



## Journal of Global Responsibility

Goal integration through transformational leadership: A panacea to Ghana's public sector corruption menace

Kwasi Dartey-Baah

### Article information:

To cite this document:

Kwasi Dartey-Baah, (2016), "Goal integration through transformational leadership", Journal of Global Responsibility, Vol. 7 Iss 1 pp. 4 - 25

Permanent link to this document:

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JGR-09-2015-0019>

Downloaded on: 13 May 2016, At: 12:17 (PT)

References: this document contains references to 70 other documents.

To copy this document: [permissions@emeraldinsight.com](mailto:permissions@emeraldinsight.com)

The fulltext of this document has been downloaded 23 times since 2016\*

### Users who downloaded this article also downloaded:

(2016), "Corporate social responsibility: is it an alternative to government?", Journal of Global Responsibility, Vol. 7 Iss 1 pp. 26-38 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JGR-05-2015-0007>

(2016), "Corporate sustainability and responsibility toward education", Journal of Global Responsibility, Vol. 7 Iss 1 pp. 56-71 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JGR-08-2015-0015>

Access to this document was granted through an Emerald subscription provided by emerald-srm:534301 []

### For Authors

If you would like to write for this, or any other Emerald publication, then please use our Emerald for Authors service information about how to choose which publication to write for and submission guidelines are available for all. Please visit [www.emeraldinsight.com/authors](http://www.emeraldinsight.com/authors) for more information.

### About Emerald [www.emeraldinsight.com](http://www.emeraldinsight.com)

Emerald is a global publisher linking research and practice to the benefit of society. The company manages a portfolio of more than 290 journals and over 2,350 books and book series volumes, as well as providing an extensive range of online products and additional customer resources and services.

Emerald is both COUNTER 4 and TRANSFER compliant. The organization is a partner of the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) and also works with Portico and the LOCKSS initiative for digital archive preservation.

\*Related content and download information correct at time of download.

# Goal integration through transformational leadership

## A panacea to Ghana's public sector corruption menace

Kwasi Dartey-Baah

*Department of Organisation and Human Resource Management,  
University of Ghana Business School, Accra, Ghana*

### Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this study was to present a conceptual analysis of how the issue of corruption in Ghana's public sector can be curbed through an integration of individual (public sector worker) and organisational goals (the public sector itself). It further sought to explain this possibility by focusing on a goal integration process through transformational leadership.

**Design/methodology/approach** – To meet this end, the study conducted a review of literature on goal, goal-setting, corruption, employee motivation and transformational leadership to develop a conceptual framework to explain this link between goal integration through transformational leadership and corruption reduction.

**Findings** – Findings from this study showed that dissatisfaction with work (especially pay) amongst Ghana's public sector workers is a major factor necessitating the emergence of corruption in the country. It is also shown in the study that through the transformational leadership approach, individual worker concerns such as concerns with pay (a facet of job satisfaction) when treated as an institutional concern and appropriately dealt with could curb corruption in the public sector.

**Research limitations/implications** – Based on these findings, the study recommends that leaders in Ghana's public sector (both political and administrative) must exhibit qualities of transformational leaders to foster individual and organisational growth as a means to curb corruption in the sector. The study also recommends that training programmes be organised for leaders to equip them with the needed knowledge and practice of transformational leadership. Furthermore, the study recommends that further studies could be done by other researchers on the training programmes that could be useful in equipping these leaders, as well as how and when to organise these programmes.

**Originality/value** – The study is novel in that it demonstrates the relevance of integrating individual and organisational goals through the application of the transformational leadership concept as a tool for reducing corruption in Ghana's public sector.

**Keywords** Leadership, Ghana, Public sector, Transformational leadership, Corruption, Goal integration

**Paper type** Conceptual paper

### Introduction

The issue of corruption in Africa is a major roadblock to the achievement of development on the continent (Bamidele, 2013), as it deprives majority the opportunity of meeting certain basic social needs and multiplies the wealth of a few. According to Bamidele (2013), corruption within the African context, like in some other jurisdictions, has a cultural dimension to it, making it quite difficult to conceptualise or define. However, some universal definitions provided by the World Bank and Transparency



International (TI) provide some basic understanding of the concept. The World Bank defines corruption as the unauthorised use by public officials of public offices and resources in pursuit of private or personal agendas (Gyimah-Boadi, 2002). TI also defines corruption as:

[...] behaviors on the part of officials in the public sector, whether politicians or civil servants, in which they improperly and unlawfully enrich themselves, or those close to them, by the misuse of the public power entrusted to them (Gyimah-Boadi, 2002, p. 1).

In addition to the above and also to provide a simpler and a “street” definition of what corruption is, one can look at it as “theft in public offices”. Corruption in Africa can be said to form part of the norms in the political, social and economic settings. This is because African political, social and economic systems are too weak and lax in the detection and punishment of corrupt practices, thus indicating some level of tolerance to the act (Agbenorku, 2012). Indeed, according to TI (2009), in countries like Kenya, Zimbabwe, Guinea and Niger, fights against corruption amongst government officials by civil society groups and members of the general public are discouraged by the political leadership through hard sanctions on such pressure groups and individuals. The corruption perception index (CPI) developed by TI to show the perceived level of public sector corruption in states across the globe provides a good platform to understanding how devastating Africa’s corruption issue is. For instance, the 2012 CPI shows that about 90 per cent of sub-Saharan African countries included in this study fall below the CPI score of 50 – on a scoring scale of 0 to 100, where 0 is “highly corrupt” and 100 is “very clean” (Transparency International, 2012). In fact, what makes the situation so worrying in Africa’s case is the fact that even the so-called models of modern-day democracy on the continent, like Ghana, find themselves being rated as some of the most corrupt nations in the world as per these corruption assessment reports (CPI) (Transparency International, 2012, 2013).

Ghana has enjoyed much recognition at the international level for being a fine example of modern-day democracy and good governance to the rest of sub-Saharan Africa (Ayee, 2008). Contrary to this, the country happens to be amongst majority of sub-Saharan African countries captured in the CPI as some of Africa’s most corrupt nations (Bamidele, 2013; Transparency, 2012, 2009) (see Table I for the country’s CPI ranking). Over the years (particularly under the fourth republic), corruption has been the burden of various Ghanaian governments and the state as a whole. In the 1980s, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC), under the leadership of Flight Lt. Jerry John Rawlings, sought to combat this menace under the slogan, “Probity and

Year	Corruption perception index (CPI) score	Ranking	No. of participating countries
2009	39	69	180
2010	41	62	178
2011	39	69	183
2012	45	64	176
2013	46	63	177

**Table I.**  
Ghana’s ranking in  
the corruption  
perception index  
from the year 2009 to  
2013

**Notes:** CPI ranking is on a scale of 0 to 100; where 0 = “highly corrupt” and 100 = “very clean”

**Source:** [www.transparency.org/research/cpi/cpi](http://www.transparency.org/research/cpi/cpi)

Accountability”. Again, subsequent governments like that of the New Patriotic Party (NPP) in 2000, under John Agyekum Kufuor, also introduced the “Zero tolerance for corruption” slogan to indicate the commitment of his government to fight against corruption in the country. Aside these governmental efforts, the state of Ghana through the 1992 constitution and other parliamentary Acts have demonstrated the intent to rid the public sector of corruption. Some of these parliamentary Acts that guard against financial malpractice in the country, and in this case corruption, include the Financial Administration Act, 2003 (Act 654); Internal Audit Agency Act, 2003 (Act 658); Public Procurement Act, 2003 (Act 663); Audit Service Act, 2000 (Act 584) amongst others. However, in spite of all these efforts by various governments and statutory provisions, the country’s public sector is still engulfed in corruption. Indeed, recent studies on corruption in the country have shown that corruption is everywhere in the public sector of Ghana. For example, a corruption study conducted by [Ghana integrity initiative \(GII\) \(2011\)](#) to assess the general public’s perception on matters of corruption in the country showed that the menace is widespread in the public sector, private sector and amongst civil society organisations (CSOs), as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (see [Table II](#) for perceived level of corruption in Ghana’s public sector). It was shown in this study that the three arms of government (executive, judiciary and legislature) and some state administrative machineries were perceived as safe havens for corruption, with the main law enforcing agency in the country (the Ghana Police Service) being noted as the most corrupt public institution. Again, in another study report by TI in 2006, Ghana’s health sector was identified as a corruption-prone area with evidences of financial malpractice throughout the health-care delivery service ([www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org)). According to [van de Walle \(2001\)](#) as cited in [Aye \(2008\)](#), in Ghana’s health sector, only 32 per cent of central funds reach frontline services, with the large chunk diverted into individual pockets. A similar situation can be said of the education sector. According to [Aye \(2005\)](#), over the past 20 years, Ghana – one of the few African countries that have received the largest share of overseas development support (ODS) – has only 51 per cent of such budgetary allocations actually going to their intended beneficiaries (schools). In the bid to understand the emergence of corruption in the

Institution	Mean ranking
Ghana Police Service	4.6 – most corrupt
Custom Excise and Preventive Service (CEPS)	4.1
Political parties	3.9
Executive (Arm of Government)	3.7
Judiciary (Arm of Government)	3.6
Parliament (Arm of Government)	3.3
Public/Civil servants	3.1
Utility providers	3.0
Education sector	2.6
Health sector	2.1 – least corrupt

**Table II.**  
Institutions  
perceived to be  
affected by  
corruption in  
Ghana’s public sector

**Notes:** The five-point Likert scale for data collection on the perceived level of corruption in Ghana’s public sector among respondents (Ghanaian populace) is as follows: 1 = “not corrupt at all”, 2 = “somehow corrupt”, 3 = “corrupt”, 4 = “very corrupt” and 5 = “extremely corrupt”

**Source:** Extracted from Ghana Integrity Initiative ([Ghana Integrity Initiative, 2011](#))

country, some studies including a national draft in 2011 ([National Anti-Corruption Action Plan – NACAP, 2011](#)) have come up with some explanations. According to a 10-year National Anti-Corruption Action Plan (NACAP) drafted by the state of Ghana in 2011, institutional weakness (especially on the parts of regulatory bodies like the judicial system); non-adherence to ethical standards and limited commitment to values of integrity and self-discipline amongst public officials; skewed incentives structure; and insufficient enforcement of laws within a patrimonial social and political context are some of the causes of corruption in the country. Again, the Centre for Democratic Development (CDD) in a nation-wide survey in the year 2000 also lists the following as causes of corruption in Ghana: low salaries, culture of gift-giving, lack of effective incentive mechanism and poor management practices in public organisations.

The issues raised above show how serious corruption is in the country, especially when one considers the fact that the very arms of government – institutions vested with the mandate of ensuring that individuals and other state institutions act in the interest of the state – are also culprits of such acts themselves. Again, given the fact that several governmental efforts and legal provisions have yielded no significant results in fighting the menace, one begins to dread the possibility of effectively cleansing the public sector of Ghana of corruption to engender national development. To provide a way forward, this paper submits that combating corruption goes beyond just issues of good governance, democracy and/or any formulated set of principles to guide the actions of governments and public officials. It requires some determination in the minds of people and governments to act or behave right and an inherent desire to be and to do good, even in the absence of formal rules and regulations. Indeed, Fatile and Adejuwon argues that reforms in Africa’s public sector must consider altering existing human (employee) and organisational behaviours for the better and must also consider the African public administration ecology. Again, TI’s definition of corruption also points to some behavioural issue ([Gyimah-Boadi, 2002, p. 1](#)), hence the need to alter existing human behaviours to reduce corruption. Furthermore, effectively tackling issues of corruption cannot be the sole responsibility of any individual or group of individuals, but rather through a collective effort of all key players in both public and private sectors. According to [Ghana Integrity Initiative \(GII\) \(2011\)](#), solving corruption in the public sector requires the rallying of public support, not only for assessment purposes but also for the devising of anti-corruption strategies. In cognizance of the above, this paper advocates that to tackle corruption, and in this instance corruption in Ghana, the issue of leadership has to be critically examined. The paper is of the opinion that combating corruption demands for a leadership approach that is able to cause a change in behaviour (individual and organisational) through its charismatic nature, one that is able to effectively consolidate or unite the efforts of all stakeholders towards a specific or higher goal and also the kind of leadership that understands and appreciates the fact that organisational (collective) success is directly tied to the success of individual members, hence works towards the successful integration of both individual and organisational goals or aspirations to ensure that these goals do not conflict. Thus, in solving corruption in Ghana, this paper advocates for the consideration of two well-known constructs – *Goal integration* and *Transformational leadership*. First, to establish its argument, the paper reviews literature on the concepts of corruption, goal, goal integration, employee motivation and transformational leadership. Second, it

discusses (through a conceptual framework) how corruption can be tackled in Ghana by focusing on goal integration through transformational leadership.

### Literature review

#### *The concept of corruption*

Defining and assessing corruption poses a lot of challenges to scholars. This is in view of the fact that the concept carries different meanings across various cultures (Bamidele, 2013), and it also entails a wide range of unacceptable behaviours captured under one label – *Corruption* (Gyimah-Boadi, 2002). However, some definitions provided by some international organisations like the World Bank and TI could serve as much reliable and easy-to-understand descriptions of the concept. The World Bank defines corruption as the unauthorised use by public officials of public offices and resources in pursuit of private or personal agendas (Gyimah-Boadi, 2002). TI, on the other hand, also defines corruption as:

[...] behaviors on the part of officials in the public sector, whether politicians or civil servants, in which they improperly and unlawfully enrich themselves, or those close to them, by the misuse of the public power entrusted to them (Gyimah-Boadi, 2002, p. 1).

Gyimah-Boadi (2002) explains that corruption entails a wide range of illegal activities, some of which include bribery, extortion, fraud, embezzlement, nepotism, cronyism, appropriation of public assets and property for private use and influence peddling (Agbodohu and Churchill, 2014). According to Agbodohu and Churchill (2014), some of these activities such as fraud and embezzlement can be singularly undertaken by an individual, whilst others such as bribery, extortion and influence peddling would involve collaboration amongst individuals to undertake. Critically looking at the definitions provided by these international organisations, it appears that corruption is entirely considered as a phenomenon that occurs only in the public sector and not in the private sector – hence projecting a skewed consideration and examination of the phenomenon (see also definition of corruption by Jain, 2001). Indeed, some of those activities mentioned by Agbodohu and Churchill (2014) as constituents of corruption can also be observed in the private sector as well. Perhaps the reason why these definitions take a look at corruption from the public sector perspective could be because of its negative impact on state institutions of national development. However, the negative impact of this phenomenon on private sector growth and consequently national development also needs to be considered. However, in this paper, the public sector perspective to explaining corruption is considered.

According to Gyimah-Boadi (2002), corruption has a devastating impact on economic growth and development in emerging economies. Agbodohu and Churchill (2014) outline some of the negative impacts of corruption on emerging economies as follows:

- grand corruption by high-level government officials leading to the destruction of economic structures;
- emergence of underground economies – also leading to tax evasion;
- inequitable distribution of national income;

- change in consumption pattern – leading to the modification of production and import activities highly favourable to the few;
- negative impact on foreign direct investment; and
- effects on government budget, especially on the availability of funds to support budgets, amongst others.

Thus, corruption undoubtedly connotes a phenomenon that poses setbacks to development which needs to be studied to understand its root cause and amelioration thereof. Many scholars have come up with several explanations for the emergence of corruption in state institutions. [Jain \(2001\)](#), and [Agbodohu and Churchill \(2014\)](#) provide two common determinants of corruption in the public sector, namely, discretionary power and economic rent seeking – the latter, they explain, is facilitated by the former. In explaining how the first factor (discretionary power) enhances the emergence of corruption, these scholars explain that corruption first and foremost requires that an individual or group of individuals possess discretionary powers over the allocation and distribution of resources. This discretionary power they explain provides the individual with the opportunity of misappropriating public resources for their own benefit. [Jain \(2001\)](#) opines that the discretionary powers of the three agents of the public sector (political elites, administrators and legislators) differ in terms of the sources of their discretionary powers and also their principals' abilities to monitor them – conditions he explains either encourages or discourages corruption by these agents. According to him, political elites and legislators possess a great level of discretionary power over economic resources, because they are elected by the populace to take national decisions in relation to the allocation and distribution of these resources. This discretionary power he explains is quite difficult to monitor, given the indirect nature of the relationship that exists between these two agents and their principals (populace), hence providing them with the opportunity to engage in corrupt practices. However, the abuse of this discretionary power by these two agents is dependent on how well-informed the general public is about the actions or inactions of these agents, and hence, they use such information to vote out corrupt individuals or parties. On the other hand, for administrators, their discretionary powers and its monitoring lie in the authority the two other agents (political elites and legislators) grant them and the precision with which rules (laws) are made to govern their activities to prevent arbitrariness ([Jain, 2001](#)). In the making of rules (laws) by the other two agents to guide administrators, some gaps are permitted to enable administrators to use their discretion in situations that are unforeseen or unpredicted by these laws made, hence granting them with the discretionary power to take certain decisions, which could be subjected to abuse to meet personal objectives. Second, in the case of economic rent seeking, [Jain \(2001\)](#) and [Agbodohu and Churchill \(2014\)](#) explain that the discretionary power possessed by these public sector agents over certain valuable resources or services place them in positions that could be exploited for personal gains. In their view, the opportunity for the perpetuation of corruption is largely dependent on the strong demand private individuals (private enterprises) may have for resources or services under the control of these state agents for economic purpose, hence their willingness to pay an additional fee to bribe public sector officials to secure these resources or services. Indeed, according to [Braguinsky \(1996, p. 80\)](#):

[...] the higher the rents, the greater the incentive for property owners to attempt to evade regulations and the higher the value of the side payments they could offer the agents who hold the discretionary powers.

In addition to the above, two important factors, that is, income from corruption and legitimate income or wages, can also be considered as contributors to the emergence of corruption in the public sector (Jain, 2001; Van Rijckeghem and Weder, 1997; Chand and Moene, 1997; Goel and Nelson, 1998; Agbodohu and Churchill, 2014). According to Jain (2001), there appears to be lower and upper thresholds beyond which corruption becomes acceptable or unacceptable to the society. In an assessment made by Van Rijckeghem and Weder (1997) of the emergence of corruption in some countries, they explain that in most countries where there is at least some corruption, there seems to be an acceptance of the “petty” corruption by which level administrators supplement their income. However, they explain that in these same countries, scandalous issues of corruption on a large scandal (grand corruption) are met with strong opposition by members of these same societies – this public disapproval, Jain (2001) explains, is highly reliant on the notion of fair wages. According to Jain (2001), if the society at large as well as the administrators themselves believe that they are being paid fair wages for their work, then there may be little sympathy for an administrator or policymaker who tries to supplement his/her income with bribes. Indeed, several studies have reported that higher salaries or better wages lead to lower corruption amongst public sector workers (Goel and Nelson, 1998; Lindner, 2013; Van Rijckeghem and Weder, 2001; Gyimah-Boadi, 2002; Gorodnichenko and Sabirianova, 2006; Rijckeghem and Weder, 1997). In fact, Rijckeghem and Weder (2001) opine that this negative relationship existing between pay and the occurrence of corruption explains why the phenomenon (corruption) is highly prevalent in the public sectors of less-developed countries because of the issue of low public sector wages. Mahmood (2005) and Wei (1999) also explain that the lower compensation level in the public sector as compared to that of the private one is reckoned as a key factor in the spread of corruption.

#### *The goal concept*

Goals basically refer to aspirations or desired destinations or outcomes, whether in the short term or long term, set or established by an entity (individual, organisation, nation or an international body) towards which resources (time, capital and human effort) are focused to ensure their attainment. In other words, a goal can be defined as those things an entity directs its assets or resources towards to ensure their attainment (Lunenburg, 2011). Thus, goals can be said to be formulations capturing an entity’s discontent with present conditions (or a need factor) and a desire to cause a change in such a condition for the better. According to Locke and Latham (2002) as cited in (Lunenburg, 2011), set or established goals greatly influence behaviours and performance within organisations. However, this relationship between goals and task performance, Locke and Latham stated, cannot be said to be a constant positive and linear one, as certain mediating and moderating factors influence this relationship. These mediating and moderating factors are what the goal-setting theory properly projects or considers. It is established by some authors and significantly captured under the goal-setting theory that varying levels or degrees of performance, especially amongst employees within the organisational setting, corresponds to some factors like the difficulty level and the degree of specificity of set goals (Lunenburg, 2011; Locke and Latham, 2006). In a bid to provide a deeper

understanding of the relationship between goals and performance, some factors were established as mediating factors in this relationship (Locke and Latham, 2006). These mediators are what empirical studies over the years have emerged with (Kurose, 2013) to explain this goal–performance relationship. The first mediating factor explains high task performance by individuals as the outcome of highly (difficult but attainable) set goals and moderate or low task performance to be the outcome of moderately or lowly set goals, respectively. The second mediating factor holds that goal setting influences performance through its ability to focus an individual’s effort, attention and action toward those activities that would lead to the attainment of the set goal. Third, because performance is a function of both ability and motivation, goal effects also depend upon having the requisite task knowledge and skills. Goals may simply motivate one to use one’s existing ability, may automatically pull stored task-relevant knowledge into awareness and/or may motivate people to search for new knowledge. In addition to the outcomes of Locke and Latham’s meta-analytic study leading to the emergence of these mediating factors in the goal–performance relationship, subsequent empirical studies in the field have also found some factors (moderators) as enhancers to this relationship (Kurose, 2013). Notable amongst these factors are feedback on goal progress, commitment to the goal and task complexity (Lunenburg, 2011; Locke and Latham, 2006; Kurose, 2013). The link between difficult goals and high performance, as captured in Locke and Latham’s submission, is to a very high extent enhanced by the individual’s belief or confidence in his or her abilities to successfully pursue the set goal (self-efficacy) and the acceptance by the individual of such set goals (Kurose, 2013) – thus, at the organisational level, indicating the need for some level of consensus building between management and employee in relation to goal setting to engender acceptance (Erez and Kanfer, 1983 as cited in Yearta *et al.*, 1995). Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory of motivation also proffers the same relationship between an individual’s commitment to goal achievement or task performance. According to him, individuals when assigned task goals assess their ability to execute or meet such standards; when these standards are what their capabilities through self-assessment would meet, individuals motivate themselves to carry on in pursuit of such a goal and vice-versa. This thus indicates that in the setting of performance goals, there must be an assessment of how these goals commensurate with the individual’s ability or capacity to successfully undertake them. Also, of great essence or contribution to the positive linear relationship between goal-setting and performance is the feedback factor. According to Lunenburg (2011) and West *et al.* (2013), information provided to individuals concerning the level of achievement of set goals (whether at the individual or group levels) serve as an important mechanism in the goal–performance relationship. This is in view of the fact that through the periodic provision of feedback on progress to individuals and groups (Kurose, 2013), there is created the opportunity for individual and group performance assessment, which in turn leads to reinforcement of positive outcomes and re-strategising in the events of negative outcomes by individuals and groups. Furthermore, in pursuit of collective goals, the provision of feedback could also serve as an important reminder to all stakeholders of the needed commitment from all (both leaders and followers) in pursuit of set goals. The moderating factor (task complexity) in the goal–performance relationship introduces a new perspective or quite a distinct argument to the goal-setting theory; this factor highlights a link between vague goals and high performance (Kurose, 2013). Studies have shown that complex tasks, because

of their limitation on existing individual abilities, lead to the development or the acquisition of new skills relevant to solving the complex task through a learning process (Kurose, 2013). This, he explains, consequently leads to the attainment of high performance than in a high set goal situation, where individuals are focused on high performance neglecting the possibility of acquiring new skills relevant to the task (Lunenburg, 2011).

In furtherance of the above argument, other factors have been raised by scholars as important to enhancing the goal–performance relationship (Lunenburg, 2011; Locke and Latham, 2006; Kurose, 2013; West *et al.*, 2013). Some of these factors include:

- time bound goals;
- measurable goals;
- attainable or achievable goals; and
- the relevance of the goal to both the individual and the group (individual and group goal integration).

*Goal integration: merging organisational and individual goals*

To create some level of understanding and appreciation of the need for goal integration (organisational and individual) toward the attainment of organisational goals, this section first looks at two perspectives of the organisation theory (classical and neo-classical or modernist) and then proceeds to look at the theory of motivation. These two sub-sections are not presented in this section as exclusive to each other, but rather, some sequence existing between them is brought to the fore to provide some logic to the discussions relating to goal integration.

*Organisation theory – the shift from classical to neo-classical.* The various definitions of an organisation by various scholars project the construct to mean an assembly of individuals, who collectively undertake an activity directed towards the attainment of a set group or organisational goal (Daft, 2004; Schein, 1970; Parsons, 1960), thus projecting an organisation as a goal-oriented social system. Indeed, Parsons (1960, p. 17) accentuates this notion when he states that:

[...] as a formal analytical point of reference, primacy of orientation to the attainment of a specific goal or purpose is used as the defining characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it from other types of social system.

However, raising a varying opinion on the perceiving of an organisation as a social system that facilitates the unification of individual efforts toward an organisational goal, Silverman (1970) as cited in McAuley *et al.* (2007, p. 13) describes organisations as “having goals, as if they were an individual person can be misleading, because it creates an image of agreement amongst members regarding the purpose of an organisation that might not exist” and also:

[...] there may be a danger that by according to organisations a goal, we may inadvertently be prioritizing the particular goals of certain individuals or groups at the expense of the goals and aspirations of others who are involved with the same organisation as members.

According to Gouldner (1959) as cited in McAuley *et al.* (2007), these organisational goals are most often and, in most situations, the goals of a few individuals at the apex of the organisational hierarchy (top level management).

In fact, it is largely upon the above illustrated premise that classical organisational theories such as Weber's (1947) bureaucratic organisational theory, Taylor's (1911) scientific management theory and Fayol's (1949) classical organisational theory were founded. These organisational theorists through their theories basically provided a framework upon which organisational activities may be organised to ensure the attainment of organisational goals (production). Their theories enhanced components of Adams Smith's division of labour approach to operating an organisation:

- hierarchy of authority;
- span of control;
- centralisation versus decentralisation; and
- specialisation of function or task (Docherty *et al.*, 2001)

According to McAuley *et al.* (2007), these theories focused on order and rational behaviour within the organisation on the adherence to established rules and regulations formulated by superiors (top-level management) and perceived any form of non-conformity to such established rules and regulations as constituting disorder and irrational behaviour (Weber, 1947). Also, under these classical theories, enhancing employee (subordinate) performance within the organisation emanated from extrinsic motivational factors such as rewards or pays, with no attention paid to intrinsic motivational factors. McGregor (1960) also observed that the classical organisational theory connoted or exhibited some unbelief in the capability of the human nature to desire to take on responsibilities and to make progress, even in the absence of formal rules and regulations (theory Y), and the belief that the very human nature is lazy and, thus, needs to be micromanaged or controlled to achieve results – this he termed theory X. Thus, the classical theory sidelined the role or place of the human in the organisation.

Contrary to the above, during the course of the past twentieth and twenty-first centuries, several organisational theories categorised broadly as neoclassical and post-modernist theories introduced a newer dimension to the organisation theory discourse, focusing more on the role of individuals/humans in the organisational system and also the effects on the organisational setting of the external environment, respectively. However, the former is considered in this section, as it effectively brings to bear the issue being addressed by this paper within the organisational setting than the latter. Again, the post-modernist theory could be said to be an extension of the neoclassical or modernist organisation theory with a global and futuristic perspective (McAuley *et al.*, 2007), whose illustrations or projections are abstract or just an ideal phenomenon for most developing economies like that of Africa's. Under the neoclassical theory, the "human relations" and the "democratic organisation" schools of thought amongst others emerged (McAuley *et al.*, 2007). According to McAuley *et al.* (2007), two principles have consistently guided the neoclassical approach to understanding organisations and management, that is, the adoption of theories from the fields of sociology, psychology and anthropology as proxies to explaining human interactions within the organisational setting and also the integration of the person into the organisation to enhance effectiveness. Contrary to the ideas propagated by classical theorists, the neoclassical theory observes that influencing human behaviour towards high performance is based not only on economic rewards but also on certain intrinsic satisfaction derived by the individual in relation to the task being undertaken. The

human relations movement by Mayo (1933) focused on the interaction or relationship between management and individuals, as well as inter-groups and intra-groups relationships as determinants to motivating employees to perform. Mayo's work largely drew from findings of the Hawthorne studies in 1927, which suggested that other factors aside economic rewards such as interpersonal relationships and employee motivation hugely influenced employee performance (Docherty *et al.*, 2001). However, although the human relations movement succeeded in projecting the importance of the human element in the attainment of organisational effectiveness, it was also flawed by some of the issues that were raised against the classical organisational theory. According to the democratic organisation movement, the human relations movement still maintained the hierarchical organisational structure postulated by the classical theory (McAuley *et al.*, 2007). In view of this, the democratic organisation movement advocated for the empowerment of employees through their active involvement in the decision-making or goal-setting process. This movement, thus, sought to eliminate the hierarchical nature of organisations and to rather focus attention on the development of employees to take up managerial or leadership positions (McAuley *et al.*, 2007). Thus, the neo-classical or modernist organisation theory focuses attention on the need for the integration of the individual into the organisation for organisational effectiveness.

*Employee motivation.* From the above discussions held, some traces of employee or workforce motivation can be observed as an implicit factor, necessitating the shift from the classical to the neo-classical organisation theory, as the latter seem to have shifted the argument to the integration of both organisational and individual goals towards organisational effectiveness. Motivation basically looks at those factors, whether internal or external, that cause an individual to perform or to act in a particular way towards the attainment of organisational goals, which in turn lead to the attainment of individual or personal goals (Luthans, 2002; Olusegun, 2012; Passer and Smith, 2007). Some motivational theories, especially those under the content theory, have largely focused an individual's decision to act positively or negatively towards the attainment of organisational goals on the satisfaction of certain personal needs (see Maslow's (1954) need theory of motivation, 1954; Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation, 1959). Indeed, even under the process dimension of the motivation theory, theories such as Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory have some element of the satisfaction of some human need as a relevant factor to influencing human behaviour towards organisational goal attainment – Valence.

Basically, human needs necessitate the setting of individual or personal goals. Alternatively, goals can be said to be those formulations by a person to meet or serve as a guide towards the attainment of some need. In fact, according to Maslow's (1954) needs theory of motivation, understanding what motivates an individual is dependent on one's knowledge of what that individual's needs (goals) are. Individual or personal goals are intrinsic and extrinsic in nature (Vansteekiste *et al.*, 2006). According to Vansteekiste *et al.* (2006), intrinsic personal goals are those goals that directly satisfy basic human psychological needs such as autonomy, competence and relatedness. Extrinsic goals, on the other hand, have an outward orientation (Williams *et al.*, 2000 as cited in Vansteekiste *et al.*, 2006) and, thus, look at the satisfaction of human needs such as fame, financial success and physical appearance (Vansteekiste *et al.*, 2006). Within the organisational setting, the existence of intrinsic motivational factors such as opportunity for career development and training and development amongst others, as

well as extrinsic motivational factors such as good salary, job security, quality of supervision and good working conditions, greatly influence an individual's desire to behave appropriately towards the attainment of organisational goals such as profit maximisation, expansion or growth and survival. This is in view of the fact that these intrinsic and extrinsic goals are central to the development of an individual, and thus, their satisfaction or otherwise by the individual forms the basis for the individual's self-assessment of development and society's assessment of an individual's development. This, therefore, means that in an individual's indulgence in any economic activity or any social interaction, he/she looks to meeting these personal goals above all else. Several empirical studies have shown that employee motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) affects organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction (Ayub and Raffif, 2011; Pepe, 2010; Teck-Hong and Waheed, 2011) and organisational commitment (Brown and Peterson, 1993), amongst others.

### *Transformational leadership*

In the pursuit of goals within any social system like an organisation, leadership is an important factor that determines the path or provides direction towards the attainment of such a goal. In fact, leadership in any social system determines the goals to be pursued by the group, whether jointly set or self-set, as well as guides or influences followers or other members of the group towards its attainment. However, in influencing followers towards the attainment of organisational goals, several factors come into play. Some of these factors are based on certain personal characteristics or traits inherent in the leader; others are in relation to the behaviours or actions exhibited by the leader; again, others are also based on some situational factors such as the context and followership. Notwithstanding the above, management literature in recent times is massively dominated by two leadership approaches – *transactional* and *transformational leadership*. The former explains a leader's influence on follower behaviour through an exchange process (between leader and follower), which is largely extrinsic in nature, whilst the latter looks at the influencing of follower behaviour through an appeal by the leader to the follower on the focusing of energy, resources and efforts on the attainment of higher-level goals, which in turn leads to the meeting of the follower's intrinsic and extrinsic needs (goals). In this section, the latter is considered – *transformational leadership*.

Although no generally accepted or unified definition of transformational leadership exists, Northouse (2001) as cited in Hall *et al.* (2002, p. 1) provides a simpler definition of the term as, "a leadership process that changes and transforms individuals". Transformational leadership, amongst the plethora of leadership theories, stands out as a leadership approach that significantly influences organisational outcomes and personal outcomes of followers (Givens, 2008). This claim has been captured both in theoretical and empirical literature on the subject. In the theoretical literature, the four components of the transformational leadership approach, namely, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, have been explained to influence both organisational outcomes and personal outcomes of followers. Some of these organisational outcomes transformational leadership has been established to positively impact include organisational citizenship behaviour (Lin *et al.*, 2012; Lin and Hsiao, 2014), organisational culture, organisational vision and organisational commitment. Furthermore, studies have also shown the positive impact

of transformational leadership approach on personal outcomes of followers such as empowerment, job satisfaction, employee commitment, trust, self-efficacy and employee motivation (Givens, 2008). Indeed, Burns (1978) as cited in Givens (2008, p.4), one of the proponents of this leadership theory, states that “transformational leaders inspire followers to accomplish more by concentrating on the follower’s values and helping the follower align these values with the values of the organisation”.

*Idealised influence.* Under this component, transformational leaders because of their charismatic nature and through the communication of their value and belief systems are able to influence followers towards the attainment of higher-level goals. According to Bass and Avolio (1994) as cited in Bolden *et al.* (2003), transformational leaders:

[...] talk about their most important values and beliefs; specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose; consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions; champion exciting new possibilities; and talk about the importance of trusting each other.

Covey (2007, p. 16) also accentuates that transformational leaders establish a relationship between themselves and their followers on a foundation of trust, which is guided by a solid moral and ethical foundation.

*Inspirational motivation.* This component of transformational leadership focuses on the envisioning and the effective articulation of a desirable future by the leader to followers. A future that is both appealing and inspiring enough to motivate or cause a voluntary movement by followers towards its attainment (Covey, 2007). Bass and Avolio (1994) as cited in Bolden *et al.* (2003) explains effectively this component in the following statements:

- talk optimistically about the future;
- talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished;
- articulate a compelling vision of the future;
- express confidence that goals will be achieved;
- provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider; and
- take a stand on controversial issues.

*Individual consideration.* Transformational leaders, aside their focus on the attainment of organisational goals, are also concerned about the ability of individual followers to effectively pursue their own goals (Hall *et al.*, 2002). In this regard, they show great concern to the development of the individual through the satisfaction of the individual’s needs and the adoption of strategies that fuses the individual’s aspirations to that of the organisation. According to Covey (2007, p. 5), transformational leaders understand and appreciate the value of each follower’s input toward the attainment of set organisational goals and, thus, openly acknowledge and celebrate each follower’s efforts. The exhibition of such behaviour by the leader, according to him, in turn leads to the fulfilment of the “individual’s need for self-actualization, self-fulfillment, and self-worth”.

*Intellectual stimulation.* According to Bass and Avolio (1994) as cited in Bolden *et al.* (2003, p. 16), transformational leaders, under this dimension:

[...] re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate; seek differing perspectives when solving problems; get others to look at problems from many different angles; suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments; encourage

---

non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems; and encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been questioned before.

Thus, in the nutshell, transformational leaders cause a dramatic shift in paradigm from what is known to what is unknown through exploration and the adoption of best practices alien to their context.

To conclude, the transformational leadership approach presents itself as an effective unifier of organisational and individual aspirations or goals, which in turn engenders both organisational and individual growth and development.

## Discussion

### *Corruption reduction in Ghana's public sector – A look at goal integration through transformational leadership*

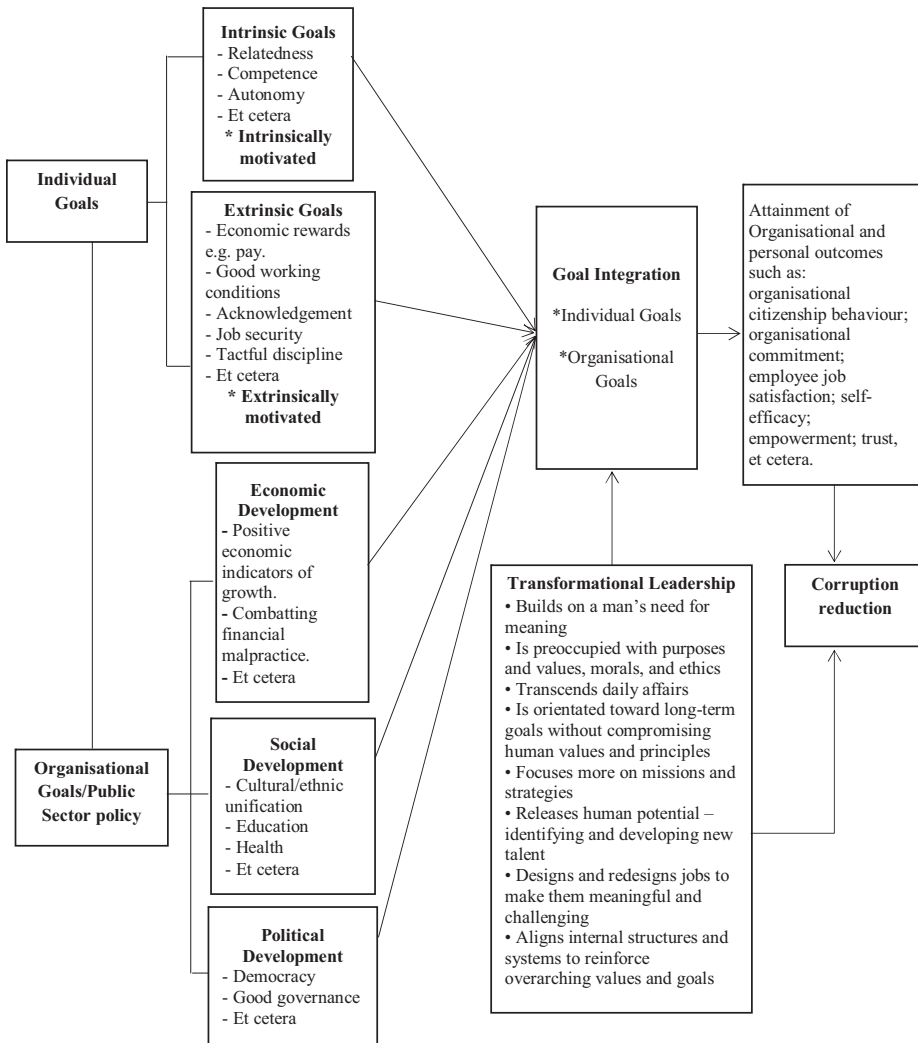
Employee job dissatisfaction in the public sector (largely on pay) is what has led to the embarkation by public sector workers in Ghana on countless number of strikes (Adda-Korankye, 2014). This same dissatisfaction with pay (a facet of job satisfaction) amongst public sector workers in Ghana has been identified as one cause of corruption in the country's public sector (Center for Democratic Development, 2000; Republic of Ghana, 2011). Other factors such as the non-adherence to professional and ethical standards by public sector workers, and weak institutions, amongst others (Center for Democratic Development, 2000; Republic of Ghana, 2011) have also been mentioned as causes of corruption in Ghana's public sector; however, one can arguably say that the emergence of these other factors are largely based on the issue of employee job satisfaction (in this case focusing on pay satisfaction). Issues of pay dissatisfaction, because of its meagreness or delay in Ghana's public sector, can be said to be a serious challenge to the commitment by public sector workers to national and institutional goals, hence poses a serious challenge to individual decisions to refrain from practices or acts (including corrupt behaviours) that undermine the attainment of state and institutional goals for the satisfaction of one's personal goals. Indeed, several studies have shown that pay satisfaction amongst public sector workers in developing countries (Ghana inclusive) leads to reduction in the emergence of corruption (Goel and Nelson, 1998; Lindner, 2013; Van Rijckeghem and Weder, 2001; Gyimah-Boadi, 2002; Gorodnichenko and Sabirianova, 2006; Rijckeghem and Weder, 1997). Hackman and Oldham (1976) conceptualised job satisfaction as an assessment of one's job in terms of whether it allows the fulfilment of one's important job values, which are congruent with one's needs. Thus, employee job satisfaction can be said to be an assessment of what one desires from the job in relation to their need, which consequently motivates him/her to continue his/her relationship with the organisation. Satisfaction with one's job translates into an identification with the goals and values of the organisation – organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1979), hence causing an individual to exhibit those behaviours that would sustain such a relationship, including behaving ethically or professionally. Indeed, a meta-analytic study of 59 empirical studies, conducted by Brown and Peterson (1993), showed that an individual's commitment to an organisation is as a result of satisfaction with one's job. In light of the analysis above, one can thus project with some level of certainty that when a public sector worker is satisfied with their job (especially with pay – considering the Ghanaian situation) and consequently commits to the organisation, he/she would act appropriately to push

forward the organisation's goals, which in turn will automatically promote their stake in that organisation.

In a nutshell, to curb corruption in Ghana, some attention must be given by leaders (political and administrative) to creating an organisational environment that engenders public sector employee job satisfaction – a result attainable if leadership manages to put in place measures to effectively integrate individual goals (intrinsic and extrinsic) and organisational goals. This in turn will lead to bolstering employees' commitment to the organisation, hence fostering the growth of the public sector and also helping eschew all corrupt practices amongst workers (as indicated in [Figure 1](#) below).

The argument for goal integration in Ghana's public sector stems from the need for the incorporating into public sector or state goals of individual worker goals through consensus building to ensure satisfaction at both ends. Public sector organisations by their very nature as state institutions serve as machineries for the attainment of the ultimate goal of the state – national development. Thus, the various institutional goals established by organisations in the public sector are geared towards the attainment of political, social and economic development. In pursuing national development, the 1992 constitution of Ghana (in Chapter 6, under the Directive Principles of State Policy (DPSP) provides five objectives as guides to national policy decision-making and implementation) ([Republic of Ghana, 1992](#)). These objectives include political, economic, social, educational and cultural – all of which can be fitted under the political, social and economic dimensions of development. The 1992 constitution, in Article 34(1), implicitly suggests a collective approach to the formulation and implementation of policies in the country, whether at the national, regional or district levels ([Republic of Ghana, 1992](#)). Perhaps in the minds of the drafters of this constitution, the involvement of all stakeholders to national development in the formulation of national policies (public sector goals) might lead to individual commitment to the attainment of set goals, as well as serve as an avenue for the incorporation of the individual development concern into the larger organisational concern. However, hindering the involvement of all stakeholders in public sector goal-setting is the structure of Ghana's administrative system. Ghana's public sector organisations are good examples of the classical organisational model – bureaucracy ([Gyimah-Boadi, 2002](#)), with tall hierarchical structures and highly centralised administrative systems impeding the idea of a collective policy-making (goal-setting) process, which in turn hinders the incorporation of individual concerns (needs – intrinsic and extrinsic) into the larger public sector organisational goal for organisational effectiveness. Indeed, [Gyimah-Boadi \(2002\)](#) explains that this organisational setting is what has led to the failing of several reforms aimed at combating corruption in the country's public sector.

Thus, the above-mentioned reasons presents the need for the adoption of the transformational leadership approach by Ghanaian leaders (especially political leaders) to enhance the success of the goal integration process in the public sector of Ghana. This is in view of the fact that the transformational leadership approach signifies some awareness of how intertwined organisational development and individual development are and, thus, seeks to foster the merging of these two to ensure organisational effectiveness. Transformational leadership has been captured in the management literature as that kind of leadership that adopts strategies such as communication, consensus building, follower grooming to leadership positions, the creation of a challenging work environment for the worker and the merging of individual concerns to



**Figure 1.**  
The goal integration transformational (GIT) leadership model

Source: Dartey-Baah

that of the group, amongst others – decentralising power. Leadership in Ghana's public sector (both political and administrative) has a difficulty in decentralising authority (Aye, 2008, 2005; Gyimah-Boadi, 2002) – an approach very important to consensus building, hence effectively integrating individual and organisational concerns. It is very important that leadership in Ghana's public sector understands that the periods of imposing goals or ideas on followers in a hierarchical administrative structure are far gone and that current situations in the world now demands for the selling, through a charismatic and persuasive way, of goals and ideas to followers to whip up some level of

shared responsibility towards their attainment. Again, leadership needs to understand that seeking positive organisational outcomes such as commitment to organisational goals and good organisational citizenship behaviours are equally dependent on the equal seeking of personal outcomes of followers like intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction of individual needs, especially pay. The Goal Integration-Transformational (GIT) conceptual leadership model in [Figure 1](#) below illustrates this link.

This model draws out the relationship between the variables in this paper. It highlights individual goals of employees in the public sector with respect to their intrinsic and extrinsic goals and organisational goals or public sector policies with respect to social, political and economic policies of development. It shows that transformational leadership, through its attributes and characteristics, could integrate the individual and public sector goals, so that the needs of the employees could be factored into the goals of the organisation or public sector as a whole and taken into serious consideration when setting these public sector goals. Furthermore, the conceptual model shows that transformational leadership has certain features such as it builds on a man's need for meaning; it is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals and ethics; whilst it transcends daily affairs, it is oriented more towards long-term goals without compromising human values and principles; it releases human potential, thus identifying and developing new talent. These features in this model could help reduce corruption directly, as well as indirectly, that is, by integrating individual and public sector goals through these attributes and features of transformational leadership, personal goals of employees such as employee job satisfaction, increased salaries and self-efficacy, as well as organisational goals such as organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour would be attained and consequently help in reducing corruption in Ghana.

Notwithstanding the above analysis, it cannot be fully stated with total certainty that goal integration (individual and organisational) would solely do the trick of reducing the corruption menace in Ghana's public sector. This is in view of the fact that some behavioural elements such as greed and selfishness, as well as the fact that corruption has become part of the accepted norm in Ghana's public sector still lurks in the dark. However, in considering [Maslow's \(1954\)](#) needs theory of motivation, it could be said that satisfying those lower order needs of the worker through the creation of a conducive work environment and conditions has the potential of leading to higher-order needs like making self-esteem appealing to the individual. This in turn would require the doings of a transformational leader to direct the focus of the individual towards those goals that are ethical and ideal in pursuit of both organisational and individual growth.

Basically, this paper seeks to advance the notion that inasmuch as organisations, more specifically the public sector, would want to attain goals of economic, social and political development and productivity, they should also not fail to address individual goals of employees in the public sector and organisations. Individual goals such as pay satisfaction, self-awareness, self-advancement, self-actualisation, amongst others, are important to every employee, as advanced by [Maslow \(1954\)](#). Furthermore, this paper asserts that corruption in Ghana, to a large extent, can be attributed to the failure of leaders in the public sector in duly considering these individual goals of their employees. For instance, [Center for Democratic Development-Ghana \(2000\)](#) identified dissatisfaction with pay amongst public sector workers in Ghana as one cause of corruption in the country's public sector. In addition, Ghana's bureaucratic public sector

system makes it difficult for leaders to have knowledge of their employees' goals, as the system is highly centralised and greatly focused on attaining organisational goals, making no room for consideration of employees' views, ideas and goals. To help mitigate corruption in the country, leaders in the public sector must ensure that the goals of the individual employees must be factored into the general organisational goals of the public sector. In doing so, this paper highlights the adoption of transformational leadership styles in the public sector. Characterised by components such as idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass and Avolio, 2004), public sector leaders who adopt the transformational leadership style will be in a better position to mentor and motivate employees, encourage creativity and innovation in them and, at the same time, consider and ensure that their individual goals such as job satisfaction and personal advancement are met. With these four components, transformational leaders emphasise morals and ethics in their interactions with employees by acting as mentors, release human potential by encouraging creativity, and innovation and build on employees' need for meaning by being visionary, amongst others (Figure 1). By this, public sector leaders that adopt this leadership style can help to reduce corruption in the country in two ways, directly and indirectly. Directly in the sense that as transformational leaders stress ethics and morals whilst acting as mentors in their daily interaction with their subordinates in the public sector, they create awareness of the need to do away with ills such as corruption, thereby entreating and encouraging these subordinates to desist from all corrupt practices in their work life, through the attribute of idealised influence. Indirectly, as these public sector leaders adopt transformational leadership styles, individual goals of their employees will be a critical issue to them and consequently, they would ensure that goals such as job satisfaction, self-actualisation, personal achievements are not relegated to the background but are fused into public sector goals, as this leadership style is characterised by individualised consideration and inspirational motivation. As employees become satisfied with their job and in particular, their pay and are inspired to attain more for themselves and their organisations, corruption as a means of augmenting their salaries will become less attractive to them, as they know that their leaders, who are transformational, have their best interest at heart.

### Conclusion

To conclude based on the submissions above, it is undoubtedly clear that reducing corruption requires a shift from the political rhetoric of fighting corruption without any commitment to its attainment to addressing those issues leading to the perpetuating of corrupt acts amongst public sector workers. Public sector workers in Ghana, because of the socio-cultural setting, bear a lot of responsibilities (personal, family and societal), requiring adequate resources to meet these needs. Thus, in instances where there is dissatisfaction with pay (quantum and regularity), public sector workers are provided with little or no choice than to engage in corrupt activities to supplement their meagre salaries. However, this is not to say that solving the issue of corruption is solely dependent on the improvement of pay but rather to suggest that the consideration by leaders of this factor forms part of a continuum (or series of events) towards reducing corruption. Of course, leaders cannot assume to know those things whose satisfaction are important to the individual public sector worker but can only have a firm

understanding of what their concerns are through constant interactions with them towards the integration of those concerns into the concerns of the organisation. However, to achieve this, followers must see some genuineness in the pronouncements and actions of leadership towards improving individual living conditions, as well as the condition of the organisation (public sector) to inspire some hope in followers, even in tough economic conditions – thus, the call for public sector leadership (political and administrative) to adopt the transformational leadership approach as this is critical in realising this feat. Transformational leaders, because of their focus on both individual and organisational concerns, better understand and appreciate the need for incorporating individual concerns (such as the concern for pay) into the organisational concern for growth and survival. Furthermore, to ensure that such leadership understanding is achieved, training programmes could be implemented. These programmes should ensure that newly appointed or elected leaders in the public sector gain the requisite knowledge and practice in attending to individual goals of public sector workers (in this case, increased pay) and how well they can factor those into the goals of the organisation so as to ensure that the needs of the workers are not relegated to the background in the pursuit of those organisational goals. In addition, these training programmes should gradually and meticulously take these leaders through the attributes and the practice of transformational leadership. Aside these, the training programmes could be organised periodically as refresher programmes whilst these leaders are in office.

### References

- Adda-Korankye, A. (2014), "Relationship between job satisfaction and strike actions by health workers: a review of literature", *Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 12-17.
- Agbenorku, P. (2012), "Corruption in Ghanaian healthcare system: the consequences", *Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences*, Vol. 3 No. 10, pp. 622-630.
- Agbodohu, W. and Churchill, R.Q. (2014), "Corruption in Ghana: causes, consequences and cures", *International Journal of Economics, Finance and Management Sciences*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 92-102.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (2005), "Public sector management in Africa", Research Working Paper Series No. 82, African Development Bank, Tunisia.
- Ayee, J.R.A. (2008), *Reforming the African Public Sector: Retrospect and Prospects*, Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa, Senegal.
- Ayub, N. and Rafif, S. (2011), "The relationship between work motivation and job satisfaction", *Pakistan Business Review*, July, pp. 332-347.
- Bamidele, O. (2013), "Corruption, conflict and sustainable development in African states", *The African Symposium: An Online Journal of the African Educational Research Network*, Vol. 13 No. 1, pp. 42-54.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (2004), *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Third Edition Manual and Sampler Set*, Mind Garden, Redwood City, CA.
- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. and Dennison, P. (2003), *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks*, Centre for leadership studies, University of Exeter.
- Braguinsky, S. (1996), "Corruption and schumpeterian growth in different economic environments", *Contemporary Economic Policy*, Vol. 14, pp. 14-25.

- Brown, S.P. and Peterson, R.A. (1993), "Antecedents and consequences of salesperson job satisfaction: meta-analysis and assessment of causal effects", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 30 No. 1, pp. 63-77.
- Burns, J.M. and Leadership, H. (1978), *Row*, New York, 280.
- Center for Democratic Development (2000), "The Ghana governance and corruption survey: evidence from households, enterprises and public officials", Working Paper, World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Chand, S.K. and Moene, K.O. (1997), "Controlling fiscal corruption", IMF Working paper – WP/97/100.
- Covey, S. (2007), "The transformational leadership report", available at: [www.transformationalleadership.net](http://www.transformationalleadership.net) (accessed 20 January 2014).
- Docherty, J.P., Surlles, R.C. and Donovan, C.M. (2001), "Organisational theory", *Textbook of Administrative Psychiatry*, 2nd ed., American Psychiatric Publishing, Washington, DC.
- Erez, M. and Kanfer, F.H. (1983), "The role of goal acceptance in goal setting and task performance", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 454-463.
- Fayol, H. (1949), *General and Industrial Management*, Pittman, London.
- Ghana Integrity Initiative (2011), *The Voice of the People Survey – A National Survey of Corruption in Ghana*, Ghana Integrity Initiative, Accra.
- Givens, R.J. (2008), "Transformational leadership: the impact on organisational and personal outcomes", *Emerging Leadership Journey*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 4-24.
- Goel, R.K. and Nelson, M.A. (1998), "Corruption and government size: a disaggregated analysis", *Public Choice*, Vol. 97 Nos 1/2, pp. 107-120.
- Gorodnichenko, Y. and Sabirianova, P.K. (2006), "Public sector pay and corruption: measuring bribery from micro data", Discussion Paper No. 1987, Bonn.
- Gouldner, A.W. (1959), "Reciprocity and autonomy in functional theory", in *Symposium on Sociological Theory*, Row, Peterson and Company Evanston, IL, Vol. 241.
- Gyimah-Boadi, E. (2002), "Confronting corruption in Ghana and Africa", *Ghana Center for Democratic Development (CDD-Ghana), Briefing Paper*, Vol. 4 No. 2, pp. 1-6.
- Hackman, J.R. and Oldham, G.R. (1976), "Motivation through the design of work: test of a theory", *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 16 No. 16, pp. 250-279.
- Hall, J., Johnson, S., Wysocki, A. and Kepner, K. (2002), *Transformational Leadership: The Transformation of Managers and Associates*, University of Florida, FL.
- Jain, A.K. (2001), "Corruption: a review", *Journal of Economic Surveys*, Vol. 15 No. 1, pp. 71-121.
- Kurose, C. (2013), *Motivation, Behaviour, and Performance in the Workplace – Insights for Student Success in Higher Education*, George Washington University, Washington, DC.
- Lin, R.S. and Hsiao, J. (2014), "The relationships between transformational leadership, knowledge sharing, trust and organisational citizenship behaviour", *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, Vol. 5 No. 3, pp. 171-174.
- Lin, R.S., Li, H. and Hsiao, J. (2012), "What are the relationships between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour? An empirical study", *International Conference on Economics, Business Innovation, IPEDR*, IACSIT Press, Vol. 38.
- Lindner, S. (2013), "Salary top-ups and their impact on corruption, U4 Expert Answer (number 398)", Transparency International, available at: [www.U4.no](http://www.U4.no) (accessed 28 October 2014).

- Locke, E.A. and Latham, G.P. (2002), "Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: a 35-year odyssey", *American Psychologist*, Vol. 57 No. 9, p. 705.
- Locke, E.A. and Latham, G.P. (2006), "New directions in Goal-setting theory", *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, Vol. 15 No. 5, pp. 265-268
- Lunenburg, F.C. (2011), "Goal-setting theory of motivation", *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, Vol. 15 No. 1, pp. 1-6.
- Luthans, F. (2002), *Organisational Behavior*, 9th Ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- McAuley, J., Duberley, J. and Johnson, P. (2007), *Organisation Theory: Challenges and Perspectives*, Pearson Education Limited, New York, NY.
- McGregor, D. (1960), "Theory X and theory Y", *Organization Theory*, pp. 358-374.
- Mahmood, M. (2005), "Corruption in civil administration: causes and cures", *Humanomics*, Vol. 21 Nos 3/4, pp. 62-84.
- Maslow, A.H. (1954), *Motivation and Personality*, Harper & Row, New York, NY.
- Mayo, E. (1933), *The Human Problems of an Industrialized Civilization*, Macmillan, London.
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M. and Porter, L.W. (1979), "The measure of organisational commitment", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 224-247.
- National Anti-Corruption Action Plan (NACAP), (2011). Republic of Ghana.
- Northouse, P.G. (2001), "Leadership theory and practice", *Organization Studies-Berlin-European Group for Organizational Studies*, Vol. 20 No. 2.
- Olusegun, O.S. (2012), "Influence of motivation on turnover of library personnel in some public universities in South West Nigeria", *Library Philosophy and Practice. Review of Public Personnel Administration*, Vol. 722, pp. 1-25.
- Parsons, T. (1960), *Structure and Processes in Modern Society*, Free Press of Glencoe, New York, NY.
- Passer, M.W. and Smith, R.E. (2007), *Psychology: The Science of Mind Behaviour*, McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- Pepe, M. (2010), "The impact of extrinsic motivational dissatisfiers on employee level of job satisfaction and commitment resulting in the intent to turnover", *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, Vol. 8 No. 9, pp. 99-108.
- Republic of Ghana (1992), *1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana*, Publishing Company Limited, Assembly Press, Accra.
- Republic of Ghana (2011), *National Anti-Corruption Action Plan (NACAP)*, Publishing Company Limited, Assembly Press, Accra.
- Schein, E. (1970), *Organisational Psychology*, 2nd ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Silverman, D. (1970), *The Theory of Organisations: A Sociological Framework*, Heinemann, London.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911), *Scientific Management*, Harper & Row, New York, NY.
- Teck-Hong, T. and Waheed, A. (2011), "Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and job satisfaction in the Malaysian retail sector: the mediating effect of love of money", *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 16 No. 1, pp. 73-94.
- Transparency International (2009), "Corruption perceptions index 2009 (Regional highlights: Sub-Saharan Africa)", Transparency International, available at: [www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org) (accessed 2 July 2014).
- Transparency International (2012), "Corruption perceptions index 2012", Transparency International, available at: [www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org) (accessed 2 July 2014).

- Transparency International (2013), "Corruption perceptions index 2013", Transparency International, available at: [www.transparency.org](http://www.transparency.org) (accessed 2 July 2014).
- Van de Walle, N. (2001), *African Economies and the Politics of Permanent Crisis, 1979-1999*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Van Rijckeghem, C. and Weder, B. (1997), "Corruption and the role of temptation: do low wages in civil service cause corruption?", IMF Working Paper, WP/97/73.
- Van Rijckeghem, C., Weder, B. (2001), "Bureaucratic corruption and the rate of temptation: do wages in the civil service affect corruption, and by how much?", *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol. 65 No. 2, pp. 307-331.
- Vansteekiste, M., Lens, W. and Deci, E.L. (2006), "Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in self determination theory: another look at the quality of academic motivation", *Educational Psychologist*, Vol. 41 No. 1, pp. 19-31.
- Vroom, V.H. (1964), *Work and Motivation*, Wiley, New York, NY.
- Weber, M. (1947), *Theory of Social and Economic Organisation*, Oxford University Press, New York, NY.
- West, R.L., Ebner, N.C. and Hastings, E.C. (2013), "Linking goals and aging: experimental and lifespan approaches", *New Developments in Goal Setting and Task Performance*, pp. 439-459.
- Wei, S. (1999), *Corruption in Economic Development: Beneficial Grease, Minor Annoyance, Government or Major Obstacle?*, The World Bank, Washington, DC, available at: [www.transparency.org/content/download/4912/28857/file/Ghanaian\\_Chronicle\\_06-02-02pdf](http://www.transparency.org/content/download/4912/28857/file/Ghanaian_Chronicle_06-02-02pdf), [www.transparency.org/research/cpi/cpi](http://www.transparency.org/research/cpi/cpi)
- Williams, G.C., Hedberg, V.A., Cox, E.M. and Deci, E.L. (2000) "Extrinsic life goals and health-risk behaviors in adolescents", *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 30 No. 8, pp. 1756-1771.
- Yearta, S.K., Maitlis, S. and Briner, R.B. (1995), "An exploratory study of goal-setting in theory and practice: a motivational technique that works?", *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, Vol. 68, pp. 237-252.

### Further reading

- Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. (1985), *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*, Plenum, New York, NY.
- Fatile, J.O. and Adejuwon, K.D. (2010), "Public sector reform in Africa: issues, lessons and future directions", *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, Vol. 12 No. 8, pp. 145-157.
- Locke, E.A. and Latham, G.P. (Eds), (2013), *New Developments in Goal-setting and Task Performance*, Taylor and Francis Group, Routledge, New York, NY, London.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2000), "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: classic definitions and new directions", *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Vol. 25 No. 1, pp. 54-67.

### Corresponding author

Kwasi Dartey-Baah can be contacted at: [kdartey-baah@ug.edu.gh](mailto:kdartey-baah@ug.edu.gh)

---

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website:

[www.emeraldgroupublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm](http://www.emeraldgroupublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm)

Or contact us for further details: [permissions@emeraldinsight.com](mailto:permissions@emeraldinsight.com)