
	D. Constrained - Only DN --> Nepotism	D vs A	244.882	119	0.884	1	0.000	p < 0.05	H5e is rejected
	E. Constrained - Only DN --> Gratification	E vs A	244.707	119	0.709	1	0.000	p < 0.05	H6e is rejected

* Significant at $\alpha = 5\%$, chi-square difference > 3.841 ($\Delta df=1$)

** Significant at $\alpha = 5\%$, chi-square difference > 37.652 ($\Delta df=25$)

To test the moderating effects of values components, the above table 6-13 presents the result of the hypotheses testing. It measures the difference in Chi-square value (ΔX^2) for the constrained model with the unconstrained model to all five values. The unconstrained model is the model with no parameter constraints. The moderation effect is significant or exist when the difference in Chi-square value between the unconstrained and constrained model is higher than the value of critical Chi-square value. It means that the model fit decreases significantly when the estimates are constrained to be equal.

In Table 6-15, it shows structural weights model, which is the model with all parameters are constrained. The other three models (C, D, E) are the constraining models that developed by constraining each path at a time to test the moderating effect of values component on the relationship between Descriptive Norms (DN) to Predicted-behaviour. Model C is the model that constrained only the path from DN to Predicted-behaviour-bribery. Similarly, model D constrained only the path from DN to Predicted-behaviour-nepotism. Lastly, model E was the only path DN and Gratification constrained model.

The parameter constraints were $b1_1 = b1_2$, where b1 denotes the path from Descriptive norms to Predicted- behaviour-bribery; and 1 and 2 were the categorical number for Group 1 (Low-level values) and Group 2 (High-level values).

Similarly, model D constrained only the path from DN to Predicted-behaviour-nepotism. The parameter constraints were $b2_1 = b2_2$, where b2 denotes the path from Descriptive norms to Predicted behaviour-nepotism. Number 1 and 2 were the categorical number for Group 1 (Low-level values) and Group 2 (High-level values).

Model E was the only path DN and Gratification constrained model. The parameter constraints were $b3_1 = b3_2$, where b3 denotes the path from Descriptive norms to Predicted behaviour-gratification. Number 1 and 2 were the categorical number for Group 1 (Low-level values) and Group 2 (High-level values).

6.4.2.3 The results of hypotheses testing – Moderating effect of values

The results are used to answer all of the hypotheses testing of H4a – H6e. The Table 6-15 represents the results of the moderating analysis. It shows that all structural weight models

are accepted, as $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ and their $\Delta X^2 > 37.652$ ($\Delta df=25, \alpha = 0.05$). It indicates that the models were correct across groups. However, it does not apply to Hedonism, as $\Delta X^2 < 37.652$ ($\Delta df=25, \alpha = 0.05$). After these preliminary findings, the analyses were conducted to answer the hypotheses of H4a – H6e and find in which path of interest the groups are different for each value component.

From the same Table 6-15, the results confirm that only H4b is supported. It means that the groups of the moderator (Conformity-rules) are different in the path level. The results indicate that the value of Conformity-rules influences the relationship between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards bribery (H4b) as $\Delta X^2 > 3.841$ ($\Delta df = 1, p < 0.05$). However, H5b and H6b are rejected since their $\Delta X^2 < 3.841$ ($\Delta df = 1, p < 0.05$). There is not enough evidence to support the hypotheses that Conformity-rules influence the relationship between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour toward nepotism (H5b) and gratification (H6b).

There is enough evidence to support H4e that indicates the value of Universalism-nature influences the relationship of Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards bribery as $\Delta X^2 > 3.841$ ($\Delta df = 1, p < 0.05$). However, Universalism-nature was not found to have any moderating effect on the relationship between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards nepotism (H5e) and gratification (H6e), as their $\Delta X^2 < 3.841$ ($\Delta df = 1, p < 0.05$).

The remaining hypotheses H4a – H6a, H4c – H6c, and H5d – H6d are rejected as there are not enough evidence to support them. The Chi-square differences are found to be less than the critical Chi-square value of 3.841. The results suggest that the values of Tradition, Power-dominance, and Hedonism do not significantly moderate the relationships between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards small-scale corruption (bribery, nepotism, and gratification).

Descriptive norms to Predicted-behaviours moderated by the value of Tradition

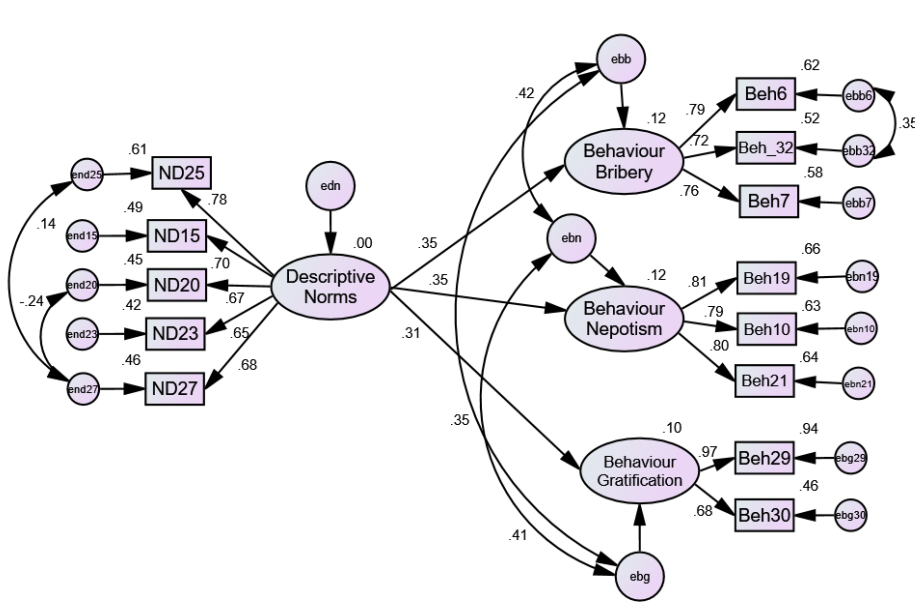


Figure 6 - 7: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Tradition (Low-level group).

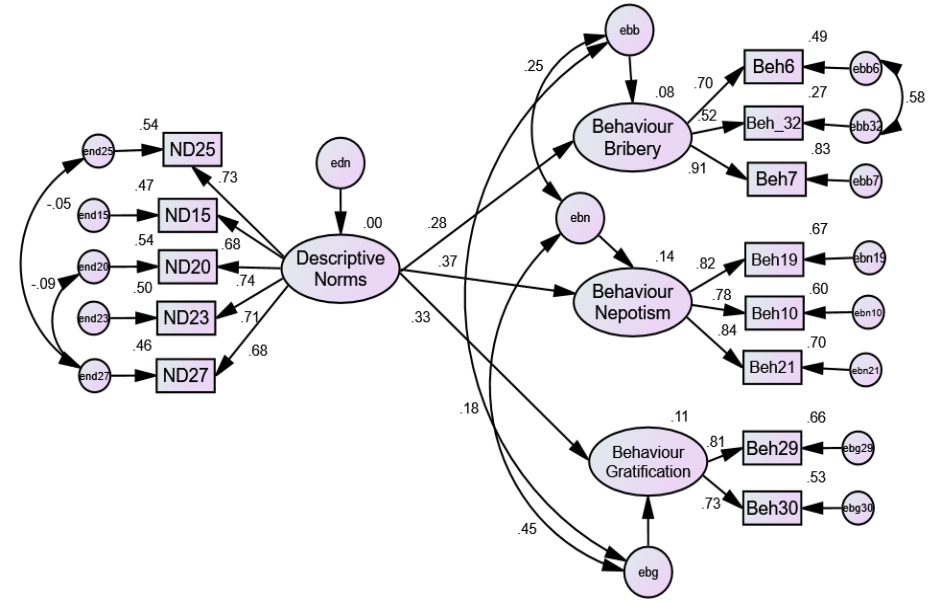


Figure 6 - 8: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Tradition (High-level group).

Descriptive norms to Predicted-behaviours moderated by the value of Conformity-rules

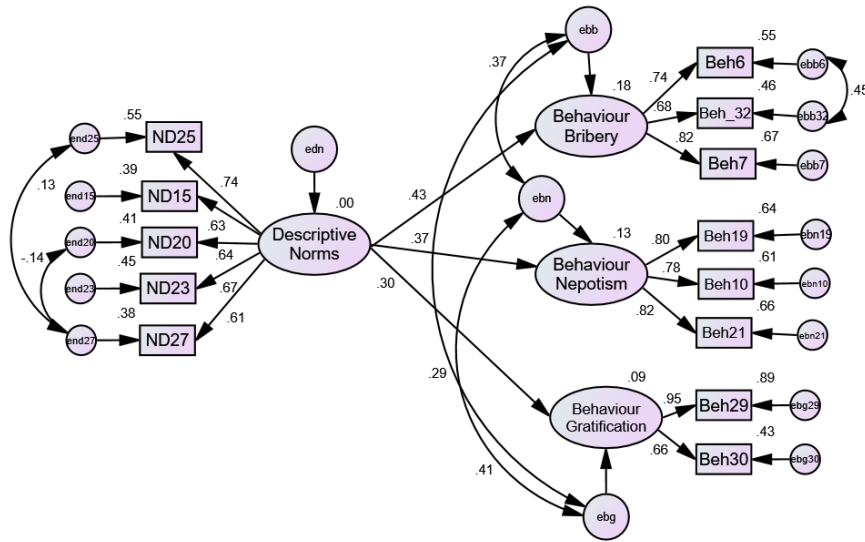


Figure 6 - 9: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Conformity-rules (Low-level group).

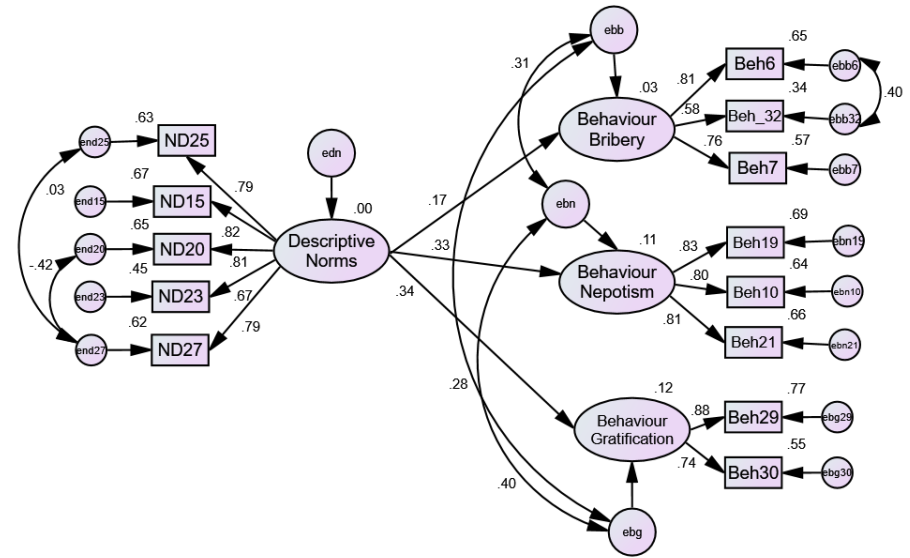


Figure 6 - 10: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Conformity-rules (High-level group).

Descriptive norms to Predicted-behaviours moderated by the value of Power-dominance

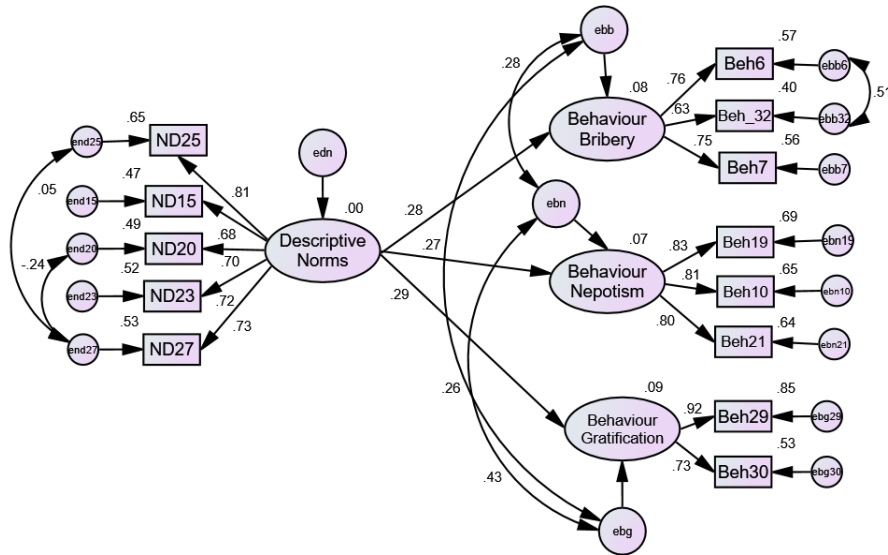


Figure 6 - 11: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Power-dominance (Low-level group).

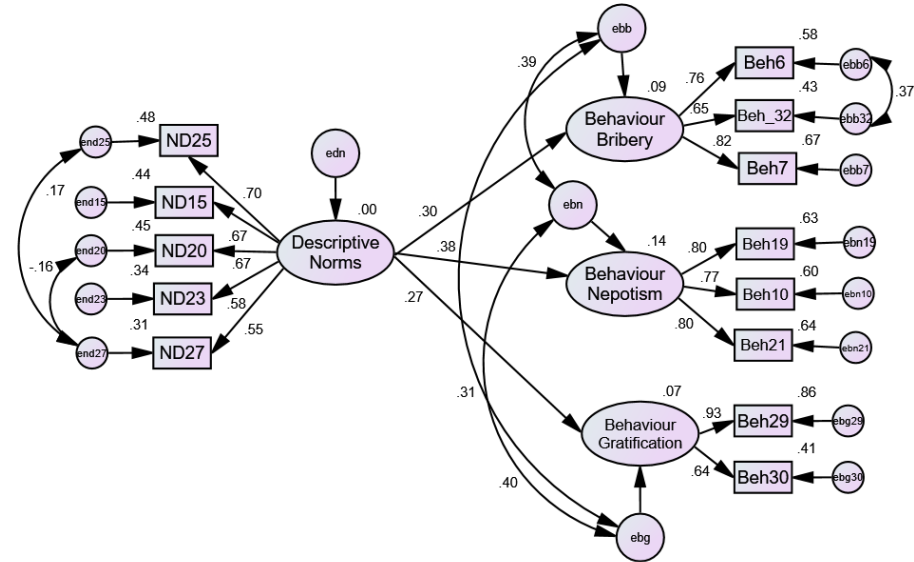


Figure 6 - 12: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Power-dominance (High-level group).

Descriptive norms to Predicted-behaviour moderated by the value of Hedonism

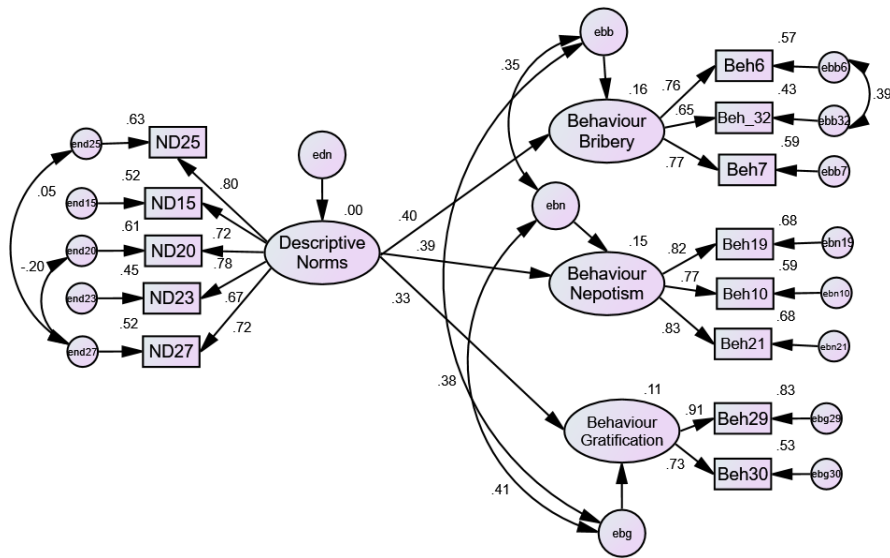


Figure 6 - 13: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Hedonism (Low-level group).

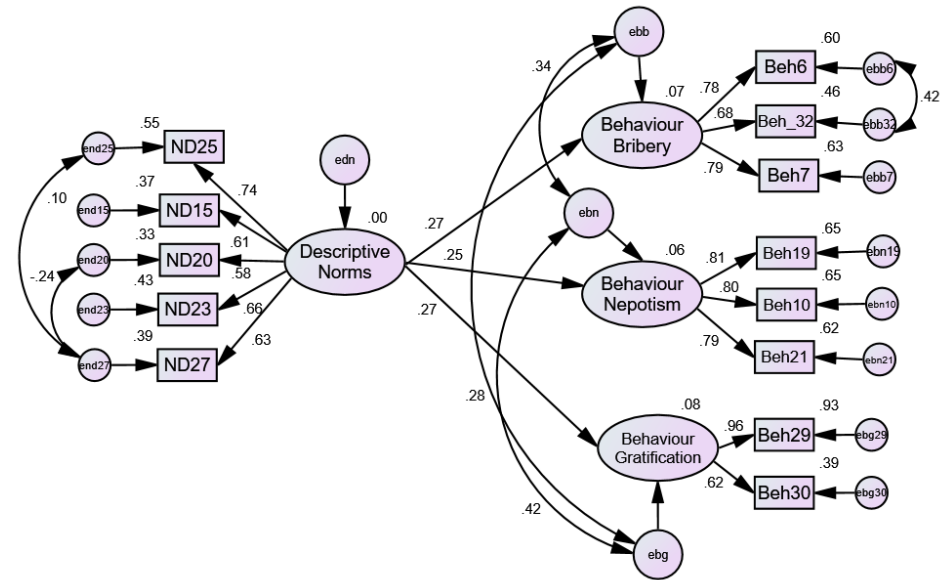


Figure 6 - 14: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Hedonism (High-level group).

Descriptive norms to Predicted-behaviours moderated by the value of Universalism-nature

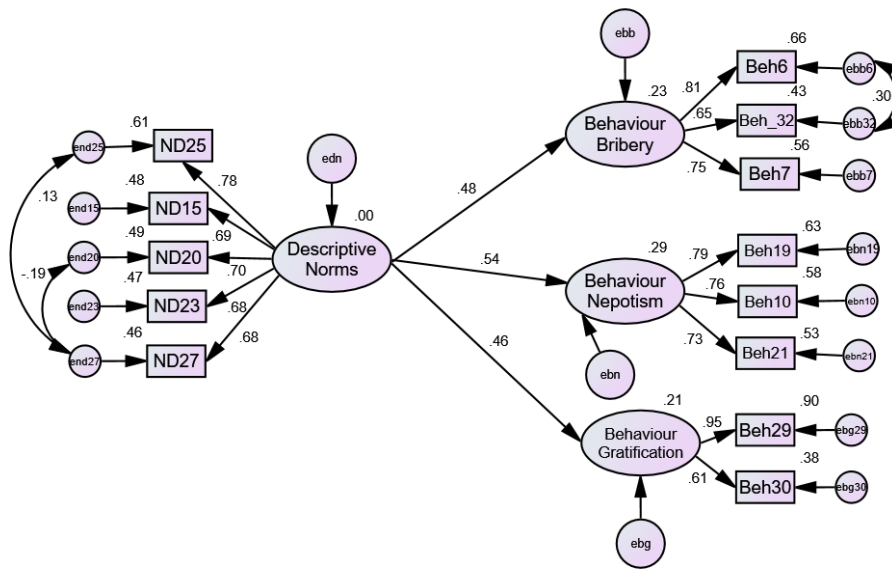


Figure 6 - 15: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Universalism-nature (Low-level group).

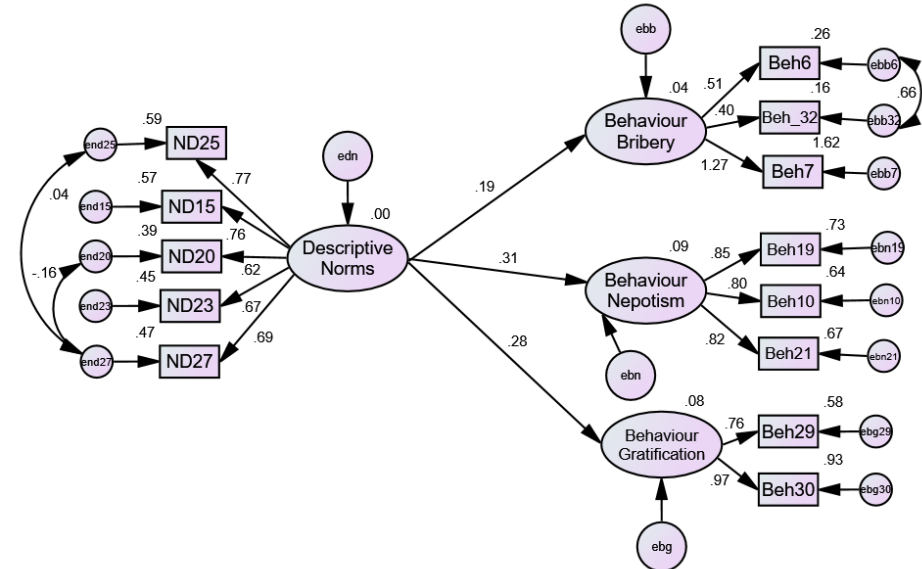


Figure 6 - 16: Path analysis – The relation of descriptive norms and predicted behaviours towards small-scale corrupt practices moderated by Universalism-nature (High-level group).

To further analyse the supported hypotheses, the analysis on how much the moderating effect of the values on each group is conducted (see Figure 6–7 until Figure 6-16). It is to find which level of the value is more pronounced to affect the relationships between Descriptive norms and Predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts.

Table 6-16 below presents the data on how much the moderating effect of the values on each group.

Table 6 - 16: Summary of the confirmed moderating effect

The supported hypotheses	Constrained paths	Moderators	Groups	β Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p-value	Std regression weights
H4b	DN → PB-Bribery	Conformity-rules	Low-level	0.630	0.107	5.880	0.001	0.443
			High-level	0.140	0.088	1.600	0.110 (ns)	0.149
H4e	DN → PB-Bribery	Universalism-nature	Low-level	0.642	0.123	5.227	0.001	0.479
			High-level	0.175	0.147	1.190	0.234 (ns)	0.195

Note: Significant (p-value < 0.05)
 ns = not significant (p-value > 0.05)

Table 6-16 shows the results of the regression coefficient for each group. The regression coefficient for the relationship of DN → Bribery moderated by Conformity-rules, the regression coefficient for low-level of Conformity-rules (Group 1) was $\beta = 0.630$ (p-value < 0.05), and high level of Conformity-rules (Group 2) was $\beta = 0.140$ (p-value > 0.05). It suggests that the effect of Conformity-rules on the relationships between DN → Gratification, applied only for Group 1. However, the effect of high-level Conformity-rules (Group 2) on this relationship was not confirmed as it is not significant at 0.05. This indicates that the type of moderation that occurs in the relationship between Descriptive norms and Predicted-behaviour towards bribery is full moderation. With a lower level of Conformity rules, the more people perceive that many people do bribery, it can lead to the tendency of them to do bribery is getting higher.

Furthermore, the regression coefficient for the relationship of DN → Bribery, moderated by low-level of Universalism-nature was $\beta = 0.642$ (p-value < 0.05). However, the regression coefficient of the moderating effect of the high-level group was not confirmed (p-value > 0.05). It suggests that the type of moderation that occurs in the DN and Bribery relationship is full moderation. With a lower level of Universalism Nature, the more people perceive that many people do corruption, it can lead to higher tendency of them to do bribery.

After the above findings, following is a test to examine whether both variables (descriptive norms and values) are direct antecedents to behaviour towards corrupt practices.

6.4.3 Test of robustness

A test of robustness has been conducted with the model as follows:

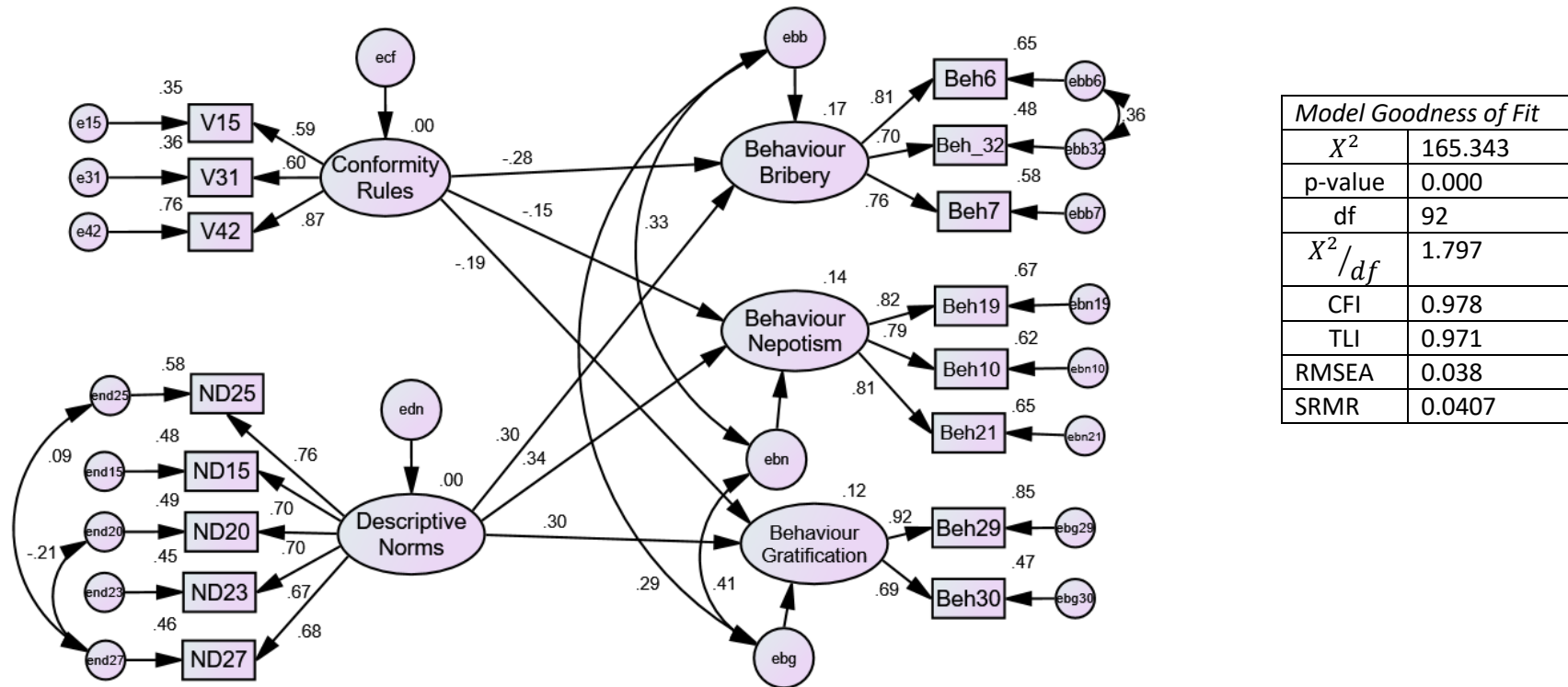
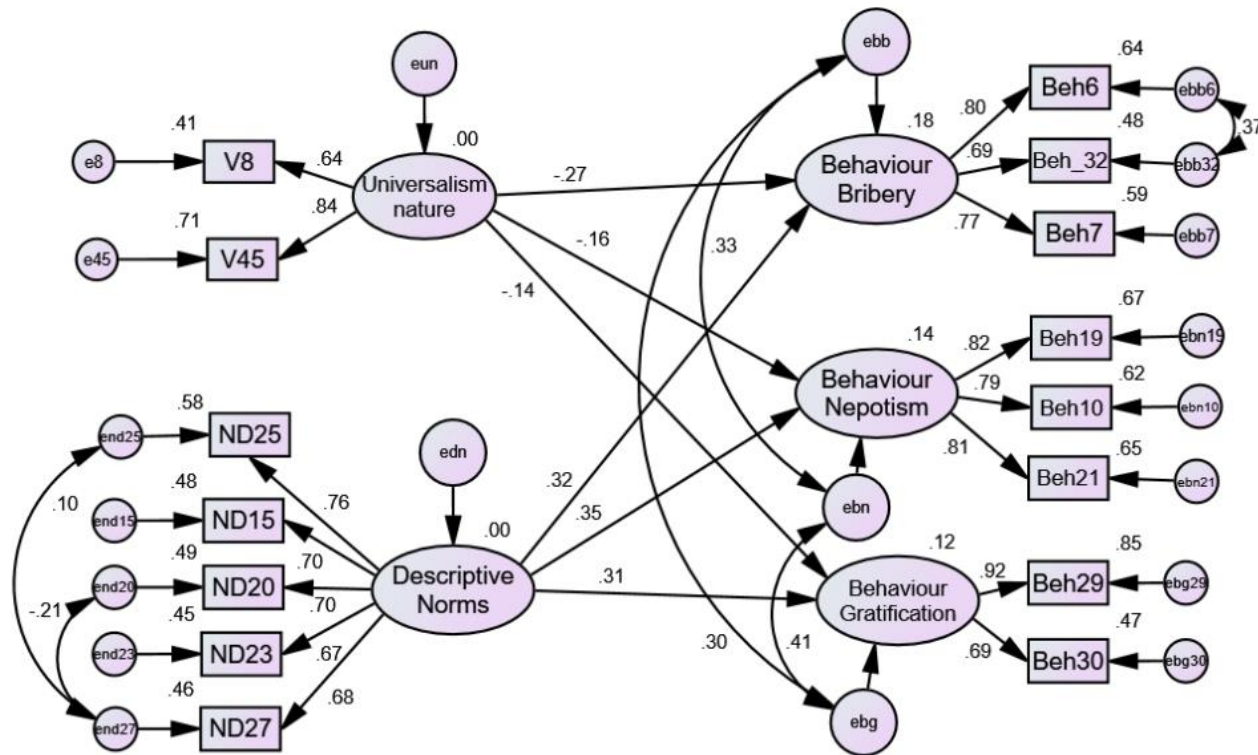


Figure 6 - 17: Descriptive norms and Conformity-Rules to small-scale corrupt practices



Model Goodness of Fit	
χ^2	126.997
p-value	0.000
df	78
χ^2/df	1.628
CFI	0.984
TLI	0.979
RMSEA	0.034
SRMR	0.0302

Figure 6 - 18: Descriptive norms and Universalism-Nature to small-scale corrupt practices

Table 6 - 17: The relation between Descriptive norms, Conformity-Rules, Universalism-Nature and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices

Relations	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p-value	Std regression weights and Correlation	Result
Conformity-rules → PB Bribery	-0.33	0.07	-5.03	0.000	-0.28	Significant
Conformity-rules → PB Nepotism	-0.16	0.06	-2.91	0.004	-0.15	Significant
Conformity-rules → PB Gratification	-0.17	0.05	-3.57	0.000	-0.19	Significant
DN → PB Bribery	0.40	0.07	5.71	0.000	0.31	Significant
DN → PB Nepotism	0.41	0.06	6.53	0.000	0.34	Significant
DN → PB Gratification	0.29	0.05	5.34	0.000	0.30	Significant
Universalism-nature → PB Bribery	-0.54	0.11	-4.70	0.000	-0.27	Significant
Universalism-nature → PB Nepotism	-0.30	0.10	-3.03	0.002	-0.16	Significant
Universalism-nature → PB Gratification	-0.22	0.08	-2.74	0.006	-0.14	Significant
DN → PB Bribery	0.42	0.07	6.01	0.000	0.32	Significant
DN → PB Nepotism	0.42	0.06	6.69	0.000	0.35	Significant
DN → PB Gratification	0.30	0.06	5.49	0.000	0.31	Significant

A test of robustness has been conducted to examine the relationships between descriptive norms and values towards predicted behaviour (see Figure 6-17 and Figure 6-18). In this test, both of descriptive norms and values were treated as antecedents to predicted behaviour towards everyday corruption.

The results are presented in Table 6-17 above. From that summary table, it can be seen that both values (Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature) and descriptive norms are direct antecedents to predicted behaviour to small-scale corrupt practices. All regression weights and correlations coefficients of are significant ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$). It is found from the coefficients of regression weights and correlations, that descriptive norms have slightly stronger relations with behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts than both values. Value of Conformity-rules, Power-dominance, and Universalism-nature have slightly weaker relationships than descriptive norms to predicted behaviour towards all types of small-scale corrupt practices. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that both descriptive norms and values are related to people behaviour towards everyday corruption. Thus, they should be involved in the campaign to change people behaviour in this context.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the quantitative findings and analysis of Study 2. The quantitative study has developed a model that elaborates on the relations of descriptive norms and behaviour intention (predicted behaviour) towards small-scale corrupt practices (includes bribery, nepotism, and gratification). It also has examined the influence of values on the aforementioned relationships.

Earlier on, the model aimed to test the relations of social norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. During the process, Injunctive norms were not confirmed to be included in further analysis. It is because the measurement model testing did not show satisfactory results on the model fit of Injunctive norms. Because of that, it was then decided to focus on descriptive norms for the next analysis process.

It is found that descriptive norms are related to people's intention to behave towards bribery, nepotism, and gratification. The results suggest that the more common people perceive small-corrupt practices, the higher the tendency people will follow it.

The study also tested the moderating effects of values on the relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. There were only a few values found to influence the relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards a certain type of small-scale corrupt practices. The relationships between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards bribery are significantly moderated by the values of Conformity rules and Universalism-nature. The type of moderation occurs with these values on those relationships are full moderation. It shows that a lower level of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature, the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted-behaviour towards bribery is strengthened. A person with a low level of Conformity rules and/or Universalism-nature is predicted to comply easily with everyday corruption when the practices are common in the society.

The findings are expected to provide valuable input for planning and designing intervention models for the anti-corruption programme. The next phase of study can address the findings from Study 2 when developing the proposed concepts for anti-corruption campaign. The discussion and implications of quantitative research are discussed in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER SEVEN: FINDING AND ANALYSIS: STUDY 3 - CONCEPT TESTING

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the concept testing, which comprises Study 3 of this PhD. The aim of the study was to develop and propose an intervention model using social marketing approaches. The chapter comprises of two main contents. The first part explains the development of the proposed concepts. It briefly discusses the results from two previous studies that provide input for the process of selecting and planning the intervention models.

The second part describes the overview of the fieldwork that tested the proposed concepts using focus group discussions with young adults in Indonesia. This is followed by a presentation of the findings and analysis of Study 3. The findings are discussed with reference to the recordings and transcripts of these discussions.

The chapter then continues with the findings of interviews with the key informants, all of whom were anti-corruption activists in Indonesia. These served to provide a professional outcome with respect to the current anti-corruption movement in Indonesia. The chapter ends with conclusions based on these qualitative findings.

7.1 Development of the proposed concepts

The propositions that were reflected in the concepts were based on findings from the previous two studies and in some cases, it is based on the author's secondary research that supported by the literatures. The process of this development adopted the COM-B system using behaviour change wheel model by Michie et.al (2014, 2016).

7.1.1 Selecting target behaviour

At the beginning of this section, a resume of the findings from Study 1 and Study 2 are presented. The findings from both previous studies contribute to the development of proposed concepts in

Study 3. Below Figure 7-1 is an illustration that sum up significant findings in Study 1 and Study 2. It describes the process of selecting target behaviour for the Study 3.

Study 1 identified the types of everyday corrupt practices that are commonly found in society. It also explored factors that influence the perceived commonality of those practices. Some factors that influence people in complying with small-scale corruption have also been discovered. Early evidence was found for the role of values as an inhibitor to corrupt behaviour.

From Study 1 and Study 2, some barriers to follow non-compliance to small-scale corruption were identified. Lack of knowledge, lack of trust, lack of support (e.g., from family - Section 6.3.2.1 – Measurement of injunctive norms), and lack of role model are among the barriers.

The findings from Study 2 showed that only a few of the values influence the relationship between descriptive norms and people's behaviour towards everyday corruption (see Chapter 6). The results found that only the value of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature that significantly moderate the relationship between descriptive norms and the tendency to small-scale bribery. The result also suggests that descriptive norms are slightly stronger than values in influencing people's behaviour towards the corrupt practices. Thus, relying solely on campaigning values will not be sufficient without bringing descriptive norms when developing an anti-corruption campaign.

Addressing and considering every issue found in the two studies, target behaviour of the campaign is built into three aims. They are building confidence for the young adults when dealing with public services, reducing compliance with or tolerance to small-scale corruption, and continuing an improved value education (focusing on the value of Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature) to raise the awareness of anti-corruption behaviour (particularly on small scale bribery). It is described in the following Figure 7-1.

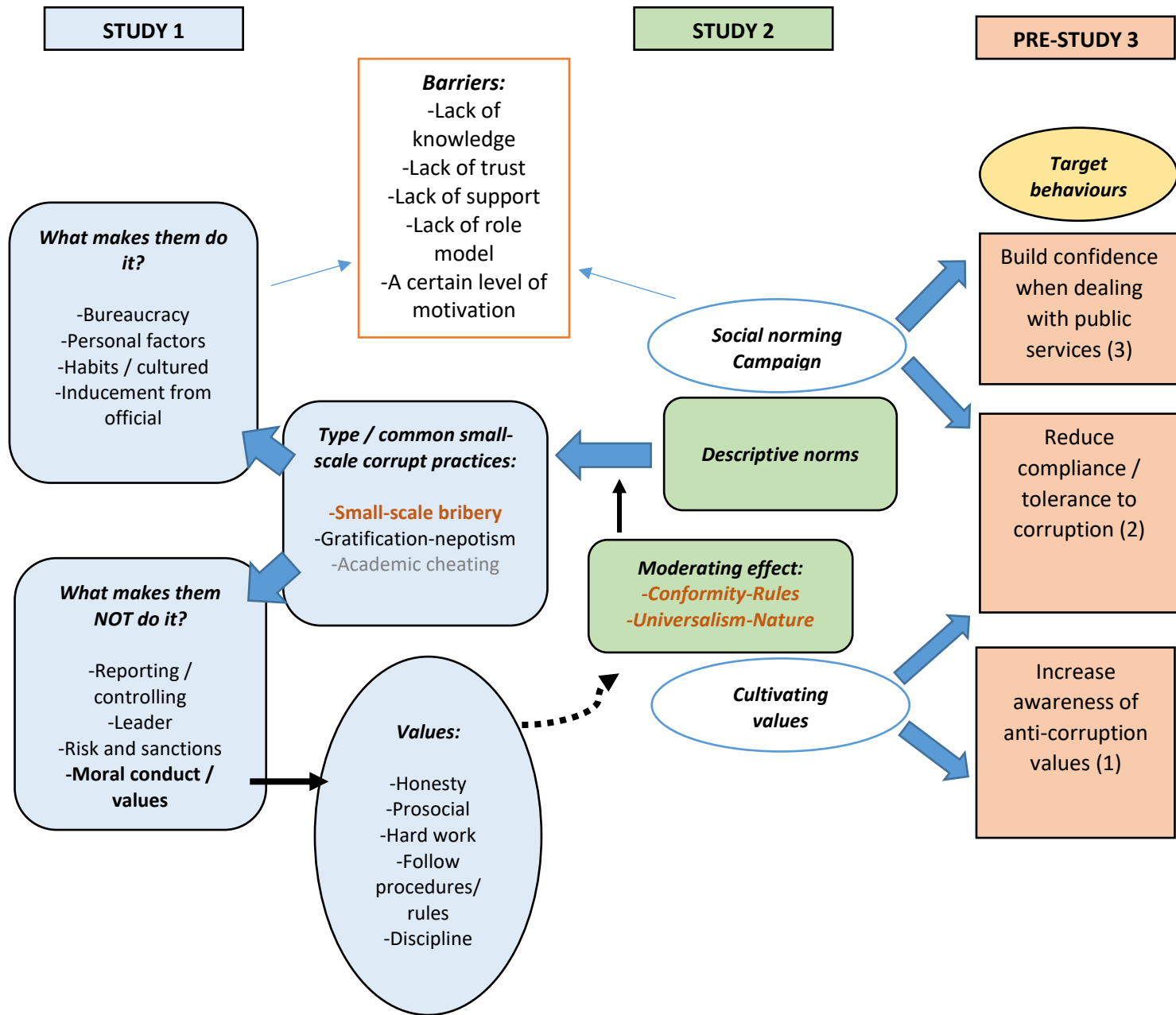


Figure 7 - 1: The process of formulating the target behaviours (Author generated)

7.1.2 Behaviour analysis process

Based on the findings from the previous studies, several propositions were formulated. However, prior to the proposed concepts formulation, behavioural analysis was conducted using COM-B model. It is to identify whether a change needed in certain areas of behaviour component. It will then suggest the type of intervention models can be required to achieve target behaviour. The following Table 7-1 illustrates the behaviour analysis of this research.

Table 7 - 1 : Behaviour analysis using COM-B system

No.	Target behaviours	COM-B components	What needs to happen for the target behaviour to occur?	Is there a need for change?
1	To raise awareness of anti-corruption values (Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature).	Physical capability	Be able to read and find some information	No change needed as no barrier in terms of their physical conditions.
		Psychological capability	Know and able to recognize the different types or forms of small-scale corrupt practices.	Change needed as there is still lack of knowledge.
			Know the difference between private and public goods / assets.	Change needed as there is still lack of knowledge and understanding.
			Understand the benefits of anti-corruption to themselves and others.	Change needed as there is still lack of knowledge.
		Physical opportunity	Have information available.	Change needed as there is lack of information.
		Social opportunity	See their peers and role model / influencers aware and understand the benefits of being non-corrupt.	Change needed as there is still lack of role models.
		Reflective motivation	Have beliefs that anti-corruption brings benefits for the people's welfare and environment sustainability.	Change needed as there is still lack of understanding on this matter.
			Believe that to do hold the above beliefs one should improve their cognitive skill.	Change needed as the young adults do not recognize the value of this skill.

		Automatic motivation	Have frequent learning to improve their understanding. Build relationship among their peers	Change needed to improve their understanding / to establish the thinking pattern.
2	To reduce compliance with / reduce tolerance to small-scale corrupt practices	Physical capability	Have the physical skills to perform the standard procedures	No change needed as young adults have the skills
		Psychological capability	Know the consequences to prompt them to avoiding small-scale corruption.	Activation on control and monitor
		Physical opportunity	Have the information (on control and monitor, impact of corruption to social welfare, benefits for themselves) provided.	Change needed as there is lack of information
		Social opportunity	See their surroundings (peers, family, authority, influencers) avoid the small-scale corruption.	Change needed as young adults witness only few people in their surroundings do it
		Reflective motivation	Hold beliefs that by being non-compliance with small-scale corruption, means that they have contributed to anti-corruption environment.	Change needed as it is still lacking the understanding on this matter.
			Believe that to perform the above, one should have improved cognitive skills.	Change needed as young adults do not recognise the value of the skills.
		Automatic motivation	Have frequent reminder by promoting positive behaviour. Have established frequent communication	Change needed to establish the thinking pattern / to be in the top of mind.
3	To have / build confidence in dealing with public services	Physical capability	Have the physical skills to perform or deal with public services.	Change needed to make young adults well informed

				and make them used to do it.
		Psychological capability	Know the standard procedures	Change needed as young adults' knowledge on this matter is still not sufficient.
		Physical opportunity	Have the comprehensive information (including the flows / chart, leaflets) provided	Change needed to add more and frequent information and support.
			Provide the support system (e.g., helpful officer, established communication channel).	
		Social opportunity	See their peers, authority, influencers / role model deal with public services without any corruption (following the procedures).	Change needed as young adults do not always see people in their surrounding follow the standard procedures without corruption.
			Witness the support system work for them and other people.	Change needed as sometimes support system (e.g., officer in charge, machineries/ apps) does not work for young adults.
		Reflective motivation	Hold beliefs that following the procedures is better and more beneficial for all.	Change needed as young adults do not have sufficient beliefs on this matter.
		Automatic motivation	Form established habits for dealing with public services.	Change needed to establish habits and to be mindful when dealing with public services
			Have established relationship with the department / public services (e.g., setting reminder, promotion, etc)	

7.1.3 Identifying the intervention model

Having conducted behavioural analysis above, it can be seen that almost all COM-B components need to be changed (except the physical capability). These components then need to be addressed and linked with one or more possible interventions. However, prior to that process, selection on which intervention functions are appropriate for the context of anti-corruption campaign, needs to be conducted. Selection process was applied based on APEASE criteria by Michie et al. (2016) among all nine intervention functions provided in BCW (behaviour change wheel) model by Michie et al. (2011).

Table 7 - 2: Identifying appropriate intervention function using APEASE Criteria (Michie et al., 2016)

No.	Possible Intervention functions	Does the intervention function meet the APEASE criteria (Affordability, practicability, effectiveness / cost-effectiveness, acceptability, side-effect / safety, equity) in the context of anti-corruption campaign?
1	Education	Yes, but it may take longer time and efforts to prepare and train / teach the contents.
2	Persuasion	Yes, but could be challenging as descriptive norms on corruption is quite strong. Thus, it may take longer time and higher costs.
3	Incentivisation	Possible, but it may raise high costs
4	Coercion	Unlikely, as it can raise side effect / safety
5	Training	Yes, but it may raise high costs
6	Restriction	Unlikely, as it is not practicable
7	Environmental restructuring	Possible, but may need high costs, longer time and more effort to socialize it.
8	Modelling	Possible, but it can be challenging as there is lack of role models.
9	Enablement	Yes, but may need longer time and efforts.

From the Table 7-2 above, coercion and restriction seem to be unlikely to be proposed as the intervention models. Both models could raise side effect / safety, such as raising a new chance of small-corrupt practices as people like to avoid complicated procedures. The intervention also needs to be carefully conducted as it could create political issues from the oppositions to the

government, as political issues many times are used to attack the image and performance of the government or policymaker.

7.1.4 The proposed concepts

The next process after the intervention models have been identified, is the development of the concept propositions. There are ten interventions proposed for the concept testing as illustrated in Table 7 – 3 below. The propositions are ranging from individual level to macro level of interventions to achieve the target behaviour related to each concept.

All the ten concepts were developed to address the findings from previous Study 1 and Study 2. In addition, secondary research has also been conducted to support the propositions of each concept, include the proposed theories to support the successful of intervention delivery. Each of the concept is built to meet the need for achieving the target behaviour. The matrix of the links between them is presented in Table 7-3.

Table 7 - 3: Propositions for the concept testing (Author generated)

Concepts	Related to target behaviour	Label	Objectives	Propositions	Settings	Target audiences	Outcomes	Addressing findings / Theory support	Applications or Examples
1	1, 3	Community empowerment	To build community empowerment to establish and sustain the positive change.	Community-based interventions can build the capacity for young adults to gain control in fighting corruption.	Peer-led educational programme, Discussion and leadership activity / programme at universities or youth organisations.	Young adults – Individual and community-wide	Community development, leadership	Addressing findings in Study 1 on empowering young adults and provide support of togetherness. Grassroots, social activation, empowerment, Relationship marketing.	Environmental behaviour change, public health (Agyeman and Angus, 2003; Miller and Greene, 2005)
2	1, 2, 3	Experiential learning	To build capacity among young adults to enable them to produce, plan, design, and evaluate community activities.	Building the capacity of young adults can enable them to own and sustain an anti-corruption programme.	Training, Workshops at universities or youth organisations or neighbourhood	Young adults –	Community empowerment	Experiential learning, Relationship marketing.	Alcohol problem (Rundle-Thiele <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Blitstein <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
3	2, 3	Information and communication	To promote positive images or positive	Increasing positive images to public could	Advertisement, Mass media,	Public in general	Individual behaviour change	Addressing findings from Study 1: the lack	Safe driving behaviour, Influencer

			behaviours to tackle the prevalence of small-scale corruption through advertisement	lead to the development of positive norms.	Public service centre			of role model, and from Study 2: descriptive norms found to be significant factor to influence people behaviour. Persuasion and marketing frameworks	marketing (Lennon, Rentfro and O'Leary, 2010; Harman and Murphy, 2008; Lou and Yuan, 2019; Köbis et al., 2019)
4	2, 3	Intense community campaign by promoting positive descriptive norms	To promote the visibility of integrity behaviour in the community and build the confidence of the target group to follow.	Campaigning positive descriptive norms in a community can increase people's confidence and trust.	Prompts, Formative research, Anti-corruption clinics / programmes	Yount adults and general public at various institutions (e.g., universities, youth organisations, private companies, government offices, etc).	Community behaviour change	Addressing findings from Study 1: building togetherness, and from Study 2: descriptive norms significantly influence the tendency to corrupt behaviour. Community-based social marketing	Pro-environmental focus, increased exercise (Martin, Ross and Irwin, 2015; Schuster, Kubacki and Rundle-Thiele, 2016).
5	1	Activation of moral (sense of) obligation and	To increase awareness of the	Activating moral obligation (personal	Advertisement, (e.g., disseminate	Young adults and	Individual changes in	Addressing findings in Study 1 and Study 2:	Pro-environmental behaviour (de

		social-nature welfare	consequences and sense of responsibility when acting corruptly.	norms) can drive people to perform or refrain from specific actions.	facts through advertisement) , Mass media, Public places	general public	personal norms	Values act as inhibitor to corrupt behaviour. Activation of anti-corruption norms (Norms-activation theory)	Groot and Steg, 2009)
6	1, 3	Persuasive communication using social media.	To increase awareness of small-scale corrupt acts and relationship building through social media intervention	Disseminating information and build relationship via social media can attract young adults' attention and increase their awareness and knowledge.	Online settings, such as social media	Young adults and public in general	Adoption of behaviour change – (individual level)	Addressing findings in Study 1: lack of knowledge, attract young adults critical thinking by discussion. Persuasion and marketing frameworks, Relationship marketing Grassroots, social activism, and empowerment	Social change; Anti-littering (Sharma, 2018; Hughes, McConnell and Groner, 2019; Williams and Chinn, 2010)
7	3	Media campaign - Public info communication	To increase public info-communication	Public opinion or reviews (praise/criticism	Opinion polls, Advocacy,	Public in general,	Adoption of behaviour change at the	Addressing findings in Study	Climate change, tobacco

			on the performance of public or private institutions) can be an effective means to improve the performance of public institutions, private companies, as well as politicians (e.g., by civil society).	Demonstrations	Civil society, public forums watchdog (e.g., Ombudsman, External auditors, Press).	community level	1: lack of knowledge. Theories: Media and social media campaigns; Public opinion	(McDonnell and Bartlett, 2009; Lane and Carter, 2012)
8	2, 3	Less or non-personalised service	To create less or non-personalised service as part of public services.	Limiting the personalisation of public services (e.g., rotation of officials, the use of application system) can prevent corrupt acts.	Government office, Public service centre	Public in general, Officials	Adoption of behaviour change	Addressing findings in Study 1: bureaucracy has caused people comply with corruption. Theories: Structural change; government policy	Public administration (Abbink, 2004)
9	2, 3	Simple / less bureaucracy	To simplify the programmes and procedures in public services	Simplifying the programmes and procedures, and the use of IT can increase	Using application system (software), e-commerce	Government offices / department, public institutions.	Adoption of behaviour change	Addressing findings in Study 1: bureaucracy has caused people comply with corruption.	Sustainable energy, physical activity, smart shopping (Mulcahy,

				efficiency and transparency.				Theories: Government policy	Russell-Bennett and Iacobucci, 2018; Atkinson, 2013; Weber <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Oppong-Tawiah <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
10	2, 3	Commitment to Integrity acts	To increase the commitment of public institutions, private companies, and social organisations to maintain integrity.	Commitment from all parties is needed to build trust and confidence in preventing future corruption.	Anti-corruption agreement, Integrity pact, Code of conduct, Institutionalised ethical conduct.	Public institutions, Private companies, Social organisations, Government bodies.	Adoption of behaviour change at group / community level	Theories: Government policy	Integrity pack (Transparency International, 2018b; Daka <i>et al.</i> , 2016; OECD, 2018)

Concept 1 and 2 apply educational approach that can focus on value campaign. To address the findings in Study 2, certain values such as Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature contribute to influence people behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. Thus, the intervention models can be made to emphasise on promoting those values in the campaign. The interventions may provide information that explicitly delivers the importance of those values to increase the target group's knowledge and motivation (see Roccas, Sagiv and Navon, 2017). For example, a programme can endorse the importance of discipline and obedience to law (Conformity-rules) to promote behaviours that are consistent with the values. The issue on being discipline and obedience to law have mentioned many times by the participants in Study 1 (see section 5.6.1 in Chapter 5). It shows that people have already known the above values are needed in this context, however, somehow there is still lacking in terms of cultivating the values in daily activities.

Concept 2 emphasises the use of experiential learning to enable the target audience to own and sustain an anti-corruption programme. The design of anti-corruption modules can thus be improved by utilising experiential learning (Kolb and Kolb, 2005). In this approach the target group is allowed to experience the process, understand the consequences of acts, and devise strategies on how to avoid or solve problems in small-scale corrupt practices. According to Rundle-Thiele et al. (2013), a programme that focuses on interactivity, relevance, and creativity is more engaging for the target group and can maintain their receptiveness to the education programme. A programme that is more information-heavy, didactic, and fear-based will not be attractive to the target group (Rundle-Thiele *et al.*, 2013). Thus, this idea is proposed for the implementation of Concept 2.

Concept 3 emphasises on communicating positive images and environments through advertisement. It targets the public in general, which includes young adults at an individual level. It is supported by the theory of persuasion and marketing frameworks. It is a technique used to change people's behaviour through the influence of external factors. Several scholars (such as Spiro, 1983; Wendel, 1983; Rotfeld, 1988; Herr et al., 1991; Miniard et al., 1992) have produced evidence to show that people can be persuaded to change their behaviour (think, act, or behave) through communication and the construction of messages (Brennan *et al.*, 2014). The persuasion and marketing frameworks have been successfully implemented in programmes such as safe driving behaviour (Harman and Murphy, 2008; Lennon, Rentfro and

O'Leary, 2010). In addition, a study on promoting positive descriptive norms by Köbis et al. (2019) provided evidence for the effectiveness of positive descriptive norms in campaigns to reduce corruption.

To promote positive images, role models or influencers (e.g., profiles of young achievers) can also be used. Adopted from the commercial market, the informative values of influencer-generated content and influencers' trustworthiness, attractiveness, and similarity to followers can influence levels of trust, awareness, and purchase intention among their followers through branded posts (Lou and Yuan, 2019). Furthermore, using role models or the profiles of young achievers can also draw upon the positive changes, achievements, or positive initiatives that have been accomplished by an institution or public services. This provides the public with up-to-date evidence-based information. For example, in Study 1, some public services for renewing or making passports have been improved and are more convenient. This information can then change how people perceive public services.

Concept 4 focuses more on community development that is under social norming approach. Thus, it is essential to maintain the visibility of positive behaviours and images (such as obey the rules, protect the nature, improved public services) to the targeted behaviour. As Schuster, Kubacki and Rundle-Thiele (2016) state, "increasing the visibility of the (targeted) behaviour in the community ensures that the social norms of an appropriate reference group reflect the community in which the target audience resides" (Schuster, Kubacki and Rundle-Thiele, 2016, p. 6).

Concept 5 was proposed to increase awareness of the consequences of people's behaviour towards day-to-day corrupt practices. The concept proposed framing the message according to the problems or consequences. It is supported by the Norms Activation Model (NAM). Schwartz's (1977) NAM has been used in many studies to explain a wide range of prosocial intentions and behaviours, such as pro-environmental behaviour. It consists of the following elements: awareness of consequences, responsibility, and personal norms. A study conducted by de Groot and Steg (2009) found that an individual must be aware of the consequences of their behaviour before feeling responsible for engaging in it or acknowledging that someone else's contribution may be useful. Problem awareness and responsibility play important roles

in the development of personal norms that affect prosocial intentions (de Groot and Steg, 2009).

Concept 6 attempts to persuade the target audience by using social media to run the campaign. Social media has also been used as a platform for relationship building (Williams and Chinn, 2010). It is significant as the organiser can understand the process of building the 'loyalty' of the target group and the development of the anti-corruption programme. Social media can be an essential platform as it can also provide a catalyst for social change (Sharma, 2018). Initiators can provide various types of social media platforms, such as websites, blogs, content communities (e.g., YouTube), and others (Williams and Chinn, 2010).

Concept 7 aimed to show the reviews (praise or criticism) of company profiles or public/political figures. It is believed that it can be an effective means of disseminating valuable information to the public to support their (future) decision making. The concept can use media advocacy as well. It is to disseminate information through communications media to influence the public's view on any issue (Lane and Carter, 2012). Lane and Carter (2012) emphasised that an effective campaign should be based on evidence as it can be a driving force for the campaign. For example, by providing reasons as to why a particular policy should be implemented and what the benefits are. In addition, media campaigns also play an essential role in shifting societal approaches towards the targeted behaviour (McDonnell and Bartlett, 2009).

Concept 8 proposed to reduce the power of an officer by minimising face-to-face contact through the rotation of officials. This has been practised in other cases. For example, the German federal government regularly rotated its staff as a precaution against corruption in public administration (Abbink, 2004). Moreover, Abbink (2004) found that the rotation of staff significantly reduced the level of bribes and frequency of inefficient decisions caused by bribery. The association of Certified Fraud Examiners (2012) also stated that rotation of staff reduces the opportunity for an "unusual close relationship with vendor or customer" that could lead to fraud (Yogi Prabowo, 2014).

The computerisation of the system proposed in Concept 9 aims to simplify government programmes and procedures. It also aims to reduce opportunities for corruption and increase

the efficiency of services. Among the strategies Pope (1999) proposed to curb corruption were preventive actions. This can be achieved through several methods, such as simplifying programmes and procedures, depersonalising government (by reducing face-to-face contact), regular rotation of staff, and so forth (Pope, 1999).

Lastly, Concept 10 proposed to build national integrity by binding related parties in an integrity pact. As Pope (1999) suggested, to strengthen national integrity, all relevant institutions should formulate rules of conduct. Therefore, an agreement or pact should be made to bind all parties so that it can actually protect them from potential fraud or unethical acts.

Table 7 – 4: Matrix of the link between proposed concepts, intervention model, COM-B components and target behaviours

		CONCEPTS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Intervention model</i>		<i>Education</i>	<i>Education /training</i>	<i>Modelling</i>	<i>Modelling/ Enablement</i>	<i>Persuasion</i>	<i>Persuasion/ Enablement</i>	<i>Incentivisation /Modelling</i>	<i>Environmental restructuring</i>	<i>Environmental restructuring</i>	<i>Modelling/ Enablement</i>
Target behaviours	COM-B components										
1. To raise awareness of anti-corruption values (including conformity-rules and universalism-nature)	Psychological capability										
	Physical opportunity										
	Social opportunity										
	Reflective motivation										
	Automatic motivation										
2. To reduce compliance with / tolerance to small-scale corruption	Psychological capability										
	Physical opportunity										
	Social opportunity										
	Reflective motivation										
	Automatic motivation										

Table 7 - 4: Matrix of the link between proposed concepts, intervention model, COM-B components and target behaviours – Continued

		CONCEPTS									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Intervention model</i>		<i>Education</i>	<i>Education /training</i>	<i>Modelling</i>	<i>Modelling/ Enablement</i>	<i>Persuasion</i>	<i>Persuasion/ Enablement</i>	<i>Incentivisation /Modelling</i>	<i>Environmental restructuring</i>	<i>Environmental restructuring</i>	<i>Modelling/ Enablement</i>
Target behaviours	COM-B components										
3. To build confidence in dealing with public services	Psychological capability										
	Physical opportunity										
	Social opportunity										
	Reflective motivation										
	Automatic motivation										

The above Table 7-4 presents the links between each concept (including the intervention function) and the target behaviours (including the COM-B components). It shows the mapping of which intervention models can be conducted to meet the need of each COM-B components in order to achieve a particular target behaviour. The next phase is for each concept / intervention to be tested by discussing the likelihood and acceptability with young adults in focus group discussions. It will start with the overview of conducting the fieldwork for Study 3.

7.2 Overview of the fieldwork of Study 3

As explained in Chapter 4, a total of 33 participants spread across five groups took part in the focus group discussions (FGD). Each focus group lasted for 45 - 60 minutes. During the FGD, the questions were developed further. Probing was also used and was adapted to the interests and dynamics of each group. Sub-questions were also changed as necessary without deviating from the main objective of the research questions.

The dynamics of each group differed according to the characteristics of the participants. In groups where participants already knew each other, participants were more open, interactive, and lively. However, in groups where participants met for the first time, a longer period of icebreaking was needed to make the discussion more interactive. The decision to use mixed-gender focus groups allowed the researcher to create an interaction between these demographics, which in turn generated a greater diversity of opinion within each focus group.

The participants were asked about the acceptance and likelihood of ten proposed concepts. They discussed their attitudes and opinions, suggestions, potential barriers, and challenges to the implementation of the concepts. In some cases, pictures were used to help the participants understand the concepts. Details of the questions asked can be found in Appendix 4-2.

The discussions were audiotaped, transcribed, and then analysed. Because the discussions were conducted in the Indonesian language, materials for the analysis and report were translated into English. As explained earlier, the data were analysed using the thematic technique employed by Miles and Huberman (1994).

7.3 Findings and analysis of concept testing

This section presents the findings of an analysis of the responses of participants to the questions asked regarding the ten concepts. The discussions covered ideas for the anti-corruption campaign proposed by the researcher.

As explained earlier in the methodology chapter, the data analysis used the technique or approach developed by Miles and Huberman (1994). The processual flow of the analysis comprised data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification (Miles and Huberman, 1994). All the discussions were transcribed and coded before being organised into meaningful data.

In the following section, the findings of each concept are elaborated. This includes the responses from the participants as shared in the focus group discussions.

7.3.1 Concept 1

To support and strengthen people's values, an educational approach was proposed with Concept 1. It was aimed at adapting to the needs and style of young adults. Concept 1 comprises a discussion for young adults that is led by a person belonging to this cohort. The aim is for individuals with the same interests and concerns to speak and discuss on the same wavelength. They can thus build the same perceptions of corruption issues, as a result of which collective ideas from this interactive educational programme will emerge. This can serve as a core or reference group for other individuals of the same age to engage in collective action to combat corruption. This is because this problem cannot be solved by only one individual, or even a few; many people need to combine and support it (Mackie, 2018).

This concept aims to inspire enthusiasm among the target group and empower them to gain control of small-scale corrupt acts. By the end of the programme, it is expected that, along with other young adults, they will be able to build the capacity to gain control in fighting corruption. They can also devise other alternatives to help reduce the problem.

The researcher asked the participants to comment on a peer-led educational programme led by a young adult and conducted with his or her peers to discuss corruption issues and possible alternatives to reducing or solving these. A format for discussion was proposed as this was found (from Study 1) to be an event that young adults would be interested in. In the discussion, they

were able to have an interactive conversation where they could speak for themselves and express their opinions.

In this focus group discussion, many of the participants stated they would like to have and join such a discussion if it is offered. They agreed that this type of event can encourage them and increase their enthusiasm.

“Yes, I am personally very interested if I am in a circle or group that discusses public awareness or corruption in this country. Especially if together we make a project/campaign that we initiate ourselves” (G3-DF18).

“In my opinion, this is the one (programme) that has a big impact on the millennial generation and an anti-corruption culture. They (those who join the discussion) have the same vision and mission.....they come and participate because they have the same worries. So, on the one hand, it makes us aware; and on the other hand, it is a campaign as well” (G2-IM23).

“Very much (encouraging), especially if the discussion is filled with people who are able to explain the problem of corruption in terms of its manifestation and latency” (G1-AM24).

“Yes, it can (encourage). Young adults must think critically about corruption. After the discussion, they may spread the (discussion) on the dangers of corruption to their friends (who do not join the discussion)” (G4-AM18).

From the focus group discussions, potential barriers to this educational approach were raised as well as some ideas for improvement. For instance, the idea of discussions may only be for people who are interested and have concerns about corruption in the country. For those who have different interests, they may be less likely to engage. For instance, they may be interested in something less serious (fun, happy environment) than talking about or discussing this issue. It was suggested that the organiser needs to ensure that the content and form of discussions are suited to the characters of young adults.

“If the discussion is not really interesting, it will not attract them. (If) the issues are not that interesting, they will not come. I see that young people nowadays rarely want to discuss...they like to make (and watch) YouTube” (G2-HF21).

7.3.2 Concept 2

Concept 2, the training and workshops, aims to equip young adults with the knowledge and skills to enable them to carry out monitoring in the community. Thus, they understand how to deliver or support a community watch in the places where they live. This approach is offered not only at the individual level but also at the midstream level. This means that the marketer needs to build relationships with institutions or organisations to equip them as well as provide the necessary training and workshops to prevent corruption.

The researcher asked the participants for their thoughts on a training programme or workshop designed to increase their knowledge and skills in conducting anti-corruption practices. These can be training or workshop programmes on how to carry out a community watch or manage a community budget. It is expected that such programmes will enable the target group to develop and sustain the skills needed to prevent corruption.

This programme appeared to be accepted by the participants. They felt that, as well as being accessed by the citizens/public, it is also essential for civil servants to have such programmes as the knowledge and skills provided will be relevant to the tasks they perform. Therefore, they also need to know about and have access to the training.

“Yes, very interested....when it is held for free by the government, then it can be accessed by the public, I think many people want to learn about it” (G2-IM23).

“Certainly (can be accepted). An anti-corruption education is needed. With training, it is a new way to anticipate corruption” (G1-AM23).

“For example, about the village allocation funds¹¹. Now it is distributed from the central government to the villages to solve their problems, and also to develop the creative economy in their area. But there are many village heads entangled in corruption cases. Even though they probably did not intend to be corrupt, it is because of their lack of administration management. And he (a village head) did not know how to manage the funds, now he went to prison” (G1-IM23).

An educational approach may therefore be accepted by the target group. However, programmes using this approach must suit the character and needs of young adults. Because they have the curiosity and enthusiasm to learn new skills and be empowered to participate in anti-corruption movements, young adults also need to be guided in sustaining and implementing these new skills.

7.3.3 Concept 3

This concept proposes that increasing positive images could lead to the development of positive norms. It aims to build confidence and positive perceptions, particularly among the young adults (the target group), so that they can act with integrity (e.g., being honest and morally consistent in their everyday life).

The participants were asked for their opinions on promoting integrity behaviour, people with integrity, or high achieving people exhibiting honesty, discipline and obeying the rules, and concern to social welfare. The proposed advertisement aims to send a short and sharp positive message to the target group.

¹¹ Village allocation funds (locally termed *Dana Desa*) refer to a type of funds sourced from the state budget that are designated for villages. They are transferred through the district/regional budget. The funds are given to finance the regional administration, community development, and village community empowerment (Fathurrozak, 2019)

Most participants accepted and liked the idea of this concept. They agreed that this is a time when positive images need to be promoted as a counterbalance to viral news that usually contains negative issues.

“Yes, it can be accepted. It is indeed (true) that to live a life, someone must be consistent and persistent, also to be honest in their action” (G4-WF21).

“I totally agree, and that is positive. First because there are not many advertisements I see in my city, or nationally. The positive sides about the young generation and their achievements etcetera are less respectable compared to other viral issues, many of which contain negative contents. There should be something like that (positive images) to motivate other young people (generation) to be more active in finding achievements or looking for.....or to be more pragmatic in finding or exploring more creative ideas” (G1-IM23).

To ensure their perspectives were the same, the participants were sometimes shown pictures to help them understand the questions asked (See Appendix 7-1).

The representation of young people in terms of their lifestyle and interests was considered important. They liked the spirit of the advertisement which showed that the young generation is important to the community. Some participants also mentioned some names of public figures to use as models in the advertisements.

“(It is) acceptable and liked. The advertisement describes young millennials of today; Where to have achievement and have integrity can be done with a millennial style. It does not have to be formal or rigid” (G1-AM23).

“She (refers to a public figure) is not only a person who can sing and act, she has her own achievements, and that is proven. She graduated from Oxford University. She is attractive for the young generation, so this young generation can be encouraged to pursue achievements in any field” (G2-IM23).

The participants also thought that this kind of advertisement should be more widely disseminated to compete with other commercial advertisements. It should be put more in public places, for example on public transportation in Jakarta.

“Yes, it is acceptable. In fact, it should be on those buses. They should be posted there (on those buses). So, it is not only an advertisement on products (the participant mentioned some commercial products) (G2-HF21).

7.3.4 Concept 4

This concept aims to promote the visibility of integrity behaviour by targeting people in community wide. The idea is to encourage people to commit to integrity behaviour along with other people and empower people (members or non-members of the community) to join, own, and sustain this positive behaviour.

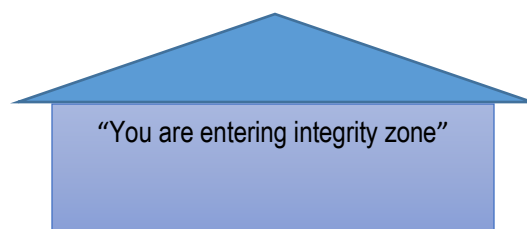


Figure 7 - 2: An illustration of Concept 4 (Author generated)

The participants were asked for their opinions on an institution or organisation declaring it will commit to integrity behaviour. They were asked how they would feel when entering an office building that promotes the slogan “You are entering an integrity zone” or “Honesty policy area” (see Figure 7-2).

Most of the participants accepted and liked this, exhibiting various reactions. Some would feel proud to be 'protected' in these surroundings, some would feel their behaviour was being controlled, and others would feel no different as they believe they are already honest people. Nevertheless, this concept was seen by all as a unique idea.

"If I cheat I will feel more guilty and ashamed because I feel reprimanded (by the sentence)" (G5-NF20).

"When entering an integrity room, personally I will be proud. Entering in that kind of room...it feels like you are given something...given care...'Oh.. you can't do something recklessly (no cheating) here'...it's like that" (G2-HF21).

"This method is quite unique and new. In a way, it can attract people's attention" (G3-AF19).

Entering this room or building will also make them adapt their behaviour according to the rules set in an office or a building. If someone tries to break or challenge these, they will suffer from shame or maybe incur a punishment. However, participants felt that the conditioning may not work for 'bad apples' who, because of their characters, will always try to cheat in whatever condition. The facts also show the need of multiple interventions as depending only on one approach may not work to solve the problem.

"Yes, seeing friends change will certainly encourage us to change to be better as well" (G5-VF19).

"Of course, because they come to the mindset of doing things honestly" (G3-DF19)

"To me, actually, it is not straightforward...it will not immediately change people's habits. But at least through the message conveyed by these writings in public places or in offices, it can motivate each person to do better" (G2-IM23).

“It depends on the person; if he/she has already been accustomed to cheating, it will continue to be like that. It needs regulations and severe penalties for a deterrent” (G4-AM19).

Given the consequences of creating a slogan or making a commitment, participants felt the organiser also should prepare effective and communicative signs, prompts, or officers to help or advise the visitors on what they need, particularly those who have never been in that office or building before. Such prompts can help people recognise the rules and procedures associated with being in that building.

“And more of these signs...or a pamphlet like that.... it will make it easier for people who may be ordinary people or have never been to that place before. So, it helps to know what is prohibited, and what is permissible” (G2-IM23).

Moreover, participants also suggested that the marketer should consider the local language or dialect when they are planning or executing the plan. This will improve the effectiveness of the message as the target group would feel attached to it.

“As an advertisement is persuading people, the ad must also follow the trend...what are the vocabularies that have recently been discussed or spoken. For example, in Medan (a city in North Sumatera, in Indonesia), the unifier is the accent. Thus, an effective way is for the statement of the ad to adjust to the accent¹² of the people in Medan. For example, in the last election, the KPU (Komisi Pemilihan Umum / The General Election Commissions) created a slogan (to elect your representatives) in a local or traditional language. This means that the message put on the buildings can be adjusted to the people who visit it” (G2-IM23).

This social norming approach was found to be particularly attractive for the target group, although they felt some adjustments needed to be made. They realised that something positive needed to be provided and promoted as a counterbalance to negative behaviours. If we link with

¹² People in Medan (and other parts of North Sumatera) have a unique accent when speaking that makes them different from other regions in Indonesia.

the findings in the previous Study 1, a participant (001-F-24-NS-J) mentioned about her satisfaction of a service from a public service when she renewed her passport (see Section 5.3.1 in Chapter 5). This example can be worth to be exposed as an improved service in public area. So that people can notice and aware of some improved public services that deal with no chance of corrupt practices.

7.3.5 Concept 5

This concept aimed to activate anti-corruption norms by presenting a narration on the poverty, misery, and suffering caused by corruption. Many people have become victims and the message is that we can be one too. It proposes that moral obligation (by activating personal norms) can drive people to refrain from everyday forms of corruption. The proposed technique is to use a YouTube clip as a platform on which to show a strong visual story that sends a message to the audience.

The participants were shown a picture evoking fear and sadness to show the negative consequences of even small-scale corrupt practices. They were asked whether the theme and the format of a YouTube clip can be accepted.

“In my opinion, it is not a taboo to tell the public about any misfortune (or incident) experienced by poor people who should have had proper facilities for studying, for example, but they did not get it because their rights that they should get were being corrupted. A YouTube video or campaign like this can increase self-awareness in the community” (G3-DF19).

“Even a small-scale corruption can result in losses to the state, referring to the photo....that is not suitable for use (refer to the picture – a damaged school building)” (G4-WF21).

“Yes can (increase awareness/moral responsibility). In my opinion, there should also be a picture in the video about the punishment imposed on corruptors, such as prison, social

sanctions (excluded), that life is not in peace, religious sanctions. With these (themes), people who want to do corruption will think twice” (G4-AM19).

The narration of an anti-corruption message can be more appealing when sent through the right channel. In this case, a short video of the victims can influence people’s emotions and activate their personal norms with respect to anti-corruption.

7.3.6 Concept 6

Concept 6 aims to increase the awareness of small-scale corrupt acts by utilising the power of social media. The aim is to spread the message that small-scale corrupt acts are not normal; rather, they are potentially harmful to society. In this concept, there is an emphasis on using persuasive methods as a technique in the communication process.

In the discussion, participants were asked about their basic habits and behaviour on social media. As millennials, they really enjoy using social media as a window through which to view different perspectives. On social media that have platforms for taking part in chats or conversation, they sometimes posted topics, comments, or simply followed viral stories or the activities of their idols or role models.

“I like it because I can find several different people’s perspectives...get a new way to educate me too” (G3-DF19).

“Because the discussion in social media is a contemporary problem that is happening at the moment. Then social media also presents up-to-date news and information” (G1-AM23).

Regarding the content, they were asked whether they would like or accept topics regarding integrity or honesty. The idea was to open a discussion on a ‘soft’ theme, as this research focuses more on everyday practices; for example: *“What kind of honesty have you shown today?”*

“Yes, it can (be accepted). On social media, the young generation want to be exist and narcissistic” (G1-AM24)

“It is interesting. I feel challenged as a young person, we must adopt high integrity” (G3-DF19).

As well as providing a media for chatting or following their idols, some participants also stated that social media (such as Instagram, YouTube) can be utilised to make something go viral, to spread good news or bad news about a topic. For example, one participant mentioned social media as a means of carrying out surveillance on the behaviour of public officials.

“But also, how the role of the media and the role of the society can contribute to these surveillances. Viral power, with the power of netizens’ comments, can have a profound effect on the behaviour of our public officials” (G2-IM23).

The participants mostly like using social media to send or spread a message. Their intense interaction with social media has made it a potential channel for anti-corruption campaigning. From the discussion, it was also abundantly clear that the source of media young adults like to use to update themselves is social media rather than TV, radio, or printed media. They are also more interested and curious in knowing about public figures (such as actresses/actors, TV persona) or social media influencers (those who have a huge number of followers on social media platforms such as Instagram, Twitter).

7.3.7 Concept 7

The idea of this concept is that public opinion or feedback (praise or criticism) can be an effective means of improving the performance of public institutions, government, or politicians. Such campaigns can be organised by a civil society. However, it also opens up the opportunity for an individual (such as a professional, expert, or academician) to initiate this.

The researcher therefore asked participants what they think about public opinion; how important it was and how likely it was to influence people’s attitude or behaviour. The participants argued that public opinion is important in allowing people to voice their concerns.

“Public opinion is very important. What I mean is...now the social media trend is rising, take advantage of social media to form opinions that can raise issues that may need greater intensity of discussion...” (G2-IM23).

According to the participants, the more viral an opinion regarding an issue, the more chance there is of people changing their attitudes and behaviour.

“Yes, it can influence them....as the more people discuss their opinions, they can be influenced by those opinions. It then goes viral...” (G2-HF21).

“Yes, in my opinion, it is a phenomenon now.....Just like G2-HF21 said earlier, when one incident is more viral, the government will respond quickly. So now, because ‘everyone is a journalist’, and everyone can distribute the news. So, one issue can reach...can be spread everywhere. And if it is (something) important, it will be tweeted constantly by the netizens” (G2-IM23).

Public opinion can be powerful for spreading a message. When a writer (could be an influencer, public figure or role model) consistently inform their audience on their narration or opinion about issues related to corruption or anti-corruption movement, it could have a significant influence on the attitudes and behaviour of the audience.

7.3.8 Concept 8

Concept 8, together with concepts 9 and 10, are related more to the upstream level. The ideas are for an improvement in public services by solving the problem of a perceived slow and complicated bureaucracy. It was found from earlier findings in Study 1 (Chapter 5) that when someone pays a small bribe, things can be speeded up. However, if someone tries to act honestly, things can be slow and complicated.

Concept 8 thus proposes the creation of a non-personalised service in public services. This is to reduce any conflict of interests and prevent any potential misconduct if an officer is placed in the same position for an extended period. Thus, participants were asked whether there would be

any problem with constant rotation, which would mean they were served by different officials whenever they deal with an administration process in a public institution.

The participants stated they would accept this. They also felt that such rotation would also be good for the officials as it means they would not be trapped in a monotonous activity. Nevertheless, they also had some concerns about the level of services they would experience as a consequence of this policy.

“It is acceptable. The rotation of the administration staff encourages the service to run more dynamically and it keeps it from being monotonous” (G1-AM24).

“Maybe, but there are definitely some people who are used to or comfortable (to be served) with an officer” (G4-AM19).

“It is rather difficult if (for example) the data attached in their notes are not the same. It will cause confusion” (G5-FF19).

7.3.9 Concept 9

Concept 9 aims to simplify programmes and procedures in administration process of public services. This concept was proposed because one of the causes of small-scale corrupt acts is the existence of complicated procedures. The idea of utilising IT (Information technology) was therefore proposed to provide a computerised system, which would also maintain transparency.

The participants were asked about the acceptance and likelihood of a computerised system or, when an application system is applied, whether it can solve the complicated procedures in an administration process.

“Definitely can. Computer devices with all kinds of features (machine learning, AI) have made it possible for the entire administrative process to be done via computer or digital” (G1-AM24).

However, participants also raised some potential barriers that may be faced when implementing this idea, especially if it is going to be applied across the whole of Indonesia. The major problem would be the unequal infrastructure in all regions of Indonesia. Big cities such as Jakarta, Surabaya, Medan, Makassar may not experience any significant problems in adopting this technological approach. However, villages in sub-urban areas could face difficulties, as these regions may not have sufficient infrastructure to support the use of IT. Another problem would also be the readiness of the people as some, particularly the older generation, are not fully literate with the current technology.

“Yes, it will be very interesting, because we cannot deny that our bureaucracy is slow in terms of administration. So, the initiative to have online-based administration or using a machine becomes a necessity now. Because people need something fast. That’s the first. Secondly, right now the complexity of people’s lives is getting more...what is it...time flies so fast. So, people sometimes look for any shortcuts (instant). So, in my opinion, as well as using the machinery for efficiency, it is also to change the habits of the Indonesian people, particularly for an orderly administration process” (G2-IM23).

“It takes time...In Indonesia, the population is so diverse...and the education level is also uneven. It is a long process. We are in a big city; we don’t know how life is in (small) villages. It is complicated because sometimes the network (Internet connection) is also difficult” (G2-HF21).

The participants were also asked their opinion regarding whether the government would be willing or able to initiate and provide this concept. Most participants were optimistic that the government can and will go in this direction.

“Yes, it can. They (the government) have more than enough in terms of budget and resources (the officials). The only thing that might become an obstacle is the knowledge of digitalisation itself” (G1-AM24).

“In the future, I am sure, especially now in the era of Jokowi (the current President of Indonesia) is heading more in the direction towards financial technology, online-based

transportation, everything online. Additionally, there is also the development of human resources. From these issues, I am sure in the next 5 years something will be designed to accommodate any urgent needs. For example, the problem of speediness in paying fines, or the speediness of taking care of the administration, it would go there (to an online basis)" (G2-IM23).

7.3.10 Concept 10

Another concept proposed for this upstream level is concept 10. This aims to increase the commitment of institutions, be they public, private, or social organisations, to maintaining a high level of integrity. The idea behind the proposition is that a commitment from all parties is needed to prevent future corrupt acts and to show that every party is accountable for anti-corruption reform.

For this concept, participants were asked whether the application of a code of ethics (or a code of conduct) can influence officials (or the members of institutions) so that they do not perform any cheating or unethical behaviours. In the opinion of the participants, the code of ethics does not always bind someone's behaviour so that they are consistently honest when performing their job. They know people who have broken the code of conduct even though they have agreed on it.

"In my experience, every official I know, they have an integrity pact, especially if they want to take a certification. The school principals, for example, they have an integrity pact. They have to sign an official paper with a stamp. But still...it does not really work. Because in the culture of this community, this environment...it is normal (the pact is only for lip service). But yeah...it depends on the awareness of the person anyway" (G2-HF21).

"No, cheating will still exist" (G1-AM24).

"Not necessarily. Even the current rules are still ignored by many people" (G5-NF20).

At the same time, participants were also asked about the possibility that an agreement pact or MoU (Memorandum of Understanding) between two organisations could bind them to maintain a high level of integrity. They seemed to agree that that kind of agreement pact can be impactful. However, some thought sanctions may be necessary.

“It can (bind the commitment to hold integrity) at least at the level of regulation in each organisation” (G1-AM24).

“Yes, if the sanctions that are imposed on violators are severe. It will reduce the perpetrators. But then the rules and penalties must really be applied” (G4-AM19)

For all the above concepts, the participants basically agreed that improvement in public services is necessary. However, this needs more effort as there are some potential barriers to implementation. To be more impactful, participants expected that something more binding would be needed, such as a sanction or punishment.

7.4 Findings from the interview with key informants

The researcher also conducted interviews with key informants who were anti-corruption initiators / activists in Indonesia. The objective was to understand their perspectives on anti-corruption programmes in order to build the capacity of young adults to participate in anti-corruption campaigns. It was also to understand the challenges and opportunities presented by the campaign in Indonesia. The results are expected to contribute to the strategic outcome of the campaign.

The interviews were conducted with two staff from the KPK (*Komisi Pemberantasan Korupsi* or Corruption Eradication Commission) in Indonesia, specifically from the department of campaign strategy and the coordination and supervision of interventions. There was also one activist from ICW (Indonesian Corruption Watch) who worked as a programme manager for public support.

As mentioned previously, the KPK of Indonesia is an independent organisation that acts as the organiser and coordinator of anti-corruption efforts in Indonesia that includes enforcement and

prevention actions. In carrying out their mission to eradicate corruption in the country, the KPK does not work alone as other civil society organisations in Indonesia also form part of the anti-corruption movement. One of these is ICW. This is a non-government organisation (NGO) in Indonesia that aims to be at the centre of anti-corruption studies in Indonesia. As well as campaigning for anti-corruption, ICW also plays an active role in conducting investigations and publishing corruption cases.

“Because our vision is to be a centre for anti-corruption studies in Indonesia. So, when people need help, or need some knowledge on corruption, they can come to ICW. And we provide anti-corruption education, and the programme has already been run, it is called the anti-corruption school (SAKTI)” (Act3-M).

KPK partners with other anti-corruption activists or institutions in many different ways, primarily in the form of education and outreach. The partnership between the KPK and ICW in strengthening civil society can be classified as an ad hoc type of coordination as it has been created for a certain period of time (Prihastuti, 2019).

7.4.1 Current anti-corruption programmes

With regards to the type of corruption, for campaign and prevention activities the KPK focuses more on petty corruption or everyday types of corrupt behaviour that are commonly found in society. This is because their target is the public in general; thus, showing the common corrupt practices that are easily found in their everyday lives would make it easier for the public to understand the messages. Moreover, the public, who are the grass-root in the community, are often the ‘victims’ of corrupt practices, particularly in public services. Thus, the campaign shows them that these acts actually cause them to experience a loss.

“Our campaign materials, our campaign messages, in the end we developed themes that are (common) to the grass-roots or in the community” (Act1-M)

“When we talk about corruption, now we talk more about victims...that one is indeed at the grass-roots. Well, our campaign has begun to shift in that direction. Some of the

topics of the campaign that we have developed actually give us the picture that those behaviours (corrupt practices) are the behaviours that often occur.... or are common in the lives of our people” (Act1-M)

“We rarely make a public service advertisement that is about grand corruption. Because it is going to be difficult to get in there, to make it easier for people to understand the concept of the advertising, it will be more difficult. Thus, we speak more about things that often occurs in the community” (Act1-M).

As an NGO in the anti-corruption movement, ICW’s agenda is to provide their services to the public and report to the government. Because of the wide variety of people they serve, they segment the publications based on the target market.

“For example, if the target is a journalist, we will make a release, arrange a presentation. We will hold a press conference or media briefing. If the target is, for example, young people, or the users of social media, then the products will be converted into lighter materials or topics. We take the data according to their interests. Then, we work it out again; we re-narrate it again. If it is necessary, the material is visualised. Only then do we publish it on social media or on the website” (Act3-M).

For young adults, the KPK offers programmes that encourage them to become actively involved in the anti-corruption movement. For example, an anti-corruption film festival, a campus integrity festival, a youth camp, and a village youth school (‘Sekolah Pemuda Desa’).

The anti-corruption film festival aims to invite young adults to take an active role in eradicating corruption through a short movie-making competition. The village youth school aims to empower and optimise young people’s participation in the development of their village, such as monitoring the spending of village allocation funds, contributing to solving the problem, and mapping the village’s potential (Fathurrozak, 2019).

“We have a youth camp series...inviting young adults from all places in the country...based on writing essays and proposals. In the end, the aim is to build networking with each other.

Together... with others, to build anti-corruption awareness among people of the young generation” (Act2-M).

The ICW offers a prime programme for young adults in Indonesia. This is the Anti-corruption school or, in short, SAKTI. The education-based programme is a biennial event that has been held since 2013. The purpose of this programme is to engage and empower the public with sufficient knowledge so that they can recognise and monitor any corrupt practices around them. They need to have the necessary capabilities when criticising a system they may have found to be corrupt.

“The syllabus or curriculum that we design is about anti-corruption topics, and it covers various topics. For example, there is political corruption, history of corruption, and budget monitoring. We even teach the tools that we (ICW) created, for example the open tender, CRC...it’s sort of a public hearing programme to the local government. There are also tools for budget monitoring, investigation monitoring...we teach them all of those (materials). This is particularly for the SAKTI youth programme. It brings together a variety of (people from different) education backgrounds, such as from Law, those who graduated as midwives, and even prospective teachers too” (Act3-M).

According to ICW, there is always a huge interest among applicants aged between 17 – 27 years in joining SAKTI, their biennial anti-corruption school. However, due to limited capacity, only 25 applicants were accepted onto the programme. The candidates’ motivation to join the programme was driven by a great desire and need to know more about how to tackle corruption issues in their surroundings. When they directly experience, for example, the issue of transparency in administration, or illegal levies in public services, they will want to know how to fight it.

“Maybe because the issue of corruption has always been a sexy issue, and becomes the subject of discussion everywhere, on TV or social media. In the end, these young persons (the applicants) have huge interests because corruption can go into all kinds of areas. These include forestry, health, education, infrastructure, even public services and administration. At their age (17 to 25 or 27 years), they start to deal in these areas, such

as taking care of their driving licence, identity card, and first-time voters too. Another administration problem, for example during the lectures in university, is extortion or transparency issues regarding facilities or payments. I am sure that their interest in the anti-corruption movement will be even greater here. And by the time they want to work out how to fight it, they will look for information” (Act3-M).

Both the KPK and ICW have already worked together with other social organisations, as well as with the government. The KPK works closely with local communities, cultural or religious organisations, universities, and many more. It provides them with knowledge and trains them with skills so that they can actively play their roles in anti-corruption efforts. Ultimately, it is expected that their partners will have ownership of the programme and sustain it in their future activities.

“Now we are focusing on (the cooperation) with NU (Nahdatul Ulama), Muhammadiyah¹³, the young scouts, as well as with the indigenous and cultural communities (focusing on civil society)” (Act2-M).

“Our latest MoU (Memorandum of Understanding) with NU is a new book on interpretation of the modern jihad¹⁴ of anti-corruption, and its derivation is ToT (Training of Trainers) to their young ‘santri’ (students at Islamic boarding school¹⁵). Tomorrow we will have FGD (Focus Group Discussion) with the scouts, because finally a new proficiency will be created and a special standard in scouts related to integrity. So these are the last updates on how we finally touch young people” (Act2-M).

The huge interest shows the motivation of young adults to gain more knowledge and skills on anti-corruption issues. It also shows the spirit of young generation for a change in the country.

¹³ NU (Nahdatul Ulama) and Muhammadiyah are two main Islamic organisations in Indonesia. Islam is the religion of the majority of Indonesians.

¹⁴ Jihad (Arabic) in Islam means efforts to live out the Muslim faith as well as possible (www.bbc.co.uk).

¹⁵ Usually NU has their own Islamic boarding schools, which have many students. After graduating, many of the students will work as Islamic preachers or Islamic teachers.

However, all this long, there is no comprehensive evaluation system in place to examine the successful of the programme.

7.4.1.1 The significance of targeting young adults in an anti-corruption campaign

Interviewees admitted that there needs to be a significant focus on targeting young adults in Indonesia in the anti-corruption movement. People in this cohort (18 – 27 years) are just beginning to use public services to make their national identity card (*KTP*), employment card, driving licence, and so forth. Some are also starting to look for a job, have just started their career, or are starting a family and will require some residential documents (marriage card, birth certificate for the children, and so on. These experiences give them direct exposure to the practices that are commonly found in public services.

“We strategically target young adults because they are usually active social media users. Also, they are lots in number, and they are a younger generation that is more educated and enlightened. Another consideration is that in the near future they usually will be directly involved in some public services that affect them. For example, making the national identity card (KTP), yellow card of employment, marriage card, and so forth. So, if from the beginning they have already been informed that this (small-type corrupt practices) can affect them, they cannot just stay silent. This will significantly encourage them to participate and play an active role in this movement”
(Act2-M).

Another significant reason for targeting young adults in the anti-corruption campaign is that there is a notable trend in the age of the perpetrators of corruption. According to one of the participants, the trend for corruption in Indonesia (particularly cases of grand corruption) shows that perpetrators are no longer only from the older generation as some also come from the younger (millennial) generation (on average less than 40 years old). This fact is based on cases handled by KPK during 2003-2016 which identified 71 corruptors aged between 31-40 years (Eda, 2019).

As the younger age (young adults) have more opportunity nowadays to participate in the politics, or hold important positions in the government, now the attention of anti-corruption also needs to be given to them, to the younger generation. So that they will be ready.

“The perpetrators now involve younger ages/generation. So, how about the anti-corruption activists? Or a public movement that is conscious of the danger of corruption? Are they also re-generating?... Corruption is by system, isn't it?! If we have a system for at least transferring knowledge to the younger generation, they will understand that by the time they can be critical at school. When they enter a college/university, they can also criticise the system in lectures. After graduating, some of them want to become civil servants, and some work in the private sector or become activists. At that time, they can understand more. Although...we realise that we cannot embrace many people at once. But then, every year, we do it in batches. It is expected that they will spread again in their own place/area and make it their own programme (Act3-M).

7.4.2 Challenges and opportunities in curbing corruption in Indonesia

People's expectation of the existence of the KPK to fight for anti-corruption in Indonesia is very high. This is both a challenge and an opportunity. It is a challenge because the high expectancy of people could backfire on the KPK if this organisation does not perform as expected. The people would feel disappointed and may lose trust in the KPK. This is important as public support is the largest form of capital in this organisation.

“Another problem is because of the high expectations of public for the KPK. That makes it sometimes backfire on us” (Act1-M)

Conversely, it is an opportunity because it provides a chance to build and invite public participation in the fight for anti-corruption. Therefore, if the public wants KPK to perform well, they need to support the organisation. There are many anti-corruption programmes from the KPK or ICW that can serve as a platform for people to participate in this movement.

According to the key informant, there are lessons learned that can help enhance the success of a campaign. Firstly, at a time like this, someone must act to break the chain of behaviour that is deeply rooted (e.g., common small-scale bribery); secondly, leadership or a role model is needed; and thirdly, social media needs to be used as a medium to convey messages intensely as well as for social control.

“There must be someone who breaks the chain (first lesson learned), either the public/citizen reports first or those who are on the top (authority) have full commitment (without corruption), not just lip service. Second but no less important is the need for a role model. At home, school, workplace, public service, it needs exemplary leaders. The leader is indeed very decisive. Surabaya (example of a good leader in Surabaya) is comfortable today, in terms of the environmental index, happiness index, it is above Jakarta. It proves that Indonesia can change”. (Act2-M)

“Another example is the situation in MRT (Jakarta). People can be orderly queued. Before the MRT was run (for the first time), the socialisation on YouTube was so intense and the instruction was frequent and clear, and there was social control through social media. The public were educated in no more than a month. To this day, there are no people who throw trash (in MRT and its environment). Third lesson learned; social media is awesome”. (Act2-M).

The perspectives of initiators/organisers in the anti-corruption movement in Indonesia provide valuable input. The insights they have drawn from their experience in this field for quite some time can support the implementation of these concepts.

7.5 Overall findings

The following Table 7-5a and Table 7-5b show the summary of the responds given by the young adults towards each concept in the focus group discussion. The summary uses some criteria generated from overall evaluation given by the young adults as the participants.

The participants mostly agreed with all the concepts proposed by the author. Even though the level of agreement varied. For example, they strongly agreed with Concept 3 and Concept 5. Concept 3 that aims to promote positive images was found to be interesting for them. Especially if there is a public figure or young adults' role model was involved in the campaign. Concept 5 promotes anti-corruption message through YouTube clip to activate their personal norms. It is because they have some concerns over some concept.

Many of the concepts asked in the focus groups are found to be acceptable. Concept 6 was found highly acceptable according to the participants as it suggests making use of social media as a platform for campaigning anti-corruption behaviour. The participants also had some concern over Concept 10, that it has made it become less acceptable. Concept 10 suggests asking commitment of every party in a cooperation or an organisation to maintain their integrity in an agreement pact or code of conduct. They became pessimistic towards this approach as it would not strongly bind the parties involved and could easily be broken.

Concept 3, Concept 5, and Concept 6 were found highly feasible according to the participants. In addition, Concept 8, Concept 9, and Concept 10 were found to be less feasible. To the last three concepts, which were proposed as an upstream approach, the participants felt pessimistic. They thought that Concept 8 could make people confuse of the less attachment to the officials, as it proposed for less personalization of the public services. Concept 9 may not be working as there is an unequal infrastructure in the whole area of the country. They found that people also need to be educated in terms of their internet literacy. As mentioned above, for the Concept 10, people could be ignorant to the agreement pact unless it could provide severe sanctions for breaking the rules in the agreement.

From their responds, it can also be identified some potential barriers and suggestions to the concepts. For example, Concept 1 and Concept 2 which adopts education model (and training as well for Concept 2), it may be more inviting to young adults to discuss something serious yet in an interesting platform (e.g., content, speaker, media). For the Concept 7, using social media for spreading public opinion may be more effective for young adults. However, people may feel afraid of giving their opinion or critics to an individual or department as it could raise a charge

for criticism. Thus, the critics may also be channeling through different platforms, such as movies, music performance, or even an award for those who have consistently performed high integrity.

Table 7 – 5a: Summary of the concepts tested

Criteria	Concept 1	Concept 2	Concept 3	Concept 4	Concept 5
	<i>Community empowerment</i>	<i>Experiential learning</i>	<i>Advertisement to promote positive images</i>	<i>Community campaign</i>	<i>Activation of moral obligation</i>
Attitude toward concept	Agreed	Agreed	Strongly agreed	Agreed, a unique approach	Agreed
Acceptability	Accepted	Accepted	Accepted.	Accepted	Accepted
Feasibility	Feasible	Feasible	Highly feasible.	Feasible, even though it is not a straightforward change	Highly feasible
Potential barriers/ challenges	Some do not want to be invited to talk about something serious.	Some do not want to be invited to talk about something serious.	Competing with commercial advertisements.	Feel they are being controlled, Worry on Lack of support, Not sufficient for the 'bad apple'	Competing with other viral videos on YouTube channel.
Suggestions/ feedback	Provide interesting content and forms of discussion for young people.	Not only for the public, also good for public officials.	Creative ideas as content, attractive visuals. Consider local language (dialect).	Effective prompts	Not only showing suffering and hardship as the consequences of corruption for other people, but also the punishment for corruptors (e.g., prison life, social sanctions, religious sanctions, etc.).

Table 7 – 5b: Summary of the concepts tested – Continued

Criteria	Concept 6	Concept 7	Concept 8	Concept 9	Concept 10
	<i>Social media campaign</i>	<i>Media campaign / public opinion</i>	<i>Less personalized service</i>	<i>Simpler bureaucracy (Using more IT)</i>	<i>Integrity pact</i>
Attitude	Strongly agreed	Agreed	Agreed with notes	Agreed	Less agreed
Acceptability	Highly accepted	Accepted	Accepted with notes	Accepted	Less accepted
Feasibility	Highly feasible	Feasible	Less Feasible	Less feasible	Less feasible
Potential barriers/ challenges	Young adults may not want to be invited to discuss something serious.	Not interested in reading something serious. Afraid of facing charges for criticism	Confuses customers, Unequal service.	Lack of internet literacy of some people, Unequal infrastructures.	Pessimistic regarding the code of ethics as sometimes people are ignorant of this.
Suggestions/ feedback	Use public figures/idols to attract their attention.	Use public figures/idols/role models to attract their attention. Use social media to spread opinions. Channeling the critics into other platforms. Awards may have more value.	Provide equal service by every official.	Sufficient socialisation before it is launched	Provide severe punishment for any breaking of rules in the agreement pact.

From interviews with the key informants, some insights can be highlighted to support the overall findings. As organisations that have responsibility to conduct strategic prevention and campaign for anti-corruption movement in Indonesia, KPK (Corruption Eradication Commission) and ICW (Indonesia Corruption Watch) have done quite significant efforts. Even though the backgrounds of both organisations are different, however, they realised that synergy and coordination between them are needed to support each other.

In doing their work, there are always challenges and opportunities in curbing corruption in Indonesia. Nevertheless, some people need to break the chain of corruption that is deeply rooted in the society. According to them, the campaign can be done by providing role models or strong leadership for the people to look up to. Another approach is by using social media to convey the message to the public. It is to enable people to do social control to their community.

7.6 Summary

Chapter 7 has presented a fundamental part of concept testing, the findings and analysis. It has explained the process of applying behaviour change theory (COM-B model) to come up with target behaviours and the intervention models needed to drive the behaviour change. Furthermore, it has described the development of ten concepts to be tested in the Study 3. The ten concepts were created to address the previous findings in Study 1 and Study 2, and secondary research to support the arguments of the concepts.

The ten concepts proposed comprises some intervention models derived from the behavioural analysis. It includes education, persuasion, training, modelling, incentivization, environmental restructuring and enablement. For the purpose of concept testing, the researcher asked young adults in focus group discussions to consider the likelihood and acceptance of the proposed concepts or intervention models for an anti-corruption campaign.

A strategic plan to improve public services was also considered by the participants. As well as discussing the acceptance of the concepts, the participants also expressed their concern regarding barriers to their implementation.

Besides findings from concept testing, in this chapter, interviews with some key informants have also been presented. These interviews showed that targeting young adults involves setting strategic goals that are specific for this segment. According to KPK and ICW, anti-corruption programme for the young adults should give them opportunity to participate in the anti-corruption movement, as well as to produce individuals free of corruption in Indonesia.

This chapter showed that multiple or combined interventions are needed to run anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia. A campaign that focuses on building the awareness and confidence of young adults, providing role model to promote positive norms, and using the best of social media can be a platform to achieve the desired target.

The next chapter is a final part of this research which consists of discussion and conclusions derived from all the three studies. It will overview all the findings, any discrepancies found throughout the research, contributions of the research, limitations and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER EIGHT: FINAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a final discussion of the three-stage studies that comprise this research. It reviews the findings that respond to the research questions of Study 1 – the qualitative study (depth interviews), Study 2 – testing the model, and Study 3 – the qualitative concept testing. The research questions (RQ) that are stated at the beginning of the thesis are:

RQ (1) What type of behaviours are considered everyday forms of corruption?

RQ (2) What factors influence to comply with small-scale corrupt practices? (Is there any early evidence that values can build resistance?)

RQ (3) Can the value system be built up as a barrier to corrupt acts?

RQ (4) How can social marketing approaches be applied in an anti-corruption campaign?

The chapter covers a discussion that incorporates those three studies and contextualises the existing literature or previous studies. It includes the discussion on the proposed model derived from the studies and the techniques or approaches.

It continues with the explanation of the contributions of the research to the knowledge. The theoretical contributions illustrate how the research fills the knowledge gap that beneficial for scholarship. The contribution also includes some practical implications for the practitioner / initiator / policymaker to conduct anti-corruption campaign to the target audience.

Furthermore, the chapter continues with limitations of the research. It is followed by several recommendations for further research. Finally, the chapter ends with a conclusion of the issues covered.

8.1 Overall discussion on the findings from all studies

The research explores the potential of social marketing as a behaviour change technique to be applied in an anti-corruption campaign. In the attempt, it went through a three-stage of studies. As mentioned previously in the methodology chapter, those three studies are illustrated in the following Figure 8-1. Each study informed the next one to build the conceptual framework and support the hypotheses or propositions.

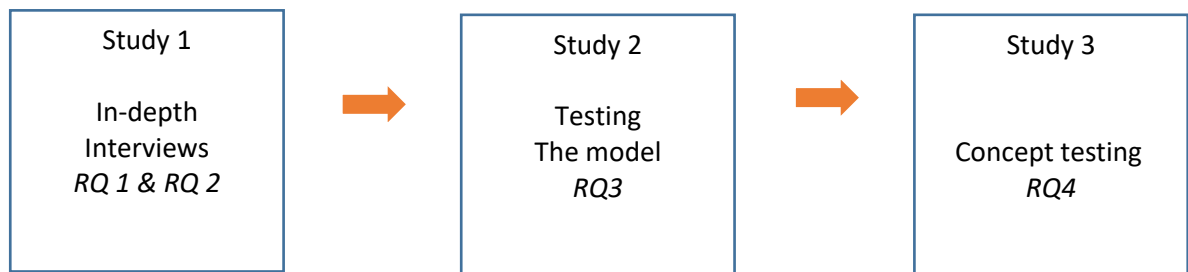


Figure 8 - 1: Three stage of studies in this thesis

In the next section, the discussion from each study will be more elaborated.

8.1.1 Overview of the qualitative study (Study 1)

Research Question 1

The PhD research started with a qualitative study by conducting depth interviews with several young adults in Indonesia. This Study 1 aimed to elucidate the context of corruption in Indonesia. In the study, research question (RQ) one has been attempted to be answered. It has identified some types that are found to be common as everyday forms of corrupt practices. With respect to types of corrupt practices (details findings in Chapter 5), bribery was found to be the most prominent corrupt practices as it is perceived by the respondents stronger than other types of everyday corrupt practices (gratification, nepotism, and academic cheating). Bribery is the most understood as corruption since it usually involves monetary issues (which is identical to corruption). The finding is in line with the literature that explain bribery as a type of corruption

that is most often found in everyday activities. Among the various definitions of corruption, bribery has been discussed more than gratification and nepotism (see Klitgaard, 1988, Merriam-Webster dictionary, 2017). It may have caused people's understanding of corrupt practices is grounded in the type of bribery as their understandings of gratification and nepotism seem to overlap with bribery. The finding supports the literature that bribery is also a type of corruption. That is most often found, mainly when people deal with public services (e.g., ID cards, permits or licenses) and police officers to obtain assistance or avoid a fine (Pring, 2017; U4 Anti-corruption resource centre, 2020). The finding also supports the fact that bribing a police officer in the event of a traffic violation has become commonplace, particularly in a high level of corruption (Köbis *et al.*, 2019).

In Study 1, cultural perspective was found to influence people's decisions in everyday activities, particularly in gratification and nepotism. From the literature, we can see that in Indonesia, the practice of gift-giving sometimes blended with cultural practices. The gift can be in any form, whether it is tangible or intangible, monetary or non-monetary. A gift encourages a reciprocal relation by discharging the social obligation or expressing gratitude. In Asian culture, gift-giving is seen as an act of reciprocity that appears to be important in building relationships. It is viewed as a social exchange that takes place between individuals to maintain a strong relationship. However, it is sometimes used as a euphemism for bribery.

Furthermore, it is often misconstrued as bribery in Western culture and is regarded as a violation of duty (D'Souza, 2003). The result adds more evidence to the literature that explains culture seems to help understand how people respond to corrupt behaviour (Larmour, 2012). Thus, Larmour (2012) adds that anti-corruption activities need to adapt to this picture of how people decide to behave in this context.

Concerning academic cheating, it seems that it is difficult to accept this act as part of corruption. Even though it violates integrity behaviour, the setting differs from that which people typically associate with corrupt acts. Nevertheless, the act is a potential form of corrupt behaviour as it involves breaching ethical conduct to achieve goals (Alt and Geiger, 2012; McCabe, 2001; Park, Park and Jang, 2013). Park, Park and Jang (2013) found that academic cheating during studying

could lead to further unethical acts when graduates enter the workplace. It has made the study included this type at the beginning.

Study 1 contributes to support the literature on the types that understood as everyday forms of corruption. It consists of bribery, nepotism and gratification. However, it has not been found satisfactory results to conclude that academic cheating as one of them. It may have similar characteristics in terms of violating the integrity and breaking ethical conduct, but it cannot be seen as a 'crime' act.

Research Question 2

Study 1 also worked to answer the research question (RQ) two. It attempted to explain factors that influence people to comply with small-scale corrupt practices. In particular, it focuses on explaining the role of social norms in this context. It also attempts to find evidence of whether values act as an inhibitor for people's resistance to corrupt practices.

The findings show that social norms have been learned from the everyday forms of corruption. It is known that even though people may know that those small-scale corrupt practices are inappropriate, nevertheless many of them still engage in the practices as they perceive it to be standard behaviour. The majority of young adults being interviewed for the study bear witness to the normality of the practices. Descriptive norms were therefore found to be crucial. Descriptive norms refer to an individual's perception of what is commonly done (Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren, 1990; Tankard and Paluck, 2016).

The findings support the literature on relationship between norms and corruption (Köbis *et al.*, 2015; Marquette and Pfeiffer, 2015; Rothstein, 2011a). Thus, when people know that corruption is prevalent, it influences them to engage in corrupt behaviour. It is because descriptive norms inform individuals about effective and adaptive behaviour in a particular situation (Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991). Study 1 provides preliminary evidence for the significance of

descriptive norms in influencing people's behaviour towards small-scale corruption in Indonesia. It was investigated further in Study 2.

Besides descriptive norms, social norms also consist of injunctive norms. This refers to the acceptability of people's behaviour in society (Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren, 1990; Tankard and Paluck, 2016). In this research, as described in section 5.4 of Chapter 5), the young adults (e.g., 003-F-23-NS-J, 002-F-24-NS-J) expressed their non-acceptance of common corrupt practices as they thought the situation should change. However, they also felt that the older cohort (e.g., parents, older relatives such as uncles/aunties) were different. According to them, some older people continued to accept and justify their behaviour as appropriate and sometimes did not prohibit the participants from complying with day-to-day corruption.

It seems that, for the older cohort, this finding is consistent with the common-moral association thesis. This states that commonness (descriptive norms) and morality (injunctive norms) are automatically associated (Eriksson, Strimling and Coultas, 2015). There is a cognitive link between descriptive norms and injunctive norms in that people's ideas about the morality of behaviour are linked to their beliefs about how common it is. Research from McGraw (1985), Trafimow, Reeder and Blising (2001), and Welch et al. (2005) suggest that "moral judgments of socially undesirable behaviour tend to be less harsh when the behaviour is perceived to be common" (Eriksson, Strimling and Coultas, 2015. p. 60). Thus, people believe complying with corrupt behaviour is not so wrong after all.

However, a different attitude has been expressed by the younger cohort (young adults), where norms are now less sustaining as the common-moral association is becoming weaker. The findings show that young adults (e.g., 001-F-24-NS-J, 002-F-24-NS-J, 005-M-23-NS-NJ) were aware of the danger small-scale corrupt practices (see section 5.6 and 5.6.1 in Chapter 5). For instance, they believed that small-scale corruption increases inequality by taking resources away from the poor. It has caused them lack of trust when dealing with public services. It has been consistent with Steiner (2018) that states small-scale corruption can undermines people's

confidence in public institutions and potentially leads to the grand corruption problem (Steiner, 2018).

In the findings, besides social norms, other factors were identified as leading to everyday corrupt practices (section 5.5 in Chapter 5). These were bureaucracy (complicated administration process), habits (culture), and inducement from insiders/officials. The inconvenience inherent in bureaucracy when dealing with public services, as mentioned by participants 005-M-23-NS-NJ, 007-F-18-S-NJdJ, 011-F-24-NS-J, has become one of the main reasons for complying with everyday corrupt practices. This is in line with the literature, which shows that the quality of government in terms of the efficiency of public administration influences the level of corruption. Unclear regulations can lead to an increasing level of corruption (Dimant, 2014; Rothstein, 2011b).

Inducement from officials (insiders) can also be related to the problem of bureaucracy. According to some literature, some officials appear to take advantage of the situation, driven by a low level of wealth (e.g., salary) (Tanzi, 1994; Rijckeghem and Weder, 2001). However, Alatas (2015) argued that lower salary does not make officials corrupt; corruption makes them poor.

This problem may also be driven by organisational norms (Ashforth and Anand, 2003). The congruency of descriptive and injunctive norms at an organisational level could lead to corruption. As this research did not focus on organisational norms, further research may be needed to confirm this assumption.

In this study, participants' reports indicated that small-scale corrupt practice somehow has become habits. Some of them (004-M-24-NS-NJ and 011-F-24-NS-J in Section 5.5 in Chapter 5) stated that it has become entrenched in the culture of people's everyday lives in Indonesia. This finding seems consistent with other research studies (Yeganeh, 2014; Barr and Serra, 2010; Husted, 1999) that found culture and corruption are closely interrelated. The cultural issue has also been shown by some participants' attitudes. It can be seen in the case of gratification and nepotism (see Section 5.7.2 in Chapter 5). As explained by Raymond Williams, culture is "particular ways of life. It focuses on practical and material aspects of the way of life and the

signifying and symbolic ones” (in Larmour, 2012, p. 158). An action that is regarded as corruption in one culture may not be viewed the same in another culture. As culture interacts with corruption through formal institutions, it somehow explains how corruption levels will differ across countries (Banuri and Eckel, 2012). It has become one of the main points that the thesis found to explain that the level of corruption in Indonesia is different from other countries such as Denmark and Finland (that have higher CPI Index).

Study 1 has also attempted to find evidence on whether values act as an inhibitor to corrupt behaviour. The study found some factors that make people avoid corruption. There are risk and sanctions, reporting and controlling, leaders, also values (See section 5.6 in Chapter 5). The participants described values such as honesty, responsible, prosocial, and obey the rules as crucial barriers to corruption. Some of the literature emphasises the importance of values in preventing corruption (Alatas, 2015). In line with those, the findings also confirm that values may reduce the acceptability of corruption. Further testing was conducted in Study 2 to confirm these findings.

The results of Study 1 were used as evidence to support the hypotheses in Study 2. Even though the conceptual framework in Study 2 was not fully built from the previous study, the results of Study 1 become the primary data for Study 2. Secondary data was used to complement these findings.

8.1.2 Overview of the model testing (Study 2)

Study 2 aimed to answer the research question (RQ) three to test whether value systems can be built as barriers to corrupt acts. It focused on testing a model of behaviour on its ability to build barriers to prevent everyday forms of corruption. As illustrated in Section 6.3 – Chapter 6), the model examined whether values influence the relations between social norms and people’s behaviour towards everyday corrupt practices. It also tested whether the model could predict people’s behaviour in this regard.

Before discussing the results of the main question mentioned above, the discussion of findings in Study 2 will explain direct relations among the variables. All hypotheses tested in this study (see section 6.4.1 and 6.4.2 - Chapter 6) received full empirical support.

The findings showed that descriptive norms were significantly related to predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices (including bribery, nepotism, and gratification). People's perceptions of the frequency of corrupt practices in society are related to their intention to engage in corrupt practices. Therefore, the higher the perceived frequency of corrupt practices in society, the more likely they are to do the same.

The results show that descriptive norms influence people's engagement in small-scale corrupt practices in everyday life. Descriptive norms, as part of social norms, combining individual and social factors that have received enormous attention as a theoretical framework to study corruption (Kubbe and Engelbert, 2018). They convey what is considered common or typically performed by people (Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren, 1990; Tankard and Paluck, 2016). Most people rely on descriptive norms as benchmarks in decision-making (Köbis *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, it is relevant that this study focuses on young adults, as many are about to embark on their adult life (e.g., pursue their career, build a family) and have just had their first experiences in the day-to-day business of the community. Thus, this can be the right time to remind and encourage them to adopt positive norms. The campaign to adopt positive norms is discussed in a later section.

Injunctive norms, also a part of social norms, were not found to influence people's behaviour in this research. The model fit did not show any satisfactory results that could be tested further in the model, and the factor loading of the items in SEM was low.

Related to the findings on injunctive norms, as described in the earlier section and in section 5.4 of Chapter 5, the young adults found that people important to them (e.g., older cohort, parents) do not see small-scale corrupt practices as inappropriate. This finding is in line with Study 1 that some people from the older cohort even allowed or advised young adults to take part in such practices. Thus, injunctive norms may not seem relevant to young adults. As a result, the

influence of injunctive norms on people's behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices cannot be confirmed.

Research Question 3

In order to answer the main research question in Study 2, the role of values as a moderator in the relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corruption has been examined. It has been confirmed that the value of Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature influence the relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices (see section 6.4.2.2 in Chapter 6). Not all Schwartz's values tested in this study confirmed this influence.

The motivational goals of Conformity, according to Schwartz (1992), are "restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms" (Schwartz, 1992, p. 9). The value of Conformity emphasises self-restraint in everyday interaction, usually with close others (obedient, self-discipline, politeness, honouring parents and elders) (Schwartz, 1992, p. 9-10). The value of Conformity-Rules implies compliance with regulations, laws, and formal obligations (Schwartz, 2012). Accordingly, an individual who affords the values as high importance is motivated to follow laws and is less accepting of corruption (Tatarko and Mironova, 2016). This is consistent with the finding in Study 1, as well as Study 2, that shows respecting the rules and regulations and avoid violating the obligation can hinder people from corruption.

Meanwhile, the Universalism-nature's motivational goals are preservation of the natural environment (Schwartz, 2012). In the Indonesian context, it may relate to the impact of corruption on environmental damage. Many cases reported indicate ecological loss because of corrupt practices such as illegal logging, illegal mining, and forest exploitation (Butar Butar, Feliciano and Mulahele, 2019; Setiawan *et al.*, 2017).

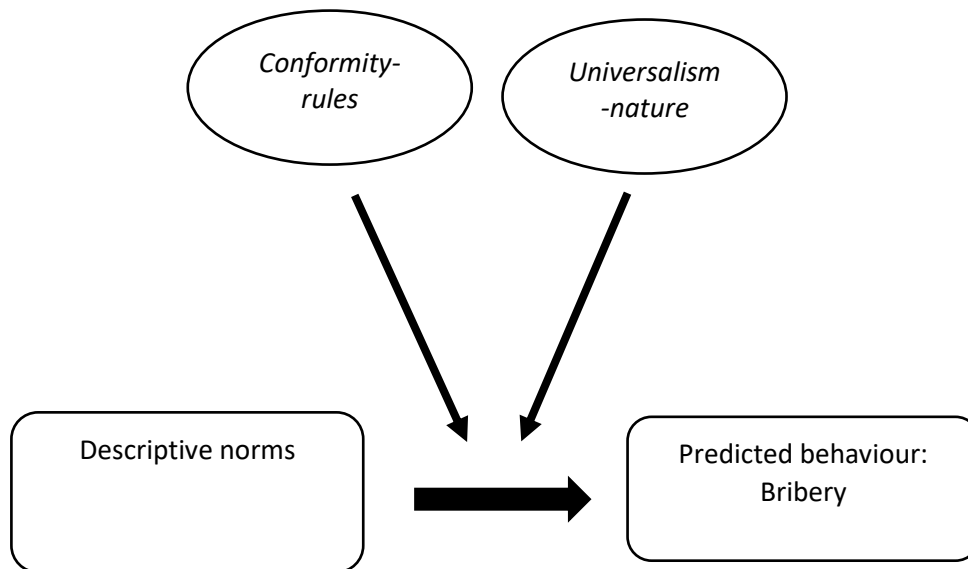


Figure 8 - 2: The final model – findings from Study 2

The final model can be seen from the above Figure 8-2. It shows the direct relations of descriptive norms to predicted behaviour towards bribery. The figure also shows that the value of Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature are moderators to the relationships. It means that with a lower level of Conformity-Rules and/or Universalism-Nature values, the more the individual perceives that many people do small bribe, it can lead to a higher tendency to do the same (see details in section 6.4.2 of Chapter 6).

Even though the findings in this Study 2 only found the value of Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature, it provides evidence to conclude that values can be a barrier to corrupt behaviour. The evidence also supports the findings in Study 1 that found similar results (Section 5.6.1 in Chapter 5). The finding supports the previous research by Tatarko & Mironova (2016), mentioned earlier in section 1.4 (Chapter 1) and section 3.6.1 – 3.6.3 (Chapter 3), that Schwartz's Conformity-Rules value can decrease the acceptability of corruption. In addition to that, a new finding in this thesis is the Universalism-Nature value that found to be an influence on the relations between descriptive norms and people's behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. It adds to the literature on the type of values that limits people to corruption.

Nevertheless, as explained earlier in the findings of Study 1 (Chapter 5) and Study 2 (Chapter 6), values are not the only factor that drives people to choose to bribe. Social norms, in particular descriptive norms, have been found to have a direct effect on the tendency to corrupt behaviour. It is consistent with previous research by Tatarko & Mironova (2016) who argue that even though values limit human behaviour, they do not stimulate them to perform certain behaviours, but social norms do.

Having discussed the above findings, the findings support the research argument that even though value systems can be built up as barriers to corruption, it may not be sufficient to conduct an anti-corruption campaign. It is indicated that creating new norms (or revising the existing ones) that support and sustain a campaign supporting anti-corruption behaviour is also needed to reduce compliance with corrupt practices. From the results in Study 2, it shows that the model built likely can predict people behaviour that interact with descriptive norms and personal values in corruption context. This evidence provides a fundamental support for Study 3 and the creating of intervention model for anti-corruption campaign that is discussed in the next section.

8.1.3 Overview of the concept testing (Study 3)

Research Question 4

Study 3 was conducted to develop intervention models using social marketing approaches. The study attempted to explain research question (RQ) four. From the process of formulating target behaviour (see Figure 7-1 in Chapter 7), and supported by the findings from previous studies, there are two primary campaigns proposed for the anti-corruption campaign. They are values campaign and social norming campaign. The values campaign aims to cultivate anti-corruption values; it addresses the findings in Study 1 and Study 2 that values act as barriers to corrupt behaviour. In Study 2, Conformity-Rules and Universalism-Nature are the influencers to the relationship between descriptive norms and people's behaviour toward small-scale corrupt practices.

The social norming approach that is proposed in the research, aims to promote and build positive images or behaviours in society in order to build confidence and trust in the target audience.

Positive behaviours or images in this context refer to some acts that represent integrity-based behaviour (e.g., obeying the rules, socially responsible, proper use of authority, and more). The definition of integrity is explained in section 3.5.3 – Chapter 3 in this research. Positive images can also refer to some improved public services that some people have witnessed. For example, some participants mentioned improved immigration office services (see section 5.3.1 in Chapter 5). It is expected that increasing the visibility of positive acts will influence people to follow or learn others' behaviors.

In Study 3, the identification process of the intervention model used the COM-B approach by Michie et al. (2016). Using the behavioural change wheel (BCW) model, some intervention models have been proposed to be tested. The concept testing involved examining young adults' perceptions and opinions towards the proposed ideas for intervention. It is essential to understand the attitude towards, acceptability, and feasibility of the proposed intervention before it (one, few, or all concepts) is implemented. Some of the concepts were strongly accepted by participants, while a few others were disliked.

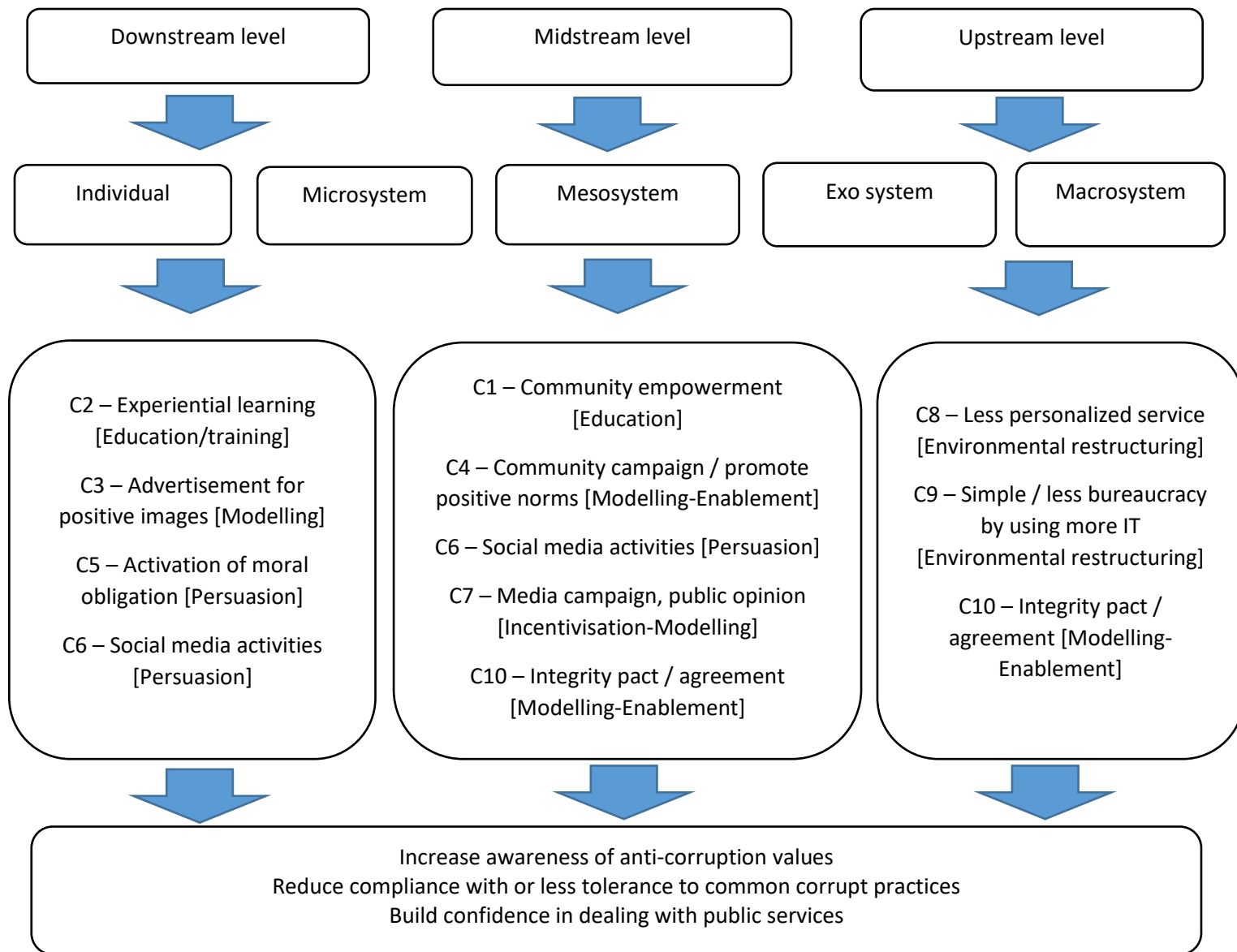


Figure 8 - 3: Classification of intervention models based on the strategy level

In Figure 8 – 3 the concepts are classified based on the strategy level in ecological system. It is to make better explanation on the strategy mapping of each concept. In downstream level, education and training can be focused more as the aim is to drive behaviour change in individual and micro level. Persuasion techniques can also be more applied in this level. For communication through advertisement, even though many participants support the idea, however, according to the initiator (key informant) the cost can be very expensive. They also have to compete with commercial sector advertisements that have very high budget. Thus, communication may be proposed to be under policy strategy.

The midstream level can highlight on modelling and enablement. Messages on positive behaviour and role model need to be frequently delivered to the target behaviour. Young adults also need to be enabled to support the driving of behaviour change. Social media in this context can be highly utilized, as well as the relational management to the young adults.

For the concept 8, 9 and 10 it can go more on upstream to focus on what the government or decision makers should do to support or enable the change in the lower levels. It can be categorized as policy category under regulations and environmental restructuring. The 3 concepts are not completely new ideas. It has been applied in some of the area of public services. Such as signing integrity pacts among departmental offices, rotation of the officials, however, this research provides some feedback from the participants on what they know and what they want to be improved in this sector. It is expected that the programme can be more comprehensively conducted in the future. The following Table 8 – 1 illustrates the conclusion of the feedback for each concept to improve the implementation.

Table 8 - 1: Feedback on the proposed concepts

Intervention models	Concepts	Labels	Feedback / suggestions
Education	1	Community empowerment	Emphasis on relationship marketing to strengthen the relationships and build their confidence.
Education / training	2	Experiential learning	
Modelling	3	Information and communication through advertisement	This maybe challenging in terms of the costs. This approach can be supported with policy strategy (Michie et. al., 2011) which ask for communication support from the government.
Modelling / enablement	4	Intense community campaign by promoting positive descriptive norms	Relationship building and CBSM (Community-based social marketing) to enable the behaviour change. Emphasis on barriers and benefits
Persuasion	5	Activation of moral (sense of) obligation and social – nature welfare	These concepts can be merged into social media campaign with concentration with modelling and persuasion technique.
Persuasion / enablement	6	Persuasive communication using social media	
Incentivisation / Modelling	7	Media campaign – public info communication	Values can be focused on conformity-rules and universalism-nature. Using interactive social media, such as YouTube, blogs, Twitter, etcetera.
Environmental restructuring	8	Less or non-personalised service.	The 3 concepts can be leveled as macro level campaign, as it needs support from the government / policy maker.
Environmental restructuring	9	Simple / less bureaucracy with IT	
Modelling / enablement	10	Commitment to integrity acts	

In relation to the above discussion, Table 8 – 2 below shows the analysis of policy strategy. These are the types of support that needed from the policymaker or government to enable the intervention models to run effectively.

Table 8 - 2: The process of identifying appropriate policy categories using APEASE criteria by Michie et al. (2011)

No.	Possible policy categories	Does the policy category meet the APEASE criteria (affordability, practicability, effectiveness / cost-effectiveness, acceptability, side-effects/safety, equity) in the context of anti-corruption campaign?
1	Communication / marketing	Possible as it may raise high costs
2	Guidelines	Not practicable as people may not be interested to read/learn it
3	Fiscal measures	Not relevant in this context
4	Regulation	Yes, particularly to support concept 8, 9, and 10
5	Legislation	Unlikely as it would raise political sentiment
6	Environmental / social planning	Yes, particularly to support concept 8, 9, and 10, even though it will take time.
7	Service provision	Possible, but may take longer time and lots of manpower

8.2 Building barriers to corruption

Small-scale corruption should be considered as serious problem as well. It is because it is equally damaging to the country. However, people think little on the matter as it is what people do every day as normal activities. Thus, it does not look harmful. This lies the dangerous if people are ignorant as it could potentially bring damage to the country.

Looking at the previous studies and its analyses, it can be seen that corruption in Indonesia is a collective problem in nature. The evidence shows that social norms are found to be a strong influencer to corrupt behaviour, people learn and see what other people do; and they tend to imitate the acts. From the Corruption Perception Index (CPI), it also shows that corruption is nationally patterned. Thus, for conducting anti-corruption campaign, it needs more than

cultivating values to the target audience. Moreover, it needs to be supported in all levels of ecological system.

The findings support the existing literature on the prominent position of social norms that is widely increasingly discussed to have influence on corrupt behaviour. However, in this research, it is only descriptive norms that are confirmed to have influence on people tendency to do small-scale corruption. It cannot be confirmed in this research about the influence of injunctive norms to the people tendency to corrupt behaviour. Some people from older cohort were found to be not supporting the spirit of change to fight corruption. It has been shown in Study 1 that some participants reported the older people they know have even recommend them to comply with the common corrupt practices when dealing with everyday corruption. Moreover, Study 2 adds more evidence on the result of injunctive norms that cannot be confirmed as a good model to test.

Breaking the chain strategy

With the injunctive norms that are not confirmed in this context, breaking the chain of the cultured habits or practices are needed. Some participants also have mentioned the idea for breaking the chain of corruption (008-M-23-NS-NJ in section 5.7.1.1; Act2-M in section 7.4.2) in order to revise or change the current norms and replace with new ones.

The campaign targets more on young people who presumably, based on their activities and exposures to the public services, are not much exposed to small-scale corrupt behaviours. It is expected that they can amplify the target behaviour to other people, and to sustain the behaviour when the behaviour change happened. KPK (The Indonesian anti-corruption agency) targets the young adults in their campaign in order to make young adults to be 'ready' when they deal with public services. As within their ages, young adults will start to pursue their career, build a family, and start to become leaders (organisations / communities / national level). It is important for the young adults to know what they should do in dealing with the common practices. In Study 1, it was found that young adults have a certain level of motivation to change. They are aware that it has to be changed. However, many of them are lack of knowledge, lack of

role model, and lack of support. Therefore, besides values campaign, the activities that need to be conducted in the campaign are social norming approaches using role models, social media and apply relationship management. This breaking the chain strategy is latter discussed below.

Collective action problem

As mentioned earlier in the interview with their staff, in doing their prevention campaign, KPK is focusing on small-scale corruption (see section 7.4.1 – Chapter 7). It is because the activities in petty corruption are easily found in many places, so that people can understand more about the messages in their communication programme. Besides, they also send the message to public with ‘victim’ approach, that they are actually the victims in this matter.

Small-scale corruption in Indonesia may resemble a collective action problem as it is largely systemic. The systemic corruption happens because corruption is widely perceived as societal norms in the community (Persson, Rothstein & Teorell, 2013; Mungiu – Pippidi, 2011; Bauhr & Nasiritousi, 2011, Rothstein, 2011; in Marquette and Peiffer, 2015). Using this approach, Persson et al. (2013) suggest changing people’s beliefs about other people’s behaviour is essential. They state that it is important, “to change the actors’ beliefs about what all other actors are likely to do so that most actors expect most other actors to play fairly (p. 464).”

Applying collective action problem in this corruption problem is also to ask people to actively participate and contribute to producing collective goods. They should avoid act as free-riders as they are all the victims of the corruption practices directly or indirectly, sooner or later. For example, when someone is accepted in a job vacancy just because they are relatives or bribe the officials, it is surely unfair to all the candidates especially those who have capacities to work for that job. Here lies the loss because of small-scale corruption as it creates inefficient and unfair distribution of scarce benefits (Rose-Ackerman, 2008). The participants in Study 1 also realised that the impact of corruption is not only for one person, but many people in their surroundings that the loss could bring a domino effect (005-M-23-NS-NJ, Study 1).

When corruption is seen as a collective action, social norms become extremely important. People are motivated to comply with corrupt behaviour because they perceive that others do the same

(Bicchieri and Xiao, 2008). The social norming approach can also be an effective policy with which to send a 'big bang' type of signal to society that may make most people engaged in corruption believe that most other people are willing to change (Rothstein, 2011; Uslaner and Rothstein, 2016).

Referring to the above, it can be seen that the problem lies in macro level, that breaking the chain means change the norms. In order to achieve the target, a campaign model that applies social ecological model is proposed. Evidence throughout the research show that the campaign for anti-corruption need to be conducted using multiple interventions. It would not be sufficient to focus only on one level of strategy or a single intervention to drive for the desired behaviour change. A participant, GA-AM19, in section 7.3.4 – Chapter 7, mentioned in a focus group discussion that one intervention in Concept 4 will not be effective for individuals who have already accustomed to cheating; it needs regulation and penalty for deterrent effect. A key informant (Act2-M in section 7.4.2 – Chapter 7) also added some stages that can be carried out for anti-corruption campaign. They are social media, role models / leaderships, and in particular, the people who drive the change. The following section will discuss the multiple interventions in social ecological model.

Social marketing benchmarks

As explained in Chapter 3, the social marketing activities should consist of eight elements as benchmarks, in order for a campaign to be called a social marketing campaign (NSMC, 2016). Table 8-3 presents the social marketing elements that have been covered in this research.

Table 8 - 3: Social marketing benchmarks applied in this research

No.	Social marketing benchmarks	Description
1	Behaviour	Behavioural aspect (habits, attitudes, perception, worldview). Role model.
2	Customer orientation / consumer research	Young adults General public (e.g., research on their values, attitudes, perception, motivation, knowledge)
3	Theory	Social norms Persuasion and marketing frameworks Relationship management Community-based social marketing
4	Insight	Participants' opinion to get the 'actionable insights'
5	Exchange	Social satisfaction, Social sanction, Feeling of solidarity, Shared sense of purpose, Less victimized by (Protection from) a corrupt system Motivational exchanges
6	Competition	Current behaviour of themselves or other people Pressure groups (e.g., older generation) Commercial sectors (that lead to consumerism)
7	Segmentation	Segmentation (e.g., based on demographic or psychographic, institution / community objectives / interests).
8	Methods Mix (COM-SM) – see Table 7-3	
	Capability	Lack of psychological capability
	Opportunity	Lack of physical and social opportunity
	Motivation	Lack of reflective and automatic motivation

In the above Table 8-3, the elements of social marketing benchmark are presented. The first is behaviour. The research focuses on behavioural aspects, such as habits, attitudes and perception of the young adults.

Activities that show customer orientation / research in this research is from the use of mix data sources. The data was gathered by conducting three stage of studies to understand the young adults' behaviour and to know better about the issue on corruption and anti-corruption. Besides some behavioural aspects as mentioned above, the research also tried to understand the young adults' motivation and knowledge related to the issue.

The research adopts some behavioural theories, such as social norms, persuasion, and values theory, to understand people behaviour. The theories also are applied to guide the development of concepts or intervention strategies that have been proposed in earlier study.

Actionable insights have been obtained from all three stages of studies in this research. It is pieces of understanding that drive the development of intervention and model of campaign.

As the next element is exchange. There are some perceived benefits and costs that can be informed as the result of adopting and maintaining new behaviour. The organiser can maximise the perceived benefits and motivational exchanges such as social satisfaction, less victimised by a corrupt system, and more transparent community. When the situation is conducive, social sanction can be applied as the costs when someone does not comply with the new behaviour.

Competition in this context can be the current behaviour of the young adults and people around them. In the previous Study 1, some of the older people are found to be negative influencer for young adults in making decision on corrupt common practices. This becomes something that competing their time, attention and influence them to behave in a particular way.

In order to avoid the 'one size fits all' concept, segmentation should be considered. The young adults can be segmented based on their demographic (such as geographic location, level of education, etcetera), or psychographic (such as lifestyles, level of interests in this issue, etcetera). The different focuses of the concepts proposed in Study 3, can be utilised to segment the young adults. For those who are very concern about corruption issues, can be invited to join discussion or training. However, for general people, to communicate about corruption issues can be delivered through social media (e.g., YouTube clip, advertisement).

Lastly, the methods mix applied in the research is COM-SM. The analysis of the capability, opportunity and motivation of the young adults has been conducted throughout all studies. From the hierarchy of effort in social marketing activities (Figure 3-2 in Chapter 3) the designs can be focused to building relationships and community. It is because there is still deficit in all elements of COM (see Table 7-3 in Chapter 7). The design may be complex as it is related to relatively difficult behaviour change. Therefore, a substantive intervention model is needed for the successful of the campaign.

8.3 Application of Social Ecological Model (SEM) on anti-corruption campaign

Referring to the evidence yields from all previous studies in this research, in this section, a model for anti-corruption campaign is discussed. The model addresses the evidence from Study 2 that shows social norms as direct antecedent to the tendency of corrupt behaviour. In addition, it also tries to adopt the research findings in Study 1 and Study 2 that support values act inhibitor to corrupt acts, specifically it is found that values of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature can be highlighted as the mediator of the relationship between social norms and behaviour. The intervention models that included in the model are considered as the approaches that most likely will succeed to support behaviour change to happened. The model also illustrates the need of multilevel interventions for the campaign to break the chain of corruption practices.

With the above knowledge, a model for an anti-corruption campaign based on social ecological model has been created. The model in Figure 8-4 below shows that the interventions should be conducted in multiple layers, from downstream to upstream. Each level interacts with other levels. The model also shows how each level of strategy contributes to the achievement of desired behaviour.

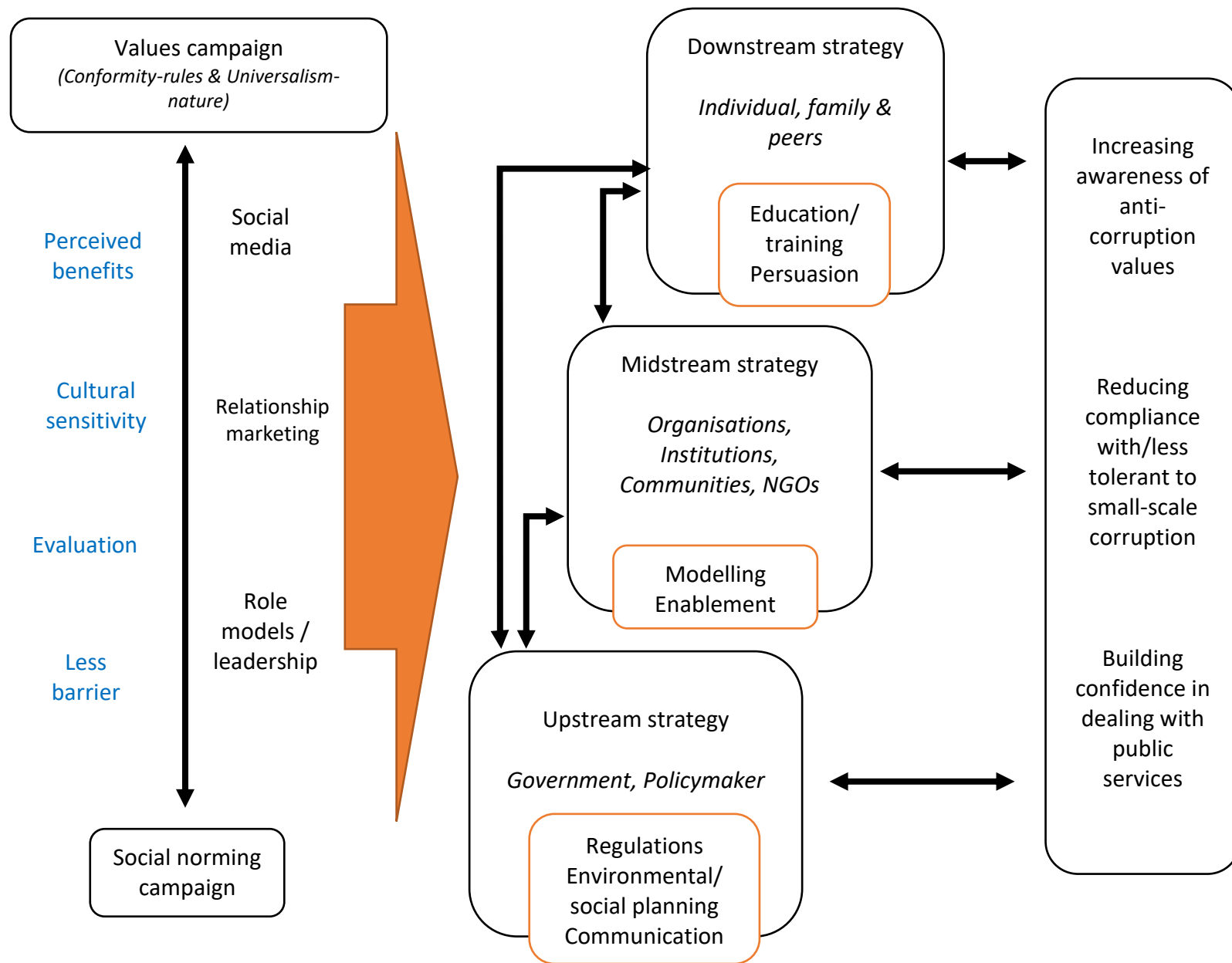


Figure 8 - 4: Proposed model for anti-corruption campaign adopting Social Ecological Model

Values campaign and social norming campaign

Addressing the findings throughout the studies in the research and earlier discussions in this chapter, the model in Figure 8 – 4 shows that the major focuses for the campaign are values campaign and social norming campaign. The values campaign can focus on values of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature (in line with the findings in Study 2). Conformity-rules, as mentioned previously, lies on obedience to rules and regulations. This supports previous research by Tatarko & Mironova (2016) that found similar result. While Universalism-nature has been a new finding that it has influence to the tendency of corruptive behaviour. Social norming campaign can be conducted by utilising the values of Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature. It means that the message can be focusing on the importance of obey the rules and regulations and protect the environment.

The model aims ultimately to change the norms. It is to show that all activities should aim to break the chain of corruption practices in everyday activities between the young adults and the older cohort. In order to create more chance for people to follow the desired behaviour, thus, perceived benefits need to be raised and/ or reduce the barriers. A technique can be suggested is by applying CBSM (Community-based social marketing). CBSM is built on social norm theory and diffusion theory. It is based on the assumption that positive norms will be created as people need to be continuously reminded of positive behaviours or the image of others to increase their confidence in performing the acts. CBSM was offered by McKenzie-Mohr as a means to foster pro-environmental behaviour change (McKenzie-Mohr and Smith, 1999; McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; McKenzie-Mohr and Schultz, 2014). CBSM works at a community or group level (midstream). An important feature of this technique that it moves beyond the individual level (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000). The approach has the potential to be adopted in campaigns for social change, such as anti-corruption campaigns, to foster sustainable behaviour change (See an example of application on Appendix 8-1).

The campaign should consider cultural sensitivity as it is found in Study 1 (section 5.7.2 - Chapter 5) that this issue is quite significant that influence people's decision making in small-scale corrupt behaviour. The findings show that people weigh differently. Thus, the anti-corruption initiator

should carefully assess any method that will be applied in their campaign. A comprehensive evaluation is also proposed as an activity that should periodically be conducted. It is important to obtain the knowledge such as whether behaviour change happened, the barriers of the change, and how to improve the campaign to be a more effective one.

The model offers the incorporation of social media, role model/leadership, and relationship management as means in the running of values campaign and social norming campaign. Followings are the overview of each strategy elements.

Social media

Social media can be a powerful strategy element for campaigning anti-corruption to young adults. As shown in the findings, young adults accept the use of social media and they are active users of it. The social media can include YouTube, Instagram, blog, Twitter and many more.

Several studies also support the use of social media, particularly for managing relations with the target groups (Clark and Melancon, 2013; Moretti and Tuan, 2013; Sashi, 2012; Williams and Chinn, 2010). By doing so, the 'consumer' (followers) can be involved in the creation of the next ideas, for example. Using social media can achieve the relationship marketing goals to build the followers' participation and may nurture them into loyal 'advocates' (Williams and Chinn, 2010).

The key informants also admitted (in section 7.4.2 – Chapter 7) that social media can be used as a potential medium to target young adults in an anti-corruption campaign. It can be utilised as means for communicating, building interaction and creating values for both practitioners and target audience (Williams and Chinn, 2010).

The role model / leadership

Role models or leadership is found crucial to break the chain of corruption. It plays an essential part in this process. Good leaders are needed and are crucial in preventing corruption (Alatas, 2015). Alatas (2015) also described poor leadership as one of the causes of corruption.

As indicated by participants in this research, role models or leaders are needed to give a 'big push' to the anti-corruption effort. They argued that the attention of leaders in government is required, even for the smallest types of corrupt practice (002-F-24-NS-J, Study 1; Act2-M, Study 3).

This fact is supported by many examples and literature on the importance of leadership to reduce corruption. Useful cases in this regard are those of Singapore and Hong Kong, where corruption was successfully fought when high-level public officials in these countries set an example through behaviour that went beyond simple rhetoric (Root, 1996). Indeed, Alatas (2015) stated that the absence of leadership in key positions could influence the mitigation of corruption. The success story of Singapore has demonstrated a strong political will to keep the country free from corruption. Strong leadership from prime ministers has created a 'trickle-down' effect on all efforts to eradicate corruption in the country. Singapore's anti-corruption agency (CPIB – Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau) handles all cases of corruption, big and small, regardless of the amount, ranks, or individuals involved (Quah, 2017). These efforts have successfully led to a considerable change in cultural norms regarding corrupt practices.

Leadership has become a challenging issue when conducting an anti-corruption effort in Indonesia. Particularly those who have commitment in eradicating corruption. Therefore, educate and empower the young adults in leaderships is essential for the future of anti-corruption movement.

The importance of relationship marketing

Several marketing principles have been found to be extremely significant in developing and supporting the sustainability of a campaign, such as relationship marketing. As such, the initiator needs to pursue relationship building with their target groups and partners. Relationship marketing is defined by Gronroos (1990, p. 138) as follows: "Marketing is to establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers and other partners at a profit so that the objectives of the parties involved are met. This is achieved by a mutual exchange and fulfillment of promises" (Gronroos, 1994). The importance of relationship marketing in a social marketing programme has

been highlighted by several scholars in this field, although its application has not been always smooth (Desai, 2009; Hastings, 2003; Marques and Domegan, 2011).

This finding adds more evidence on the importance of relationship marketing in anti-corruption campaign. It is needed to pursue a long-term relationship with the target groups and partners. Thus, it will be more than just a transactional process. By applying relationship building, the initiator creates opportunities to build active relationship partners and co-create value (Desai, 2009). The multi-level strategies of the social marketing activities illustrated in Figure 8-4 suggest that the relationship should be maintained simultaneously across all levels. By doing so, synergy can be achieved between the multiple change agents to bring about the desired behaviour change (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010).

Multilevel interventions in the anti-corruption campaign

The model in Figure 8 – 4 illustrates the multilevel interventions adopting the social ecological model. It illustrates that a social marketing strategy should not only deal with individual behaviour (downstream); it should also move up to an upstream level (Brennan *et al.*, 2014; Kumar *et al.*, 2012). It is because people's behaviour is influenced by personal factors as well as social and environmental aspects. The pathways that social marketers or initiators can use to develop individual behavioural change are: to target the individuals who are potentially affected in this problem; use normalising process in midstream strategy level; and target the policymakers to support the policies needed to achieve the desired behaviour.

Thus far, the anti-corruption campaign that the Indonesian anti-corruption initiators have run has focused more on the individual level (downstream). As mentioned by the key informants from anti-corruption organisations (See section 7.4.1 - Chapter 7), several programmes have been developed for young adults, such as the campus integrity festival, a youth camp, an anti-corruption film festival, and the village-youth school. It can be seen that the activities focus more on developing individual change. Hence, to maintain the sustainability when behaviour change happened, the interventions should move to a higher-level strategy at a community level.

The focus of the intervention programme should be more on building a relationship on the midstream level. Although strategically, a focus on the upstream level may achieve faster results, such a top-down strategy is unlikely to emerge as it involves political tricks and interests (See Juwono, 2016; ACCH, 2017; in section 2.7 – Chapter 2). While the upstream level requires more challenging efforts and the right momentum, the midstream strategy could offer a more promising route to facilitate behaviour change. Therefore, moving up the focus from downstream to midstream strategy may be significant for developing an anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia.

The model in Figure 8 - 4 shows that each level of the strategy contributes to developing desired target behaviour, which is the formation of integrity behaviour. The behaviour is elaborated into the following acts: increasing awareness of anti-corruption values, reducing compliance with or less tolerance to small-scale corruption, and building more confidence when dealing with public services. It also shows that each strategy level is interrelated. When there is a behaviour change in the downstream level, other higher levels should support it, to maintain the sustainability of the behaviour. Likewise, when there is a change in upstream level (e.g., new regulation) or midstream level (e.g., a programme in the neighborhood or workplace), it will drive change to the individual change (downstream).

Table 8 - 4: Layers of the social marketing eco-system
(French, Russell-Bennett and Mulcahy, 2017, p. 284)

Ecosystem/ service system	Levels			Sources
	Downstream	Midstream	Upstream	
Service eco-systems	Micro	Meso	Macro	Domegan <i>et al.</i> (2013), Hoek and Jones (2011), Russell-Bennett <i>et al.</i> (2013), Wood (2016), Luca <i>et al.</i> (2016a, 2016b), Beirão <i>et al.</i> (2017), Frow <i>et al.</i> (2016), Zainuddin <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Focal actors	Individuals / consumers	Organisations / firms (including non-profit, social and commercial and community groups)	Policymakers, government, the market	

The midstream level campaign refers to interventions that focus on community (meso) or group levels, as illustrated in the above Table 8-4. It involves any organisations or institutions that can facilitate behaviour change in people at downstream or individual levels. It involves collaborations of parties such as public services and other community actors and personal networks (e.g., family, friends) to facilitate the change (Russell-Bennett, Wood and Previte, 2013). Creating group norms at a midstream level can develop social contexts to support the sustainability of behaviour change at a micro (individual) level.

Additionally, as shown in the findings, the nature of corruption in Indonesia is collective; that social norms are powerful and can influence people's behavior towards corruption. People see and learn what others do and tend to follow or imitate. However, the success with which norms are changed does not depend on individuals or a few people; many people are needed to support it (Mackie, 2018).

In line with the approach to a collective action problem, it is important to change people's erroneous beliefs that all other people are likely to do the same and therefore is expected to play fairly (Persson *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the process of changing norms will take times. It needs to be introduced at critical points and at a regular time. It also needs to be reinforced, followed through, and then normalised at the community level. The issue on collective action problem is discussed in section 8.2.

The model in the previous Figure 8-4 shows the model for changing norms which can be at the focus of meso level (midstream level). An example to illustrate the focus of the campaign can be found in Table 8-5.

Table 8 - 5: Types of social change by time and level, adapted from Levy and Zaltman (1975) (Brennan *et al.*, 2014, p. 284)

Time	Micro level (Individual consumer)	Meso level (Group or organization)	Macro level (Overall community)
Short-term change	Behaviour change	Change in norms	Policy change
	<i>Attending anti-corruption seminar and workshop; participate in anti-corruption education modules.</i>	<i>Change in procedures (more simple and convenient procedures)</i>	<i>Higher transparency,</i>
Long-term change	Lifestyle change	Organisational change	Socio-cultural evolution
	<i>Less or No compliance with small-scale corrupt practices</i>	<i>Zero tolerance for corruption</i>	<i>Eradication of all types of corruption</i>

Intervention models on each strategy level (that likely work on each strategy)

Referring to the previous Figure 8-4, this section discusses the interventions on each strategy level that are likely to worked. It has been learned from earlier findings that the focus of anti-corruption strategy that has been conducted in Indonesia thus far, is mainly on downstream level. Educational approach has become the major intervention to individuals to gain more knowledge and skills on anti-corruption and corruption issues. Indeed, this approach is one of the most applied strategies that has been applied in preventing corruption in some countries such as India and Hong Kong.

For values campaign, education and training can still be running for individual change. As Alatas (2015) states that value-education is important in an anti-corruption campaign as it is crucial in instilling values to target group. The educational programme should aim to inspire change and leadership as well as empower young adults and enhance their ability to be critical of corrupt

practices. It is expected that from the downstream strategy, it can be carried out to the higher level (midstream) to build community empowerment as an initial step to establish and later sustain positive social change when it is happened. It is expected that this approach can identify energetic thinkers and leaders within the community to instigate and exemplify positive change.

Persuasion theory, as developed by Cialdini (1993, 2009), can be helpful when implementing some concepts in downstream and midstream level. Cialdini (2009) organises his influence techniques according to the following principles: reciprocity, scarcity, authority, consistency, contrast, social proof, and liking (Cialdini, 1993; Cialdini, 2009). Table 8-3 presents the technique adopted for applying activities or programmes in the anti-corruption campaign.

Table 8 - 6: Elements of Cialdini’s persuasion technique (Cialdini, 1993; Cialdini, 2009; Simons and Jones, 2011)

Techniques	Rules	Examples for applications
Reciprocity	People try to repay, in kind, what another person has provided them	In Study 1, a participant has mentioned it. If the country gives good things to the people, the people will pay it back. For example: provide an easy transaction with public services, and simpler bureaucracy.
Scarcity	Opportunities seem more valuable when they are less available	Indonesia is rich with its natural resources; however, it is getting scarce because of over exploitation (e.g., forest -illegal logging, irresponsible mining, etcetera). “What is left for us in the future?” - A communication task to illustrate the impact of irresponsible acts to environment can be an example of message to deliver to target audience.
Authority	People tend to defer to legitimate authorities as a decision-making shortcut.	In communicating the message, the figure / model needs to be individuals that owns similar characteristics with the message (e.g., people with integrity). Providing an authority figure (or an influencer) that can make the audience obey them.

Consistency	Once people make a choice or take a stand, they encounter personal or interpersonal pressures to behave consistently with that commitment	Commitment is the key. In their website, the organiser can offer a free activity or programme for the visitors to join. When the visitors have perceived themselves as 'customers', it is easier for the organiser to ask them to join the next or follow-up programmes / activities that may need more efforts.
Contrast	The sequence of message stimuli can make a difference in how people perceive them.	When communicating to the target audience, present two different messages. For example, A message that displays illegal mining and the impacts to the environment. Another message is a healthy ecosystem that people can use for making a living; playing ground for children; etcetera that shows the benefit of it.
Social proof	People determine what is correct by finding out what other people think is correct.	The organiser allows the visitors (of a website or a social media) to choose or vote on some acts that people should do / perform in a certain situation.
Liking	Similarity and familiarity tend to increase liking, and liking is influential when it is perceived as mutual.	The organiser can show in their website the profile of their committees, or the awards winner of Ombudsman award for people with integrity. By showing the visitors more personal in details of their biographies (such as hobbies, personal interests, etcetera), it can increase the like of people because they find familiarity or similarity with themselves.

As the next intervention in midstream strategy level is providing model (role model / leaders) as examples for people to look up to. Trusted role models and leaders have been identified in the research (Study 1, Study 3) to be significant factors to drive and support the sustainability of behaviour change as it was discussed earlier in the above sub-section.

At this level, it is expected that the young adults can be empowered and enabled to lead the change not only for themselves, but also to others. For example, by providing anti-corruption clinics to organisations / communities to support the monitor and control of the good governance of these institutions (e.g., transparency, accountability, etcetera).

The next stage of strategy should be at the upstream level. In order to enable and support the intervention models to achieve the desired behaviour, policies are needed. The organizer needs to be able to build relationship and influence the government and policy makers or 'markets' to change or revise their policies to initiate more positive social change.

In this context, concepts 8, 9, and 10 propose changes at a more upstream level. This should target the policymakers in Indonesia in order to support the intervention models proposed in the research. There actually have already been a few programmes that have utilised an electronic format, for example, e-procurement and e-filing for tax reports. However, a study found that, until 2012, only 10.26% of local government utilised the application for procurement. Several challenging factors emerged, such as regulation, leadership, and procurement institution (Nurmandi, 2013). Thus, the implementation should be more improved as the application can increase transparency which will eventually reduce the opportunity for corruption.

E-filing has been provided by the Directorate General of Taxation of Indonesia since 2012. Several studies on the usage of e-filing have found that it is effective in increasing obedience and attitudes towards reporting annual tax. Alongside the potential barriers mentioned by the participants, the quality and availability of internet connection in some regions of Indonesia has become a major obstacle in the adoption of e-filing (Saputri, Syafi'i and Wahyuni, 2018; Widiyanesti and Reynaldi, 2016).

The use of e-government has been found to have an impact on reducing the level of corruption in some countries (Krishnan, Teo and Kim, 2013; Nam, 2018; Srivastava, Teo and Devaraj, 2016). In the context of social marketing campaigns, computerised programmes or applications have sometimes been utilised. Their successful implementation has facilitated behaviour change in relation to sustainable energy, physical activity, and smart shopping (Atkinson, 2013; Mulcahy, Russell-Bennett and Iacobucci, 2018; Opong-Tawiah *et al.*, 2018; Weber *et al.*, 2018).

Integrity Pact (IP) that can hold the commitment to carry out duties, functions, responsibilities and roles in line with prevailing laws and regulations are also needed, as well as a pledge not to engage in any corruption, collusion, and nepotism (Lukito, 2016). IP is a tool that can be adopted by agencies or ministries in Indonesia as a part of the National Strategy for anti-corruption.

Therefore, the socialisation and enforcement of IP implementation should be given close attention to increase its effectiveness.

Referring to the findings in this research and supported by the literature regarding various aspects in applying social ecological model in an anti-corruption campaign, has led the advancement of a campaign strategy in this respect. The model is derived from all stages and its findings throughout this research. Even though it is still in infancy, however, it has open possibilities of a potentially effective model for anti-corruption campaign.

8.4 Theoretical and practical contributions of the research

The thesis contributes to the existing body of knowledge by demonstrating a new perspective and approach in conducting campaign for anti-corruption. It is a journey of exploration (Study 1), explanation (Study 2), and intervention's development (Study 3). The research offers tools to change people's behavior in ways targeted not only at individuals but also at the community and policymakers. It makes valuable contributions from both theoretical and managerial or practical implications.

8.4.1 Theoretical contributions

The research makes contributions to the literature in several ways. Firstly, it is advancing the implementation of social marketing techniques for anti-corruption, particularly the research of Kindra and Stapenhurst (1998). While the use of social marketing is currently popular in areas such as public health, pro-environment behaviour, and physical activity, the current research attempted to expand the application of social marketing techniques to an anti-corruption programme. It is because social marketing offers tools that could be beneficial for conducting a behavioural change campaign such as this.

It is shown from the model for conducting an anti-corruption campaign that is built adopting the social ecological model (enriching Brofenbrenner, 1981; Collins, Tapp and Presley, 2010; Tapp, 2017). It addresses the findings throughout the research that multiple interventions are needed

to conduct this campaign. The model is also equipped with some intervention models that are conceptually tested in Study 3.

Secondly, the thesis provides significant evidence to enrich theoretical perspective regarding the research of corruption and social norms (confirming the research of Köbis *et al.*, 2015; Jackson and Köbis, 2018; Kubbe and Engelbert, 2018; Fisman and Miguel, 2006; Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2009) and the relationships between values and corruption (confirming Tatarko & Mironova, 2016; Alatas, 2015). This research has established the role of social norms and values, and how the interplay between them in everyday corrupt practices. In particular, it tests and clarifies the relationships between social norms and predicted behaviour in small-scale corrupt practices and the moderating effect of values in the relationship.

The research enriches the perspective of social norms campaign. In the context of where corruption is real, social norms approach (SNA) by Berkowitz (2005) may not work as the condition has different context. Berkowitz's campaign may work for correcting the misperceptions of an issue (e.g., in the case of binge drinking). He tried to correct the misperceptual view caused by false consensus and/or pluralistic ignorance. However, in this case, as corruption is real, this research tries to acknowledge the function of social norming campaign by promoting positive behaviours or images. The efforts of normalising the positive behaviours or images may work well to achieve the desired behaviour in this context.

Moreover, it is particularising the type of values that influence the relationships between social norms and predicted behaviour in this context (confirming and advancing Tatarko & Mironova, 2016). In addition, the research offers a simple model that can be adopted for promoting anti-corruption behaviour, which is an enrichment of adopting the social ecological model in the context of corruption.

Thirdly, the research identifies the key propositions (from the proposed concepts) that use various approaches from different fields of studies, such as social psychology, sociology, communication, and marketing, giving the intervention models' nuance. It indicates the potential breadth of theories (such as relationship marketing, community-based social marketing,

persuasion theory) to be applied and the opportunity to collaborate and co-create with other experts from other fields in creating social marketing activities.

Concerning the above, the research is mixed-method studies that clarify the implementation of behavioural theories and models to be adopted in promoting anti-corruption. Figure 8 – 4 in the earlier section specifically uses the application of social ecological model with the support of other theories drawn from various fields of study.

Lastly, in the context of corruption study, the research enriches the literature on small-scale corruption. In particular, the corruptive behaviour in everyday activities relates to values and social norms in a non-western context. It enriches the understanding of what constitutes corruption as cultural perspective influences people's decision-making in everyday activities. For example, among the types of corruption, bribery is the strongest that being understood as corrupt behaviour as it involves monetary (confirming Pring, 2017; Kobis et al., 2015). However, other types, such as a small gesture of gratification, nepotism, sometimes it is difficult to count it as an act of corruption since they know that as the way people do things. Understanding this context is essential when developing relationships with the people of this context (confirming and enriching Barr and Serra, 2010; Dong, Dulleck and Torgler, 2009; Yeganeh, 2014).

8.4.2 Practical implications

Besides theoretical contributions, the following are some practical implications (managerial contributions) that can be highlighted throughout the research. Firstly, the research offers a new perspective and approaches to conduct anti-corruption campaigns using theories adopted from the marketing field of study. It helps anti-corruption initiators / agencies / policymakers recognise social marketing theories and techniques to change their target audience's behavior.

Secondly, concerning the above, the research generates a conceptual framework of behaviour change that can be applied in the campaign to develop and improve the anti-corruption programmes. The framework (in Figure 8-4 in this chapter) shows the important elements and processes for the success of the programmes. It also provides the practitioners with value

propositions throughout the concepts proposed to achieve the desired behaviour. The propositions of the concepts were developed using various theories from various fields of study. It is shown that the practitioner can choose any approach that suits the situation and particular purpose.

Thirdly, the thesis demonstrates to the initiator / agencies / policymakers that understanding personal and social factors can help deliver the anti-corruption message to the target audience. The data reported in the research appear to support the assumptions that even though values, as a personal factor, have become essential elements in inhibiting people from taking part in corruption, descriptive norms seem to be more potent as a driver to reduce corruption. Thus, it leads to the confirmation of the need for multilevel strategies in conducting the campaign. Focusing on the downstream strategy level will not be sufficient to sustain the behaviour; they need to move up to midstream and eventually upstream level to maintain the sustainability of the change.

Lastly, it confirms the critical roles of trusted leadership / role models, social media and relationship management in promoting anti-corruption. Undoubtedly, to enhance an anti-corruption movement's effectiveness, the leaders' support is needed (confirming Alatas, 2015). It raises the issue of leadership and the role of upstream actors in anti-corruption campaigns. Trendsetting or role model, in this case, is certainly needed to support the campaign and develop new norms. A leader or influencer who exhibits and campaigns for anti-corruption behaviour can be immensely powerful in influencing and changing people's perceptions of corruption in the country.

As this research focuses on targeting young adults, it provides insight that social media is a significant element to consider when communicating with them. Besides communication, the practitioner can also utilise social media to build interaction and create value for both the practitioners and the target audience.

It also confirms the importance of relational thinking. As corruption in Indonesia may resemble a collective problem, building relationships as the strategy for social marketing activities is vital to sustaining behaviour change when it happens. As mentioned previously, relationship marketing offers benefits for the initiator in building 'customer loyalty' and encouraging customers (in this case, the target groups) to promote the programme and recommend it to others. Relationship building with target groups offers long-term benefits to the initiator in terms of sustaining such programmes.

8.5 Limitations of the research

This research also has certain limitations that need to be addressed. These concepts were built using a social marketing programme that has been successful in other domains such as public health, pro-environmental behaviour, and sports. Thus, based on all the research that explores values and norms in relation to the corruption problem, this research represents an attempt to formulate interventions as remedies for corruption by investigating the potential of social marketing approaches. There continues to be limited evidence on the effectiveness of the proposed concepts for the campaign.

The scope was limited to the context of everyday forms of corruption. For some aspects or theories, these may be applied differently in the case of grand corruption. For example, people are aware that grand corruption is a criminal act as corruption and criminal are closely related concepts (Alatas, 2015). Even though everyday corrupt practices can be equally damaging (Kindra and Stapenhurst, 1998), people may view these from different perspectives. For instance, everyday corruption is reported less often as many people consider it to be a common form of behaviour. The sanctions or risk of being caught have made it acceptable in society. Thus, sometimes people do not consider it to be inappropriate.

In addition to the above, the corruption problem was also studied from the perspective of young adults in Indonesia. Within this focus, an attempt was made to narrow down the assessment to the role of, and interplay between, values and social norms in influencing people's behaviour

toward this type of corruption. Consequently, the proposed concepts for intervention were limited to these perspectives. Although there may be an opportunity to apply these within a different scope, some elements may need to be adjusted.

Another salient issue is that of generalisability. Because the respondents in this research were mostly university students, the findings can only be generalised to young adults below the age of 30 who are better educated than the general population. The findings may therefore apply less well to other target groups, for example those who do not experience higher education, or live in rural areas, or older age (e.g., people in their 30s).

In addition to the generalizability issues, although some of the participants were already in employment, the majority were university students without any working experience. Thus, they did not have any exposure to or experience in a workplace. Thus, when answering questions regarding corrupt practices, their responses were based on their perceptions: what they have perceived others doing (e.g., friends, families), and what they see in the media or other sources. Nevertheless, it is important to challenge their opinions towards these issues and hear these directly from the perspectives of the target group as the perception of corruption may influence the act of corruption (Melgar, Rossi and Smith, 2010).

A further limitation also lies within the model itself in that its focus was limited to values, descriptive norms and behaviour towards small-scale corrupt acts. This is because the research constitutes a preliminary attempt to examine the influence of values, and the interplay between these and norms in influencing people's behaviour towards practices of bribery, gratification and nepotism in day-to-day activities.

Regarding the questionnaire, it is important to note that not all the values on the Schwartz's PVQ-RR (Portrait Value Questionnaire – revised version) scale were found to be worked in this research. Thus, it may be worth to know that there are some issues on researching values.

In PVQ-RR, the respondents are asked to compare each person to themselves and indicate how similar the person is to them ("How much like you is this person?"). They need to rate the

responds in 6-point scales from “Very much like me” to “Not like me at all”. As many values are viewed desirable to most people, it may result that the respondents have difficulties to rate among the most similar (Very much like me) to the least (Not like me at all). As the results, tendency to attribute to the most similar to most values sometimes become a problem (see (Roccas, Sagiv and Navon, 2017).

This problem may also cause the reliability values in Study 2 that have low reliability coefficients, as they may find some items were contradict to themselves. It became a difficult task to rate the similarity between themselves and the person in the questionnaire. Thus, it has resulted to poor reliability for some values in this research. The problem of ratings has also been discussed to have some disadvantages. Thus, some other methods such as rankings or pairings as alternatives have been discussed by some scholars (Roccas, Sagiv, and Navon, 2017).

Methodological issues may also become the problem of poor reliability. PVQ-RR that measures 19 values consist of 57 items which is rather lengthy questionnaire. Thus, it took long time to complete the questionnaire. The research also took a consideration on the translation issues. The original scale is in English and was translated into Indonesian. Although it has been validated by some Indonesian scholars, however, there may be translation issues. The language differences may cause the lack of common definition of some concepts in the value scale. For instance, Indonesian language is more descriptive than English, which makes the sentence becomes longer than the original scale. Nevertheless, this assumption needs to be supported by an additional future research.

8.6 Recommendations for further research

This research has made a distinct contribution to existing knowledge on the research topic. It provides a greater understanding of human behaviour in everyday corrupt practices in Indonesia. Constructive participation and feedback from the young adults in this research will help policy makers and anti-corruption initiators achieve their goals in eradicating corruption in the country. The research also extends the adoption of social marketing techniques in anti-corruption

campaigns as part of a social change programme. It may assist scholars or practitioners developing anti-corruption programmes using these techniques.

Furthermore, the research has important implications that will stimulate future research in this area. For instance, it opens up possibilities for further study that focuses on the potential of social marketing at every level of the campaign from individual level up to upstream level. As several scholars have noted, research at the midstream level in social marketing remains scarce (Luca, Hibbert and McDonald, 2016; Russell-Bennett, Wood and Previte, 2013). Therefore, when adopting social marketing techniques at this level, additional study may be needed, such as further research on organisational norms on corrupt practices. This will help confirm the significance of midstream actors in establishing and sustaining behavioural change.

The research also raises the possibility of conducting multidisciplinary research with other relevant disciplines. Curbing corruption from a multidisciplinary perspective may provide initiators with a rich theoretical and empirical base on which to develop a strategic plan for an anti-corruption campaign. As discussed earlier, the proposed concepts use various approaches that require related knowledge in that field, whether this is education, communication, public administration, or political science. Each field has its own theories that will be beneficial for social marketing initiators to understand when designing and implementing their programme.

Knowledge on how the transition from a corrupt equilibrium to a less corrupt one can be facilitated remains limited. This research represents one effort to remedy this deficit. However, further potential research is needed regarding the reliable measurement of values in the context of corruption research. This current research adopted Schwartz's scale of PVQ-RR, the application of which appears to be limited in corruption research as it may be too general. Therefore, an additional study that uses a different or a particular values scale for corruption study may be useful in ascertaining the influence of values in this context.

Finally, the research opens up possibilities for the use of other methodologies to enrich knowledge regarding the effectiveness of each concept. The participation of young adults in

Study 3 provides preliminary findings on the high acceptability of some concepts, and less to few. Further research is therefore needed on each concept or idea. For example, social media may be of potential use in an anti-corruption targeted at young adults. It would also provide an opportunity to test relationship building using this media.

8.7 Research conclusions

Having discussed the results of all three studies in this research, this section now draws several conclusions. The research sought to explain the potential use of social marketing techniques in an anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia. It explored and formulated intervention concepts that were aligned with the context of the corruption problem in the country. The research answered four main research questions in a series of three studies.

In relation to the research question #1 and #2, as found in Study 1, there is an early evidence for the influence of values on people's behaviour towards everyday corrupt practices. Most people still considered small-scale corrupt practices to be common behaviour. These can be found, for instance, in cases where people deal with officers in settling traffic tickets, making or renewing ID (identity) cards, and recruitment processes. Because they are so ubiquitous, people tend to comply with small-corrupt practices, such as paying extra money to settle a traffic ticket, speeding up the process of renewing their documents or cards, or gifting someone to smooth their business (in small-scale activities).

In Study 1, preliminary evidence was found to show that values act as an inhibitor to corrupt practices. This finding was then further tested in the quantitative approach adopted in Study 2 that aimed to answer the research question #3. The findings from this study confirmed that values can be built as barrier to corruption, however, social norms also have significant impact to corrupt behaviour. Certain values, such as Conformity-rules and Universalism-nature have moderating effect on the relationships between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. It provides insight on values that can be focus on when conducting anti-corruption campaign.

Study 2 also examined the relationship between descriptive norms and predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. It found that descriptive norms have a positive significant relationship with predicted behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. The more people perceive that small-scale corrupt practices are common in society, the more they tend to carry out similar acts. A test was also conducted to assess and compare descriptive norms and values in terms of their level of relations as direct antecedents to behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices. The results showed that descriptive norms have a stronger relationship with behaviour towards small-scale corrupt practices than values.

Thus, it can be concluded that an emphasis on instilling values alone as a strategy for an anti-corruption campaign may not be sufficient. The initiator / organizer needs to understand that other factors, such as descriptive norms, have stronger relations than values with people's behaviour in this context. Thus, people learn more from society and imitate what they think is standard behaviour.

Seeing the evidence mentioned above, it leads to a suitable perspective to understand the corruption problem in Indonesia. It can be concluded that the corruption in this context may resemble a collective action problem; that social norms are powerful to influence people behaviour towards small-scale corruption. Thus, holding on this perspective, a campaign that aims to change the current norms (social norming campaign) is adopted into the concepts proposed in Study 3.

Study 3 aimed to answer the research question #4 which is to seek the potential using social marketing techniques for anti-corruption campaign. In designing an anti-corruption programme to change people's behaviour, it is necessary to understand how norms work, change, emerge, or influence people to achieve the desired or intended behavioural change. It is also important to know that people are willing to change their behaviour when they see the benefit of doing so and are convinced that other people will do the same (Mefalopulos, 2011). By addressing the findings from previous Study 1 and Study 2, and supported by secondary research, ten concepts were proposed and tested in focus group discussions in Study 3.

The development of the concepts in Study 3, has been carried out using behaviour change wheel approach developed by Michie et al., (2011, 2016). It analysed the area that needed to be change according to COM-B model and identified potential intervention models that can be applied for the proposed concepts.

Given the nature and context of the corruption problem in Indonesia, a sophisticated multi-faced and multi-level approach was required. The earlier section in this chapter presented a discussion of the three studies relating to this research. In the light of the findings and informed by the literature, intervention models were proposed based on the social ecological model.

All elements of social marketing benchmarks for each level of the ecological system were presented and included in the ten proposed concepts. Ideally, all levels in the ecological system should run simultaneously. It is also essential for the initiator to plan the change based on time-range.

The concepts proposed in this research were social marketing techniques that have been applied to fields other than anti-corruption campaign, such as public health, sports, and pro-environmental behaviour. The application of social marketing in anti-corruption campaigns is, however, still in its infancy.

This research has a number of valuable strengths. These include its mixed-methods approach and its ability to elicit feedback from members of the target audience, not only individual feedback (interviews and survey) but also group feedback (focus group discussions).

The research has also shown that a multidisciplinary approach can provide a competitive advantage in fighting corruption. This research integrates and enriches social marketing (part of marketing discipline) with the perspectives of social psychology, communication, and sociology. It presents an example of using interdisciplinary research to solve social problems. Social marketing alone will not be sufficient to achieve this. The perspectives offered by other fields of knowledge were needed to enrich the intervention models developed in this research.

There is no one size fits all approach when creating or developing an anti-corruption strategy in any place or country. Therefore, it is important for any organizer / initiator / policymaker to understand that all issues that underpin this problem are contextually different. The case in Indonesia can, however, be applied to another country that is broadly similar in terms of culture or demographics.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 4 - 1: Interview guide (Study 1)

INTERVIEW GUIDE

I. OPENING (Pre-interview session)

(Establish rapport) My name is Rossy, I am studying my PhD at University of the West of England, Bristol, UK. I am now doing my pilot study, it is a small and preliminary study to help me better understand the social phenomenon in our society on (informal) practices that may constitute dishonest behaviours and explore the young adults' understanding (on the social, ethical, and moral acceptance) of these behaviours.

Thank you for agreeing to take part in the interview. Your opinion and experiences are very important for my study, and I genuinely appreciate your time today.

(Purpose) I would like to ask you some questions about your perception and experiences in your surrounding in your everyday activity. Some important information that you should know that:

- There are no right or wrong answers. I just want to know your honest opinions, feelings, and experiences.
- If you do not understand my questions, please feel free to ask for clarification.
- Please inform me if you feel unwell, or if you need to go to the restroom during the discussion.
- Please feel free to ask me if you have any question.

(Motivation) I hope to use this information to help me with my research. The result of this pilot will contribute to my main PhD research.

(Timeline) The interview should take around 30 - 45 minutes. Are you available to respond to some questions at this time?

The interview is a long distance and internet-based conversation which will use LINE or WhatsApp. For this purpose, it needs you to have a LINE or WhatsApp account. If you do not have it yet, you can install one of the applications. You can find the instructions to install it on the research information sheets. It is a free application. It is also using end-to-end encryption which enables us to maintain the privacy and confidentiality of the interview.

Since it is using internet connection, thus if there is any disturb in the connection during the interview, please allow me to call or contact you back to continue our conversation.

Firstly, please read carefully the research information sheets, and ask me if you do not understand on any of the points.

Having understood the information sheets, can I ask you to sign the consent form and send it back to me. Thank you.

II. BODY (Interview session, after the consent form is received)

Let me begin by asking you some questions about yourself.

Questions	Description	Notes / prompt questions
1. Please allow me to ask your demographic information.	What is your age? (years) Where do you live? (city) What is your occupation? - College/university student - Private employee - Public officer (civil servant) - Entrepreneur - Other, please specify What is your highest education level?	Take notes on gender
2. Tell me about yourself.	What is importance in your life? Who do you hear the most of his/her/their opinion when you are making a decision?	Asking about the influencer(s).
3. Tell me about your everyday life (in your surroundings, e.g. campus, workplace, neighbourhood)	What do you do? Tell me about how you do things in your work/study? Compare to yourself, how other people do? Tell me about any particular behaviour (unacceptable behaviour) people do that makes you feel dilemmatic.	
<u>Projective technique.</u>	1. A young man is being stopped by a police officer when he is	The young man found guilty because he drove

<p>Can I ask you to give your opinion on what will happen next on the following stories:</p>	<p>speeding on an empty road. He follows the order to pull over. Can you explain what will happen next: How the man would handle the problem?</p> <p>2. As soon as Eddy graduated from university, he applies a job as a civil servant in a ministry. For him, this would be an ideal job, as it can give him financial security in the future. However, the competition is very stiff, and he realizes that his grades in the transcript are not that good. What do you think normally happened in the recruitment process of becoming a civil servant? Why?</p> <p>3. A young lady just turns 17 years, thus by law she needs to have her ID (identity) card. She showed up at the local district office and filled up the form. After that, she is facing a long queue and finds that it will take a couple of weeks (the longest) to get the ID card done. Then she met an officer that approached her and implicitly offered her a quick way to get her ID card done.</p>	<p>over the speed limit, and then he chooses to get a traffic ticket instead of giving money to the police officer. Do you have any idea why he is doing that?</p> <p>Do you think many people nowadays doing the same?</p> <p>What would you do if you were Eddy? Why?</p> <p>Do you think is it normal that an officer offers an alternative way in exchange for something?</p> <p>Why do you think many people want to pay more to speed up the administration process?</p>
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	<p>What would you do if you were the young lady?</p> <p>4. Soni is working as a recruitment manager. Currently, his company is looking for a new account manager. A son of his ex-boss also applies for the position, and this ex-boss already sent a package of nice things to Soni's house a couple of times. Do you think it is coincident? What do you think will happen?</p> <p>5. Amy was worry about an assignment in a module. As the deadline was closer, it seemed that she could not get the assignment ready as she found it difficult. A thought came up to her mind to just copy a friend's assignment, or even buy it. Is it still commonly happened nowadays? Why do you think so?</p>	<p>Is this kind of case still happening?</p> <p>If Sony rejects the packages (because he wants to show that every applicant should follow the formal procedures), would it be nice? (since the ex-boss have helped him a lot in the past). Why do you think Sony does it?</p> <p>If Amy decided to copy or buy an assignment, what do think would be the reason?</p> <p>If Amy refused to do it and found a person who usually does selling an assignment, do you think Amy should report it to the school board?</p>
<p>4. Do you see anything in common in the above stories?</p>	<p>If so, is there a term you would use to describe what is going on in these stories.</p>	<p>[Alternative question] – do you feel that the term “corruption” is a</p>

	<p>Do you have any other examples of stories that are similar to this that involve corruption that you have witnessed or heard taking place?</p>	<p>useful term to use to describe what is going on in these stories?</p>
<p>5. If you see the cases above, some people refuse to abuse or deviate from the (administration) procedures of doing things. Why do you think they do it?</p>	<p>What do you think the values they hold onto?</p> <p>How do they get it?</p>	<p>Do you think it is moral values?</p> <p>If yes, how do they get or have it? (referring to the positive moral values).</p> <p>Can it be the solution for the (similar) problems you see in the above stories?</p>
<p>6. Attitudes/enthusiasm</p>	<p>Are you proud to be Indonesian? Why? Or why not?</p> <p>[If “corruption” is a good word to describe behaviours in the above stories] or [If the participant sees the above practices as corruption] what views do you have about Indonesia in this regard?</p> <p>What do you think people should do?</p> <p>What do you think the government should do?</p>	
<p>7. Tell me about Indonesia (and its people)</p>	<p>Tell me about people in Indonesia (e.g., culture, habits, life style).</p> <p>Is there any negative feeling you have towards anything in particular?</p> <p>Tell me how people in Indonesia do things related to public officials or using public service (e.g., police</p>	

	officer/department, court officials, access to health service/hospital/local clinic, head of local neighbourhood, administration process for certification).	
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III. CLOSING

The result of this pilot study will contribute to my main PhD research which aims to explore social marketing approaches to conduct an anti-corruption campaign in Indonesia.

(Maintain rapport) I appreciate the time you took for this interview. Is there anything else you would think would be helpful for me to know regarding the nature of corruption in Indonesia?

(Action to be taken) I should have all information I need. Would it be alright if I contact you again if I have any more questions (or for further research)?

Thank you.

Appendix 4 – 2: Question guide in the focus group (Study 3)

Concept	Activity / Aim	Question
SESSION – 1: Introduction and ice-breaking		
	<p>Introduction</p> <p>Participants read the research information sheet and sign the consent form.</p>	
SESSION - 2: Exploration of the concepts		
	<p><i>To increase the visibility of positive behaviour (integrity behaviour) to build positive normality in the community.</i></p>	<p>1. <i>What do you think of the following?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>If there is an advertisement that promotes positive image or behaviour (such as high achieving people),</i> - <i>If the content is about to invite the audience to comply with regulations/laws, do you think it can be accepted? Can it motivate the target audience?</i>
	<p>Nudging on positive descriptive norms</p>	<p>2. <i>If you are entering a building (e.g., office, university) that has a slogan mounted on it, which says “you are entering an integrity zone”, how do you feel? Do you think having that slogan installed in the building can change the behaviour of the employees or visitors and prevent them from acting corruptly / cheating?</i></p>
	<p>To educate or instil values into young adults</p>	<p>3. <i>Educational activities “from young people – to young people” in the form of a discussion concerning everyday corrupt practices and how to deal with them. Do you think it will motivate young people to participate?</i></p> <p><i>In your opinion, do such activities empower young people to change their attitudes and behaviour towards everyday corruption?</i></p>
	<p><i>Training or workshop on skills to supervise and control situations</i></p>	<p>4. <i>If there is a training or workshop programme that aims to train the participants so that they are able to supervise and control the conditions around them against corrupt practices (e.g., budget monitoring, community watch, anti-corruption counselors), would you be interested in joining in? Would it be acceptable to young people? Why?</i></p>
	<p><i>To raise awareness of the consequences of corrupt</i></p>	<p>5. <i>If a You-tube clip talked about the suffering, misery, and injustice caused by corruption</i></p>

	<i>practices and feelings of responsibility for the negative consequences of acting corruptly.</i>	<i>(albeit on a small scale), what would you think?</i> <i>In your opinion, do you think the clip can raise moral responsibility and awareness to prevent corruption?</i>
	Because Millennials are active social media users, this is an alternative that involves utilising social media to shape public opinion.	6. Do you think public opinions that are published or reported on the media (e.g., printed media, TV, or social media) can affect the attitudes and behaviour of readers? What makes you want to participate in a discussion or conversation on social media (e.g., join in a debate, give comments, or just be a silent-reader)? Why? Can you explain your answer? <i>If one of the topics of the discussion is “Why do you need to be disciplined and follow the rules/regulations”; do you think this will attract the attention of young people? Explain your answer.</i>
	To communicate public information by providing criticism or praise of the institution’s performance.	7. Do you think that a campaign / demonstration / feedback that criticises or praises the performance of a government or private institution can influence the performance of that institution for the better? Please explain your answer.
	Limiting the personalisation of public services.	8. In your opinion, if administrative services are served by different officers (always rotated and not served by the same officer), would this be acceptable to users?
	<i>Simplify administrative process / procedures.</i>	9. <i>In your opinion, can complicated and long-term bureaucratic matters (e.g., making or extending licences, pay traffic ticket/fines) be solved by a computerised system? Why/why not?</i> <i>Do you think people will accept this if it is applied?</i>
	To increase the commitment of related parties to uphold integrity.	10. If a memorandum of understanding (MoU) or cooperation agreement between two or more organisations is made to uphold their integrity, can it influence the behaviour of the related parties so that they do not commit any fraud?

		In your opinion, can the application of a code of ethics in an organisation affect the behaviour of individuals within the organisation and prevent them from committing any fraud?
SESSION 3: Closing		
Feedback	Any feedback or suggestions will be welcome.	

Notes:

- Questions in italics were the original ones used in the pilot/initial focus group

Appendix 6 - 1: Little's MCAR test (for treatment of missing data)

EM Means^a		3.61	a. Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 3545.404, DF = 3176, Sig. = .000
		2.24	
		3.04	
		2.70	
		2.63	
		3.17	
		2.98	
		3.07	
		3.26	
		3.39	
		2.23	
		2.23	
		2.78	
		2.78	
		4.49	
		3.80	
		2.82	
		3.65	
		3.43	
		3.49	
		2.84	
		4.79	
		4.36	
		4.56	
		3.98	
		3.11	
		4.29	
		3.97	
		2.27	
		2.87	
		3.64	
		4.12	

		Beh_3	2.18
		Beh_3	4.27
		3_Bel	3.92
		Beh_3	2.14
		1_Bel	2.05
		32	1.72
		V1	1.86
		V2	1.96
		V3	1.70
		V4	2.27
		V5	1.71
		V6	1.60
		V7	2.12
		V8	1.52
		V9	2.68
		V10	2.12
		V11	1.78
		V12	1.60
		V13	2.19
		V14	2.17
		V15	2.28
		V16	3.05
		V17	2.71
		V18	2.63
		V19	2.83
		V20	2.53
		V21	2.68
		V22	1.56
		V23	2.12
		V24	2.02
		V25	2.18
		V26	2.34
		V27	2.75
		V28	2.85
		V29	1.51
		V30	2.17
		V31	3.00
		V32	1.52
		V33	2.74
		V34	3.67
		V35	2.71
		V36	3.61
		V37	2.89

	V2 0	2.81	
	V4 4	2.65	
	V1 9	1.62	
	V2 7	1.55	
	V5 5	3.53	
	V1 1	1.45	
	V2 5	1.92	
	V4 7	2.02	
	V5	2.12	
	V3 7	1.61	
	V5 2	1.73	
	V8	2.09	
	V2 1	2.71	
	V4 5	2.25	
	V1 4	2.27	
	V3 4	1.88	
	V5 7	1.99	

Appendix 6 - 2: Normality tests

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
V1 Self-direction-thought Creative	554	-3	3	1.80	1.105	-1.375	0.104	2.380	0.207
V23 Self-direction-thought Form opinions and original ideas	554	-2	3	1.90	1.050	-1.395	0.104	2.544	0.207
V39 Self-direction-thought Learning things and improve abilities	554	-2	3	2.26	0.835	-1.761	0.104	5.350	0.207
V16 Self-direction-action Make own decisions	554	-3	3	2.09	1.032	-1.646	0.104	3.337	0.207
V30 Self-direction-action Doing everything independently	554	-3	3	1.99	1.072	-1.763	0.104	4.237	0.207
V56 Self-direction-action Freedom to choose	554	-3	3	2.26	0.977	-1.997	0.104	5.293	0.207
V10 Stimulation - Looking different things to do	554	-3	3	1.61	1.316	-1.256	0.104	1.196	0.207
V28 Stimulation - Excitement in life	554	-3	3	2.26	1.010	-2.080	0.104	5.345	0.207
V43 Stimulation - Have all sorts of experiences	554	-2	3	2.38	0.853	-1.966	0.104	5.239	0.207
V3 Hedonism - Having good time	554	-3	3	1.75	1.389	-1.415	0.104	1.309	0.207

V36 Hedonism - Enjoying life's pleasures	554	-3	3	2.44	0.901	-2.445	0.104	7.906	0.207
V46 Hedonism - Take advantage of every opportunity to have fun	554	-3	3	1.08	1.611	-0.773	0.104	-0.352	0.207
V13 Security-personal Avoids anything that might endanger safety	554	-3	3	1.79	1.192	-1.383	0.104	2.025	0.207
V26 Security-personal - Personal security is extremely important	554	-3	3	2.19	0.899	-1.729	0.104	4.864	0.207
V53 Security-personal - Live in secure surroundings	554	-3	3	2.39	0.744	-1.996	0.104	8.524	0.207
V2 Security-societal - His country protect itself against all threats	554	-3	3	1.71	1.204	-1.494	0.104	2.206	0.207
V35 Security-societal - Want the state to be strong so it can defend its citizens	554	-3	3	1.74	1.304	-1.444	0.104	2.008	0.207
V50 Security-societal - Having order and stability in society	554	-2	3	1.62	1.168	-1.178	0.104	1.137	0.207
V18 Tradition - Maintain traditional values or beliefs	554	-3	3	0.62	1.578	-0.483	0.104	-0.767	0.207
V33 Tradition - Following his family's customs or the customs of a religion	554	-3	3	1.06	1.601	-0.889	0.104	-0.156	0.207
V40 Tradition - Strongly values the traditional practices of his culture	554	-3	3	1.18	1.453	-1.012	0.104	0.322	0.207

V15 Conformity-rules - Should always do what people in authority say	554	-3	3	0.94	1.471	-0.868	0.104	-0.003	0.207
V31 Conformity-rules - Follow rules when no one is watching	554	-3	3	1.28	1.455	-0.990	0.104	0.154	0.207
V42 Conformity-rules - Obeying all the laws	554	-3	3	1.14	1.441	-1.053	0.104	0.432	0.207
V4 Conformity-interpersonal - Avoid upsetting other people	554	-3	3	2.43	0.848	-2.403	0.104	8.724	0.207
V22 Conformity-interpersonal - Never to be annoying to anyone	554	-3	3	1.80	1.166	-1.287	0.104	1.568	0.207
V51 Conformity-interpersonal - Tries to be tactful and avoid irritating people	554	-3	3	1.93	1.094	-1.615	0.104	3.457	0.207
V9 Face - No one should ever shame him	554	-3	3	1.70	1.344	-1.390	0.104	1.713	0.207
V24 Face - Protecting public image	554	-3	3	1.55	1.281	-1.147	0.104	1.146	0.207
V49 Face - People always to treat him with respect and dignity	554	-3	3	1.01	1.587	-0.806	0.104	-0.318	0.207
V7 Humility - Tries not to draw attention to himself	554	-3	3	0.88	1.644	-0.625	0.104	-0.682	0.207
V38 Humility - Important to be humble	554	-2	3	2.49	0.705	-1.725	0.104	5.052	0.207
V54 Humility - Important to be satisfied and not ask for more	554	-3	3	1.72	1.294	-1.389	0.104	1.741	0.207
V17 Achievement - Ambitious	554	-3	3	0.71	1.694	-0.506	0.104	-0.802	0.207
V32 Achievement - Being very successful	554	-3	3	2.46	0.820	-2.225	0.104	7.334	0.207

V48 Achievement - People admire his achievements	554	-3	3	1.01	1.600	-0.677	0.104	-0.519	0.207
V6 Power-dominance - Feeling of power that money can bring	554	-3	3	-0.21	1.725	0.106	0.104	-1.252	0.207
V29 Power-dominance - Being wealthy	554	-3	3	1.06	1.575	-0.848	0.104	-0.193	0.207
V41 Power-dominance - Pursue high status and power	554	-3	3	-0.15	1.746	0.117	0.104	-1.133	0.207
V12 Power-resources - Want people to do what he says	554	-3	3	0.85	1.546	-0.801	0.104	-0.332	0.207
V20 Power-resources - Most influential person in any group	554	-3	3	0.96	1.500	-0.762	0.104	-0.238	0.207
V44 Power-resources - To be the one who tells others what to do	554	-3	3	1.16	1.416	-0.998	0.104	0.372	0.207
V19 Benevolence-dependability - Important to be loyal to those who close to him	554	-3	3	2.37	0.795	-1.985	0.104	7.012	0.207
V27 Benevolence-dependability - to be dependable and trustworthy friend	554	-3	3	2.45	0.735	-1.914	0.104	7.408	0.207
V55 Benevolence-dependability - Those he spends time with able to rely on him completely	554	-3	3	-0.04	1.685	0.059	0.104	-1.164	0.207
V11 Benevolence-caring - Help the people dear to him	554	-1	3	2.54	0.647	-1.750	0.104	5.251	0.207
V25 Benevolence-caring - Care for the well-being of people he is close to	554	-2	3	2.04	0.933	-1.429	0.104	3.333	0.207
V47 Benevolence-caring - try to be responsive to the needs of his family and friends	554	-3	3	1.95	0.959	-1.498	0.104	3.697	0.207

V5 Universalism-concern - Protecting society's weak and vulnerable members	554	-2	3	1.84	1.017	-1.260	0.104	2.255	0.207
V37 Universalism-concern - Every person have equal opportunities in life	554	-3	3	2.36	0.914	-2.231	0.104	6.878	0.207
V52 Universalism-concern - Everyone to be treated justly, even people he doesn not know	554	-2	3	2.26	0.832	-1.617	0.104	4.233	0.207
V8 Universalism-nature - Strongly believes that he should care for nature	554	-3	3	1.85	1.149	-1.607	0.104	2.883	0.207
V21 Universalism-nature - Work against threats to the world of nature	554	-3	3	1.09	1.426	-0.868	0.104	0.076	0.207
V45 Universalism-nature - protect natural environment from destruction or pollution	554	-3	3	1.67	1.157	-1.229	0.104	1.758	0.207
V14 Universalism-tolerance - Works to promote harmony and peace among diverse groups	554	-3	3	1.64	1.186	-1.375	0.104	1.811	0.207
V34 Universalism-tolerance - Listen to people who are different from him	554	-2	3	2.10	0.854	-1.624	0.104	4.751	0.207
V57 Universalism-tolerance - Understand people even when he disagrees with them	554	-3	3	1.95	1.118	-1.741	0.104	3.702	0.207
ND_1 ND - academic cheating - asking/sharing answers during exam	554	-3	3	0.40	1.885	-0.337	0.104	-1.171	0.207
ND_5 ND - bribery - many people pay the officer to avoid traffic ticket	554	-3	3	1.75	1.572	-1.672	0.104	2.089	0.207
ND_13 ND - bribery - pay extra to avoid the uncomfortable situation (bureauracy) - driving licence	554	-3	3	0.95	1.800	-0.793	0.104	-0.571	0.207
ND_15 ND - bribery - many people pay extra to speed up the administration process or avoid uncomfortable situation - residential docs	554	-3	3	1.29	1.602	-1.099	0.104	0.247	0.207
ND_20 ND - Nepotism - recruitment in civil servant	554	-3	3	1.37	1.650	-1.319	0.104	0.797	0.207

ND_23 ND - Bribery - give extra money in recruitment process	554	-3	3	0.83	1.645	-0.681	0.104	-0.499	0.207
ND_25 ND - Bribery - give extra money to speed up the licensing adm process	554	-3	3	1.02	1.617	-0.872	0.104	0.011	0.207
ND_27 ND - Gratification - giving gifts to business partners to smoothen their business	554	-3	3	0.94	1.507	-0.748	0.104	-0.269	0.207
ND_28 ND - Gratification - accepting gifts from business partners/client	554	-3	3	0.73	1.441	-0.562	0.104	-0.398	0.207
ND_4 ND- academic cheating - copying other's work because lazy	554	-3	3	0.61	1.815	-0.361	0.104	-1.028	0.207
ND_8 ND - academic cheating - sanction for copying other's work	554	-3.0	3.0	-1.767	1.3534	1.561	0.104	2.206	0.207
ND_11 ND - Nepotism - favoritism to one of the candidates to pay their parents past kindness	554	-3	3	-0.49	1.702	0.136	0.104	-1.066	0.207
ND_19 ND - Nepotism - it's normal to use personal connection in recruitment	554	-3	3	0.21	1.720	-0.311	0.104	-0.947	0.207
NI_12 NI - bribery - pay an officer to avoid traffic ticket is inappropriate	554	-3	3	1.17	1.640	-0.754	0.104	-0.452	0.207
NI_14 NI - bribery - pay extra to speed up the administration process is acceptable - driving licence	554	-3	3	-0.35	1.837	0.324	0.104	-1.103	0.207
NI_17 NI - bribery - people close to me do not allow if I pay the officer to speed up the admin process of residential docs	554	-3	3	0.57	1.731	-0.332	0.104	-0.900	0.207
NI_18 NI - nepotism - people close to me think that it is inappropriate if someone is accepted to work because of their personal connection	554	-3	3	0.51	1.703	-0.224	0.104	-0.923	0.207

NI_24 NI - Gratification - giving gifts in recruitment process	554	-3	3	1.16	1.567	-0.854	0.104	-0.106	0.207
NI_22 NI - Academic cheating - copying other people's work not acceptable when time is enough	554	-3	3	1.72	1.360	-1.495	0.104	2.244	0.207
ND_26 ND - Gratification - giving gifts to smoothen the business is appropriate	554	-3	3	1.12	1.563	-0.815	0.104	-0.122	0.207
Beh_2 Beh - academic cheating - see notes during exam	554	-3	3	-0.80	1.811	0.424	0.104	-1.053	0.207
Beh_3 Beh - academic cheating - asking/sharing answers during exam	554	-3	3	-0.36	1.809	0.037	0.104	-1.300	0.207
Beh_6 Beh - bribery - pay the officer to avoid traffic ticket	554	-3	3	-0.56	1.854	0.200	0.104	-1.217	0.207
Beh_7 Beh - bribery - pay the officer to speed up the process (Driving licence)	554	-3	3	0.01	1.917	-0.113	0.104	-1.220	0.207
Beh_9 Beh - gratification - report to company of accepting gift from partners/client	554	-3	3	-0.90	1.373	0.556	0.104	-0.353	0.207
Beh_16 Beh - bribery - pay the officer to avoid bureaucracy - residential docs	554	-3	3	-0.30	1.849	0.232	0.104	-1.204	0.207
Beh_21 Beh - Nepotism - ask for help from personal or parents' connection	554	-3	3	0.04	1.769	-0.186	0.104	-1.060	0.207
Beh_29 Beh - Gratification - accepting gifts from business partners/client	554	-3	3	0.36	1.539	-0.297	0.104	-0.611	0.207
Beh_30 Beh - Gratification - giving gifts to business partners/client	554	-3	3	-0.11	1.640	-0.038	0.104	-0.984	0.207
Beh_31 Beh - Bribery - avoiding traffic ticket by giving money to officer	554	-3	3	-1.83	1.316	1.743	0.104	3.110	0.207
Beh_32 Beh - Bribery - giving money to officer to avoid traffic ticket because everybody does it	554	-3	3	-0.28	1.898	0.130	0.104	-1.309	0.207
Beh_10 Beh -Nepotism - ask for help from private connection is acceptable	554	-3	3	0.08	1.778	-0.234	0.104	-1.129	0.207
Valid N (listwise)	554								

Appendix 6 - 3: AVE and CR of each construct

Constructs	Items	λ	λ^2	ϵ	AVE	CR
Hedonism	V46	0.74	0.55	0.45		
	V3	<u>0.77</u>	0.60	<u>0.40</u>	-	-
	Sum	1.52	λ^2	0.85	0.57	0.73
Conformity-rules	V42	0.86	0.74	0.26		
	V31	0.61	0.37	0.63		
	V15	<u>0.60</u>	0.36	<u>0.64</u>		
	Sum	2.07		1.53	0.5	0.74
Tradition	V40	0.77	0.59	0.41		
	V33	0.67	0.45	0.55		
	V18	<u>0.73</u>	0.53	<u>0.47</u>		
	Sum	2.17		1.43	0.52	0.77
Power-dominance	V29	0.73	0.54	0.46		
	V6	<u>0.68</u>	0.46	<u>0.54</u>		
	Sum	1.41		1.00	0.50	0.67
Universalism-nature	V45	0.93	0.86	0.14		
	V8	<u>0.58</u>	0.34	0.66		
	Sum	1.51		0.80	0.60	0.74
Descriptive-norms	ND_20	0.70	0.49	0.51		
	ND_15	0.70	0.49	0.51		
	ND_25	0.75	0.57	0.43		
	ND_23	0.67	0.44	0.56		
	ND_27	<u>0.67</u>	0.45	<u>0.55</u>		
	Sum	3.50		2.55	0.5	0.83
Behaviour-Bribery	Beh_6	0.80	0.65	0.35		
	Beh_32	0.69	0.48	0.52		
	Beh_7	<u>0.77</u>	0.59	<u>0.41</u>		
	Sum	2.26		1.29	0.57	0.80
Behaviour-Nepotism	Beh_19	0.82	0.66	0.34		
	Beh_10	0.79	0.62	0.38		
	Beh_21	<u>0.81</u>	0.66	<u>0.34</u>		
	Sum	2.42		1.06	0.65	0.85
Behaviour-Gratification	Beh_29	0.92	0.85	0.15		
	Beh_30	<u>0.69</u>	0.48	<u>0.52</u>		
	Sum	1.61		0.67	0.66	0.79

Appendix 6 - 4: Table of Chi-square distribution

Chi-Square (χ^2) Distribution								
Degrees of Freedom	Area to the Right of Critical Value							
	0.99	0.975	0.95	0.90	0.10	0.05	0.025	0.01
1	—	0.001	0.004	0.016	2.706	3.841	5.024	6.635
2	0.020	0.051	0.103	0.211	4.605	5.991	7.378	9.210
3	0.115	0.216	0.352	0.584	6.251	7.815	9.348	11.345
4	0.297	0.484	0.711	1.064	7.779	9.488	11.143	13.277
5	0.554	0.831	1.145	1.610	9.236	11.071	12.833	15.086
6	0.872	1.237	1.635	2.204	10.645	12.592	14.449	16.812
7	1.239	1.690	2.167	2.833	12.017	14.067	16.013	18.475
8	1.646	2.180	2.733	3.490	13.362	15.507	17.535	20.090
9	2.088	2.700	3.325	4.168	14.684	16.919	19.023	21.666
10	2.558	3.247	3.940	4.865	15.987	18.307	20.483	23.209
11	3.053	3.816	4.575	5.578	17.275	19.675	21.920	24.725
12	3.571	4.404	5.226	6.304	18.549	21.026	23.337	26.217
13	4.107	5.009	5.892	7.042	19.812	22.362	24.736	27.688
14	4.660	5.629	6.571	7.790	21.064	23.685	26.119	29.141
15	5.229	6.262	7.261	8.547	22.307	24.996	27.488	30.578
16	5.812	6.908	7.962	9.312	23.542	26.296	28.845	32.000
17	6.408	7.564	8.672	10.085	24.769	27.587	30.191	33.409
18	7.015	8.231	9.390	10.865	25.989	28.869	31.526	34.805
19	7.633	8.907	10.117	11.651	27.204	30.144	32.852	36.191
20	8.260	9.591	10.851	12.443	28.412	31.410	34.170	37.566
21	8.897	10.283	11.591	13.240	29.615	32.671	35.479	38.932
22	9.542	10.982	12.338	14.042	30.813	33.924	36.781	40.289
23	10.196	11.689	13.091	14.848	32.007	35.172	38.076	41.638
24	10.856	12.401	13.848	15.659	33.196	36.415	39.364	42.980
25	11.524	13.120	14.611	16.473	34.382	37.652	40.646	44.314
26	12.198	13.844	15.379	17.292	35.563	38.885	41.923	45.642
27	12.879	14.573	16.151	18.114	36.741	40.113	43.194	46.963
28	13.565	15.308	16.928	18.939	37.916	41.337	44.461	48.278
29	14.257	16.047	17.708	19.768	39.087	42.557	45.722	49.588
30	14.954	16.791	18.493	20.599	40.256	43.773	46.979	50.892

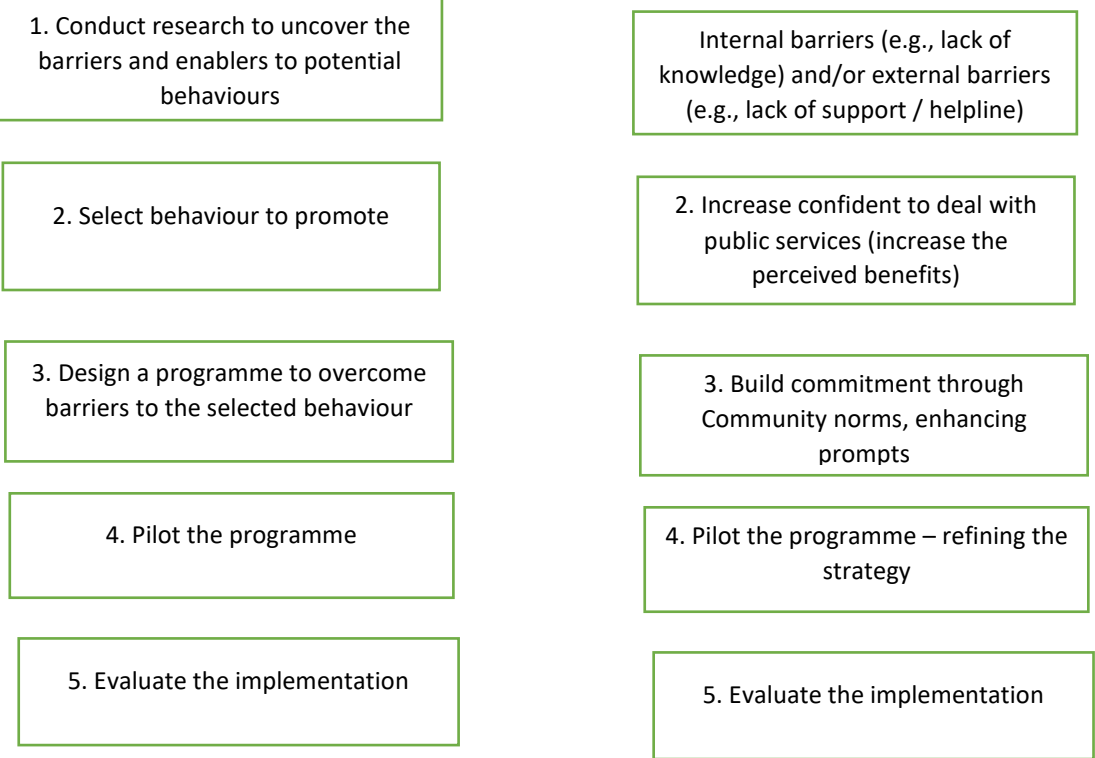
Appendix 7 – 1: An example of a picture shows positive image on Concept 3



Caption translated: "It is the time for the young generation to become a generation with integrity"

Source of picture: Google image (PMBLIPI, 2019)

Appendix 8 – 1: Steps in conducting a campaign using CBSM (Community-based Social Marketing) model by McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz (2014)



The steps in conducting a campaign using the CBSM model (McKenzie-Mohr and Schultz, 2014)