Anti-Corruption Education Policy Outputs for Combatting Corruption in Indonesia: Applying the Theory of Planned Behaviour

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Abstract

Corruption is a bureaucratic disease that has become as entrenched as the common cold, undermining governments globally. Proactive government policies can reduce corruption crimes through prosecution, prevention and education. The Indonesian government has implemented a 'trident' corruption eradication policy in educational institutions aiming to shape the attitudes, norms and behaviour of the nation’s younger generation. Unfortunately, the existing literature is limited in assessing the policy output of preventing and eradicating corruption, particularly the effectiveness of anti-corruption education among university students. A policy output evaluation perspective is offered to fill this research gap. This study aims to evaluate the policy output of anti-corruption education in shaping attitudes, norms and behaviour using the theory of planned behaviour. A quantitative approach and survey method were chosen, and a total of 125 respondents participated. The partial least squares algorithm and bootstrapping methods were used to analyse the data. The study’s results reveal that perceived behaviour control, attitude, subjective norm have significant influences on students’ intention. Perceived behaviour control has significant influences on students’ anti-corruption behaviour, though attitudes do not affect students’ anti-corruption behaviour. The findings also show that it has a good level of effectiveness in anti-corruption education policy outputs in achieving policy goals. Our policy recommendations include socialisation about anti-corruption to the community, implementing ideology education and upholding the law on corruption to increase the success of corruption prevention and eradication policies.

Keywords: Anti-Corruption; Policy Outputs Evaluation; Theory of Planned Behaviour; Trident Corruption Eradication Policy
Introduction

Corruption can be defined as the desire for a particular purpose carried out dishonestly and unlawfully by abusing power in the form of money and authority (Dokas, Panagiotidis, Papadamou, & Spyromitros, 2023). The presence of corruption is a bureaucratic disease demonstrating a country’s poor governance and creating a crisis of essential issues (Bhagwan, 2007; Mercy, 2015; Restya, 2019). Moreover, corruption is an obstacle to creating elements of good governance (Salihu, 2022). The use of resources that are wasted in ‘unproductive rent-seeking activities’ is a factor that encourages corruption (Rubasundram & Rasiah, 2019). In a developing country context, acts of corruption are rampant and spread across various segments (Bekenova, 2022; Sukidin, Hartanto, Zulianto, Suharso, & Hudori, 2022), which is also known as a social disease because it harms society (Sari, Cahaya, & Joseph, 2021). Corruption in developing countries is often carried out by diverting and exchanging government programme aid funds, which results in increasingly wasteful government spending. Unstable governance in developing countries causes vulnerability to property rights in their assets-are still unproductive and unable to pay for protection, which drives corruption (Khan, 2006; Khan & Farooq, 2019). This phenomenon has significantly influenced the decisions of many donor countries to provide assistance focusing on strengthening good governance difficulties. Although the strategies for preventing corruption offences are improving, they still require more reliability and clarity (Spyromitros & Panagiotidis, 2022).

Figure 1. Indonesia’s Corruption Perception Index
Source: Annur (2023); indonesiabaik.id (2023); Koran-Jakarta (2022); Sulistyo (2023)

The Indonesian government faces an enormous task in combatting corruption (Najih & Wiryani, 2020; Rasdi, Arifin, Widyawati, Adyatma, & Ilyasa, 2021). Corruption has been characterised as an extraordinary crime that is highly dangerous – a systemic crime resulting in high social costs and violating human rights (Handoyo, 2021; Pusat
Edukasi Anti Korupsi, 2023; Zulqarnain, Ikhtas, & Ilhami, 2022; Ebekozien, Samsurijan, Amadi, Awo-Osagie, & Ikuabe, 2022). Indonesia has the highest level of corruption among developing countries (Hudiarini, 2021; Nurhidayat & Kusumasari, 2018). Based on data from the corruption perception index, corruption crime in Indonesia is relatively high. The details can be seen in Figure 1. Existing literature reveals that corrupt practices in Indonesia occur in various institutions, including educational institutions involving students, and corruption is considered a common habit (Arilmans, 2017; Dewantara et al., 2021). Acts of corruption forced the Indonesian government to implement a ‘trident’ policy to eradicate and prevent corruption. The Indonesian government understands that eradicating corruption is challenging because it requires sustainable policies and the involvement of all parties (Pusat Edukasi Anti Korupsi, 2022). Therefore, the government issued a policy strategy for preventing and eradicating corruption through prosecution, prevention and education.

Anti-corruption education is one of the three pillars of Indonesia’s preventing and eradicating corruption policy that aims to create a new generation of Indonesians free from corruption (Komisi Pemberantasan Korupsi, 2022). Education is an option for the long-term combatting of corruption (Fajar & Muriman, 2018; Komalasari & Saripudin, 2015; Lukito, 2016) to help construct a new paradigm based on logical thinking and corruption-free values (Komalasari & Saripudin, 2015). The value of being free from corruption is a vital cultural attribute that may be established early on in the young generation through participation in educational activities (Sarmini, Made Swanda, & Nadiroh, 2018).

In the context of public policy, anti-corruption education is a sustainable development agenda involving the design of institutional reforms to prevent crimes of corruption. Anti-corruption education is a proactive government policy for combatting corruption (Basabose, 2019; Bautista-Beauchesne & Garzon, 2019; Lee, Meyer-Sahling, & Park, 2022). In addition, anti-corruption education involves an effort to build self-awareness and integrity (Wibawa, Agustian, & Warmiyati, 2021), which is carried out by changing attitudes, norms and student behaviour (Angelia, Ananda, & Montessori, 2022; Sukidin et al., 2022). Trust in educational institutions is the primary key to forming political awareness and encouraging more understandable anti-corruption education policies. Through solid educational institutions, strengthening basic political knowledge is an essential factor (Khan, Shah, & Ismail, 2021).

Existing literature indicates that students’ active participation and basic political knowledge are essential in promoting positive political values and the stability of the fundamental political system (Ahmed, Javaid, Muzaffar, Fatima, & Hussain, 2015). The self-actualisation of each individual in a democratic system regarding political issues, institutions and leaders is a form of political participation (Achour & Alghamdi, 2022; Kuotsu, 2016). The reason for self-actualisation through political participation is that young people are vulnerable to losing their identity (Bekenova, 2022). Therefore, educational institutions and universities have the function of providing basic political knowledge for students through learning activities and participation in politics (Rahman & Razali, 2018).
Corruption in educational institutions manifests itself in various forms of criminality, which is a global issue with a harmful influence on society (Kirya, 2019). For example, 240 incidences of corruption in the education sector in Indonesia occurred between 2016 and 2021, costing the state 1.6 trillion rupiah (Indonesian Corruption Watch, 2021). Commercialisation of the education sector involves turning universities into profit-making enterprises and expanding relationships between the education sector and industry. This commercialisation has allowed corruption in the education sector to swiftly spread in both developed and developing nations (Mohamedbhai, 2016).

The institutional secrecy and complexity in the education system and the absence of openness in education governance are factors fuelling corruption in the Indonesian education sector (Sunaryo & Nur, 2022; Sustain.id, 2022). As a result, corruption in the education system has long impacted people’s daily lives (Chapman & Lindner, 2016; Zamaletdinov, Yudina, Lavrentyeva, Savva, & Pugacheva, 2016). Moreover, corruption in educational institutions has harmed the image of institutions as vital places that develop an environment of academic integrity to generate graduates with knowledge and skills that can break the cycle of corruption.

Existing literature has assessed the policy process and output in preventing and eradicating corruption contexts, particularly in educational institutions. An assessment of the anti-corruption policy process from the perspective of teaching methods has been conducted. For example, Sukidin et al. (2022) researched long-term anti-corruption preventive measures at the secondary school level. The study results show that anti-corruption education is essential in providing knowledge on recognising various types of corruption crimes, explaining the definition of corruption and teaching how to avoid corruption. Likewise, Hasanah (2021) revealed that the anti-corruption education learning method uses digital comics as a medium for communication and knowledge transfer, which can increase student participation.

The policy output regarding students’ political awareness level has also been assessed. For example, Al-Khaza’leh and Lahiani (2021) researched the United Arab Emirates and the role of universities. The findings revealed that students’ levels of political awareness varied based on their academic programme. For instance, humanities students had a higher level of political knowledge than students in other academic programmes. Alsati and Ghanem (2017) revealed that activities at educational institutions had the most significant impact on students’ political awareness. Educational institutions have a significant responsibility to form an awareness of contributing to and embracing responsibility for managing the nation studies conducted on anti-corruption education policy, scholars have devoted significant attention to evaluating the policy process using a qualitative approach. Based on our review of the existing literature, research using a quantitative approach to assess policy on preventing and eradicating corruption has yet to be available. As a result, gaps in the literature have been identified. In that anti-corruption education aims to change students’ attitudes, norms and anti-corruption behaviour, this research focuses on the policy output context.

Policy output evaluation has particular benefits in achieving policy goals (Tallberg, Sommerer, Squatrito, & Lundgren, 2016). The main objective of this study is to determine
whether the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) can be applied in assessing the effectiveness of the policy output of preventing and eradicating corruption. In particular, this work focuses on the impact of anti-corruption education in fostering anti-corruption attitudes, norms and student behaviour. In achieving this goal, the theoretical model of TPB is implemented using a structural equation model. This research provides evidence of the effectiveness of the Indonesian government’s anti-corruption education policies. Students were selected as a unit of analysis, having become a targeted group in policies on preventing and eradicating corruption in educational institutions.

Based on the theory of rational action (Shalender & Sharma, 2021; Yastica, Salma, Caesaron, Safrudin, & Pramadya, 2020), TPB is used in this study to evaluate the policy output of anti-corruption policy. The assumption underlying TPB is that human behaviour is carried out reasonably considering the available information and the action’s implications (Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019). TPB aims to predict human behaviour in specific contexts (Ajzen, 1991) and describes an individual’s ability to exercise control (Amin, Hadisiwi, Ratna Suminar, & Dida, 2022) considering two factors, personal and social (Rueda, Moriano, & Liñán, 2015). Although TPB can predict individual behaviour, the theory also explains that the mechanism of present rational action results from considering past decisions (Amin et al., 2022; Yang & Wu, 2019).

TPB contains three types of concerns that affect human behaviour. ‘Behavioural beliefs’ are ideas about the potential consequences of behaviour that lead to a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the behaviour. Second, ‘normative beliefs’ are views about other people’s normative expectations, which result in perceived social pressures or subjective norms (SN). Third, ‘control beliefs’ regard circumstances that can help or hinder behavioural performance. As a result, control beliefs lead to a sense of behavioural control or self-efficacy (Bosnjak, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2020).

As the most popular theory in socio-psychological models (Ajzen, 2015; Shalender & Sharma, 2021), TPB has supported empirical evidence that actual individual behaviour can be predicted accurately from attitudes, SN, perceived behaviour control (PBC) and intention (Ajzen, 1991). These variables have been shown to be associated with a prominent set of behavioural, normative and control beliefs about the behaviour. TPB has succeeded in predicting and explaining various individual behaviours and intentions, including in the context of information exposure (Amin et al., 2022) and consumer food management (Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019).

Previous work has been limited to investigating the crucial factors influencing anti-corruption behaviour using the TPB. Nonetheless, the basics of TPB have validated the relationship between the overall construct (Ajzen, 1991, 2015). The literature has also succeeded in validating TPB in various research contexts (Abbasi, Kumaravelu, Goh, & Dara Singh, 2021; Allini, Ferri, Maffei, & Zampella, 2017; Amin et al., 2022; Knauder & Koschmieder, 2019; Scharrer, 2015; Troise, O’Driscoll, Tani, & Prisco, 2020; Wang, Yeh, Chen, & Huan, 2022). For example, research by Abbasi et al. (2021) and Wang et al. (2022) uses TPB, which investigates tourist behaviour. The results of these two studies reveal that PBC substantially influences intentions, while attitudes and SN do not affect intentions. An empirical investigation of the TPB model has also been carried out in the
business service context. An analysis of 425 people in Italy shows that SN and PBC substantially affect behavioural intentions (Troise et al., 2020). In the health protection context, Amin et al. (2022) measured the effectiveness of the Indonesia Family Planning program from a behaviour change perspective on 74 women of childbearing age. The study’s results revealed that SN positively influence intention, but PBC and attitude do not. In the environmentally sustainable energy context, Shalender and Sharma (2021) analysed 326 data points to predict the intention of electric vehicles in India. The results of the empirical study reveal that attitudes, SN and PBC have a significant relationship with intention.

![Figure 2. Proposed Model](source: Processed by Authors (2023))

The development of the research hypotheses can be seen in Figure 2. The proposed research hypotheses include:

- **H1**: The intention of anti-corruption has a significant impact on anti-corruption behaviour.
- **H2**: Perceived behaviour control has a significant impact on students’ anti-corruption behaviour.
- **H3**: Attitude has a significant impact on anti-corruption intentions.
- **H4**: Subjective norms have a significant impact on anti-corruption intention.
- **H5**: Perceived behaviour control has a significant impact on anti-corruption intention.

**Research Methods**

**Sampling**

A quantitative approach was chosen for this research. This approach was selected because it can enable an explanatory analysis of the relationships between the variables in the research (Huda, 2023). In addition, this study uses numerical data, which facilitates the calculation and analysis of correlations between factors in the proposed model. The
research data is managed using self-management. The target population was undergraduate public administration students at Universitas Brawijaya and Universitas Diponegoro, Indonesia. These two universities were chosen because both universities have an anti-corruption education curriculum. With many students in the public administration undergraduate programme, researchers can obtain adequate samples in cross-sectional data collection. This method can reduce research costs and time effectiveness.

The research questionnaire was delivered via a link sent to the intended study sample participants containing the questionnaire. The number of samples used in this study was 125. We employed the multivariate analysis method to ensure the minimum number of research samples. Multivariate analysis is a statistical approach that analyses many variables simultaneously. Because calculations in multivariate data analysis are more complicated than in univariate studies, the use of statistical tools will assist in facilitating this study. Multivariate statistical analysis was run using G*power software. A total of 125 data points on four predictor variables with a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$) and significance level ($\alpha = 5\%$) has a statistical power of 0.9434 ($1-\beta$ error power = 94.34%). Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2014, 2017) and Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, Danks, and Ray (2021) explained that the statistical power test requirement minimum of 80% is acceptable in multivariate analysis. As a result, the number of samples in this study can meet the requirements of statistical testing.

Questionnaire Development and Measures

To ensure students can easily understand the questions, the questionnaire was translated into Indonesian as it is the primary language used by the students. The development of attitude items was adopted from existing research (Ho, Liao, & Rosenthal, 2015; Yang & Wu, 2021), and then modified according to the context of this study. Items of SN were adopted from and combined with existing work (Ho et al., 2015; Salmani et al., 2020). In addition, items of PBC were created by altering earlier work (Yang & Wu, 2021). Adoption from various sources was also carried out to develop items of students’ anti-corruption intentions (Rueda et al., 2015; Yang & Wu, 2021). In the final stage, we conducted trials and pretests on the questionnaire to increase maximum understanding and reduce potential ambiguity in the questions. Several revisions to the instrument were made.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the survey, which was distributed via the link, were processed using the SmartPLS application. We used the partial least squares (PLS) algorithm and bootstrapping method to analyse the data. Finally, results of the software analysis were displayed in simple tables. The research survey results, which were successfully validated, included 125 data points. The demographic profile of the respondents who participated in this study is shown in Table 1. According to Table 1, the respondent information came from 47 men and 78 women.
Table 1. Demographic Profile  
Source: Processed by Authors (2023)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First year</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second year</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third year</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth year</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Attainment Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have taken course</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ongoing course</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universitas Diponegoro, Indonesia</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universitas Brawijaya, Indonesia</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study also explored data related to student grades at the university to ensure that the questionnaires were appropriately distributed. In the student grade items, data from 125 university students came from four students in the first year, 26 students in the second year, 68 students in the third year and 27 students in the fourth year. Regarding the categories of course attainment status and university attended, the distribution of respondents is excellent.

Results and Discussion

The measurement model’s viability was evaluated using convergent validity and discriminant validity (Huda, 2023). **Convergent validity** may be used to analyse the validity of each indicator relationship representing one latent variable, whereas **discriminant validity** can be used to assess distinctions between latent variables. To ensure the consistency of the measurement tools, an evaluation of the reliability is needed. The average variance extracted (AVE) should not be lower than 0.50 to have a minimum acceptable value for convergent validity. We determined that the factor loadings in this study result in an AVE greater than 0.50. Additionally, we discovered that the minimum acceptable value for dependability, as determined by Composite Reliability (CR), is larger than 0.70, and that Cronbach’s Alpha (CA) is higher than 0.70. Both of these results are important.

During the first step, the Partial Least Squares (PLS) method computes the factor loadings for each item under the construct. The factor loading is a numerical representation that indicates the strength of the association between observed indicators and their underlying latent components. The threshold used for calculations involves accepting factor loading values that exceed 0.50. Table 2 presents the factor loading outcomes for each item above the presumed minimum threshold of 0.50.

The subsequent stage involves the computation of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliability (CR), and Convergent Validity (CA) metrics. The acceptance criteria for the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is typically a value greater than 0.50,
while the acceptable values for the Composite Reliability (CR) and Convergent Validity (CA) are above 0.70. The evaluation of the internal consistency of the instruments used in this research is accomplished by the computation of CA and CR values. The calculations conducted in this research provide a robust basis for the determined conclusions. Table 2 presents the results indicating that the average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), and convergent validity (CA) values for all constructs were above the acceptable thresholds established for each of the assumptions used. Hence, the questionnaire used in this research falls into the group of instruments that exhibit good reliability and consistency.

Table 2. Results of Convergent Validity and Reliability
Source: Calculation results of SmartPLS (2023)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Convergent Validity</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Factor Loadings (&gt;0.50)</td>
<td>AVE (&gt;0.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td>Bi1</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bi2</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bi3</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention</td>
<td>IU1</td>
<td>.878</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IU2</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IU3</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IU4</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Norm</td>
<td>SN1</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SN2</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SN3</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SN4</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SN5</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Att1</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Att2</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Att3</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Att4</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Behaviour</td>
<td>PBC1</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td>.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour Control</td>
<td>PBC2</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PBC3</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PBC4</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data related to discriminatory validity is shown in Table 3. According to Huda (2023), a research instrument is considered to possess a strong discriminant value when the average variance extracted (AVE) inside the construct exceeds the construct's correlation with other latent variables. Our study findings provide confirmation that the root value of the average variance extracted (AVE) for each concept meets the criteria for good discriminant validity. Consequently, the discriminant validity of the research instrument is deemed satisfactory.
Table 3. Result of Discriminant Validity Fornell–Larcker
Source: Calculation results of SmartPLS (2023)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Attitude</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Behaviour</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Intention</td>
<td>.497</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Perceived Behaviour Control</td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.709</td>
<td>.453</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td></td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Subjective Norms</td>
<td>.656</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td>.471</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 and Figure 3 show details of the hypothesis testing results. Students’ intention of anti-corruption and PBC contributed to 50.6% ($R^2 = .506$) of the variance in students’ behaviour of anti-corruption. In statistical results, intention is not significant in influencing behaviour ($\beta = -.067 \ p > 0.05$), while PBC substantially influences behaviour ($\beta = .738 \ p < 0.001$). As a result, H1 was rejected, and H2 was accepted. Attitude, SN and PBC contributed to 31.5% ($R^2 = .315$) of the variance in students’ intention of anti-corruption. In statistical results, attitude significantly influences students’ intention of anti-corruption ($\beta = .263 \ p < 0.01$), SN has a positive relationship in influencing students’ intention of anti-corruption ($\beta = .181 \ p < 0.01$), and PBC was also found to have a positive relationship to students’ intention of anti-corruption ($\beta = .219 \ p < 0.01$). As a result, H3, H4 and H5 were accepted.

Table 4. Hypothesis Testing Results
Source: Calculation results of SmartPLS (2023)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses Path</th>
<th>$f^2$</th>
<th>$t$-statistics</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H1$: Intention $\rightarrow$ Behaviour</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H2$: PBC $\rightarrow$ Behaviour</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td>14.680</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H3$: Attitude $\rightarrow$ Intention</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>2.650</td>
<td>.008**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H4$: SN $\rightarrow$ Intention</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>2.331</td>
<td>.008**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H5$: PBC $\rightarrow$ Intention</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>2.180</td>
<td>.007**</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test results show that intention minimally influences behaviour ($f^2 = .007; \ p$-value $= .338$). The findings also demonstrate that students’ intention toward anti-corruption does not affect students’ behaviour toward anti-corruption ($H1$) because the total value of the effect and the low $p$-value have a weak power to influence students’ behaviour toward anti-corruption. Intention focuses on motivation that encourages students to achieve goals, while behaviour refers to actual actions taken by students to implement anti-corruption behaviour.

In developing countries such as Indonesia, citizens think that corruption often occurs because of poor government governance caused by political officials who act arbitrarily. In addition, the lack of law enforcement regarding corruption issues makes citizens disinterested in eradicating corruption. These phenomena are common habits in state life (Arliman S, 2017; Dewantara et al., 2021). As a result, citizens feel unmotivated
to uphold a clean, free government according to corruption-free values. Therefore, these factors may hinder citizens’ motivation and commitment to anti-corruption behaviour. Consequently, the findings of this study contradict those of previous studies (Ajzen, 2015; Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019). Soorani & Ahmadvand (2019) confirms that intention is a driving element influencing consumer behaviour in regulating food intake and preventing food waste.

On the other hand, our results show that 50.6% of the variance in anti-corruption behaviour is explained by PBC alone. This finding means that PBC substantially influences students’ behaviour of anti-corruption (H2). Additionally, this result is consistent with the existing literature indicating that rarely does a measure of intention to engage in a behaviour explain the variance in behaviour. As reported by Armitage and Conner (2001) and Rhodes and de Bruijn (2013), intention only explains 30% to 40% of the variance in behaviour.

Corruption-free values instilled through anti-corruption education have similarities with local social and cultural values. As a result, corruption-free values are straightforward for society to accept and interfere with individual control beliefs. Belief in control causes people to have a sense of confidence that the prevention and eradication of corruption depend on the actions of everyone with anti-corruption behaviour. Practising corruption-free values in everyday life is the key to success – these values help students’ behavioural performance to align with the corruption-free values they have acquired. As a result, not all differences that occur in behaviour are explained by intentions (Conner & Norman, 2022). Existing literature labels this phenomenon as the intention–behaviour gap (Conner & Norman, 2022; Faries, 2016; So et al., 2023). This study’s results strengthen the existing literature’s findings that PBC significantly affects behaviour intention (Ajzen, 2015; Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019; Troise et al., 2020).
The results in this work demonstrate that all constructs of TPB, attitude, SN and PBC significantly affect students’ intention of anti-corruption (H3, H4 and H5). These findings mean that a positive relationship between these variables can foster anti-corruption attitudes, norms and behaviour in the student’s environment. The test results also show that attitude, SN and PBC can explain about 31.5% of the variance in students’ intention of anti-corruption.

Student attitudes represent behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations (Prayidyaningrum & Djamaludin, 2016). Moreover, student attitudes show high behavioural beliefs about the potential consequences of being kind and can foster anti-corruption behaviour intentions. Behavioural beliefs foster an attitude of liking corruption-free values that can provide significant benefits leading to desired goals. A highly positive attitude encourages students to be more motivated toward anti-corruption. Alam and Sayuti (2011) added that social pressure is a form of compensation for highly favourable attitudes in building intentions. This pressure might cause attitudes to be an essential factor influencing students’ intentions to engage in anti-corruption behaviour. This study’s results align with the existing literature indicating that attitude significantly affects intention (Ajzen, 2015; Shalender & Sharma, 2021; Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019). The results contradict previous research (Abbasi et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022).

The results of this research show that SN have a significant effect on students’ intention of anti-corruption (H4). SN are individual perceptions that indicate people's expectations of normative beliefs and their motivation to comply (Ajzen, 1991). In developing countries such as Indonesia, social values grow and develop well among citizens. Individuals’ interactions with one another in social life also build excellent social relations and emotional closeness. Exchanging opinions and conveying hopes to other individuals is easy to do.

The same spread of values through interactions occurs in the context of anti-corruption behaviour. SN refer to students’ views of whether other people are essential to them and should have anti-corruption intentions. In social life, students live with family, friends and other people around them who have values and social norms that the students believe to be accurate. The values and norms that apply to those people internalise the SN of the students. As a result, these social values foster a normative belief that there are other people’s expectations that should be realised. This nurturing process might explain how the views of others encourage the growth of good student anti-corruption intentions. SN are essential in influencing students’ intentions to engage in anti-corruption behaviour. This study’s results align with existing literature showing that SN significantly affect students’ anti-corruption intentions (Ajzen, 2015; Amin et al., 2022; Shalender & Sharma, 2021; Troise et al., 2020). The results also contradict previous research (Abbasi et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022).

Our findings show that PBC significantly affects students’ anti-corruption intentions and behaviour toward anti-corruption (H5). PBC refers to students’ perceptions of ease of realising a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen (1991, 2015), PBC in TPB is differentiated by locus of control, which refers to an individual's belief that he is relatively
stable in all situations regarding success in his activities. In the context of building and cultivating corruption-free values, people already have confidence in their actions by behaving in an anti-corruption manner.

Success in preventing and eradicating corruption depends on efforts made to encourage corruption-free values in everyday life. This criteria also applies in the context of students’ anti-corruption behaviour. Students feel that the success of efforts to prevent and eradicate corruption depends on their significant belief in their own efforts. This view makes the PBC of a person experiencing dynamic changes dependent upon the situation and behaviour. The results of this study are aligned with existing literature showing that PBC has a significant effect on students’ anti-corruption intentions (Abbasi et al., 2021; Ajzen, 2015; Shalender & Sharma, 2021; Soorani & Ahmadvand, 2019; Wang et al., 2022). However, the results contradict previous research (Amin et al., 2022).

**Conclusion**

This study evaluates and provides evidence of the policy outputs from implementing anti-corruption education policies in Indonesia. The study’s findings indicate that anti-corruption education is a strategic effort to generate anti-corruption values among young people who can play a vital role in reducing corruption. As the principal avenue towards students’ retribution and action against corruption issues, anti-corruption education is vital in developing corruption-free values in students. Effectively implementing anti-corruption education policies affects students’ policy outputs, attitudes, norms and behaviours. These impacts show that the prevention and eradication of corruption policy in educational institutions is effective.

The TPB can explain changes in student anti-corruption behaviour well. Attitudes, SN and PBC are predictors in shaping students’ anti-corruption behaviour intentions. As a result, corruption education policies can achieve the policy objectives of the target group. Theoretical contributions have been successfully offered, which are interesting subjects for reinvestigation in assessing the policy output of preventing and eradicating corruption. Therefore, future researchers should consider other factors influencing students’ anti-corruption behaviour. TPB should be applied and expanded in further research.

This research has several limitations. The data collection technique using surveys is cross-sectional, which impacts the weak explanation of the relationship between populations observed in different periods and the variables that influence them. Future research can consider a longitudinal approach in collecting research data. This method helps provide a better explanation of changes in the population relationship observed over a long period. However, the number of research samples can have outstanding test statistical power. Future research can expand the number of samples to obtain statistical test results with more detailed statistical power.

The research sample came from students majoring in undergraduate public administration at Universitas Diponegoro and Universitas Brawijaya. The research results cannot be generalised to the general student population. Future research can
consider the diversity of specific study programme backgrounds. In addition, this study uses TPB as the theoretical model to explain factors that influence students’ anti-corruption behaviour. As a result, several other factors that needed to be examined were given less attention. Future research can modify the TPB by adding other latent variables based on the relevant literature review. TPB can also be combined with other theoretical models to investigate the influencing factors of students’ anti-corruption behaviour.

Our policy recommendations are offered to increase the success of corruption prevention and eradication policies in Indonesia. Changes in attitudes, norms and anti-corruption behaviour in students are not only influenced by education but also are influenced by many other factors. As a result, policies to prevent and eradicate corruption must be balanced with other policies. For example, the Indonesian government should conduct an anti-corruption outreach programme in the community. Socialisation activities are an alternative method of building citizens’ knowledge of corruption and its prevention. The effort also can broaden the policy target group. The Ministry of Education can implement education promoting an anti-corruption ideology by opening new student admissions at all education levels. State ideological education becomes a filter for young people and fortifies students’ attitudes, norms and behaviour. Ideology education provides a knowledge base for sorting out values that students can absorb that are adapted to corruption-free values. So, ideological education offers an opportunity for the growth of new deals in the country while maintaining the existence of corruption-free values. Weak law enforcement needs to show a more vigorous mechanism for monitoring corruption at the community level. The Indonesian government must uphold the law on corruption, imposing heavy prison sentences and the obligation to return illegal compensation. These policies can provide the benefits of creating a fear of corruption, preventing intentions to commit corruption and reducing state financial losses.

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