# AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF CORRUPT CASES POLICE OFFICERS ARE INVOLVED IN: A STUDY OF SIX (6) SELECTED POLICE STATIONS AND POSTS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT.

BY

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## CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

This Thesis of Nsama Chalwe has been approved as partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the Degree of Masters of Science in Peace, Leadership and Conflict Resolution.


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# DECLARATION

I, Nsama Chalwe, hereby declare that this dissertation represents my own work and that it has not been previously submitted for a degree, diploma or other qualification at this or another University.

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# ABSTRACT

The Zambia police service just like many other public institutions has been engulfed in numerous corruption scandals. The ratings of public institutions as regards to corruption have slated the police service as the most corrupt public institution in the country. Therefore, this study investigated the nature of corruption cases police officers are involved in, in selected police stations and posts in Lusaka district. Using structured questionnaires, data was collected from forty three (43) police officers and fifty (50) members of the community in six (6) selected police stations and posts within Lusaka District of Lusaka province of Zambia and from the six (6) communities where these stations are located.

According to the findings under the first specific objective, the forms of police corruption in Lusaka that existed to a great extent were bribery and extortion by the police officers standing at 94% followed by false traffic charges at 82%. Further under the second specific objective, it was submitted that reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption included corrupt political leadership, unchecked Power and involvement in partisan politics amongst police officers which all stood at 94% level of agreement. The highest was lack of deterrence to corrupt practices amongst police officers (96%) while the least reason was family commitments which stood at 35%. Regarding the last objective, it was found that the practices to combat Police related to corruption included strong political will to reprimand reported corrupt police officers and the ability by the Anti-Corruption Commission to prosecute reported corrupt police officers. This would contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers both with 100% affirmation. The other measure to combat police corruption was stiffening of institutional anti-corruption strategies that would contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers (97%).

The study concludes that there is no doubt that corruption has a destructive influence on police operations and the confidence of the public in the service. In combating corruption, the initial step is to know its underlying causes. When the causes are determined, there is need for independent law enforcement agencies to carry out their duties to ensure punishment is meted out to the offenders which in turn would deter would be offenders. This however can only be achieved if there is strong political will. The study recommends that the government should be in the forefront in addressing corruption and that Political discipline is of great importance because leaders should lead by example. This would instil discipline in the police force and transform the police service into a clean and admired force.

# DEDICATION

I dedicate this Thesis to my Kids (Natasha, Mapalo and Malitati) and my wife (Odrine Chalwe) for being my inspiration throughout my studies. I have had to abandon family time and concentrate on my studies and they understood. This piece of writing is also dedicated to my father (Mr Latham Chalwe) whom I continued to draw inspiration from during the course of my study.

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# ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

**BAK**                Federal Bureau of anti-Corruption

CSD                Center for the Study of Democracy

**COVID-19**         Corona Virus 2019

DEA                Drug Enforcement Agency

GCB                Global Corruption Barometer

**GRZ**                Government of the Republic Of Zambia

EU                European Union

IPCC               Independent Police Complaints Commission

**OECD**             Organisation for Economic and Cooperation and Development

**TIZ**                Transparency International Zambia

**UK**                United Kingdom

**UN**                United Nations

UNCAC           United Nations Convention Against Corruption

**USA**               United States of America

**ZP**                Zambia Police Service

**ZBPI**              Zambia Bribe Payer's Index

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Overview

The police have a mandate to serve and protect as well as preserve the peace in the communities they operate from. This police dictate is an instrumental aspect of development and democratization. Chapter 107 of The Laws of Zambia gives a mandate to the Zambia Police Force officers to act in the stead of the Inspector General of police. The Zambia Police Act Cap 5 establishes the functions of the police force and officers therein stating that, "the force shall be employed in and throughout Zambia for preserving the peace, for the prevention and detection of crime, and the apprehension of offenders against the peace, and for the performance of such duties, may carry arms" (Government of the Republic of Zambia, 1994). It is therefore evident that the police are a very cardinal institution in preservation of peace and ensuring that the national affairs of any country are carried out smoothly. What this entails is that the police should as well run effectively, devoid of any form of corruption so that it contributes to the development of the society. In view of the above, this study attempted to investigate the forms of corrupt practices police officers are involved in. This chapter presents the background to the study and defines the problem that the study intends to solve. It also highlights the research objectives and research questions; it further presents the theoretical framework, operational definition of terms and the summary of the chapter.

## 1.2 Background

There are various statutes and regulations that grant special privileges to police officers in Zambia and the rest of the world alike that are not extended to civilians. Police officers have a right to bear arms in executing their duties as well as the right to the use of force. This places officers in a peculiar position of authority over those they are sworn to protect by preserving the peace. Chappell and Piquero (2004: 90) show that "police officers enjoy many freedoms such as; speeding, using deadly force, and seizing property. Not only does the occupation provide many opportunities for deviance, but it also provides justification if the behaviour is questioned." The abrogation of their mandate to preserve the peace through actions of omission or commission as well as the abuse of their authority as well as freedoms for individual,

institutional or departmental gain all constitute corruption. This is also in addition to the corruption of procedural means to justify seemingly just means by tampering with evidence as well as standing as false witnesses irrespective of the goodwill inherent.

The police service or police force as other countries may refer to it is commonly identified as one of the most corrupt government institutions in most countries world over. This is however prevalent in most developing countries. Police related corruption may comprise of petty corruption which involves the public paying bribes for alleged traffic offences, the public paying bribes to police officers to get away with petty crimes; at the other spectrum, corrupt police officers can conspire with criminals and organised crime gangs in the trafficking of drugs, humans as well as extortion from business entities (DFAC, 2012).

Zambia is not immune to the police corruption problem and in fact, according to Transparency International Zambia (2017), the Zambia police service is ranked as the most corrupt public institution in the land. The government has moreover indicated that corruption in the police service is very common (ICS, 2017). According to the 2019 Global Corruption Barometer (GCB), the police service in Zambia was ranked the most corrupt institution. The report says that the corruption perception has risen from 51 per cent four years ago to 54 per cent in 2019, making the police the most corrupt institution with the traffic section perceived more corrupt than other sections of the police. In effect, half of Zambians consider the police to be corrupt, and a quarter of those of who came into contact with police officers in the preceding twelve months paid a bribe (Global Corruption Barometer, 2019). This means that members of the public now perceive the police to be more corrupt than before.

The scourge has been documented to have increased in the previous years with the Zambia bribe payers' index (ZBPI) survey report indicating that the incidences of bribery have increased in the police service from 8.8% in 2014 to 10% in 2017. This is a clear indication that a lot still needed to be done to curb corruption not only in the police service but also in other public institutions. In response to this, the ministry of home affairs announced that government had put in place a number of measures to curb corruption and rid the police service of criminal elements because it was concerned about the growing negative perception of the police in the public eye. Some of the measures included the establishment of integrity committees responsible for promoting ethical conduct and professionalism in the service. The Minister of Home Affairs, Mr Stephen

Kampyongo directed the police traffic section to reduce on road blocks on public roads as a way of bringing down corruption among some officers (Zambia Daily Mail, July 14<sup>th</sup> 2019). The ministry also announced that thirty-nine (39) officers have been prosecuted for corruption between January 2015 and August 2018. From the total, thirty (30) officers were convicted, five (5) acquitted and four (4) officers were still appearing before the courts of law (Lusaka times, 29<sup>th</sup> June 2019).

Living in the Zambian society for a long time, the researcher has had personal experiences in dealing with the Zambia Police Service. It is common to encounter police misconduct along the highways, in police stations, in courts of law, in community policing and other places where the police are required to carry out their duties. In these places, police corruption takes different forms including extortion, bribery, illegal bail charges, destruction of evidence, and illegal arrests. This reveals that, in spite of the major role that the police are supposed to have in protecting and maintaining law and order, they are not exempted from the corruption that affects the nation.

## 1.3 Statement of the Problem

The Zambia police service just like many other public institutions have been engulfed in numerous corruption scandals. The ratings of public institutions as regards to corruption have slated the police service as the most corrupt public institution in the country. The Zambia Bribe Payers Index (ZBPI) survey which is conducted jointly by the Anti-Corruption Commission and transparency international Zambia for instance ranked the police service as the most corrupt public institution in Zambia. The survey further states that between 2014 and 2017, the likelihood of one paying a bribe to a Zambia police service officer especially the traffic department increased from 50.1% in 2014 to 63.9% in 2017 (Transparency International Zambia, 2017). Admittedly, corruption in the police service takes many forms and occurs at all levels. However, much is not known about the particular nature of corruption cases that the police officers are involved in. It is therefore the essence of this study to investigate the problem of the nature of corruption cases police officers are involved in.

## 1.4 Purpose of the Study

To investigate the nature of corruption cases police officers are involved in, in selected police stations and posts in Lusaka district.

## 1.5 General objective

To find out the nature of corruption cases police officers are involved in, in Lusaka district.

### 1.5.1 Specific Objectives

1) To establish the nature of corruption cases by police officers that is prevalent in Lusaka district;
2) To establish the reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption;
3) To examine the best practices that are used in addressing police related corruption cases;
4) To assess the interventions that the police command has put in place to mitigate the problem.

### 1.5.2 Research Questions

1) What corruption cases are prevalent among police officers?
2) Why do police officers engage in corruption?
3) What are the best practices in place to address police corruption cases?
4) What interventions has the police command implemented to reduce the scourge?

## 1.6 Significance of the Study

The study into the nature of police corruption in Lusaka was expected to benefit the public, police command as well as other policy makers as a source of scholarly information on the vice of corruption. With the exception of annual reports on corruption, there exists a limited amount of scholarly information on police corruption in Zambia. This provides an opportunity for this research undertaking to offer novel scholarly conclusions on corruption in the police service. The information generated will inform stakeholders on the nature of corruption inherent in Zambia, show where the real problem of corruption is, its causes as well as the measures that could be employed to curb it in order to curb the problem.

## 1.7 Limitations of the study

Scholars have generally agreed that owing to the sensitivity of the topic of corruption and the nature of the police subculture to appear to be in the highest of moral codes, it is usually problematic to get an honest portrayal of corruption and deviance within the institution of the police. There were also difficulties in getting corporation in some quarters of the police and there was resistance from the police to be researched. This study was therefore limited in this regard. Other limitations were of time and resources to carry out the research.

## 1.8 Scope of the Study

The study was conducted among police officers in 6 selected stations and posts within Lusaka District of Lusaka province of Zambia. It also sampled members of the community in 6 townships where these police stations and police posts were located. These communities included Chestone (Chelstone Police Station), Kalingalinga (Kalingalinga Police Post), Matero (Matero Police Station), Kabwata, (Kabwata Police Station), Kanyama (City Market Police Post), and Kabangwe (Kabangwe Police Post).

## 1.9 Definition of Operational Terms

**Corruption:** It is widely defined as the abuse of entrusted (or in some definitions, public) authority for personal, private gain. Corruption equals monopoly plus discretion minus accountability.

**Police:** The police are a constituted body of persons empowered by a state, with the aim to enforce the law, to ensure the safety, health and possessions of citizens, and to prevent crime and civil disorder.

## 1.10 Theoretical framework

Functional psychology and behavioural functionalism theories emerged within psychology in the first half of the twentieth century to explain patterns in human behaviour as the result of response to stimuli and adaptation to one's environment. Functionalist examinations and theories of corruption appeared in the work of scholars such as Huntington (1968), who viewed corruption as a way to "grease the wheels" to get things done, especially for investors and companies. In this view, corruption is a way of quickly cutting through burdensome regulatory requirements,

distributing resources and generating economic growth. Marquette and Pfeiffer (2015) extend this logic to non-investors in a neo-functional argument, arguing that corruption can be viewed as a form of problem solving, a useful way of dealing with problems that people face. However, functional theories of corruption are generally unsatisfying and raise more questions than they answer since they often result in tautological arguments. For instance, why do some people act corruptly while others do not if corruption is functional and; which types of problems are more amenable to (functional) corruption solutions.

The Bad Apple Theory is a more contemporary theory than many. This theory of policing argues that the vast majority of police officers are good and that it is a few bad ones (or bad apples) that cause the majority of the problems; in this case, corruption. However, it is argued that with regard to policing, the problem goes a step further because there are probably a small number of actually malicious and corrupt police officers, but there is a broader subsection of them that, through confirmation bias and tunnel vision, make mistakes and fail to recognise them. The policing system itself is problematic, with a large number of supposedly good officers becoming complicit through non-action, not reporting misconduct when they see it, or overtly lying to cover up for the police. The problem with this theory is that it underestimates the need for systematic reform in policing.

This research undertaking will be guided by the Social Learning Theory as advanced by Akers (1973) in his study, Deviant Behaviour: A Social Learning Approach. It is embedded in the thoughts and theories of Edwin H. Sutherland's differential association theory as well as B. F. Skinner's thoughts on behavioural psychology. Akers developed this theory to understand causation of criminality and deviance as actions that violate socially accepted norms. The foreground of the theory lies in the presupposition that a learning process can either produce negative or positive outcomes depending on; "differential association, definitions, reinforcements, and modelling. The balance of these influences determines whether one will be prone to engage in conforming or deviant behaviour" (Chappell and Piquero, 2004: 93). The definitions of deviance are created with the influence of others through differential association. They are then reinforced, be it in a positive or negative manner, by the system of rewards and punishments that is in place for the particular actions. Therefore, deviance can be learnt in an institution such as the police, and owing to the exceptional privileges and relationship between

the officers and the law, the actions of deviance can be normalised within the police officers' context of protecting their own.

The police subculture of loyalty and solidarity to each other's cause and their supposed special relationship to the law creates a differentiation between officers and members of the public. Negative traits of this subculture are inherent in the abrogation of not only social norms and expected behaviour but laws as well is shared among peers in the police subculture, transmitted from one police academy, department, station and posts. The value system adopted within the subculture allows the members to not only normalise deviance but to deny its existence, excuse it as well as justify (Kappeler, Sluder and Alpert, 1998).

## 1.11 Ethical Considerations

Field and Morse (1992) define research ethics as moral principles that are adhered to in conducting a research. Ethical issues were considered when carrying out this research. Firstly, the researcher got permission to carry out the research from key officials relevant to this study, in this case from the Lusaka central command office as well as from the Police Force Headquarters for the researcher to engage with the officers and collect data therefrom. The study adhered to strict code of confidentiality and in achieving this goal; the researcher did not collect any information that tied the respondents to their responses. All responses that were collected herein in this study were used for academic purposes and for the benefit of this particular study.

## 1.12 Summary

This chapter has provided information on the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, and significance of the study, scope of the study, operational definitions and theoretical framework of the study. The next chapter presents reviewed literature.

## CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Overview

These section reviews literature on the nature of corrupt practices police officers are involved in; as well as general corruption in the police and other security wings and departments. The section looks at the general literature on the structural and institutional factors that lead to corruption from a wide range of authors and publications around the world. It then looks at literature on the global perspective, the African perspective and the Zambian perspective.

There is an immense wealth of literature on the institution of the police as well as policing. Such literature covers themes such as the culture and practices of the police force or service, its mandate, relations between officers and the law, as well as with the communities they serve. While some literature illuminates the role that the police play in development, democracy and maintaining law and order, a majority of scholars have to a greater extent concentrated on documenting police deviance. Such deviance is shown to be inherent in actions such as police brutality, racism, as well as the intended subject of this study, police corruption. While other scholars differentiate actions such as brutality and racism from corruption, others see all negative actions of the police as a corruption of their mandate.

### 2.2 Causes and types of Police Corruption

Many of the general causes of corruption in the public sector (especially economic and cultural factors) also apply to the police. These factors can be split in two categories: Structural (i.e. causes that lie outside police) and Institutional (causes that arise within the police itself).

### 2.2.1 Structural factors

### 2.2.1.1 Geographic/territorial perspective

The geography of a state or a city can also affect the levels of police corruption at national and local levels. National capitals, large cities, or tourist resorts with their large markets for illicit goods and services usually make law enforcement more vulnerable to corruption pressure than in other places.

Transportation centres (e.g. port cities) and hubs also represent zones of increased corruption transactions in general, and illicit police involvement in particular. A particularly salient territorial factor is the vicinity of international borders (Schendel, 2005: 44). Often, such peripheral zones represent a huge challenge to law enforcement owing to the linkages between legal and illegal activities in cross border trade.

The combined effect of irregular migration and smuggling usually causes higher corruption pressure on officers at border crossing points and those controlling the green border. Human smugglers usually seek to corrupt passport control officers, technical staff at passport application offices and the officials who issue residential registrations or marriage certificates. Corruption plays a significant role in the facilitation of irregular border crossings, in simplifying the issuing of visas and in the prevention of prosecution of smugglers.

### 2.2.2.2 Historical perspective

Although police corruption is both a universal and recurring phenomenon, its varying forms are shaped by the evolution of national institutions. One of the classic studies on this phenomenon compares the forms, causes and consequences of police corruption in four countries: the US, UK, Belgium and the Netherlands (Punch, 2009). According to its findings, police corruption in the US is an offspring of the institutional links between the police and city mayors through which corrupt city government infiltrated the police. The different nature of politics and urban governance in Europe is the reason why organised graft is less prevalent than in North America. Where political influence over the police exists, it usually does not concern local government but national authorities.

In a well-known example from Belgium – the so-called 'Dutroux affair' – inadequate police action led to the early release of a convicted rapist, who enjoyed protection from senior officials and subsequently murdered five young women. A parliamentary inquiry concluded that the police were hindered by political interference in their investigation, irregular promotions of officers, as well as by institutional rivalries (Punch, 2009).

Most of the police corruption in Northern Europe is either of the 'noble-cause' variety or corruption that stems from incompetence or failure to perform duties adequately. Noble-cause corruption refers to misconduct justified with the aim of achieving good results. Officers may,

for instance, bend or break the law in order to bring perpetrators to justice. For example, in the UK physical violence was used by the police to bring Irish Republican Army (IRA) members to justice. In both the UK and the Netherlands some of the most notorious cases are linked to illicit cooperation between prosecutors and organised criminals to uncover contraband and distribution schemes. It is difficult to establish when 'noble cause' corruption is driven by concern for the public good or by career considerations. In Italy, the influence of the mafia has curtailed the work of law enforcement in the southern regions of the country. Officers in that region refrain from investigations because they would face corruption pressure and obstruction from local police officers who are well-connected to the mafia (CSD, 2010; 90).

A close and critical look at the literature under the structural factors draws a critical gap. They talk about how the working environment determines or influences police officers to engage in corruption. For instance, they allege that police officers who work in large cities and in cities with more trade activity are more likely to engage in corruption. However, this is not entirely true because engaging in corruption is largely a choice, whether a police officer is working in a place where corruption is more likely to happen or in a city with less likelihood of corruption, it is incumbent upon a particular police officer to participate or not.

### 2.2.2 Institutional factors

Traditionally, police corruption is viewed either as an individual phenomenon or as a systemic phenomenon (Van de Bunt, 2004). The New York police, for example, used to view police corruption as cases of individual deviance. This approach changed when the Knapp Commission, after investigating widespread corruption in the NYPD in 1971, came to the conclusion that the 'rotten apple' theory served only to allow senior officers to divert attention away from underlying problems in their forces (Knapp Commission report on police corruption, 1972).

The result was a refocusing on the specifics of police work that make officers vulnerable to corruption. Abandoning the rotten apples theory allowed analysis to focus on the nature and context of police work, identifying the constant factors that allow police officers to pursue their own agenda. Other contributing factors were also highlighted – the necessary discretion in carrying out police functions, the internal solidarity and confidentiality (even by the management), and contacts with criminals.

Other, variable factors that are not inherent to the profession and vary with time, place and culture are just as crucial to the opportunities and pressures that create police corruption (Newburn, 1999: 14). Among such factors are community structures, the organisation of the police force (i.e. hierarchical versus decentralised), their connections to local politics and the level of anti-corruption activities, e.g. the existence of internal corruption investigation departments. According to Newburn (1999: 22-23) police corruption is also affected by the way anti-corruption structures respond to incidental corruption acts and regular corruption activities.

High levels of corruption exists in forces where police officers have demanding responsibilities that are not matched by the remuneration they receive, and where they operate in an environment of secrecy and peer solidarity whilst coming into contact with people who have considerable resources and a strong interest in breaking rules and ethics. These conclusions are partly supported by the experience of the London police: Severe corruption was ended through a radical re-structuring of police pay and work conditions which came into effect in the early 1980s. This massive change in the remuneration of the police also attracted for the first time a wave of better-educated recruits from higher socio-economic backgrounds. It would thus be over-simplistic to argue that pay in itself was the driver.

The above study by Newburn (1999) is critical to this study because it brings out the factors that lead to police corruption and points out that the functionality of the anti-corruption structures are important in curbing police corruption. How they deal with everyday police activities in the police will determine the escalation or de-escalation of the corruption activities in the police. However, the study did not look at the specific forms of police corruption that are prevalent in the police force.

### 2.2.2.1 Fragmentation and operational autonomy

According to Punch (2009), Police forces have a number of different units which have various functions and are usually given the necessary operational autonomy to carry out their work. This, however, builds barriers between them, inhibits cooperation, and may lead to battles between them. The fragmentation and relative autonomy inhibit oversight and effective public accountability. The disjunction occurs between two types of police: the 'street cops' and the management level. Policy and policing strategy are usually designed by management officers

who may have little legitimacy or credibility at street level where the policies and strategies have to be implemented. This results in miscommunication and often deliberate distortion of the intentions of the management. In his book, Punch (2009) highlights the internal problems that occur between the management level police and what he calls street cops. However, he does not outline how this disjunction between the two leads to police corruption and let alone the specific forms of corruption that this study aimed at investigating.

### 2.2.2.2 Contact with offenders

The regular contacts of police officers with offenders or informants increase the risk of lowering their ethical standards of corruption and in extreme cases of involvement in crimes. Moreover, some methods can have unintended consequences, for example when in some high-profile crime areas (drug trafficking or organised crime) undercover work brings officers close to underworld crime figures and large amounts of cash. Another example is the use of controlled delivery, as in the well-known scandal of cooperation between the US Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) and the Amsterdam police in 1994. In an operation countering the illegal drug trade, the DEA engaged in the controlled import of narcotics whereby police agents posed as drug traffickers. The goal was to offer the imported drugs to illegal traders, apprehend them in the process, and recapture the narcotics before they reached the illegal market. The operation failed due to poor oversight, difficult implementation, double-crossing by informants and corruption among customs and police officers. The above publication by the DEA is critical to note in this study because it shows that exposure of police officers to criminal elements might compromise them. However this publication is not comprehensive as it does not give specific numbers of officers who were involved and the circumstances in which they were compromised.

### 2.2.2.3 Other institutional factors

The CSD (2010), in its publication outline some of the factors that lead to police corruption and one of the first ones is; the autonomous networks within the police force. The networks are closed worlds, operating on their own with little, if any, interaction with the rest of the force. Oversight requires extraordinary efforts, while poor control allows deviation from the official duties. Isolation from other social and professional groups explains the higher levels of police corruption in some EU member states. It further points out that poor or missing external oversight allows corruption to slip 'under the radar' and go undetected and/or ignored for

extended periods of time, until a major scandal breaks out. Another factor is the 'Cover your back' policies. This is another manifestation of a disconnection between levels of the hierarchy. Pressure on senior officers to deliver results could make them turn a blind eye to rule-bending by junior officers. If problems arise, the senior officers do not take on the responsibility for any wrongdoing and hide behind the 'rules must be obeyed' slogan. This behaviour might foster further distrust and resentment by junior officers. The publication also brings out the 'Impossible mandate' factor. The primary mission of the police is to reduce criminality, but many other external factors (economic or social) often have a stronger effect on crime than the police. The pressure on the police force to fulfil this mission creates conditions where implementation of the formal code of conduct can be distorted for the 'public good'. Some modes of investigation, especially in relation to organised crime, require a long-term investment of time, personnel and the means to cope with the complexity of the cases they only yield results in the long term. Pressure from superiors to justify those investments can lead to some rule-bending to get things done faster and be able to justify the investment being made.

The above publication is important for this study as it brings out very important factors that lead to police inefficiencies and subsequently police corruption. However, the publication is premised on the European perspective and therefore does not include the Zambian perspective of police corruption.

Establishing the causes of police corruption, Dzhekova (2013), brought out two factors of the general causes of corruption in the police with his study of the European Union countries. These factors can be split into two categories; structural factors (i.e. causes that lie outside the police) and institutional factors (i.e causes that arise within the police itself). Under structural factors, Dzhekova (2013) further argues that the geography of a state or city can also affect the levels of corruption at national or local levels. For instance national capitals, large cities or tourist resorts with their large markets for illicit goods and services usually make law enforcement more vulnerable to corruption pressure than other places. Under institutional factors on the other hand, traditionally, police corruption is viewed either as an individual phenomenon or as a systemic phenomenon.

The study by Dzhekova (2013) is critical for this study to consider because it outlines the general factors that lead to police corruption. It also gives a general perception that the even the police in

Europe grapple with corruption. However his study was limited to the European Union countries and did not look at countries in other regions like Africa and specifically Zambia. .

## 2.3 Corruption in the Police Service: A global perspective

Chafe (1994) in his study shows that before a vice such as police corruption can be understood, it would be prudent to firstly understand the actual phenomena of corruption as an independent cultural and ideological concept. This phenomenon, with its own traits then embodies that of another concept or institution with its on organisational cultures such as policing, to form an entirely different ideology. To this effect, Kolstad, Fritz, and O'Neil (2008: 13) define corruption as "the abuse of entrusted power for private gain". Similarly, Gboyega (1966: defines corruption as "any decision, act or conduct that subverts the integrity of people in authority or institution charged with promoting, defending or sustaining the democratization process".

Stemming from this categorisation of corruption and the expected mandate of the police to safeguard the law, an abuse of that authority mare the very fabrics of the law itself. Under this context, police corruption can be rationalised to encompass more actions of commission and omission by the police which are not limited to monetary corruption, all which are an abrogation of their mandate to protect the interests of the citizens. In the same vein, Hubert Williams (2002) shows in his study that police corruption as an abuse of authority encompasses such actions as arbitrary arrests, judicial killing occasioned by police officers, tampering with witnesses and evidence, theft by officers, as well as the all too common practice of bribery.

Similarly, Klockars (1977) differentiates 'common crimes' from police corruption on the basis of the relationship between the police's mandate and deviance. The study shows that "if police officers steal from the scene of a crime they are called to investigate, they are corrupt". On the other hand, if the police officer steals from their community away from their line of duty, they are simply thieves. This distinction offers an inherent problem that dwells on equality before the law and the remedies of abrogation. While an on-duty officer is subject to lesser reprimands such as forced transfers and suspensions for actions of deviance, an ordinary member of the public would face harsher punishment in comparison to the officer. This in itself encourages the cycle of police corruption in various forms as they are protected by the 'blue veil'.

The above studies and conclusions therefore are of help to the study because they depict the notion that corruption is corruption whether it is done by the police while on duty or off duty which justifies the strong calls for the anti-corruption institutions to be void of interference even from the police so that they carry out their duties effectively.

Williams (2002) also dwells on the inherent culture of corruption in the police by showing the core factors that cause and promote the vice. He shows therefore that a culture of corruption is encouraged or arises from inefficiencies in four areas being "(a) recruitment, training and promotion; (b) resources, such as pay and equipment; (c) systems of accountability within the departments, courts and the law; and (d) cultural traditions that inhibit the development of professional police standards". Barley (2001) also shows that police corruption is so detrimental for the simple fact that the police are granted authority of serving and protecting. When this mandate is not upheld, the vice of police corruption enforces poverty among the poor of the poorest who cannot afford the price of justice, creates inequalities in society between the rich and the poor, and creates mistrust by the public in the justice system as a whole and reduces their affinity towards the law and reporting crimes.

These studies as reviewed on the causation of police corruption and the effects that corruption has, will offer some context into the causes of police corruption and its effects in general and was applied to the case study of Lusaka.

The report by the centre for the study of democracy (2013) reveals that Austria is one of the countries with relatively low levels of corruption and high public confidence in the police. Nevertheless, public outcry over a series of high-profile corruption scandals in recent years shook public institutions, including the police, and forced the government to implement more determined and comprehensive anti-corruption policies. A difference with the British experience is that in Austria no national situational analyses or assessments of police corruption risks have been carried out. The analytical capacity in the field of anticorruption is just beginning to evolve in Austria. Efforts to this effect mainly revolved around the work of the Federal Bureau of Internal Affairs which was established in 2001. However, its standing as the main anti-corruption body was sufficiently recognised by other institutions while the risk of political appointments and interference with its work was still present.

Since 2008, following recommendations by the Council of Europe's anti-corruption advisory group GRECO, Austria has been adjusting the definitions of corruption offences in its Criminal Code and introducing harsher penalties. In 2010, the Federal Bureau of Internal Affairs was reorganised through a special legislative act which introduced the Federal Bureau of anti-Corruption (BAK). The new statutory basis provided BAK with a clearer definition of its mandate, in addition to supplementary provisions securing closer cooperation with other bodies. BAK's mandate combines enforcement with prevention, analysis and monitoring of corruption not only in law enforcement institutions but also in the entire public sector. Its remit includes serious corruption offences, defined by several articles of the Criminal Code, in addition to related economic and financial crimes. The above publication will give a perspective to our study because it gives an indication that even in countries that have very low records of police corruption; reforms are cardinal to ensure that police corruption is rooted out at the earliest possible time. The publication however focuses on Austria a country with less population and therefore the incidences of police corruption are minimal unlike in Zambia where the population is big and hence the probability of corruption is high.

This study also refered to the report on the corruption in the police service in England and wales based on the Independent Police Complaint's Commission (IPCC's) experience from 2008 to 2011. In this report, the police referred to the IPCC 837 cases relating to alleged police corruption over a period of three years. This indicated an increase of police cases reported and referred by about 2.4 per cent from the previous three year period. While police corruption generally happens away from the gaze of the public eyes, this publication indicates that some people experienced it openly. Over a period of three years, local forces recorded a total of 2,692 people making 8542 allegations relating to corruption. The study further concluded that the police needed to embark on a project to educate the public about what constitutes police corruption and that there was need to engage the public and inform them on the progress of the corruption cases that were reported. This publication is important to note in the course of our study as it relates and gives context to the topic at hand. It brings out the statistics of police corruption cases that were reported. The limitation however is that it was done in England and Wales and therefore cannot represent the Zambian case study.

Fisman and Miguel (2007) in their study explored cultural norms and legal enforcement in controlling corruption. The study concentrated on analysing parking behaviour of United Nations officials in Manhattan. The study found out that increase in punishments for parking violations reduced the violations among the set of diplomats, who were most likely to violate the rules. Their study concluded that cultural norms and legal enforcement are both important corruption determinants. Another study by Olken (2007), using random field experimental techniques in examining various ways to reduce corruption in Indonesia, found that theft in road schemes is significantly reduced by increasing the possibility of being caught. The study findings showed that monitoring corruption at grass-roots level is subjected to the problem of free-ride. Overall, the study results indicated that traditional top-down monitoring plays a vital role in corruption reduction, even in a highly corrupt society.

With support from Banerjee, Hanna and Mullainathan (2012), early studies concentrated on anticorruption policies. A study by Klitgaard (1988) provides many case studies of successful elimination of corruption, such as in the Singapore Excise Department, Hong Kong Police Force and the Bureau of Internal Revenue of the Philippines. As indicated by Banerjee et al. (2012), the levers used in the various studies are intuitive from an agency theory perspective (more intense or better monitoring, replacing individual actors). The explored studies seem to involve a person at the top of each institution who was eager to implement these changes. Although the studies spark hope that corruption can be fought, there is an indication that these examples leave lingering questions about why conditions were ripe for these interventions, but not for those elsewhere. An important question to ask is that; should we expect the same consequences of similar anticorruption policies in different settings and different countries like Zambia?

Cohen (1996) argues that the history of American policing is a unique cycle of problem and reform. Once society discovers a problem with the way the police operate, the reform soon follows. Americans have a revolutionary spirit that aims to limit the government. American people are opposed to the establishment of a formal police organization as a result of their distrust of formal authority. However, a free society exists only when laws are enforced and social order is maintained. These aims can only be achieved when a democratic police institution exists (Mutlu, 2000). To even imagine a society without police is ridiculous. Therefore, police conduct must be kept within the limits of the law and the interests of society. Moreover, police

misconduct is no longer simply a local problem. Today, countries have an international image to uphold. The 1991 Rodney King beating by Los Angeles police officers is a good example of how a single police action may negatively affect the image of a country in the eyes of the world. The United Nations has developed standards of behaviour to guide all countries and deter this type of misconduct. In its publications the UN advises officers to comply with international human rights standards (United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1996).

The above studies by Cohen (1996) and Mutlu (2000) give an insight on how effective the police in the United States of America is and how serious that country is in reforming the police if there are any strands of corruption noticed. Their studies however do not document the extent of police corruption and the forms that are prevalent. The studies do not also mention the fact that it is a developed country which can afford the reforms from time to time unlike many developing countries like Zambia.

## 2.4 Corrupt Police Practices in Africa

Transparency International (2014) indicated that nearly 80% of African people live on less than US$2 a day. The report indicated that corruption is one factor perpetuating poverty. Corruption and poverty combine to coerce people to make awkward choices. Underprivileged people often have little access to education and can remain unaware about their privileges, leaving them more easily subjugated and exempted. In order to fight against their social exclusion and marginalisation, poor citizens need a space for dialogue with the authorities.

According to an Afrobarometer report (2013) released in Senegal, corruption in Zimbabwe was found to be at 81 percent while both Egypt and Nigeria were at 82 percent. As indicated by the same report Zimbabwe corruption increased by 43% for the 2002-2012 period, implying that corruption is on the rise and hence more harm to the economy.

As noticed in the Afrobarometer report (2013) corruption is widespread in Africa to the extent that 1 in 5 people indicated that they have paid one or more times for a favour to a government official in the last year. The report added that in 34 countries the public perceive the police and government tax officials to be the most corrupt. The report extended corruption to the whole world. The report singled out the police as the most corrupt government department. Denmark,

Finland and New Zealand were rated as the least corrupt, while Afghanistan, Somalia and North Korea were categorised as the most corrupt in the world.

In establishing the mandate of police officers, Ojo (2000) shows that every society entrusts its affairs of security in the hands of men and women who are sworn to serve and protect the interests of the citizens fairly and just. The police are some of the people that carry out this purpose and their sole mandate is to not only preserve the provisions of constitutions, but to pursue those that are in contradiction with it. He further shows that the difference between a despotic government and a democratic one as well as a corrupt one and one that is transparent and accountable can usually be seen in the manner in which policing is done. Ojo (2000) sees police corruption as a representation of the corruption of not only government as a whole but of society as well. Ojo's conclusions in his study are important to note in this study because it shows among other aspects of policing, the expected conduct and role that police officers are to play in society. The current study benefited from the findings of Ojo (2000) as it further showed how that mandate is marred by corrupt practices occasioned by the police officers.

Similarly, Adebayo and Ojo (2009) in a study of the challenge of effective policing and the need to curb corruption in Nigeria conclude that corruption is so entrenched in the bedrock of the organisation of the Nigerian Police Force and accepted by the society to the extent that it is not only expected of the police to be corrupt, it is seen as a normal occurrence. The extent to which the practice has been culturally normalised by both  the police and the public is evident in the fact that "if personnel of other institutions engage in corruption at all, they do it perhaps with caution while that of the police is done more in the full glare of the public" (Adebayo and Ojo, 2009: 72). The current study will benefit from the two studies under review as they show that a culture of corruption amongst the police officers and the public cannot only reinforce the vice but can normalise it leading to further entrenched levels of corruption.

Oluwatoyin Oluwaniyi in Police and the Institution of Corruption in Nigeria (2011) explore the phenomenon of police corruption, and the inadequacies of policy recommendations in tackling corruption. Oluwaniyi focuses on the failure of the Police Force in fulfilling its constitutional role as "a major institution charged with the responsibilities of preventing crime, protecting life and property, enforcing law and order, and maintaining peace and order and regulatory activities" (2011:68). She argues that these responsibilities are denuded due to corrupt motives

and activities on the part of police personnel. She further identifies several forces that are at work in institutionalizing corruption, namely leadership problems, greed, fear of poverty, discontentment, easy access to arms and ammunition, lack of accountability and transparency.

Furthermore, Oluwaniyi successfully analyses people's perceptions of police corruption and its consequences for citizens and the Nigerian state. She recommends a total reformation of the police sector. Such reforms include an increase in salary that would reduce extortion and bribery. Punishment of corrupt people must be based upon the severity of crime committed. Accountability and transparency should be enforced with the utmost regard for the rule of law and justice in order to reduce the opportunities that perpetrators of corruption (and their accomplices) have to engage in corrupt practices. In this work, attention is given to the institutional reforms required to enhance better service in the police force.

In a thesis by Agbemabiesse Eyram, An Assessment of the Operations of Police Officers in Ghana: A Case Study of Police Officers at the Cantonments Station (2011), Eyram points out that the major causes of poor operation in the police service include poor leadership skills, lack of training, lack of financial support from the government, and bad working conditions among other factors.

To support the argument, Eyram analyses the effects of poor police operation in Ghanaian society, and suggests that the police service is an institution which is long overdue for rebranding and which needs to be changed in order to restore a better public image. The central argument in the thesis is that the police service must build a new name with the intention of developing a differentiated position in the minds of Ghanaians. In order to achieve improved police performance, she recommends some strategies such as full professionalism in leadership through further training, a ticketing system whereby tickets with a specific financial penalty based on the offence committed are issued to offenders. In addition, police officers may have to be given a certain percentage of the amount; this will serve as a way of encouraging them to be proactive in checking the bribery and corrupt activities among the force. The thesis tends to be narrowly focused on the operations of police officers in cantonments, their functions, and organizational structure. The approach is relevant to the present study as it identifies possible solutions for improvements in the way police perform their civic duties.

Akpunonu-Ogu (2014) conducted a study on corruption in the police force in Nigeria: an afro-centric ethical critique. According to her findings the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), in spite of the major role they are required to play in protecting the public and in the maintenance of law and order, are often viewed by the public as a corrupt institution. This is because there are daily reports in the media of abuse by the police. The corrupt practices within the police department in Nigeria is so endemic that despite the numerous efforts made by the government in policy and regulatory control, corruption remains difficult to manage.

The failure of the government strategies to reduce corruption makes the issue of police misconduct an ethical challenge. The researcher's findings in this study were that the various anti-corruption strategies have not touched the core of society, considering the extent of police corruption in recent times. The researcher argued that there is need for policy makers to extend the search for the solution to traditional culture to see if whether it offers certain values that can challenge corruption in the contemporary Nigerian Police Force. In other words, there was a need to explore other approaches that have the potential to contribute values that will be effective in reducing police corruption.

Bonga, Chiminya and Mudzingiri (2014), in their study "An Explanatory Analysis of Social and Economic Effects of Corruption in Zimbabwe" indicated that corruption is a complex social phenomenon, which in addition to political and economic factors, also has deeply rooted cultural causes and social traditions which largely determine its existence and extent. The paper expertly discussed various corruption definitions, corruption impact to economic development, the probability of corruption detection and possible ways to minimise corruption. The study indicated that the onus to reduce corruption is everyone's business. Hence the study outlined various ways that may be followed by individuals, the government, business and anti-corruption bodies to reduce the level of corruption.

In September 2013, the Anti-Corruption Trust (ACT) of Southern Africa published another damning report citing high levels of corruption in Zimbabwe, particularly in the diamond mining sector. Some of the corruption cases cited by ACT are the War Victims Compensation Fund, Zimbabwe Iron and Steel Company (ZISCO) scandal, VIP housing scam and the Zimbabwe United Passenger Company (ZUPCO) scam, amongst others. The report revealed that in most cases the culprits (mostly top government officials) were not brought to book. This publication

will be useful in relation to this study because it shows how deep rooted corruption is in public institutions. It shows that corruption is not confined to the elite nor is it confined to the subordinates in government institutions with the police being one of the public institutions. It however does not talk about the police corruption directly.

Zimbabwe and Angola are the two Southern African countries that fared the worst in TI's Corruption Perception Index for 2003 (Johannesburg, 8 October 2003- IRIN). The CPI charts show the level of corruption in 133 countries and ranks them according to a CPI score built on perceptions of the intensity of corruption, ranging from 10 (highly clean) to 0 (highly corrupt), by business people, risk analysts and academics. Zimbabwe and Angola faired worst in the ranks, with CPI scores of 2.3 and 1.8 and respectively, followed by Zambia (2.5), Madagascar (2.6), Mozambique (2.7) and Malawi (2.8).

A study by Mwithi (2007) entitled; "Mitigating corruption in the Kenyan Judiciary: A case study of the Legal and Administrative Anti-Corruption Framework" provided valuable information as he pointed out that corruption in the judiciary system has been the downfall of the Kenyan government since independence. The study concluded that the current reforms that the government had embarked on were not sufficient in mitigating corruption in the judiciary. The study recommends that certain political, socio-economic, cultural and individual incentives be introduced within the legal and administrative framework of the judiciary. These incentives include individual punishment, leniency, whistleblowing mechanisms, asymmetric punishment and public awareness and education. These measures will serve as means of deterrence and education to supplement the existing anti-corruption framework of the judiciary and mitigate corruption. This study was helpful for this study because it brought out the interventions that could be used to curb corruption in a public institution like the judiciary. However, the study was not based on police corruption but it focused on the judiciary.

## 2.5 Police Corruption in Zambia

Ndulo (2014) recognises the important role the police play in the fight against corruption. He notes that the fight against corruption is negated by among others the tedium of court processes, lack of funding for the police and political interference in corruption cases. In short, what Ndulo suggests is that the police corruption that is witnessed in the society is perpetrated by the systems

and the people that run them. According to him, if the police are given enough resources, latitude and are adequately supported, police corruption would significantly reduce. Chene (2014) further offers an insight into the problem of corruption in Zambia and its main players. She argues that corruption in public institutions is primarily driven by the Zambian Police Service, seconded by the education system and lastly the health sector. The study primarily focuses on bribery as a form of corruption which is rife in the aforementioned sectors of the public service.

The arguments by Ndulo (2014) were critical for this study in understanding the operation of the police and it gave several insights on how most people are quick to point at the corruption by the police without considering the factors that lead to the same corruption. He further gives a perspective that most developing countries, Zambia inclusive does not allocate enough funds to the police and do not generally support and strengthen the institutions that the police operate in and this leads to the corruption we see. However, he does not look at the different forms of corruption that police officers are involved in and he does not put into consideration that even in developed countries where the police are fully supported and adequately funded, police corruption is still present and therefore there is no guarantee that if the police are adequately funded, there would be no corruption.

According to the Zambia Corruption Report (2020) the development of Zambia's business environment is hindered by corruption and a weak institutional framework. Companies encounter red tape and rampant bribery in all business operations, including company registration, obtaining a construction permit, setting up utilities, and paying taxes. As a result of the inefficient and corrupt judicial system, foreign investors' property rights are not accurately protected nor enforced. In addition, international trade is impeded by pervasive corruption and crime in Zambia's customs. Companies regularly pay kickbacks and bribes in the tendering process for government contracts. Zambia's Anti-Corruption Act prohibits corruption, extortion, bribery of a foreign public official, abuse of office and money laundering. Zambia's legislation does not address facilitation payments and the maximum allowable value of gifts or hospitality is not clearly regulated. Enforcement of Zambia's anti-corruption legislation is lacking.

## 2.5.1 Judicial System

Corruption risks are high in Zambia's judiciary. Bribes and irregular payments in return for favorable judicial decisions are common (GCR 2015-2016). A third of Zambians believe that most or all judges are corrupt (GCB 2015). The judiciary lacks independence and companies have insufficient confidence in the efficiency of the legal framework to settle disputes and challenge government regulations (GCR 2017-2018). Many prosecutions and court decisions are perceived to be politically motivated (Fit W 2017). Allegations of corruption involving members of the judiciary have called into questions the judgments in a variety of important commercial cases and many attempts at reforming the constitution and the judiciary have all ended in failure and further that the judiciary lacks the resources to prosecute cases in a timely manner, causing lengthy delays (BTI 2016). Courts are often inexperienced in the commercial litigation and that the enforcement of contractual and property rights is weak (ICS 2017). It is slightly faster and cheaper to enforce a contract in Zambia compared to the regional average (DB 2017). Zambia is a state party to the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) and the African Union Convention on Preventing and Combatting Corruption. The above publications were critical for information in this study although they did not talk directly about police corruption. However, the judiciary and the police work in tandem and therefore this information was useful.

## 2.5.2 Public Services

There is a moderate to high risk of corruption in Zambia's public services sector. Bribes and irregular payments are sometimes exchanged when applying for public utilities (GCR 2015-2016). One in ten companies report expecting to give gifts to public officials in order "to get things done", including obtaining an operating license, while nearly half of businesses expect to give gifts when obtaining a water connection (ES 2013). A third of Zambians perceives local government officials as corrupt (GCB 2015). Zambia's bureaucracy is inefficient and overstaffed, in part due to the replacement of a large majority of civil servants by politically connected individuals who often-times lack the required skills and experience to perform well in their positions. Moreover, the regulatory framework has many weaknesses; some red tape has been cut recently, but it remains a big problem (ICS 2017).

Starting a business in Zambia takes seven steps, which is in line with the regional average, but the time required is only a third of the average in the region. Obtaining a construction permit in

Zambia takes fewer steps and requires slightly more time compared to the regional average (DB, 2017).

### 2.5.3 Land Administration

There is a high risk of corruption in Zambia's land administration. Zambia's land administration is one of the most corrupted institutions in the country (ZBPI, 2014). Property rights are generally adequately defined in urban areas, unlike in rural ones (BTI, 2016), but the implementation of these rights faces many practical challenges (ICS, 2017). Property rights enforcement in the courts is weak and court decisions can take a long time to be finalized (ICS, 2017). Land titles are sometimes questioned and re-titled to another owner (ICS, 2017). Expropriation, with compensation at a fair market rate, is allowed under Zambian law; however, the procedure to establish fair market value is ill-defined (ICS, 2017). Leased land, for which 99 year leases are granted, may revert to the government if it is established that the land has remained undeveloped after a certain amount of time (generally five years) (ICS, 2017). Allegations exist that persons with political connections use their clout in illegal land dealings (Zambia Daily Mail Limited, Jul. 2017). The amount of steps required to register property in Zambia is in line with the regional average but the time required to register property in Zambia is less than the regional (DB, 2017).

### 2.5.4 Legislation

Zambia's Anti-Corruption Act is the principal anti-corruption law; however, it lacks implementation (ICS, 2017). It criminalizes attempted corruption, active and passive bribery, extortion, bribing a foreign official, abuse of office, and money laundering. Corruption is punishable by a fine, forfeiture of any benefit gained from the corruption offense, including money, and a prison term of up to fourteen years. Corporate bodies, unincorporated bodies, managers, and directors may be held liable for corruption offenses under the Anti-Corruption Act, nevertheless, sanctions are not specified (UNODC, 2013). Bribery of foreign public officials is prohibited by law. Private sector bribery is criminalized by the Act as well. The Prohibition and Prevention of Money Laundering Act criminalize money laundering, increases penalties for financial crimes, and requires financial institutions to report suspicious transactions. It also allows the seizure of assets in cases related to money laundering. Zambian public officials are not subject to financial disclosure laws. The Parliamentary and Ministerial Code of Conduct Act

prohibits ministers from soliciting or accepting transfers of economic benefit other than those of nominal value, including hospitality and gifts, and gifts from family members. There are, however, no requirements for registration of gifts and the maximum value of allowed gifts or hospitality is not set. Zambia lacks adequate regulations on facilitation payments and freedom of information. The Public Interest Disclosure Act provides legal protection for civil servants or private sector employees reporting cases of corruption, but the law does not adequately protect whistleblowers (ICS, 2017).

Zambia has ratified the United Nations Convention against Corruption and the African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption. Zambia is also party to the OECD Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions.

## 2.6 Research Gap

While the general causes of corruption have been subjected to a number of studies, the specific causes of police corruption have been much less rigorously examined. The main reason is the lack of reliable data: Many types of police corruption are not amenable to study through public surveys (such as those of Euro barometer or Transparency International). Police corruption in the US and in Western Europe has been exposed by media investigations and as a spill-over from political scandals which shows that cases of misuse of public office at the highest levels, in addition to cases of police corruption related to serious and organised crime, are almost inaccessible to traditional research instruments and have not been effectively analysed by anti-corruption departments. It is clear from the above that some works have been published, focusing on the sociological impact of police misconduct and making recommendations on how to reduce the growing corrupt practices within the force. However, none of these studies reviewed investigated the nature of corruption cases police officers are involved in, in selected police stations and posts in Lusaka district.

## 2.7 Summary

Reviewed literature has shown that many studies have been done on police corruption. Most studies reviewed have mainly concentrated on the causes of police corruption and interventions that have been done to curb the vice. However, limited information is available on the particular

forms of corruption that police officers are involved in. This study attempted to fill the identified gap by investigating the nature of corrupt practices police officers are involved in. The next chapter describes the methodology used to achieve the research purpose.

# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the methodological approaches to be adopted by this study. It shows the research design, target population study sample, sampling procedures and techniques, data collection instruments and procedures, data analysis as well as ethical considerations.

## 3.2 Research design

Research design is the overall plan that one chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring that the research question is effectively addressed. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (De Vaus, 2001). In other words, a research design is a plan that guides decisions about when and how to collect data, what data to gather, from whom and how to analyse it (Mukumbwa, 2010). Burns (2003: 195) view a research design as a plan or roadmap that points out to the manner in which a study is to be done with the view of retaining a high level of control over the data collected. A research design stipulates the nature of the data to be collected, as well as the best tools that can be used to collect the said data as well as analyse it. This research undertaking

employed qualitative methods of research in order to meet its set objectives. In defining a qualitative research, Creswell (2013:46) states that it is "one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings that socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern"

This study utilized a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods approach is the general term applied when both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design (Saunders et al, 2009). It is subdivided into two types. Firstly, the mixed method research that uses quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential), but does not combine them. Although the mixed method research uses both quantitative and qualitative world views at the research methods stage, quantitative data are analysed quantitatively and

qualitative data are analysed qualitatively. Secondly, there is a mixed-model research that combines quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures as well as combining quantitative and qualitative approaches at other phases of the research such as research question generation. This means that one may take quantitative data and qualitise it or convert it into narrative that can be analysed qualitatively. Alternatively, one may quantitise their qualitative data by converting it into numerical codes so that it can be analysed statistically.

Saunders et al. (2009) identified several advantages of using a multi-method approach in research. They included:

i.  Triangulation - Use of two or more independent sources of data or data collection methods to corroborate research findings within a study. Olsen (2004) defined triangulation as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints can cast light on a topic. She added that data triangulation is often thought to help in validating the claims that arise from an initial pilot study. She further added that triangulation generally is not merely aimed at validation, but deepening and widening the researchers understanding on the study subject or topic. The more profound form of triangulation is the mixing of methodologies, for instance, mixing the use of survey data with interviews as the case was in this study;

ii.  Facilitation - Use of one data collection method or research strategy to aid research using another data collection method or research strategy within a study.

iii.  Complementarity - Use of two or more research strategies in order that different aspects of an investigation can be dovetailed;

iv.  Generality - Use of independent source of data to contextualise main study or use quantitative analysis to provide sense of relative importance;

v.  Aid interpretation - Use of qualitative data to help explain relationships between quantitative variables;

vi.  Study different aspects - Quantitative to look at macro aspects and qualitative to look at micro aspects; and

vii.  Solving a puzzle - Use of an alternative data collection method when the initial method reveals unexplainable results or insufficient data.

Because of the above reasons, this study employed a questionnaire survey and interviews in order to achieve the aim and objectives of the research.

## 3.3 Research Strategy

Research strategy is a general plan of how a researcher goes about answering the research questions. It contains clear objectives, specific sources of data, and considers the constraints. Saunders et al. (2009) identified eight research strategies which include experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnography, action research, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies and exploratory, descriptive and explanatory studies. Saunders et al. (2009) emphasised that no research strategy is inherently superior or inferior to any other. Consequently, what is most important is not the label that is attached to a particular strategy, but whether it will enable one to answer their particular research question(s) and meet their objectives. The choice of a research strategy is guided by the research question(s) and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available, as well as one's own philosophical underpinnings. Finally, it was noted that these strategies should not be thought of as being mutually exclusive.

In this study, three research strategies were applied namely survey approach, interviews and case studies.

## 3.3.1 Survey

Saunders et al. (2009) noted that the survey strategy is usually associated with the deductive approach. It is a popular and common strategy and is most frequently used to answer who, what, where, how much and how many questions. It therefore tends to be used for exploratory and descriptive research. Surveys are popular as they allow the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way. Often obtained by using a questionnaire administered to a sample, these data are then standardised which allows easy comparison. In addition, the survey strategy is perceived as authoritative by people in general and is both comparatively easy to explain and to understand. The survey approach has the potential of being biased. However, it allows the researcher to have more control over the research process. One other major disadvantage of this approach is that it may be time consuming and largely depends on the goodwill of the respondents.

In this study, a questionnaire survey was used to collect primary data from the police service as well as the community on corrupt practices among police officers in the Zambia Police Service. This data collection technique was used in order to capture as much needed information as possible. As such structured, non-structured, open-ended and closed-ended questions were used in the questionnaires.

**3.4 Target population and Sample Size**

A sample is a small part of anything which is intended to stand for, or represent, the whole (Wellington, 2015). The full set of cases from which a sample is taken is called the population (Saunders et al., 2009). For some research questions, it is possible to collect data from an entire population as it is of a manageable size. The need for sampling arises because of the following reasons among others: It may be impracticable for the researcher to survey the entire population, budget constraints may prevent a researcher from surveying the entire population, time constraints may also prevent one from surveying the entire population and the need to have results ready despite collecting data from the whole population may force a researcher to consider only a representative sample of a population.

The target population for this undertaking were the police officers in six selected Police Stations and posts in Lusaka District. Another niche of the district's population were the members of the public residing within the district.

Sample size refers to the portion of a larger population of interest which can either be studied or is accessible. The total sample of respondents that were approached was 126. This comprised of 60 police officers (which will consisted of 10 police officers from each station or post), 6 command officers (one from each police station or post) as well as 60 members of the public (10 from each community around the police station or post). However, this sample was subject to revision on the basis of saturation. Point of saturation refers to a point in research inquiry of subjects at which no new information can arise from the inquiry rendering the continued addition of subjects purely for higher validity purposes (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

## 3.5 Sampling Techniques

Generalisations about populations from data collected using any probability sample is based on statistical probability. The larger the sample's size the lower the likely error in generalizing to the population. Probability sampling is therefore a compromise between the accuracy of your findings and the amount of time and money you invest in collecting, checking and analysing the data. The most important aspect of a probability sample is that it represents the population. A perfect representative sample is one that exactly represents the population from which it is taken. Five main techniques can be used to select a probability sample including simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster and multi-stage sampling.

Further, due to the intensive nature of fieldwork, convenience sampling on a non-probability basis may be the only option open to a project or an individual. This may also help to overcome the problem of access or gaining entry. Non-probability sampling also includes purposive sampling and snowball sampling. Both can be valuable in following up contacts, checking data from similar organizations and generally exploring the field. Purposive sampling, as its name implies, involves using or making a contact with a specific purpose in mind. 'Snowball' sampling, in a sense, follows from this, although it may not always be purposive, e.g. it may be involved with the problem of gaining access if one interviewee suggests another willing and valuable contact worth following up.

The study employed convenient and purposive sampling in selecting informants or respondents for this study. Tongco (2007: 147) shows that purposive sampling "is most effective when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with knowledgeable experts within". The cultural domain under study is that of corruption in the police force and the police officers will represent the knowledgeable experts within this niche. The members of the public were selected randomly using a convenient sampling selection process so as to establish their perceptions of police corruption and its nature.

## 3.6 Data collection Instruments

Data used in research is categorised into two main categories namely primary and secondary data. Primary data is data originally collected for a specific research goal while secondary data is

data that was originally collected for a different purpose and reused for another research question (Blaxter et al., 2010).

Primary data can be obtained using such data collection tools as questionnaires, interviews, diaries and observation. On the other hand, secondary data can be collected from a variety of sources such as books, journals and periodicals, reports, newspapers and electronic sources such as the internet and CD-ROMS (Mwiya, 2009).

The study employed a structured interview guide in order to engage the respondents and collect their views on the subject matter. Creswell (2003: 8) notes that by utilising interviews though open-ended questions as an instrument of data collection, the researcher allows the respondent to give an in-depth response from their experience from which the researcher can draw emerging themes from. The instrument will be tailored for the three sub categories of respondents to be interviewed namely; the police officers from police stations, central command officials, as well as members of the public.

Another tool that was utilised herein this research is document review. These documents were of both primary and secondary nature. The chief primary sources to be consulted were newspapers as well as police and court generated proceedings of police corruption cases. Secondary sources that were consulted included published books as well as Journals.

### 3.6.1 Questionnaires

One key instrument used in the collection of primary data is a questionnaire. The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse (Cohen et al., 2007). It is the responsibility of the researcher to judge the appropriateness of using a questionnaire for data collection, and, if so, what kind of questionnaire it will be.

There are three basic types of questionnaires namely: closed-ended, open-ended or a combination of both (Dawson, 2007). Open-ended questionnaires are questionnaires do not contain boxes for the respondents to tick, instead leaves a blank section for the respondent to write in an answer. Open-ended questionnaires are used in qualitative research, although some

researchers will quantify the answers during the analysis stage. Since there are no standard answers to the questions in open-ended questionnaires, data analysis is usually more complex than in closed ended questionnaires (Dawson, 2007).

Closed-ended questionnaires on the other hand, are those that provide a limited number of answers for the respondents to choose from, leaving no room for additional information to be volunteered. Advantages of closed-ended questionnaires include greater precision, uniformity, easier recall for the respondent, easier coding and easier analysis than open-ended ones.

Cohen et al. (2007) commented that though there is a large range of types of questionnaire, there is a simple rule of thumb namely: the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, and the smaller the size of the sample, the less structured, more open and word-based the questionnaire may be. Highly structured, closed questions are useful in that they can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and analysis. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample.

Many researchers tend to use a combination of both open and closed questions. In this study, a semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect survey information on various aspects of the impact of awarding major construction contracts to foreign firms in Zambia. The questionnaire used a combination of both open and closed questions in order to capture as much information as possible.

### 3.7 Data Analysis

Sullivan (2001) opined that data analysis can be the most challenging and interesting aspect of research. It refers to deriving meaning from the data that had been collected in a study. Data analysis assumes many forms. Quantitative data analysis involves the use of statistical methods to assemble, classify, analyze and summarize the data to derive meaning.

The data collected was transformed into a form appropriate for manipulation and analysis. The data gathered from the questionnaire was edited to ensure completeness, consistency and accuracy. Data collected was analyzed through the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software and Microsoft Excel. In analyzing the data, frequency and descriptive tables

were used as analytical tools. Quantitative explanations were made of quantitative data to give meaning to them as well as explain their implications.

The data collected in this study was arranged and analysed thematically. The themes that emerged from both literature and interviews were presented descriptively.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis of the data gathered from the field study on the topic "Investigation into the nature of corrupt practices in the Zambian Police Services: A study of six (6) selected Police stations and posts in Lusaka district". The analysis was aimed at validating the research questions in order to achieve the objectives of the research. This chapter focuses on presenting data in form of tables and graphs, analysing trends and estimation of the statistical model. The chapter will present summary statistics, results of relevant test undertaken in the study and final results to be used to conclude the study.

## 4.2 Response Rate

The study failed to meet its target response of 126 participants, and however achieved a 77.5% which the study deems equal representation. This response rate was as a result of only 93 successfully filled in and returned out of the 126 distributed questionnaires. About 27 questionnaires were considered spoiled by way of not completely filled in and returned and hence could not be accepted for analysis. Out of these 93 returned questionnaires 50 belonged to the members of the 6 sampled communities while from the police officers only 43 were returned.

## 4.3 Demographics of Community Respondents

**Table 4.1 Gender of Respondents**

|       |        | Frequency | Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------|
| Valid | Male   | 39        | 78      |
|       | Female | 11        | 22      |
|       | **Total** | **50** | **100** |

*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

The study targeted to collect data from 60 community respondents from the targeted 6 townships. The study only managed to collect data from 50 respondents. However, from the findings in Table 4.1 above 22% (11) of the respondents were female while 78% (39) were males. This depicts that majority of the respondents were males.

**4.1.2 Age of Respondents**

From Table 4.2 below the highest frequency of respondents who participated in the study was of those between the age of 40 to 50 years recording 16 out of the sampled 50 respondents. The least frequency was 9 of those who were above 50 years old.

**Table 4.2 Age of Respondents**

|  | Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age | Below 30yrs | 15 | 30 |
|  | 30 – 39yrs | 10 | 20 |
|  | 40 – 50yrs | 16 | 32 |
|  | 50+ | 9 | 18 |
|  | **Total** | **50** | **100** |

*Source: Field Survey 2021*

**4.3.1 Community Respondents' Occupation**

The researcher next sought to establish the occupation of the respondents. From the submissions made by the respondents, the majority (34%) were informally employed followed by those who were doing business at 30%. 22% were formally employed while 14% were students in tertiary institutions. Occupation of the respondent somewhat had influence on their perception of corruption by public officers. The data figures are shown in Figure 4.1 below.

**Figure 4.1 Occupation of Respondents**



**Occupation of Respondents**

Tertiary Student 14%

Formal Employment 22%

Business 30%

Informal Employment 34%
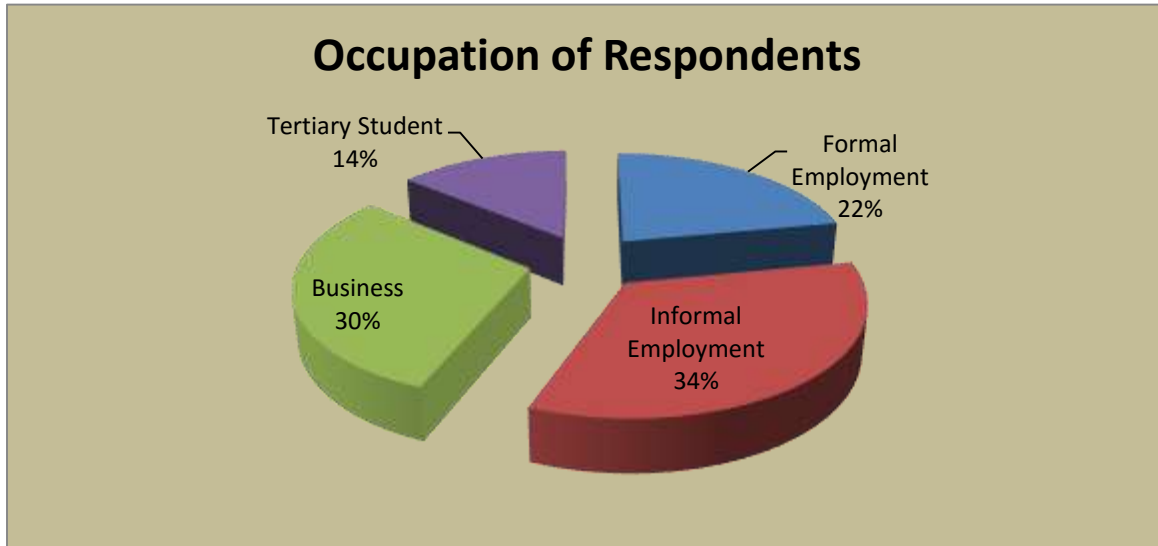
*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

**4.4 Demographics of Police Officers**

**4.4.1 Gender of Police Officers**

From the findings Table 4.3 below 39.5% of the respondents were female while 60.5% were male. This depicts that majority of the respondents were male police officers.

**Table 4.3 Gender of Respondents**

|       |        | Frequency | Percent |
|-------|--------|-----------|---------|
| Valid | Male   | 26        | 60.5    |
|       | Female | 17        | 39.5    |
|       | **Total** | **43** | **100** |

*ource: Filed Data, 2021*

**4.4.2 Age of Police Officers**

From Table 4.4 below the highest frequency of the police respondents who participated in the study was of those between the age of 40 and 50 years recording 44.2% out of the sampled 43 respondents. The least frequency was 7% representing those who were above 50 years old.

**Table 4.4 Age of Police Respondents**

|  | Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age | Below 30yrs | 10 | 23.2 |
|  | 30 – 39yrs | 11 | 25.6 |
|  | 40 – 50yrs | 19 | 44.2 |
|  | 50+ | 3 | 7 |
|  | **Total** | **50** | **100** |

*Source: Field Survey 2021*

**4.4.3 Rank of Police Officer**

The findings in Figure 4.2 below revealed that 44% who were majority of the respondents were sergeants while 35% were inspector with constables standing at 21%. Rank of an officer would further determine respondents' interpretation and answering of questions during the sampling.

**Figure 4.2 Rank of Police Respondents**



**Rank of Police Respondents**

Inspector 35%
Constable 21%
Sergeant 44%
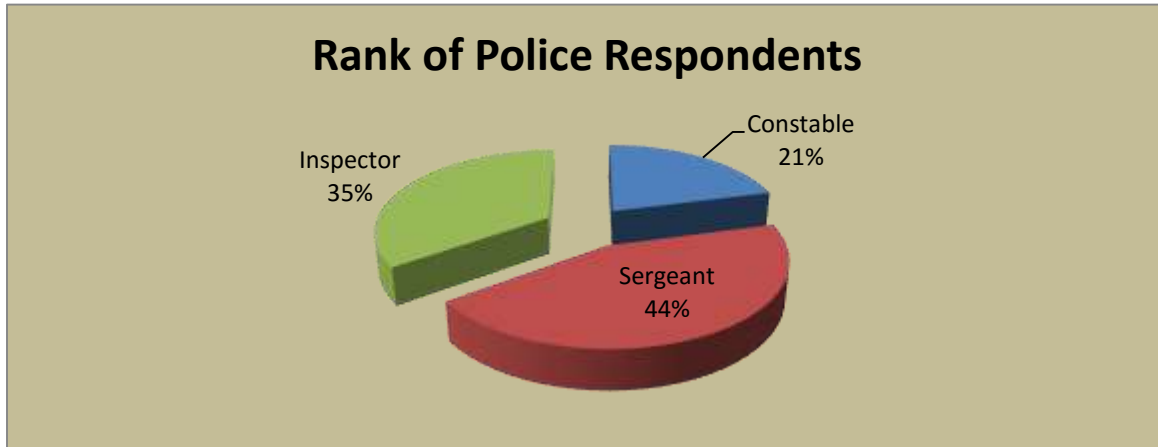
*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

### 4.4.4 Period of Work in the Police Service

The period for which a person has worked in the police service is also important to factor in when assessing their perception of performance and its effect on performance, as such, from the 43 respondents 6 worked below 2 years representing 13.9% with 18.6% having worked between 3-6 years while 18.6% worked between 6-10 years". The highest were those who worked for a period between 11 – 15 years representing 27.9%. Those who worked for more than 15 years recorded 16.2%. The responses are presented in Table 4.5 below.

**Table 4.5 Period of Service in Police Service**

| Period | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Below  2 years | 6 | 13.9 |
| 3 - 6  years | 8 | 18.6 |
| 6 - 10  years | 12 | 27.9 |
| 11 – 15 years | 10 | 23.3 |
| Above 15 years | 7 | 16.2 |
| **Total** | **43** | **100** |

**4.4.5 Department/Section Attached to**

The researcher wanted to establish the departments the respondents were attached to. From the findings presented in Figure 4.3 below, the majority of the respondents were from the Traffic Section recording 44% of the 43 sampled officers. It was followed by 35% who were from the Crime Investigations Department (CID) while those who were attached to General Duties recording 21% participation.

**Figure 4.3 Department/Section Attached to**
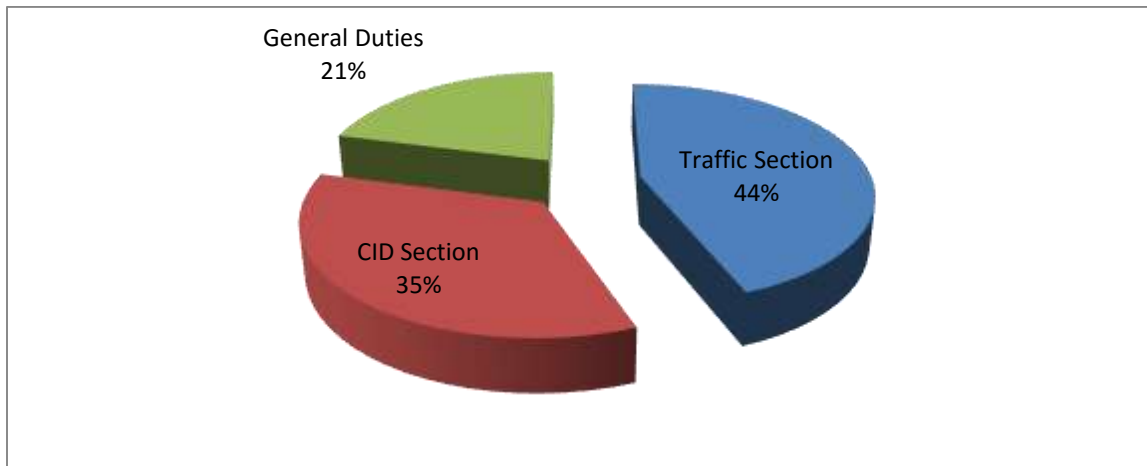


**4.4.6 Other Sources of Income**

All police officers are Civil Servants. They receive their salaries from the Government of Zambia. However, the researcher wanted to establish if there were other sources of income the respondents had beside their monthly salary from the Police Service. The responses presented in Figure 4.4 show that 67% (29) of the respondents did not have other sources of income besides the salary form the Police Service. However, 33% (14) indicated that they had other sources of income. The data is presented in Figure 4.4 below.

**Figure 4.4 Other Sources of Income**
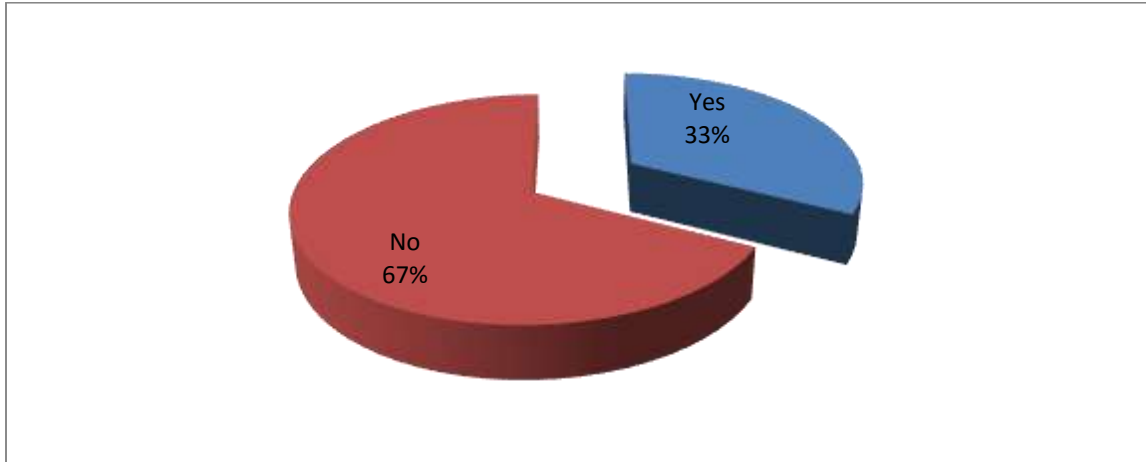


## 4.5 Forms of police corruption in Zambia

The first objective of the study was to establish the nature of corruption cases by police officers that is prevalent in Lusaka district. Both the community respondents as well as the police respondents were asked to state their level of agreement regarding the forms of police corruption in Zambia.

Initially, both community and police respondents were asked if they have ever encountered, as members of the community, a corrupt practice with a police officer or in their line of duty as police officers. All 83 participants indicated that they are aware of the existence of corruption in Zambia. Such results will empower the study to proceed and analyse the nature of corruption in the district given its existence confirmation by the participants. To determine the intensity of corruption in the district, participants were allowed to rate the intensity on a scale 1 – 3, with 1 being to a Great Extent, 2 being Moderate, and 3 being Little Extent. Different responses were obtained on the scale depending on how one observes corrupt activities in the district. The ratings are tabulated below.

From the data presented below 94% of the respondents indicated that bribery and extortion by the police officers existed to a great extent while 6% indicated the bribery and extortion by the police officers existed as a form of corrupt police practice in the Zambia Police Service to a moderate extent.

13% of the respondents indicated that illegal arrest and bail charges existed to a great extent while 77% indicated moderate extent. However, 10% of the respondent indicated that illegal arrest and bail charges to a little extent existed in the Zambia police Service. Further, 92% of the respondents indicated that mismanagement among administrative officers existed as form of corrupt practice to a little extent in the Zambia Police Service. 6% indicated that this form of corruption existed in the Zambia Police Service to a moderate extent with 2% going for great extent.

Regarding embezzlement of funds as a form corrupt police practice, 10% of the respondents indicated that this practice existed in the Zambia Police Service to a great extent, 32% indicated that it only existed to a moderate extent while 58% indicated that this practice existed in the Zambia Police Service to a little extent. Lastly, majority of the respondents (82%) indicated that false traffic charges was a common practice by police officers. 18% of the respondents indicated that false traffic charges existed to a moderate extent in the Zambia Police Service.

**Table 4.6 Forms of police corruption in Zambia**

| Forms of police corruption in Zambia | Great Extent | Moderate Extent | Little Extent |
|---|---|---|---|
| | % | % | % |
| Bribery and extortion by the police officers | 94 | 6 | - |
| Illegal arrest and bail charges | 13 | 77 | 10 |
| Mismanagement among administrative officers | 2 | 6 | 92 |
| Embezzlement of funds | 10 | 32 | 58 |
| False traffic charges | 82 | 18 | - |

*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

**4.6 Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption**

It is very crucial to understand what drives people to engage in corrupt activities. This will help in designing solutions to curb corruption. The second specific objective of the study was to establish the reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption.

The table below shows how participants value the deriving factors to corrupt activities (statistics are considered up to third rankings). The first ranking being "Yes", 2 being "Not Really", and 3 being "Not At All". From the data presented below, 94% of the respondents indicated that corrupt political leadership contributed to corrupt practices amongst police officers with 6% indicating as not really to be the reason why police officers involved themselves in corrupt practices. 91% indicated that poor remuneration and conditions of Service was one of the reasons why corrupt practices existed amongst police officers. However, 6% indicated that this was not really the reason why police officers got involved in corrupt police practices with 3% stating that this did not contribute to police corrupt practices.

Further, regarding unchecked Power contributing to corrupt practices amongst police officers, 94% indicated that this was one of the reasons why police officers got involved in corrupt practices. 6% indicated that this was not really a reason why the police got involved in corrupt practices. Majority of the respondents (96%) indicated that lack of deterrence contributed to corrupt practices amongst police officers while 4% indicated that this reason did not really contribute to police officers involving themselves in corruption. 89% of the respondents indicated that pressure from police Administration was the reason that led to corrupt practices amongst police officers while 9% indicated that this reason did not contribute to corrupt practices among police officers with 2% indicating that this did not at all lead police officers to get involved in corruption.

Family Commitments contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers was considered to be another reason why some police officers got involved in corrupt practices. 35% of the respondents indicated in affirmation, with 48% indicating that this was not really a reason to getting involved in corruption while 17% indicated that this did not at all contribute to corrupt police practices. 77% of the respondents indicated that greed by police officers was one of the reasons why police officers were involved in corrupt practices. 15% indicated that this was not really a reason to police corruption while 8% indicated that this did not at all contribute to police corruption.

Lastly, it was indicated by 80% of the respondents that Police recruitment and training contributed to corrupt practices amongst police officers while 18% indicated that this did not really contribute to some getting involved in corruption. However, 2% indicated that this did not

at all contribute to police officers getting involved in corrupt practices. 92% of the respondents indicated that lack of accountability contributed to corrupt practices amongst police officers with 8% indicating that this did not really influence corrupt practices amongst some police officers. And regarding police officers' involvement in partisan politics to be a reason why corrupt practices exist amongst police officers, 94% indicated with a "yes" as one of the reasons why some police officers were involved in corrupt practices. 4% indicated that this was not really a reason with 2% indicating that this was not a reason at all as to why some officers were involved in corrupt practices.

**Table 4.7 Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption**

| Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption | Yes | Not Really | Not At All |
|---|---|---|---|
| | % | % | % |
| Corrupt political leadership contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 94 | 6 | - |
| Poor remuneration and Conditions of Service contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 91 | 6 | 3 |
| Unchecked Power contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 94 | 6 | - |
| Lack of deterrence contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 96 | 4 | - |
| Pressure from police Administration contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 89 | 9 | 2 |
| Family Commitments contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 35 | 48 | 17 |
| Greed by police officers contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 77 | 15 | 8 |
| Police recruitment and training contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 80 | 18 | 2 |
| Lack of accountabilitycontributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 92 | 8 | - |

| Involvement in partisan politics contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers | 94 | 4 | 2 |
|---|---|---|---|

*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

As shown by Table 4.7 above, various reasons contribute to the inability of corruption cases to be left unidentified. In supporting their submissions regarding the reasons in the table above, most respondents indicated that nobody can prove anything. This is because corruption is now done in a classic way that the probability of detection is very low. Other respondents indicated that cases are known but ignored; this is because of various networks in corruption. Political influence is also to blame.

**4.7 Practices to combat Police related corruption**

The third objective was to assess the interventions that the police command has put in place to mitigate the problem. Under this objective the study sought to determine the best practices to combat police related corruption in the Zambia Police Service. The respondents were asked to rank the practices according to the best so that sanity is returned in the Zambia Police and confidence is also restored in the public.

According to the data presented in Table 4.8 below, 97% of the respondents affirmed that stiffening of institutional anti-corruption strategies will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. However, 3% of the respondents indicated that this might not really contribute the reduction of corrupt practices among police officers. Further, the findings show that 67% of the respondents indicated that reporting police corrupt practices to Public Service Complaints Commission will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers while 21% indicated that this might not really contribute to the reduction of the social vice. 12%, however, indicated that this was would not at all contribute to the reduction corrupt practices in the Police Service.

Later, all the respondents (93) respondents agreed that effective political will to reprimand reported corrupt police officers would contribute to the reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. In the like manner, all the respondents (93) agreed that Anti-Corruption Commission should be prosecuting reported corrupt police officers hence contributing to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers.

Lastly, 85% of the respondents indicated that enhancing ethical conduct among police officers would contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. On the other side, 15% indicated that might not really contribute the reduction of corrupt practices in the Zambia Police Service. The findings are presented in Table 4.8 below.

**Table 4.8 Practices to combat Police related corruption**

| Statement | Yes | Not Really | Not At All |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | % | % | % |
| Stiffening of institutional anti-corruption strategies will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers | 97 | 3 | - |
| Reporting police corrupt practices to Public Service Complaints Commission will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers | 67 | 21 | 12 |
| Effective political will to reprimand reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers | 100 | - | - |
| Anti-Corruption Commission to prosecute reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers | 100 | - | - |
| Enhancing ethical conduct among police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers | 85 | 15 | - |

*Source: Filed Data, 2021*

# CHAPTER FIVE

# DISCUSION OF THE FINDINGS

## 5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the findings of the study generated from the data collected from the field. This chapter now discusses these findings based on the specific objectives of this study.

## 5.2 Forms of police corruption in Zambia

From the findings obtained under the first objective of this study, it was found that Bribery and extortion by the police officers which 94% of the respondents indicated that existed to a great extent. According to the findings, 77% of the respondents indicated that illegal arrest and bail charges existed to a moderate extent with false traffic charges standing at 82% of the respondents who indicated that it existed to a great extent.

It must be noted from the above that the core values in traditional African is seen as the nature of African community. It is the belief that "the total well-being and welfare of the community are essentially important, thus responsibility, kindness, honesty, hospitality, accommodation, generosity, compassion, faithfulness, fruitfulness, love, dignity, etc., are all considered to be moral values" (Igboin, 2011:11). This suggests that moral values are reflected in social relationships in the community.

The search for a traditional cultural ethic that will significantly enhance these principles and moral values, points to Zambia, an ethical ideal that is built upon social relationships. These ethical ideals are very critical to the social conduct of police officers.

The findings under the first specific objective showed that various forms of corrupt police practice exist in the Zambia Police Service. The perception that the police are still the most corrupt is disappointing. The police, in all fairness, are supposed to be in the forefront of fighting crime, corruption being one of them, but it seems to be to the contrary. Of course this researcher is not saying that every police officer is corrupt, but the corrupt elements among the good officers are taking away that good name.

According to the 2019 Global Corruption Barometer, (GCB), the police service in Zambia was ranked the most corrupt institution. The report says the corruption perception has risen from 51 per cent four years ago to 54 per cent this year, making the police the most corrupt institution (GCB, 2019). This report supports the findings of this study that members of the public now perceive the police to be more corrupt than before. In fact, the report states that the most corrupt in the police service is the traffic section. And this is what is coming out in this year's report as well.

Government has been taking measures to rid the police service of criminal elements because it is concerned about the growing negative perception of the police in the public eye. In 2018, Minister of Home Affairs directed the police traffic section to reduce on roadblocks on public roads as a way of bringing down corruption among some officers.

He also noted that while police check points and patrols were useful to monitor and bring down crime on public roads, some police officers were abusing them. It was also suggested that the traffic police officers be rotated to reduce corruption. The high level of corruption is also one of the reasons that led to the placing of speed cameras on some public roads as well as the implementation of the system where offenders make payments directly into a bank account. There are also integrity committees in the police service, through which it was hoped corruption could be fought.

Traffic police officers, as Government workers, are not the only ones who earn lower salaries as teachers, nurses and other such staff who fall in the same category of low salaries and cannot stand as an excuse to engage in corruption. It is sad that despite putting such measures in place, the perception of corruption among the police has now risen to 54 per cent, meaning that about half of Zambians perceive our policemen to be corrupt.

The rise in the figure also means that more needs to be done to abate the rising perception so that we have a police service with a good name and an institution that exudes a positive image to members of the public. In a period of about three years, between January 2015 and August 2018, the courts prosecuted 39 police officers. This is a significant figure, especially that corruption among the police should not be heard of.

It is noted that corruption takes place between two people, meaning there is another person on the opposite side of the police to complete the corruption circle. Members of the public should take measures to avoid being part of this vice by ensuring they give the police no opportunity for corruption and somehow help them. This resonates with the disclosure that made wave on social media and the National broadcaster – ZNBC in 2020 when Lusaka Province Minister made a check on the traffic police officers in Matero township who were caught extorting bribes from impounded motorists. A female traffic officer was found with undisclosed and un-receipted amount of money obtained from illegal traffic charges hidden in a plastic bag. Motorists, in particular, should take all precautions when they are on public roads to behave like good citizens who abhor crime in all its forms.

## 5.3 Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption

Figure 4.6 above shows that the main forms of corrupt practices in the Zambia Police were Bribery, extortion and false traffic charges and these are to be addressed. The competing determinants were Lack of deterrence contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers, Corrupt political leadership contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers, Poor remuneration and Conditions of Service contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers, Unchecked Power contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers, Involvement in partisan politics contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers, and Lack of accountability contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers.

People engage in corrupt activities because they are just greedy to have material assets more than they could save and generate under normal conditions. Lower salaries paid to workers given their obligations in life may cause workers to engage in unholy activities to add to their package, salaries should be above the poverty datum line so that basic commodities can be accessed. Job insecurity is also a major determinant, when workers are not secure they act wildly to enrich themselves using improper ways. There is need for labour laws to support workers so as to be secure. Income distribution in the economy is also a matter of concern, when there is inequality people will try to close the gap through corrupt activities.

A close reading of chapter two identified forms of police corruption, such as bribery and extortion, mass arrests and detention, illegal bail charges and corruption in the police leadership.

As mentioned by the community respondents in the chapter above, police misconduct runs counter to the role of police in maintaining order, enforcing the law, and protecting citizens in society. These forms were confirmed in Chapter 4. The extent of corruption implies that the corporate image of the police force needs to be rebranded and reformed in order to restore a positive public image. In order to improve the social standing of the police, it is pertinent to examine features that characterize the ethic of Zambia and which are required if the police force is to be reformed.

Living in a Zambian society for a long time, the researcher has had personal experience in dealing with the Zambia Police Force. It is common to encounter police misconduct along the highways, in police stations, in courts of law, in community policing and other places where the police are required to carry out their duties. In these places, police corruption takes different forms including extortion, bribery, illegal bail charges, destruction of evidence, and illegal arrest. This reveals that, in spite of the major role that the police are supposed to have in protecting and maintaining law and order, they are not exempt from the corruption that affects the nation.

The submissions from the community respondents in the findings in chapter 4 above showed that a growing number of Zambians see corruption levels in the country as rising and give the government a failing grade on its anticorruption efforts. An overwhelming majority of Zambians think that rich people can use corruption to gain illicit advantages. And only about half think that ordinary citizens can make a difference in the fight against corruption – perhaps in part because most fear retaliation if they report bribery to the authorities.

Young people have been found to be more corrupt, they particularly want to earn more when they have worked less. Theft, fraud and looting are more common in young people. Youth organisation should help address such habits to reduce corruption. However, youth unemployment should be addressed, to help them resort to formal operations. Social networks have been found to support corruption and thereby reducing the probability of detection. The study recommends that social networks should learn to operate in a smart tradition that enables culture to be maintained and monitored. It is an assignment of family, friends, workmates and schoolmates that they should encourage each other to observe integrity and corporate ethics.

As indicated by Nye (1967), it is not shocking that corruption is labelled as endemic in government institutions. Glynn et al (1997) also indicated that no region, and hardly any country, has been immune. That is why it is commonly said that corruption is probably as old as government itself. Corruption touches nearly all parts of society. As argued by Amundsen (1999), like cancer, corruption eats into the political, cultural and economic fabric of society, and destroys the functioning of key organs.

## 5.4 Practices of Combating Police corruption

The chapter further discusses selected literary sources dealing with police corruption, and made recommendations to reduce the corrupt practices within the force. Another motivation for this study is the researcher's belief that corruption is deeply bound up with individual morality. Dealing with the issue of corruption as a moral crisis would require engaging with a moral concept that could speak to ethical problems.

Several practices of combating police corruption were submitted by both police and community respondents. Public scandals, political crises, systematic corruption and external political pressure usually facilitate the introduction of such specialised institutions. The assumption by both the police and the community respondents that the law enforcement and judicial institutions have failed to cope with the problem leads them to view anti-corruption agencies as the ultimate institutional response.

Since the end of the 1980s, a growing sharing of experience among states has resulted in the replication of certain models in several countries, regardless of the fact that the outcome from such transplants is highly uncertain. From what has been submitted in Chapter 4 above and the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 above, the preconditions for the effective application of such imported institutional models are their adaptation to the local political context, needs and vulnerabilities, and further integration within a holistic anti-corruption strategy and vision, rather than their ad hoc use as tools for tackling a critical situation or in the framework of government campaigns aimed at defusing social tensions and foreign donor anxieties. The imitative nature of such institutions is evident in their political subordination, in addition to their limited resources and powers.

The submissions are in tandem with Sousa (2010), OECD (2008) who posited that several international agreements for countering corruption recommend the institutionalisation of specialised bodies to fight and prevent corruption. In 1996 the Organisation for Economic and Cooperation and Development (OECD) was one of the first to recommend to its members the introduction of specialised bodies to fight corruption as an integral part of their 'ethical infrastructure'. The United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC, chapter 6) also stipulates the enactment of institutions with preventive and prosecutorial functions.

Specialisation is an important factor in the fight against corruption. Since there is no universal model of a specialised anti-corruption agency to be replicated successfully at national levels, countries need to choose an appropriate model, taking in consideration several factors such as: the level of corruption in the country, the capacities and competences of the existing institutions, the constitutional framework, the criminal law traditions, the financial and human resources of the country, etc. The introduction of a new anti-corruption institution or the enhancement of the anti-corruption component in an existing one should be preceded by a situation analysis and should be consistent with an anti-corruption strategy.

Further, from the submissions by both police and community respondents, the independence of anti-corruption units such as the Anti-Corruption, Financial Intelligence Centre and Drug Enforcement Commission is the starting point in building successful policies for countering corruption. The report describes various models and ways to achieve an appropriate level of independence and impartiality. One is through the establishment of investigative and oversight institutions outside the police and the Ministry of Home Affairs. These institutions may partner with the internal security departments of the police, but at the same time guarantee that an independent investigation could still be performed in cases where a risk of bias exists.

These institutions are either subordinated to more than one ministry (for example, the management is appointed by both the minister of Home Affairs and the minister of Justice), or are directly subordinated to the parliament. The independence is also safeguarded by allowing the institutions autonomy in managing their information systems or by giving them independent and full access to operational police systems. Another way of enhancing their independence is through staffing these bodies with representatives of other public and private institutions (prosecutors, judges, human rights lawyers, NGOs), instead of police officers.

### 5.4.1 Linking anti-corruption to the upholding of high professional standards and the safeguarding of human rights.

Research of police corruption across countries has established a link between the professional conduct of policemen and their vulnerability to corruption. This correlation is particularly obvious in minor cases of corruption. The slippery slope theory is based on the observation that corrupt officers usually have a history of incidents of violating professional discipline and neglecting their professional duties. This is the reason why the anti-corruption departments and institutions are concerned with the professional conduct of the officers as well. Part of an officers' duty is to act in conformity with the established standards, and not to abuse citizens' rights. This warrants the development of mechanisms for processing citizens' complaints and petitions by these departments and units. Needless to say, some of these complaints can point to acts of corruption by police officers.

### 5.4.2 Checks and balances among anti-corruption institutions.

The existence of several investigative institutions which not only cooperate, but also exercise oversight and investigate each other is another important component of the system. This approach often includes a division of responsibilities based on the type of investigations. For example, more independent institutions usually are tasked with investigations of more serious cases involving senior officials, and cases where there is a risk of bias in the police internal investigation bodies.

### 5.4.3 Adequate resources and powers for the anti-corruption departments.

In western countries significant investments have been made in human resources and operational capacities. In these countries the ratio of investigation officers to the overall number of police officers is several times larger than in Zambia. Anti-corruption units may also be staffed with highly qualified analysts who undertake the complex statistical and technological analyses necessary to uncover corruption cases.

### 5.4.4 Pre-emptive anti-corruption methods and measures instead of traditional reactive approaches.

Adequate resources permit the application of zero tolerance policies and a strategic approach that goes beyond investigations only of cases where "an alarm has been raised." One way of introducing these is to implement the intelligence-led approach in the anti-corruption departments.

Such proactive units have access to operational information or collect such information themselves in an effort to uncover cases of corruption. Another model to be used is the introduction of risk analysis based on information from various sources: from databases linked to the HR departments (containing analyses of the assets declarations of officers) to the databases containing information about infringements of work discipline or professional duties. This makes it possible to identify officers who are likely to be involved in corruption. All these methods, however, require well-structured and maintained databases and guaranteed access of anti-corruption departments to them.

Further, punitive measures should be enacted to deter individual behavior. In line with Singapore's laws, both the bribe giver and the receiver should be charged with corruption charges. If convicted, the bribe receiver should pay a penalty of the amount of the bribe and receive punishment through imprisonment. Additionally, there should be a mandatory punitive penalty of imprisonment for the crime of corruption. For example, if any judicial staff is found guilty of engaging in corruption by the Judicial Service Commission, he or she will be liable for imprisonment for not less than five years.

Additionally, leniency, whistleblowing and asymmetric punishment provisions should be enacted to deter social/ cartel behavior. In line with China's laws, leniency and whistleblowing provisions should be enacted to break the informal bond and understanding between the bribe giver and bribe taker. Leniency ensures that the first involved party who confesses to the corrupt act is completely immune from prosecution while the other party will be held liable. Whistleblowing provisions protect the party who confesses from any danger.

Asymmetric punishment provisions differentiate between (i) bribes which impose improper benefits from (ii) harassment bribes which the bribe giver is forced to give in order to gain access to a service or good which he has a right to and ensure the bribe giver is safe from prosecution due to harassment bribes.

## CHAPTER SIX

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.1 Conclusion

In exploring the nature of corruption in Zambia, the study discovered that corruption is a world-wide phenomenon that is multi-faceted. Corruption does exist in the private sector; however it primarily involves government officials.

The study managed to attain its objectives, the research questions have been answered and the hypothesis of the study tested. The study found that corruption is rampant in the police service and has occupied all departments of the service.

The study hypothesises that corruption exist in various forms and impact differently, easiness of corruption harness is form related, young people are more corrupt than the elderly and corruption networks prevail. All study hypotheses have been tested successfully. Corruption has been found to exist in various forms with different impacts as shown by intensity index. The study has also found that the corruption forms have various easiness to control and detect. The young people have been found on the top of corruption, in form of theft, bribery and fraud.

Networks in corruption have been explored and confirmed emanating mainly from friends, schoolmates and workmates, which is in line with the Social learning theory. The study mainly relied on the graphs, tables and weighted index approach to explore the nature of corruption in Zambia. The study confirmed that young people are more corrupt than the older. The most common corruption forms in Zambia are nepotism and bribery, while extortion and coercion are common among law enforcement agencies. Nepotism includes favouritism and cronysim while bribery includes use of gifts and kickbacks. However, every form of corruption exists in the country and each organisation has its own ways of operating unholy depending on the loopholes exposed.

It is very clear that there is no single remedy to curb police corruption. This research attempted to discover effective ways to fight corrupt practices among police officers in Zambia. Police departments and police officials that allegedly violate the constitutional rights and liberties of

citizens need to be investigated to find out the specific causes of the problem. There is no magic remedy to reform police agencies without gaining support from police administrators.

However, Zambia can learn from Singapore which has been rated the least corrupt country in the world since 1997. Singapore has a strong legal framework for anti-corruption. The legal framework for anti-corruption consists of the Penal Code and the Prevention of Corruption Act. The Prevention of Corruption Act provides for various provisions key to the fight against corruption such as the vesting of authority in the investigative agency to investigate corruption in both the public and private sectors and prosecution of both the bribe giver and the receiver; the presumption of corruption when a public officer is found to have received bribes; presumption of guilt of the bribe taker even if he or she, in fact, had no power, right or opportunity to return a favour to the bribe giver; forbidding the use of customary practices, for example, giving/accepting of gifts during political campaigns as an excuse for giving/accepting bribes; empowerment of the Court to order bribe receivers to pay a penalty equal to the amount of bribe received apart from punishment in the form of fines and/or imprisonment terms; provision for the Principal to recover the amount of the bribe as a civil debt and the rendering of Singapore citizens liable for punishment for corrupt offences committed outside Singapore and to be dealt with as if the offences had been committed in Singapore.

Direct political control of police forces exercised by the ministries of Home Affairs and interferences by ministers and senior management in on-going investigations compromise the independence anti-corruption departments need. Investigations, especially those targeting senior police officers, often have political repercussions. As a result, senior police management is rarely investigated and the cautiousness of anti-corruption teams easily turns to negligence when superiors are involved.

There are a number of approaches taken by other countries to protect anti-corruption institutions from undue influence: introducing dual subordination (for example to the Ministry of Home Affairs and to the Ministry of Justice); establishing information systems independent from those of the Ministry of Home Affairs while enjoying full access to the latter; and establishing their own surveillance units, since without such units it would be difficult to investigate, for instance, corrupt officers of the specialised surveillance divisions of the interior ministries.

A number of measures could be applied in Zambia in order to achieve greater independence for the investigative bodies. One such measure would be the establishment of an inspectorate with investigative powers that should remain outside the Ministry of Home Affairs structures while subordinated to the minister of interior. A more radical step would involve the additional subordination of such a body to the minister of justice.

A number of other operational measures could enhance the effectiveness of the system of countering corruption. A serious setback is the absence of an early filtering mechanism for minor offences. This could be overcome through the introduction of a professional standards division supplying local Ministry of Home Affairs divisions with a criterion for the screening of lesser violations and addressing them at an early stage. Such a system, as evidenced by the other countries experience, frees up resources in the specialised, national level bodies and helps avoid the slippery slope syndrome.

There are also serious legal impediments to the powers of investigation and the use of intrusive methods in countering corruption. The introduction of integrity tests should be reconsidered. During the last few years attempts were made in Romania to introduce such tests, albeit with some limitations.

Understanding them as 'provocations to bribery' could be overcome by making them conform to procedural standards so that their results could be admissible as evidence in court. When the integrity test reproduces an everyday situation and the amount of cash involved is not significant it could not be interpreted as provocation. These tests need not be used as a precondition for starting investigations, but rather for lighter, disciplinary sanctions and for risk analysis. With the development of future operational databases and the computerisation of the human resources system, more complex methods for analysing both risks and countermeasures could be designed.

In conclusion, there is no doubt that corruption has a destructive influence on police operations and the confidence of the public in the service. In combating corruption, the initial step is to know its underlying causes. Relevant officials can interpret different laws in different ways with different repercussions for the public good, and thus the factors motivating corruption and the effects of corruption can therefore vary broadly. Worth to note is that corruption is not simply

the deviation from a certain moral standard; hence it should be viewed in a broader socio-political perspective.

## 6.2 Recommendations

The study empirically investigated the nature of corruption in Zambia and has found interesting and helpful results. The police service should design test meters for corruption, of which adequate policies should be applied when corruption extends to serious levels. The study has found out that corruption is rampant across every department of the police service; hence a total approach to address corruption is needed rather than department by department blaming. However the intensity differs on each department, hence adequate measures should be taken as indicated by ranking results.

1) The study recommends that individual solutions are very necessary to curb corruption. This is made possible by police officers as well as community members or the general public acquiring knowledge of procedures, requirements and possible time of completion. Individuals should get used of acquiring information from the right offices and right authorities and avoid intermediation which will support corruption. Reporting corruption wherever observed is critical for curbing it.

2) Most important in curbing corruption is the political will. The study recommends that the government should be on the top in addressing corruption. Political discipline is of great importance because leaders should lead by examples. This will instil discipline in the police force and transform the police service into a clean and admired force. There should inter-ministerial cooperation to address corruption should be enhanced.

3) There should be public education and awareness to change cultural and social tolerance. A litigants' charter should be readily available for anyone who would wish to institute a suit in court detailing the procedure and payment for transparency and accountability purposes. Additionally, the Ministry of Home Affairs should include a judicial program within a general anti-corruption program to be taught from kindergarten to universities. The judiciary should initiate workshops, conferences and meetings for the development of better ideas on how to tackle corruption within the judiciary. Successful corruption cases should be highly publicised in the media.

4) Finally, the study recommends that the relevant authorities should empower anti-corruption bodies with enough powers to address every piece of corruption in the police service and act accordingly. The body should be separate from politics. Laws should be made in a proper manner, for everyone and not to support the minority corrupt group at the expense of the general populace. Organisations have suffered administrative inefficiency, social tension and public ridicule at the expense of corruption.

## 6.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The study generalised police corruption in the district, there is need for institutional corruption to be explored for specific organisations and solutions addressed accordingly. The sample size is far small for a true representation of the country, there is need for proper funding and more data collected countrywide.

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**APPENDICES**

**Appendix 1 – Community Questionnaire**



Dear respondent

I am a student at the University of Zambia and Zimbabwe Open University conducting a research on "AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF CORRUPT PRACTICES POLICE OFFICERS ARE INVOLVED IN: A STUDY OF SIX (6) SELECTED POLICE STATIONS AND POSTS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT".

You have been randomly selected to be part of the study and are required to give sincere responses that will reflect a true picture of the status of affaires in Zambia's police Service. I would be happy if you could help me answer the questions. Thanking you in advance.

INSTRUCTIONS

*Please tick as many favorable responses as deemed correct.*

*For Questions with Statements: Place a <u>Tick</u> in the box that best represents your response.*

## SECTION A – Personal Information

1. What is your gender?

   Male ☐          Female ☐

2. What is your age?

   Below 30 yrs       30- 39 yrs ☐       40- 50 yrs ☐       Above 50 yrs

3. What is your occupation?

   ………………………………………………………………………

| 1 – Great Extent | 2 – Moderate Extent | 3 – Little Extent |
|---|---|---|

4.  Using the scale above please write the number in the box regarding the extent to which the forms of corrupt practices in the Table below exist in the Zambia Police Service.

| Form of Corruption | Write Number |
|---|---|
| Bribery and extortion by the police officers | |
| Illegal arrest and bail charges | |
| Mismanagement among administrative offices | |
| Embezzlement of funds | |
| False traffic charges | |

Others (please specify): ………………………………………………………………………….

## SECTION C – Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption

*Please tick the number that best reflects the extent to which, in general you agree with the reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption.*

1.  Does corrupt political leadership contribute to corrupt practices amongst police officers? Please support your response.

    Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

2.  Poor remuneration and Conditions of Service contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

    Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Unchecked Power contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Lack of deterrence contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. Pressure from police Administration contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

6. Family Commitments contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Greed by police officers contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

8. Police recruitment and training contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

9. Lack of accountabilitycontributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

10. Involvement in partisan politics contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

11. Have you ever encountered a corrupt practice with a police officer?

Yes ☐        Never ☐

12. If your response to Question 10 above was "Yes" what was your reaction?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

## SECTION D – Practices to combat Police related corruption

*Please tick the best response that best reflects the extent to which, in general you agree with the practices to combat police related corruption amongst police officers.*

13. Stiffening of institutional anti-corruption strategies will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

14. Reporting police corrupt practices to Public Service Complaints Commission will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐        Not Really ☐        Not at all ☐

15. Effective political will to reprimand reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐       Not Really ☐       Not at all ☐

16. Anti-Corruption Commission to prosecute reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐       Not Really ☐       Not at all ☐

17. Enhancing ethical conduct among police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐       Not Really ☐       Not at all ☐

*Thank you very much for your time and participation!*

**Appendix 2 – Police Officers**



Dear respondent

I am a student at the University of Zambia and Zimbabwe Open University conducting a research on "AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF CORRUPT PRACTICES POLICE OFFICERS ARE INVOLVED IN: A STUDY OF SIX (6) SELECTED POLICE STATIONS AND POSTS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT".

You have been randomly selected to be part of the study and are required to give sincere responses that will reflect a true picture of the status of affaires in Zambia's police Service. I would be happy if you could help me answer the questions. Thanking you in advance.

INSTRUCTIONS

*Please tick as many favorable responses as deemed correct.*

*For Questions with Statements: Place a* <u>*Tick*</u> *in the box that best represents your response.*

### SECTION A – Personal Information

5. What is your gender?

   Male ☐        Female ☐

6. What is your age?

   Below 30 yrs      30- 39 yrs ☐   40- 50 yrs ☐      Above 50 yrs

7. What is your rank?

   …………………………………………………………………………

8. How long have you worked in the police service?

Below 2yrs ☐　　3-6yrs ☐　　7-10yrs ☐　　11-15yrs ☐　　Above 15yrs ☐

9. Please state the department/section you are attached to.

………………………………………………………………………………

10. Do you have other source(s) of income other than the salary from the Police Service?

Yes ☐　　　　No ☐

11. If your response to Question 6 above was "Yes" please state the other source of income.

………………………………………………………………………………

**SECTION B - Forms of police corruption in Zambia**

| 1 – Great Extent | 2 – Moderate Extent | 3 – Little Extent |

12. Using the scale above please write the number in the box regarding the extent to which the forms of corrupt practices in the Table below exist in the Zambia Police Service.

| Form of Corruption | Write Number |
| --- | --- |
| Bribery and extortion by the police officers | |
| Illegal arrest and bail charges | |
| Mismanagement among administrative offices | |
| Embezzlement of funds | |
| False traffic charges | |

Others (please specify): …………………………………………………………………………….

<u>**SECTION C – Reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption**</u>

*Please tick the number that best reflects the extent to which, in general you agree with the reasons why police officers involve themselves in corruption.*

13. Does corrupt political leadership contribute to corrupt practices amongst police officers? Please support your response.

Yes ☐     Not Really ☐     Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

14. Poor remuneration and Conditions of Service contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐     Not Really ☐     Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Unchecked Power contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐     Not Really ☐     Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

16. Lack of deterrence contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐     Not Really ☐     Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

17. Pressure from police Administration contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐     Not Really ☐     Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

18. Family Commitments contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please
    support your response.

    Yes [ ]       Not Really [ ]       Not at all [ ]


    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

19. Greed by police officers contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please
    support your response.

    Yes [ ]       Not Really [ ]       Not at all [ ]


    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

20. Police recruitment and training contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers.
    Please support your response.

    Yes [ ]       Not Really [ ]       Not at all [ ]


    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

21. Lack of accountabilitycontributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please
    support your response.

    Yes [ ]       Not Really [ ]       Not at all [ ]


    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

22. Involvement in partisan politics contributes to corrupt practices amongst police officers.
    Please support your response.

    Yes [ ]       Not Really [ ]       Not at all [ ]


    …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

23. Have you ever encountered a corrupt practice in your line of duty?

    Yes [ ]       Never [ ]

24. If your response to Question 10 above was "Yes" what was your reaction?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

**SECTION D – Practices to combat Police related corruption**

*Please tick the best response that best reflects the extent to which, in general you agree with the practices to combat police related corruption amongst police officers.*

25. Stiffening of institutional anti-corruption strategies will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

…………………………………………………………………………………………

26. Reporting police corrupt practices to Public Service Complaints Commission will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

27. Effective political will to reprimand reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

28. Anti-Corruption Commission to prosecute reported corrupt police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

29. Enhancing ethical conduct among police officers will contribute to reduction of corrupt practices amongst police officers. Please support your response.

Yes ☐      Not Really ☐      Not at all ☐

*Thank you very much for your time and participation!*

**Appendix 3 – Interview Guide**



## <u>INTERVIEW GUIDE – OFFICER IN-CHARGE</u>

Dear participant

I am a student at the University of Zambia and Zimbabwe Open University conducting a research on "AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF CORRUPT CASES POLICE OFFICERS ARE INVOLVED IN: A STUDY OF SIX (6) SELECTED POLICE STATIONS AND POSTS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT".

You have been purposively selected to be part of the study and are required to give sincere responses that will reflect a true picture of the status of affaires in Zambia's police Service. I would be happy if you could help me answer the questions. Thanking you in advance.

Title of Participant: _____

Location of Interview:_____

1) How long have you worked for the Zambia Police Force?

   ……………………………………………………………………………………….

2) What corruption cases are prevalent among police officers?

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

   ………………………………………………………………………………………..

3) Why do police officers engage in corruption with the public?

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

   ……………………………………………………………………………………….

4) What is the punishment for various forms of police corruption? Cite examples.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………...

5) What are the best practices in place to address police corruption cases?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………….

6) What interventions has the police command implemented to reduce the scourge of corrupt practices by police officers?

*Thank you very much for your time and participation*

**Appendix 4: Consent Form**

Dear Respondent,

I am a postgraduate student at the University of Zambia in Collaboration with Zimbabwe Open University (UNZA-ZOU) pursuing a Masters of Leadership, Peace and Conflict Resolution degree. I am carrying out a research entitled: **AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE NATURE OF CORRUPT CASES POLICE OFFICERS ARE INVOLVED IN: A STUDY OF SIX (6) SELECTED POLICE STATIONS AND POSTS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT.** You have been selected to take part in this research. However, your participation is voluntary and you are urged to be as free as possible as you participate. You are further assured that the information you will give will be used for academic purpose only.

**REFERENCE TO PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

**Please read the following participant information sheets before you sign.**

1. Make sure that you read the Information Sheet carefully, or that it has been explained to you to your satisfaction.

2. Your permission is required if tape or audio recording is being used.

3. Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary, i.e. you do not have to participate if you do not wish to.

4. Refusal to take part will involve no penalty or loss of services to which you are otherwise entitled.

5. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of services and without giving a reason for your withdrawal.

6. You may choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study. If there is anything that you would prefer not to discuss, please feel free to say so.

7. The information collected in this interview will be kept strictly confidential.

8. If you choose to participate in this research study, your signed consent is required below before I proceed with the interview with you.

### A) **VOLUNTARY CONSENT**

I have read (or have had explained to me) the information about this research as contained in the Participant Information Sheet. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any question I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

I now consent voluntarily to be a participant in this project and understand that I reserve the right to end the interview at any time and to choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study.

My signature below says that I am willing to participate in this research:

Participant's name (Printed): ………………………………………………

Participant's signature: ………………………………………………

Consent Date: ………………………………………………


Researcher Conducting Informed Consent (Printed)


Signature of Researcher: …………………………………… Date: …………………….


**THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONSENT.**