

**AN INVESTIGATION OF STRATEGIES TO CONTROL
CORRUPTION IN THE POLICE SERVICE:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KENYA AND KOREA
FROM 1963 TO 2007**

BY

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C82F/11037/2008

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**

JUNE 2015

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university or any other award.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Cho Jeongok, my sons Ha Eunsu and Ha Minsu, my parents Ha Chan Ho and Song Man Nim, my siblings Ha Tae Kyung, Ha Tae Hyoung, Ha Song and Ha Sung In for their love and moral support which kept me moving to the end.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I acknowledge the contributions and support received from KICAC and KACC and individuals who facilitated the successful completion of this research work. It may not be possible to mention all but the following provided exceptional assistance. My first acknowledgement is to Kenyatta University for offering me a chance to pursue this course in the University.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr. Edward W. Kisiang'ani and Professor Henry A. Mwanzi for their supervisory guidance, encouragement and constructive criticism in perfection of this research work. I would also sincerely thank all members of the Department of History, Archaeology & Political Studies, and Kenyatta University who made significant contributions in one way or the other towards completion of this work.

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DEFINITION/ CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TERMS

Abuse of position or authority:

Violation of the purpose and procedures of the law relating to affairs under police officers jurisdiction. On the other hand, the phrase refers to influence in violation of purpose and procedures of police officers position or authority to attain unjust objectives in affairs not under their jurisdiction.

Advantages: Profiting the beneficiary in political, economical, legal, or personal matters.

Conduct that leads to advantages: Actions that lead to both tangible and intangible benefits. When relating to intangible benefits, it is essential to have contents that are objectively measurable.

Conduct in relation with their duty: In the matter of their duty, to utilize their position or given authority as a foundation to influence the service of the police officers whether acting or not acting deliberately.

Corruption: It is the abuse of one's position or violation of the law by the police officer, in relation to their duty that leads to advantages of oneself or a third party.

Duty: Signifying the given roles of the police officer according to their work position.

Police officer: One who is acknowledged for police service under jurisdiction of the law.

Violation of the law: Conduct of police officers' activities contrary to the various laws that must be observed in the government.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACA	Anticorruption Agencies
ANSP	Agency for National Security Planning
BAI	Board of Audit Inspection
CPI	Corruption Perception Index
CPIU	Corrupt Practices Inspection Unit
DFID	Department for International Development
DSC	Defense Security Command
IBEA	Imperial British East Africa
KACA	Kenya Anti-Corruption Authority
KACC	Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission
KANU	Kenya African National Union
KICAC	Korea Independent Commission Against Corruption
KNP	Korean National Police
KNPA	Korean National Police Agency
KNPU	Korea National Police University
NARC	National Rainbow Coalition
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PAC	Public Accounts Committee
PCA	Police Comprehensive Academy
PERC	Political and Economic Risk Consultancy
PIC	Public Investments Committee

PPO	Police Planning Office
PRCB	Public Relation and Cooperation Bureau
RIB	Report Inspection Bureau
TI	Transparency International
WB	World Bank

ABSTRACT

Corruption has, over the years, become a reality of monumental proportions worldwide. In the recent past, it has grown bigger in terms of the participating personalities and the amount of money involved. The forms of corruption committed by police officers are classified as follows: corruption of authority, kickbacks, protection for illegal activities, internal payoffs and tickets. Thus if remedial measures are not put in place to quickly contain the vice, corruption could become perpetual. Scholars, practitioners and experts have argued that in the management of corruption, one has to concentrate on the epicenter of corruption. The purpose of this study was to analyze comparatively strategies adopted by Kenya with Korea to deal with corruption in the police service. The study employed two theoretical framework approaches namely Ecological theory by Fred Riggs and Structural functional theory by Talcott Parsons. The methodology used was comparative approach and selection of respondents was carried out using purposive sampling with the police, members of the public, KACC and KICAC officers and experts providing feedback. Data was collected using interviews and questionnaires. The findings showed that the historical origin of corruption in Kenya could be traced back in 1887 and in Korea during the old Japanese colonial systems in 1945. The study established that police officers holding other jobs and the levels of salaries paid as factors promoting corruption in the police service. On impact of corruption the study established that corruption has a significant influence on how the country is perceived internationally which may affect engagements between the countries and many development and aid agencies. The strategies for controlling corruption seemed weak in both countries hence policy makers should reevaluate the existing frameworks. The study recommended that the recruitment processes for police officers to be based on proper examinations systems rather than physical abilities, there should be measures to ban Kenyan police officers from engaging in other jobs and businesses. The study also recommended that police service in both countries need to create a functional framework for complementing, motivating and rewarding officers for effective corruption control. Kenya ought to put measures to shield officers from undue influence from senior officers and the public. Both countries need to undertake cultural restructuring within the police service in both countries both at the general level and the leadership level. Further, the respective societies need to deal with morality both in the public and within the force since corruption is an affair involving the police and the civilians.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter, background to the study is explained and the problem statement given. The purpose of the study, the objectives, research questions, theoretical framework and conceptual framework and research methodology are also given.

1.2 Background to the study

Corruption has, over the years, become a reality of monumental proportions worldwide. In the recent past, it has grown bigger in terms of the participating personalities and the amount of money involved. Like an ogre, it refuses to let go of the Kenyan society (Kivutha Kibwana, Smokin Wanjala, & Okech Owiti, 1996). Thus if remedial measures are not put in place to quickly contain the vice, corruption could become perpetual.

Scholars, practitioners and experts have argued that in the management of corruption, one has to concentrate on the epicenter of corruption. In the case of Kenya, the epicenter of corruption is the public sector; especially in the police service. It is argued that if corruption within the police service could be cured, then other public service sectors could also be cured of the vice.

An analogy can be drawn between medical practice and corruption management. Corruption can be cured if the methodologies often prescribed are properly and effectively utilized just as a patient goes through a full dose to cure a disease. It is possible to achieve a corruption free police service but not by trial and error rather, through the correct prescription which will enable corruption to be reduced to sustainable levels. In this study, South Korea (Korea) will be the comparative country since corruption in Korea has over the years reduced considerably

In Korea, since the first democratic government of Lee Seung Man (the first Korean president, 1948~1960), all successive Korean administrations had tried to fight corruption but in vain. Although the first republic of Korea, for example, received enough Official Development Assistance (ODA) from overseas sources which gave them a chance to combat corruption, that republic collapsed due to various political corruption scandals - such as the rigged election of March 15th 1960.

The third and fourth republics, which were established by the military coup d'état of May 16th 1961 and 1972, respectively, were a little bit more successful in combating corruption through more innovative measures. They included, restructuring of the prosecution system which entailed heavy punishment for those who were corrupt and losing their top positions in organizations. As a result he gained popular support by mounting an anti-corruption campaign (<http://blog.daum.net/innov-trans/12172463>). Economic development under the dictatorship of President Park Jung Hee, however, brought about

corruption once more, notwithstanding their avowed good aims. Ironically corruption served as a catalyst for economic growth!

The fifth and sixth republics (through 1981~1992) did not overcome the state of corruption, and, unfortunately, the two ex-presidents, Chon Doo Hwan and Roh Tae Woo, were put through a judicial investigation because they had close relationships within political and business circles. Inevitably, the people's mistrust towards the government was growing. For decades; the people had been suffering from the corruption. In addition, there had not been enough research or study done on any policy for anti-corruption, even though many people recognized how important it was to carry out systematic improvements to prevent corruption. Soon after President Kim Dae Jung's inauguration in 1998, the people and the government introduced and implemented various initiatives to combat corruption, resulting in reduction to some extent.

Kim Dae Jung's Administration launched comprehensive anti-corruption programs in response to the people's desire for a corruption-free police service. The Korean people expected the government to implement a complete reform of the police service since they had experienced and come to understand the adverse effects of corruption on the economy during the financial crisis and subsequent political turmoil of party disputes in the past. Although Korea rapidly attained enormous economic development in only a few decades, the long-standing collusion between politics and business proved to be a major cause of the unprecedented economic crisis of 1997. The Korean Government's new anti-corruption programs tie in with the efforts of the international

community to eliminate corruption around the world. In conformity with the anti-bribery treaty that was signed by members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and went into effect in February 1999, the Korean Government had also tightened its inspection and punishment of those businesses offering bribes to foreign entities and police service.

On the historical context of the fight against corruption in Kenya it's vital to observe that Kenya got independence in December 1963 and despite British efforts to sponsor an alternative political party, Kenyan politics was then dominated by the ruling party Kenya African National Union. During KANU regime, corruption was not easily monitored especially in police service. In the early 1990s, under pressure from Western aid donors, the single party government was finally forced to concede to a multi-party democracy. Single party regime's persistent poor record in tackling official corruption led to a rapid growth in external debt and as a result Kenya was in serious financial difficulties. In December 1997, amid widespread allegations of fraud, malpractice and pre-election violence orchestrated by pro-government elements, the KANU government recorded slight improvements on performance (<http://www.iexplore.com/dmap/Kenya/History>, 27th March 2009). The KANU regime was replaced by National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) in 2002. NARC government formed the Golden Berg Commission of inquiry to punish perpetrators of corruption.

The numerous controversies vis-à-vis the fight against corruption of police service since late 1997, when the Kenya Anti-Corruption Authority (KACA)

was established leads to one's conclusion that the struggle is a relatively recent one. Parliament's failure to pass the *Constitutional (Amendment) (No.2) Bill, 2001* on August 14th 2001 was, however, an important landmark on the long road to a corruption-free Kenya that started before independence, when the first statutory attempt to "provide for the prevention of corruption" the *Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65)* was enacted in 1956(<http://www.tkenya.org/documents/JudicialDeci>, 27th March 2009). This statute was subsequently amended eight times over following 41 years. However, the common consensus among experts and scholars is that it was not an effective anti-corruption law. For one it contained an inadequate definition of corruption limiting itself to bribery of a member, officer or servant of a public body. It was not capable of addressing what we now call 'economic crimes and police service corruption.

Even though corruption (called *magendo*), was rife in the 1960, 1970 and 1980's the international environment had not yet turned against corruption as a serious impediment to development. The politics of the Cold War meant that many regimes perceived as thoroughly corrupt nevertheless did not find their legitimacy challenged seriously as a result of corruption. The fall of the Berlin Wall and the end of the Cold War in 1989 saw a significant global change, as Western nations increasingly demanded unprecedented standards of good governance and human rights on the part of former client states.

Corruption became an important issue on the global development agenda in the early to mid-1990s. Transparency International was founded in 1993 and its

annual Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) served to help raise the profile of corruption as a major impediment to sustained development around the world. Other organizations, such as the World Bank, conducted research and created a host of other tools that helped raise the profile of corruption as a global problem as well.

Partly as a result of mounting donor pressure in the late 1980's, the Kenya government amended the *Prevention of Corruption Act* to increase criminal sanctions for graft. Little happened in terms of prosecutions for corruption in the years subsequent to this change. In 1993, however, the government took a step further and created a special anti-corruption investigative unit within the police ostensibly separate from the rest of the force. This unit became known as the Anti-Corruption Squad, the first in a series of specialist anti-corruption institutions created by statute. A senior assistant Commissioner of the police headed this body. The unit was ultimately disbanded in 1995 amid accusations that some of its members had allegedly become corrupt.

In addition to the introduction of anti-corruption measures and the privatization of several major state-owned enterprises, the IMF approved the new Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility in 2003. The 2005/6 budget gave new emphasis to economic recovery strategies, particularly increasing expenditure on health, education and infrastructure and for the first time, foreign investors were allowed to take controlling stakes in Kenyan companies. Overall economic performance has been disappointing due to the persistent government failures and slow pace of reform.

1.3 Statement of the problem

From casual analysis of various reports, Corruption in Kenya is deeply rooted in Kenya especially in police service it is a multi-faceted phenomenon which requires multi sectoral approach in the economic, political, social Actors. Efforts have been made by various actors led by KACC to mitigate the impact of corruption in the police force and overall mandate of security provision and management in the county. The efforts and strategies to combat corruptions in Kenya has had ups and downs, within various sectors including civil society organizations, academia, and faith based organizations, the private sector and the government itself there has been efforts to deal with corruption. However, the efforts do not seem to have produced the impact on corruption in the police force as cases of corruption become reported from all the ranks from a traffic officer within the roads to the commissioner of police only differing from the magnitude. There have been several attempts to suggest solutions to the menace to mitigate the negative effects of corruption that has caused the country to rank amongst the most corrupt nations with police taking the first slots as the most corrupt institution in Kenya. However, experts and academia have noted that fight against corruption in the police force have more often than not ad hoc and trial and error basis. This forms the basis of this study which seeks to conduct a comparative study between strategies to fight corruption in Kenya police and Korea police force which is lowly ranked in the corruption prevalence index. Since Kenya and Korea police differ in many ways, it is assumed that a comparison will enumerate differences and

similarities on corruption prevalence and strategies to combat corruption and also highlight lessons that Kenya Police can learn from Korea police force and vice versa. This study examined the prevalence of corruption in the police service and centered on behavior in relation to duty and the tangible benefits that accrue to them (remuneration, payment of unfair profits or kickback) which is postulated to be the thread of connection between the two countries under study. The researcher sought to achieve the following objectives during the study; evaluation of strategies that could be implemented to mitigate the effects of corruption, strategies for combating corruption in Korea police service and could be implemented effectively in Kenya, and an evaluation of reasons behind corruption prevalence in the police service despite efforts to fight it.

1.4 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to identify and analyze the strategies to control corruption in the police service in the governments of Kenya and Korea

1.5 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- i. Identify the historical origin of corruption in Kenya and Korea police service.
- ii. Analyze factors promoting corruption in each country's police departments from 1963 to 2007.
- iii. Analyze the impact of corruption in each country economic, social and

foreign policies.

- iv. Analyze the effectiveness of corruption control strategies in each of the country's police divisions.
- v. To outline lessons Kenya police can learn through Korean experience.

1.6 Research questions

- i. What are the historical origins of corruption in Kenya and Korea police service?
- ii. What factors promote corruption in each country's police service from 1963 to 2007?
- iii. What was the impact of corruption in each country economic, social and foreign policies?
- iv. How effective were the strategies for controlling corruption in each of the country's police service?
- v. What lessons can Kenya police learn from Korean experience?

1.6.1 Research premises

- i. Historical origins of corruption in Kenya and Korea police service was influenced by colonial systems.
- ii. Korea has successfully initiated effective strategies to fight corruption in the police service.
- iii. Corruption has significant influence on each country's economic, social and foreign policies.
- iv. Kenya's strategy for overcoming corruption in the police department

has been ineffective.

- v. Kenya police can learn through Korean successful corruption implementation system

1.6.2 Justification and significance

The researcher selected Korea for comparison with Kenya due to his experience as a public servant in Korea. Further, Korea had much the same corruption depth and economic development levels in the 1960s. At present, however, Korea is the 10th biggest economic power and ranks the 40th in Corruption Perception Index (CPI) among 159 countries compared to Kenya which ranks 144th (Transparency International, 2006).

In any nation corruption is not only a serious impediment to social and political development it also affects leadership and diplomacy. The evidence presented by Transparency International shows that higher corruption is associated with; higher public investment; lower government revenues; lower expenditures on operations and maintenance; lower quality of public infrastructure. Evidence also shows that corruption increases public investment while reducing its productivity (Vito Tanzi & Hamid Davoodi, 2000). For this reason, reducing corruption which is principally cleaning governance is an essential element to Kenya that can bring about social, economic and political growth. This would ensure equity in distribution of resources and equitable sharing of the national resources since corruption diverts large amounts of resources from the public sector - money that could easily be spent better elsewhere to improve the economic and social welfare of the society.

The police service corruption in Kenya has been rated high in many reports by KACC. This study therefore, endeavored to generate knowledge that can be applied by policy makers in the police service, corrupt police officers, and people whose effort is to prevent corruption in the police service. Especially so, the comparative analysis of this study can be used to minimize the *ad hoc* methods of fighting corruption vice in any country trying to fight corruption in the police service.

1.6.3 Scope and limitations

The study intensively and extensively assesses the various anti-corruption approaches applied to work against corruption in the police service in Korea. The study focuses on comparing police service corruption in Korea and Kenya. The study was geared to find out the causes of corruption in police service and devise strategies of counteracting the vice in the police service. The study ventures into identifying successful strategies applied in Korea to fight corruption in the police service and apply them in the Kenyan situation. This study is limited in the sense that it concentrated itself within the police departments only and didn't investigate corruption in other departments of the government. The study was conducted in Kenya and Korea governments only. This study covers the period from 1963-2007.

1.7 Literature review

1.7.1 Interpretation of corruption

Virtually every published work on corruption, from the 1960s to the present, wrestles with the problem of defining it. The ability to articulate broad (if not universal) propositions that can be checked against empirical evidence requires a definition of corruption that is portable across cultures. But the brute fact is that practices that one society condemns as corrupt are considered harmless or even appropriate in another cultural context. The effort to establish general principles, thus confronts the inevitable particularity of corruption norms.

According to some Kenyan scholars, a search for an all-embracing and comprehensive definition of corruption can hardly be done with success (KivuthaKibwana et al, 1996). Okullu (2001) argues that corruption means impairment of integrity or moral principle; inducement to do wrong by bribery or other unlawful means. Mwiti (2003) says that corruption is a deviant behavior motivated by the spirit of private gain at the expense of public benefit. The advantage could be monetary, promotion, or a favor that benefits not just the corrupted, but his/her family, clan, tribe, or class. Corruption can also be defined in part as the immorality of the mind'. Furthermore, Anassi (2003) argued about common definitions of corruption. The most common of the definitions he observes include, "an inappropriate behavior or abuse of authority for personal gain by public officials;" "guilty of dishonesty especially involving bribery;" the abuse of public office for private gain;" "corruption is a serious transgression against public morality which is an indicator of lack of

financial, moral and intellectual integrity in business transactions' (Anassi Peter, 2003).

Corrupt acts are, in every definition, improper or illegitimate. The problem for social science consists of giving the term "improper" specific content. The political science literature offers three main approaches, based respectively on the public interest, public opinion, and legal norms (Scott, James, 1972). That is, public servants sacrifice the general interest in order to favor specific groups, in return for private rewards. The public-interest definition suffers from irremediable vagueness, as there is no way to identify an objective public interest as argued by scholars like Scott, Theobald (Theobald, Robin, 1990). Almost anything a government does is contrary to somebody's definition of the public interest.

Public opinion - based approaches argue that since corruption standards vary, corruption is what the public thinks it is (Gibbons, Kenneth M, 1989). But is the relevant public the political elite, the politically mobilized citizenry, or the whole population? Scott and Theobald have emphasized this debate. Furthermore, opinion regarding proper conduct in public office varies not just across groups, but can also vary across geographic regions within a country and across time.

The formal-legal approach identifies corrupt acts as those that violate "specific rules governing the way public duties should be performed", as "illegal exchanges" of political goods for private rewards as seen by scholars like

Manzetti and Blake(1996), Heidenheimer, Johnston and LeVine (1989), Williams (1987). But the law itself can be ambiguous (Lowenstein, Daniel H, 1989). Formal-legal approaches also suffer from some of the same limitations as the other two; the laws vary from state to state and also change over time, frequently in response to the manipulations of powerful political actors. Legal definitions also exclude acts that may not be illegal but are widely considered improper as emphasized by Moodie, and Theobald (1989).

Despite the lack of consensus on how to determine which practices should count as improper or illegitimate, there is in fact that a reasonably stable general definition of corruption. At the heart of this core definition are three elements. First Theobald, Palmier, LeVine see a distinction between the public sphere and the private sphere. Corruption, then, involves a breakdown, or blurring, in the public/private distinction (Palmier, Leslie, 1985; LeVine, Victor T, 1975).

Second LeVine, Manzetti and Blake argue that corrupt Act s involve an exchange, in which one party offers inducements (frequently but not necessarily monetary) to a public official in return for special policy or administrative advantages, or "political goods". Some analysts like Heidenheimer, Johnston and LeVine and Van Klaveren have made the exchange dimension the core of a "market-centred" or "political economic" approach (Van Klaveren, Jacob, 1989;Rose-Ackerman, Susan, 1978). The third element is the sense that such exchanges are improper, that is, they violate established norms. Thus corruption is behaviour by public officials that

"deviates from the norm actually prevalent or believed to prevail" or from "accepted norms" or it is "political conduct contrary to political norms" (Huntington, Samuel P, 1968; Morris, Stephen D, 1991). With these three elements, then, we have a useable general definition of corruption: the improper use of public office for private gain. For this study, we will define the term corruption to be the abuse of one's position or violation of the law by the police officer, in relation to their duty that leads to advantages of oneself or a third party.

Reports by numerous organizations like the World Bank (WB) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have observed that corruption diverts large amounts of resources from the public sector - money that could easily be spent better elsewhere to improve the economic and social welfare of the society (Klitgaard, Robert, 1991).

According to Staphenurst and Sedigh (1998), Corruption increases transaction cost of transmission of public services from 3% to 10% and increases inflation from 15% to 20% in public products' price because of monopoly privilege of government. Also graft and corruption bring about public servants loss of about 50% of government duty and taxes. Furthermore, corruption causes unfairness and increase in transaction cost in international trade. In short, corruption increases the cost of doing business. In view of this, Kaufmann pointed out that corruption decreases foreign direct investment. He argues that, compared to a country free of corruption, duty is 20% more in a country where there is corruption (Kaufmann, Daniel, 1999). Thus, public servants' corruption brings about economic waste, distorts resource distribution and investment because of

increased transaction cost and risk price, leading to political and administrative disorder and social disunity.

In conclusion of this subsection it has been observed that the vice of corruption is as old as man. King David used his political position as a king to kill Uriah, the husband of Bathsheba, he did so to acquire Uriah's wife. This was political corruption. Corruption is discussed everywhere in the Old Testament dispensation as existing not only in Israel as a nation, but also among all the neighbouring nations. Corruption in history is therefore widely spread. Plato and Aristotle struggled to define it long before the birth of Christ. The Roman Empire, the British monarchy and parliament, Hitler's regime, all tried to eradicate corruption through policies and so did Mahatma Gandhi.

Virtually, every published work on corruption, from the 1960s to the present, wrestles with the problem of defining it. This section of the study consists of what corruption is, case studies and the data problem in Kenya and Korea. This is to appreciate scholarly efforts made by other scholars in the past. It also gives this study a foundational base.

1.7.2 Case studies and the data problem

The majority of empirical research on corruption has consisted of single-country case studies as cited in Manzetti and Blake. The series similarly offer a variety of single-country cases as seen in the works of Markovits and Silverstein and Levi and Nelken (Markovits, Andrei S & Mark Silverstein, 1988; Levi, Michael & David Nelken, 1996). There are excellent book-length treatments of corruption in Ghana, Mexico, France, Kenya, and Korea, as well

as of larger regions, such as Asia or Africa (Meny, Yves, 1992 ; Lee Mun Jo, Park KwangKug, Park Ji Su & BaeByung II, 1996). But few studies are both comparative and empirical and this study aims at giving a comprehensive comparative and empirical analysis of two foreign countries, Kenya and Korea. Manzetti and Blake assess the effects of market reforms on corruption in three Latin American countries. Gillespie and Okruhlik propose an analytical framework for studying the politics of corruption cleanups, and provide an analysis of 25 Middle Eastern and North African countries. Kim Man Ki tried to seek a proper way of Korean administrative culture as compared to China, Japan and Korea (Gillespie, Kate & Gwenn Okruhlik, 1991; Kim Man Ki, 1984). The comparative, empirical analysis of corruption, then, has not made much headway, even though Scott as early as 1972 explicitly confronted the challenges involved and proposed a number of reasonable solutions (Scott, James C, 1972).

An overwhelming obstacle to comparative studies of corruption has been the lack of useable data on corrupt activities. Williams (1987) even suggests that the lack of "hard" numbers regarding corruption may explain the relative neglect of the subject by American political scientists. But he also points to the problem of data for comparative analysis: He says

"It seems, therefore, almost inevitable that the 'evidence' used by students of corruption is bound to be fragmentary, biased, anecdotal, potentially misleading, impressionistic and inadequate," and thus incapable of sustaining general

(comparative) theory. The reasons for the lack of numerical data on corrupt practices are not hard to imagine: corrupt actions take place in secret and are generally meant to remain secret; even the "victims" of corruption frequently are unaware that they have been victimized; those reporting or alleging instances of corruption can be political opponents of the accused with motives to discredit them; critics of corrupt practices often have a separate agenda to extol or denigrate specific groups; and governments may not want researchers probing such sensitive areas as seen by Noonan, Williams and Klitgaard (Noonan, John T, 1984; Klitgaard, Robert, 1987).”

As a consequence of the lack of cross-national data on corruption, scholars have been unable to say much about relative levels of corruption across countries, or to explain levels of corruption in terms of broad political or economic differences. This study thus aims to fill the sizeable gaps in research on corruption through use of data and views from different respondents on the police service.

1.7.3 The case of Kenya and Korea

Scholars argue that corruption in Kenya is spreading throughout the country and tends towards sustaining itself. In Korea, scholars are also researching diversely and perceive it as one of the problems that must be solved without fail for it is a big stumbling block in national economic development.

One can classify these studies into groups. First, they are formed in relation to the cause of corruption phenomena and control program mainly as seen in the works of Lee Young Gyun (1996), Han Tae Chon (1998), Gershon K. Mwiti, and Pius K. Kidombo(1999). Second, there stands out studies of corruption possibility and control program through case analysis of corruption by administrations and departments as seen in the works of Yun Tae bum (1999), Sagong Young Ho (2002) and Andrew Mullei(2000). Third, there are assessments of corruption prevention policies and research on corruption prevention structures in reference to the successive governments by scholars such as Kim Byung Sub(1999), Lee Sang Youp(2002), Kim Tae Young(1999), Ludeki Chweya, John Kithome Tuta and S. Kichamu Akivaga(2005). Fourth, there exist studies on anti-corruption strategies through analyzed case studies of foreign governments and the trend by international society on corruption prevention by scholars like Lee Sang Hwan (2001). Finally, there are inclusive analysis of corruption phenomena that include the causes of corruption, the types of corruption, level and controlling strategies in politics, administration, judicature and private sector by scholars like Lee Mun Jo(1996), and Peter Anassi.

In Kenya, there has been analysis done by the Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission (KACC) in their issue “National Corruption Perception Survey” and Office of the President issue “A Sourcebook for Corruption Prevention in the Public Service”. These are introduced plans for prevention and analysis of corruption in Kenya. In Korea, there was the Independent Commission Against

Corruption (KICAC) issue “White Paper for Preventing Corruption”, which assesses the state of corruption in Korea, the anti-corruption policy of successive governments and the international anti-corruption tendency.

Available literature on the character of anti-corruption drives in Kenya specifically can be understood at several levels. Purposeful investigations of corruption undertaken by publicly-mandated bodies have catalogued information critical to researchers wishing to study anti-corruption initiatives. In Kenya, these investigations are embodied in reports of the Parliamentary Public Accounts Committee (PAC), and of the Public Investments Committee (PIC), those of the Controller and Auditor-General, findings of the parliamentary Anti-Corruption Select Committee as well as those of the KACC (Kivutha Kibwana, S. Kichamu Akivaga, Lawrence Murugu Mute & Morris Odhiambo,2001). This study identified the possible setbacks.

The precedents researches made efforts in seeking for solution on and gave corruption prevention policies are useful to certain extent. Although the approaches were wide, inclusive and diverse there was insufficient result on investigations about the cause of police service corruption and control strategies through analysis of foreign case studies, in other words, a comparative study of two sovereign states. Therefore this study will emphasize on the right policies for police service corruption prevention in Kenya by analyzing the Korea success story as the case of reference.

1.8 Theoretical framework

A theory is a body of internally consistent empirical/theoretical generalization of descriptive, predictive and explanatory power (T. Columbus & J. Holfe, 1986). A theory explains, describes and predicts phenomena. Since a theory provides a framework within which to operate, it is hard to think or make a scientific study without a theory (A.J.R. Groom, 1990). In this regard, the researcher chose ecological theory also called environmental theory. The theory anticipates difference among national administration system practices. The main proponent of this theory is John M. Gaus. According to him the ecology of public administration includes physical, political social and cultural factors all which shape administrative behaviour. The theory is greatly emphasized by Fred Riggs. This theory postulates that public bureaucrats throughout the world show great diversity because of the environmental setting in which they function in. This theory provides a platform for comparative analysis of two nations (Kenya & Korea) since the environmental settings is fundamentally different, culturally, physically, politically and socially.

Further, to conduct an in-depth analysis with the police as a government institution the research to anchor his study on another theory, the structural functionalist approach. In building this theory, Riggs used the structural functionalist approach that prevailed in the 1960s. He draws essentially upon concepts of structural functionalist analysis developed by sociologists. They (Talcott Parsons, Robert Melton, Emile Durkheim, Taylor among others) argued that every system is made of various structures which perform various

functions. This approach envisages that a system consists of a sub-system and these systems are in constant interaction with each other. Thus administrative sub-system interacts with economic, political, social and cultural sub-systems. They are also affected by intra-group activities.

Furthermore, corruption differs from one culture to another. Owing to this, approach and methods of preventing corruption have initiated variety. The approach which was adopted in this study to understand the derivative phenomena of nations' development processes is both ecological and structural functional theorems.

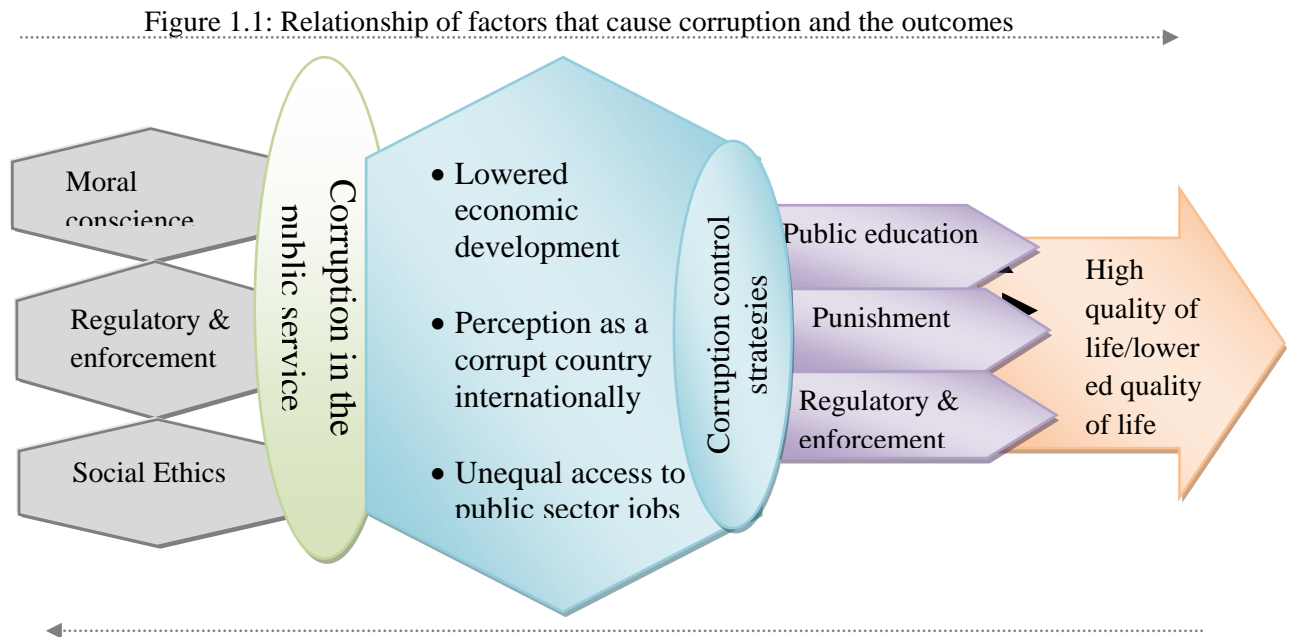
In 1960, functionalism understood bureaucratic corruption as a phenomenon in the modernization process. Corruption is a by-product of inevitable appearance as necessary evil during the process of modernization and development. After modernization is accomplished, corruption will be self-destructive. In this case, it is argued that corruption affects functionally the development of politics and economy. The proponents of this theory are Barnard, 2000, Layton, 1997 and Kuper, 1988.

This approach identifies corruption as a universal phenomenon which exists in every country in the world, and it has the attribute that is ever present or self-everlasting. Also, corruption is a multifaceted-monster that has various faces and brings about social problems, and it is an obstacle in changing of organizations and reforming of society

The structural/affiliation theory, first presented by Arthur Niederhoffer, states that officers become indoctrinated into corruption by watching the actions of veterans and superiors. Officers do not start out corrupt, but the deviant behavior and the response to such behavior in the law enforcement field starts a corruption cycle. New comers are taught the behavior, and the acceptance of such behavior, by veterans who learned the behavior from yet others, and if not stopped, they will later pass the behavior on to an entirely new crop of officers. Another important element to this theory is the belief that secrecy acts as a breeding ground for corruption. Corruption, under this theory, must be countered by external remedies such as civilian review boards. So long as departments are not open to outside review, there is no one that has the resources needed to stop the corruption cycle and so new officers will take a look around, see that it's the norm and is accepted, or at least ignored, and then participate in the behavior (Delattre, 2006).

The structural-functional theory, however, has a weakness in that it emphasis on equilibrium and maintains the status quo based on the assumption that social forces are static.

1.8.1 Conceptual framework



NB: The arrow points to the dependent variable

The parameters (variables) in this study include both independent and dependent variables.

Independent variables

Moral conscience - Conscience is an aptitude, faculty, intuition or judgment that assists in distinguishing right from wrong. Moral conscience urges a person to do good and avoid evil and also judges his particular choices (past, present, and future).

Regulatory and enforcement framework – this define policies and laws that have been enacted to deal with corruption and other economic crimes in each of the country (Kenya and Korea)

Social ethics –this defines the appropriate behaviour expected from a society as a whole and it originates from the collective experiences of people and cultures throughout their lifetime.

Dependent variables

Lowered economic development – defines a state of reduce economic growth in a country resulting in poverty, unemployment among others.

Perception as a corrupt country internationally – defines international perception towards a country either as a corrupt or corrupt free country

Unequal access to public sector jobs– defines the state of individuals in country possessing same qualifications academic or otherwise but having different predisposition on accessing employment due to corruption.

Ineffective public service – defines a state of the public service being unable to deliver services to the populace

Intervening variables

Regulator and enforcement framework – this define the application of policies and laws set in a nation to combat a social vice

Public education – this is defined as the process of providing the members of the public with requisite knowledge and information regarding a subject matter like corruption and so on.

Punishment - this is defined as deterrent measure meted on culpable individual as corrective or retributive process to ensure the populace either

learns from such individuals or refrains from illegal activities due to resultant consequences of Actions.

Outcome - High quality of life/lowered quality of life – this it is envisaged that if corruption is eradicated in police force, a number of benefits will accrue ranging from increased economic development, positive international image, and an effective public service leading to a positive impact on human development and vice versa.

The Variables both independent (moral conscience, regulatory and enforcement framework and social ethics), the interactions between these variables breeds corruption and or corrupt free institutions/society. The parameters (dependent variables) that define impact of corruption in this study include; lowered economic development, corruption perception internationally, unequal access to public sector opportunities and ineffective public service. To deal with these effects, another variable (corruption control) which has number of components (public education, punishment and regulatory enforcement as delineated in this study) which leads to either high quality of life or low quality of life if the corruption strategies are positive and vice versa.

1.9 Research methodology

1.9.1 Research design

Research design can be thought of as the structure of research. This study adopted a descriptive research design which was comparative in nature. Descriptive studies are concerned with finding out “what is” (Borg and Gall,

1989). The study employed a comparative approach since it enabled investigation to be made for relational factors by collection and use of both quantitative and qualitative data of two different study locales. This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. Each paradigm is “best suited for certain research questions and in many cases a combination of the two approaches is recommended”. According to Mugenda (1999), descriptive research design is probably the best method to social scientists and other educators who are interested in collecting original data for the purpose of describing a population.

1.9.2 Study locale

The areas of study were Kenya and Korea. The rationale for conducting this study in Kenya and Korea was because the researcher witnessed cases of the vice directly when working as a public servant in Korea. Furthermore, Korea had much the same depth of corruption and she was at the same level of economic development as Kenya in 1960's. At present, however, Korea is the 10th biggest economic power and ranks the 40th in Corruption Perception Index (CPI) in Transparency International (TI) among 159 countries compared to Kenya which ranks 144th. This study used Korea as a guide since it had launched comprehensive anti-corruption programs. The study was conducted in the public service with reference to police department leaving out the subjects of the legislature and the judiciary administration. This is because these subjects require different approaches due to their different environments which they are based.

This study used Korea as a guide for comparison and analysis of strategies to control corruption in the public service. In fact, Kenya and Korea are different in very many ways, *inter alia* in the distance between them and in administration, but this study of corruption among public servants covered the areas of their behavior and their relation to duty. The tangible benefits that accrue to them - remuneration, payment of unfair profits or kickbacks - are the thread of connection between the two countries under study. In conclusion, this study aimed at examining the prevalence of corruption in Kenya.

1.9.3 Sampling techniques and sample size

The collection of primary data involved the use of purposive sampling method to identify informants for the questionnaires. The informants were selected based on their knowledge of the nature of corruption in the area of study (Kenya and Korea). The selection of the informants was purposive because not everybody in the target population is knowledgeable as far as this research is concerned. The researcher sample size was a total of two hundred and forty people. The informants were categorized as follows: 10 Experts including renowned scholars like professors and lecturers at the universities and researchers in corruption issues. These were informants with professional knowledge therefore an interview was the best option to conduct the research.

In the Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission(KACC) and Korea Independent Commission Against Corruption(KICAC), 10 officers including employees who are working currently and dealing with corruption scourge were contacted.

This category has a wide experience in this case therefore an interview was most suitable in order to get useful data.

In the Police officers, 70 officers from both Kenya and Korea were contacted through questionnaires and telephone in the case of Kenya and E-mail for Korea respondents. The Ordinary citizens category of respondents included the members of the public, professionals, students among others. The researcher targeted 130 respondents from each of the country. These respondents were reached through hand delivered questionnaires.

The study also targeted 20 Foreigners; this was a special category where only a portion of the foreigners have lived in the country for more than two years. Due to the difficulties involved in approaching this category of respondents the researcher used questionnaires and email in this study.

1.9.4 Research instruments

Primary data was collected from Kenya using field interviews and questionnaire methods, in Korea; the study used four methods i.e. field interviews, questionnaires, and telephone and e-mail interviews. Open ended and multiple choice questions were used in the questionnaire. This enabled the interviewer to get deep views and opinions from the respondents about the problem under study (corruption). Probing was also employed during the interview with a view of articulating and clarifying issues that arise during the interview. The study sample was drawn from renowned scholars and researchers in corruption issues, KACC and KICAC members dealing with

corruption scourge, public servants in police department, general citizens of both countries (Kenya and Korea) and foreigners. Primary data was important in this study because it offered an opportunity to the researcher to collect firsthand information and test hypothesis in the field. It also put the researcher in touch with the reality under study.

This study also utilized secondary data. There was exploration and critical analysis on the relevant works that have already been published in books, journals, newspapers, articles, book chapters, relevant papers that have been presented at different forums. The studies also entailed a critical reflection on the data collected from the field. This was important as it incorporated the researcher's critical contribution to the study. This allowed critical appreciation of prior studies that have been done on the area related to the subject under study (corruption). The data collected was analyzed in relation to the research objectives.

1.9.5 Data collection

1.9.5.1 Field research for collecting primary data

Field research was carried out in the two countries as described above under the site of study. The researcher was assisted by eight research assistants to conduct the interviews. Three research assistants were based in Kenya while the remaining five were based in Korea. In Kenya the experts and KACC members' categories had one research assistant each while the third researcher was in charge of the public servants, ordinary citizens and foreigners. In Korea

there was one research assistant for each category of informants. The researchers in charge of public servants and ordinary citizens also conducted telephone and E-mail interviews. The research assistants under foreigners were flexible in the language they used in Korea and this mainly depended on the language the informants were comfortable with in communicating. The informants or respondents were interviewed individually but sometimes focus group discussions and interviews were administered.

1.9.5.2 Archival and library research for collecting secondary data

Secondary data was also collected from Kenya and Korea. In Kenya, information of graft was collected through the archives, newspapers, magazines and government documents during that period. The source of data was from Kenya National Archives, Kenya National library, KACC library, Moi library (Kenyatta University), Jomo Kenyatta Memorial Library (University of Nairobi), IFRA library and the Police department. In Korea, the same was obtained from secondary sources, National library, National Assembly library, KICAC library, Jeon Buk University library, City library, JeonBuk province government library, Jeon Buk local assembly library, the Police department and National Electronic library.

1.9.6 Data analysis

This section explains method applied in analyzing and interpretation of data. All primary and secondary data obtained was subjected to both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Primary data gathered from the field was done through oral interviews and questionnaires by means of telephone, e-mail and face-to-

face contact. The data collected was summarized and coded according to the research objectives and statistics derived. The data gathered was grouped according to different categories, such as age, gender, occupation, nationality etc. The data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The researcher made use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and spreadsheets in data analysis. Primary data was compared to that of secondary data and if the data conflicted, then reference was done to archival sources to enhance reliability of information. Secondary sources were conducted in archives and results subjected to historical criticism in order to verify their validity.

1.9.7 Data management and ethical considerations

The researcher and his assistants ensured confidentiality and informed consent after creating rapport with respondents. Plagiarism was avoided since the researcher cited and acknowledged all referred resources in this research accordingly. Gender sensitivity was ensured in terms of questions asked as well as in report writing. Right to anonymity was maintained through the avoidance of respondents names if need be. Necessary research findings will be disseminated without discrimination to all interested parties.

1.10 Conclusion

Preliminary analysis the evidence presented by Transparency International (TI) shows that higher corruption is associated with higher public investment, lower government revenues, lower expenditures on operations and maintenance and

lower quality of public infrastructure. Evidence also shows that corruption increases the cost of public investment while reducing its productivity and social outcomes. Fostering transparent and accountable governance practices are critical elements for reducing corruption especially in the police service.

Furthermore, Korea had much the same level of corruption and was at the same level of economic development as Kenya in 1960s. At present, however, Korea is the 10th biggest economic power and ranks the 40th in Corruption Perception Index (CPI) in Transparency International(TI) among 159 countries compared to Kenya which ranks 144th. If corruption is to reduce, a mechanism must be instituted at the police service. Since the study adopted a descriptive survey design which was comparative in nature it enabled the researcher to compare the variables in two different scenarios. Since the respondents/informants in this study were from different categories namely experts (including scholars and researchers from universities), KACC/KICAC officials, Public servants, ordinary citizens and foreigners and sampled purposively. The secondary data was used. This ensured that the findings were anchored on the foundation of other studies, recorded information from various anti-corruption and security actors leading to validation of the study as an authoritative, informative and practical. Further since the reliability and validity of research instruments was established after piloting it ensured that the survey had high degree of accuracy and also complied with ecological validity of such studies. The fact that the study was scientific and has been validated by other studies and opinions, this has enabled the study to

authoritatively contribute to the existing bodies of knowledge in anti-corruption sub-sector.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 CORRUPTION AND POLICE SERVICE IN KENYA

2.1 Introduction

It is the objective of this chapter is to analyse the history of the police service, corruption in the service, the values, roles and other aspects related to the Kenya Police service. Further, the main aim of this chapter of this chapter is to help understand the Kenyan police system in terms of the structure, management and the organization. It goes further to explain how corruption in the police department came about and outlines its consequences and the solutions to minimize and get rid of corruption in the Kenyan police service.

2.2 The history of the Kenya police force

The Kenya police have its humble beginning in the period between 1887 and 1902 tracing its foundation on the Imperial British East Africa (I.B.E.A) Company. The first police officers were recruited in 1887 by the Imperial British East Africa (I.B.E.A) to provide security for the company's stores in Mombasa. The Coast based company under Sir William Mackinnon recognized the need to have security to the company premises and stores. As more trading ports were established in interior Kenya and Uganda more officers were needed. Generally, police activity centered on protection of the business of the I.B.E.A Company had its strength mainly of Indian origin with a skeleton staff of some Africans referred to as 'Askaris'. During those early stages of the

small police force, its duties were negligible (The Kenya police service strategic plan 2003-2007: Human Rights Watch, 2004; Mwaura, N, 2005).

According to Robert Foran (1962), the earliest history of East-Central Africa provided the background for the creation of the British East African Company at the end of 1902. In essence peace, law and order had to be maintained despite the fact that the personnel employed then had little training. The laws in force were from India including the Indian criminal procedure code, the Indian evidence Act and police ordinance. It is notable that up to 1907, the Kenya police was organized along military lines and the training was military in nature. In 1906, the Kenya police was legally constituted by the police ordinance (Gatheru, M, 2005).

In order to improve police performance, the then Governor, Sir Hayes Saddler appointed a committee to look into the affairs of the Kenyan police force. One of the committee recommendations was the establishment of the police training school in Nairobi. In 1909, captain W.F.S. Edwards noted that the military element had been promoted at the expense of police training, as a result of which a training department was established in Nairobi in 1911 together with a small finger print section (Anderson, D, 2005).

Later, the office of the inspectorate general was established to unite various units of the police service and to administer the operations of the police force. These developments continued during the turbulent years of First World War (1914-1918). After the end of the First World War, and the years that followed an influx of undesirable European characters infiltrated Nairobi from South

Africa and they indulged in drunken habits which frequently ended up in fracas.

The First World War interrupted this development of the force in 1914 where the Kenya police were deployed in military service to fight alongside British soldiers. After the end of the war in 1918, the police force was recognized. This entailed increasing personnel and creating better administrative and residential housing facilities. During the same period, schools were established for African education, thereby improving literacy in the force and by 1940, there were many literate African officers. The British East Africa protectorate, with the exception of ten mile wide coastal strip leased from sultan of Zanzibar was proclaimed a crown colony in July 1920 changing its name to Kenya colony, while the title of the force changed to Kenya police force. In 1926 the criminal intelligence unit was established with the sole responsibility of collecting, tabulating and recording the history and data of criminals, undesirable and suspicious persons (The Kenya police service strategic plan 2003-2007; pg 3)

In the same year 1926 the railway police unit was also established to specifically deal with prevention and detection of offences in railway from coast to Kisumu, including Kilindini harbor and branch lines. As the years progressed, the scope of police Activities increased. It was called upon to deal with traffic problems such as accidents and parking. The police were also called upon to deal with cattle rustling in the country side. As preparation for the Second World War, police recruits were deployed in northern frontier

districts to counter the threat from Italian Somali land and Ethiopia. In addition to fighting alongside regular soldiers, the Kenya police acted as guides, interpreters and carried out reconnaissance mission in the enemies' territories (Anassi P, 2005).

In 1946, the police force was placed under the office of the attorney general. The police officers powers were increased to cope with the new development and a new police training department was opened in Maseno. In 1948, several important developments were made in the force. The Kenya police reserve was formed as an auxiliary of the force. This unit used armored cars and was deployed in trouble spots. To improve the effectiveness of crime control, a dog section was also introduced in 1948 and the general service unit established and deployed in troubled areas during emergency situations (The Kenya police service strategic plan2003-2007; Pg 4).

In 1949, the police air wing was formed to carry out duties of communication and evacuation of sick persons to hospital and was made part of the permanent police force in January 1953. After declaration of state of emergency in 1952, there was an immediate increase in personnel to cope with the situation and in response to the Mau Mau insurgency. In 1953 a commission was formed to review the organization, administration and expansion of the police force (World Vision Kenya, 2008).

In 1957, the police headquarters building was opened and in 1958 the force was integrated within the ministry of defense. In the period prior to independence, the Kenya police was greatly involved in the maintenance of

law and order during political meetings and at the height of the independence election period. After Kenya gained her independence from Britain on 12th December 1963, there was need to make some drastic changes in the administration of the force (Transparency International, 2004). This led to the replacement of the expatriate officers in the senior ranks by Africans. Since then, the force has realized tremendous achievement in various fields of operation. Among them, due to the increase in criminal activities and in line with the police to effectively deal with security threats and bring down criminal to minimal levels, various smaller units have been formed. These include the anti-stock theft unit, anti-motor vehicle theft unit, tourism police unit, the anti-corruption police unit, presidential escort unit, diplomatic and the anti-terrorism police unit (The Kenya police service and strategic plan 2003-2007; Pg 5).

2.3 Establishment of police service in Kenya

The Kenya police service was established under the provision of an Act of parliament known as the Police Act, chapter 84 of the laws of Kenya. There are two police departments in Kenya. The first is the Kenya police force, established under the police Act and headed by the commissioner of police who is appointed by the President under the provisions of section 108 of the constitution of Kenya. The second is the administration police, which was established under the administration police Act and is headed by the administration police commandant. The Police Act provides for the functions, organization and discipline of the Kenya police service and the Kenya police

reserve, and for matters incidental thereto. According to section 14 of the Act, the police service was established in the Republic of Kenya. In addition to the police Act the police service is governed by:

1. Police regulations published in 1961 (*Michelle Kagari and Sopy Thomas, 1961*). *The police, the people, the politics: police accountability in Kenya, commonwealth human rights initiative and the Kenya human right commission 2006; pg12*) which set out the list of discipline offenses, private use of the list of disciplinary offenses and private use of the police and administration.
2. The standing order with the general control direction and information of force (*Michelle Kagari and Sopy Thomas, 1961*). *The police, the people, the politics: police accountability in Kenya, commonwealth human rights initiative and the Kenya human right commission 2006; pg13*). The standing orders are issued by the police commission and regulate procedures on day to day operation and administration matters largely drafted in 1962. They have been received several times, most recently in 2001.
3. The police manual which was issued in 1997. The manual is a practical guide that contains a summary of relevant laws and guidance on good behaviors, proper procedure and lawful action to be taken in given situations.

2.4 The vision of the Kenya police

According to the strategic plan (2004-2008), the vision of the Kenya police was to be a world-class police service which is people friendly, responsive and professional workforce.

2.5 Core values of the Kenya police force

The police force upholds the following core values:

It is supposed to be pro-active and responsive in the discharge of their duties and to exercise integrity and courtesy at all the times. It should also cultivate and maintain partnership with all stakeholders and create and maintain team spirit within the service, should be fair and firm in all their undertaking, to maintain disciplined and professional work force and to be gender sensitive and respect the rights of customers (The Kenya police service strategic plan 2003-2007; Pg 6).

2.6 The functions of the Kenya police force

The police have been given various powers by the law via article 84 of the Kenya police Act, to enable them to perform their functions. The police generally have the authority to arrest, detain, search, and charge a person whom they have a reason to believe he has committed an offence. They had powers to enter and search premises, homes or vehicles. They can also take fingerprints, photographs or other evidence to assist them with investigation or prosecution of criminal offences. The recent amendment to the evidence Act does not allow the police to take confessions from accused persons which they could

previously do. But as the law gives the police the powers, the law does not allow the police to break the law (Kenya police culture piloting and attitude change pilot training final report prepared by Pricewaterhouse coopers, September 2007;Pg1).

In its strategic plan (2004-2008), the Kenya police set out its vision, mission and mandate. The plan also underlined the following key strategic objectives namely; to prevent and detect crime, to maintain law and order and bring offenders to justice; to improve human resource management; to improve and expand facilities, equipment and technologies to enhance service delivery; to build a positive image for the police service; to strengthen the institutional framework and to improve disaster management frame work (Anderson, D, 2005; Gatheru, M, 2005).

2.7 Units in the police force

Up until 2007 the police and administration police had various specialized units to deal with various forms of security threats. These included the Criminal intelligence department, the General Service unit, the police air-wing, the presidential escort, the Kenya Police College, the Kenya airport police unit, the tourist police, the railways police, the traffic police, dog unit and the anti-terrorism unit.

2.8 Corruption in Kenya police service

The subject of corruption has evoked a considerable amount of commentary in Kenya. A number of reports, books and articles exist on the appalling cause, facts and consequences of corruption for example reports produced by transparency international Kenya, different acts and rules rectified by the government and books edited by various authors. In this chapter most of the literature largely focused on, several reports, newspapers, books and acts. However, while a certain level of corruption goes on in every country, corruption in Kenya especially in the police service is particularly a large problem that affects social, economic and political interests in the nation. Police corruption is a specific form of police misconduct designed to obtain financial benefits, personal gain, or career advancement for a police officer or officers in exchange for not pursuing, or selectively pursuing, an investigation or arrest. One common form of police corruption is soliciting or accepting bribes in exchange for not reporting organized drug or prostitution rings or other illegal activities. Another example is police officers flouting the police code of conducting order to secure convictions of suspects — for example, through the use of falsified evidence. More rarely, police officers may deliberately and systematically participate in organized crime themselves. In most major cities there are internal affairs sections to investigate suspected police corruption or misconduct. Police corruption is a significant widespread problem in Kenya.

Corruption poses a serious development challenge. In the political realm, it undermines democracy and good governance by flouting or even subverting formal processes. Corruption in elections and in legislative bodies reduces accountability and distorts representation in policymaking; corruption in the judiciary compromises the rule of law; and corruption in public administration results in the inefficient provision of services. It violates a basic principle of republicanism regarding the centrality of civic virtue. More generally, corruption erodes the institutional capacity of government as its procedures are disregarded, resources are siphoned off, and public offices are bought and sold. At the same time, corruption undermines the legitimacy of government and such democratic values as trust and tolerance.

According to a report issued by an anti-corruption watchdog it was evident that, the Kenya police force was poorly paid at Ksh.18000 per month and the highest paid officer at Ksh.269000. Other countries have officers being paid as much as Ksh640800 per month. As such the police force was the most bribe-prone institution in the country. According to the report corruption grew worse in Kenya after President Mwai Kibaki came to power in 2002. (<http://dalje.com/en-world/police-ranked-most-corrupt-institution-in-kenya/732> 43)

Kenya ranked 144th on Transparency International's 159-nation global corruption list -- above only Guinea, Sudan, Equatorial Guinea and Ivory Coast in Africa. The police force dominated the separate Kenyan bribery index launched in 2002 as the worst offender. The Kenya Bribery Index, compiled by

TI's local branch, found that Kenyans encountered bribery in 54 percent of their interactions with officials in 2006 against 47 percent in 2005. In 2005, Kenya was ranked 5th most corrupt country out of 159 states. In 2004, it was perceived to be the 6th worst out of 145 countries previously in 2003 and it had been ranked 6th corrupt country (Rose-Ackerman', the challenges of poor governance and corruption' sourced (<http://osp.stanford.edu/files/challenge-poor-gov.pdf>, March, 2012)

Shortly after the landmark of 2002 elections, posters and information booklets advising Kenyans to report corruption were posted in almost every public office. There were even instances of Kenyans making a citizen's arrest on police officers who asked for "kitukidogo" -- "something small" in the local Swahili language. Although the majority of bribes in 2006 were paid to the police, its score improved to 46.6 from 60.3, partly because the government's decision to scrap road licenses removed one reason for officers to stop cars in search of a bribable offence. The study also showed the gap in bribes between the police and the second worst institution -- the Transport Licensing Board -- had narrowed, while the number of areas in which the police ranked worst fell to two from four out of six. According to the chairman of Kenya's Transparency International steering committee, Richard Leakey, reform in the force seems to be bearing fruit, however, media reports show that police are more blatant in demanding bribes and they still rank the worst in terms of likelihood and frequency. (<http://dalje.com/en-world/police-ranked-most-corrupt-institution-in-kenya/73243>).

2.9 Forms of corruption in Kenya police force

The most important elements of police corruption were misuse of authority and misuse of personal attainment. Widespread corruption at every level of the administrative department posed as a great obstacle in its working efficiently and effectively. It inverted the goals of the organization and thus encouraged and created crime rather than deter it. One of the main causes for this was that the police officials had ceased to act as professionals and were politicized to a great extent. They were manipulated by political leaders, who had misused the power of appointments and transfers to patronize weak or corrupt officers for their own selfish purposes at the cost of public interest. The main areas for their interference were appointments, transfers, rewards, and punishments. General police corruption includes bribery or exchange of money or something of value between the police and the wrong doer. Other police crimes may range from brutality, fake encounters, sexual harassment, custodial crimes, to illicit use of weapons. Despite an attempt to eliminate corruption by ways like increased salaries, upgraded training, incentive for education, and developing policies that focus directly on factors leading to corruption, it still widely existed(<http://www.pucl.org/Topics/Police/2007/police-corruption.html>, May, 2012)

2.10 Patterns of corruption in Kenya

Political corruption in the post-colonial government of Kenya has had a history which spans the era of the Jomo Kenyatta and Daniel arap Moi's KANU governments to the Mwai Kibaki's NARC government. In the Corruption

Perceptions Index 2005 Kenya is ranked 144th out of 159 countries for corruption (least corrupt countries are at the top of the list). It is estimated the average urban Kenyan pays 16 bribes per month. Most of these bribes are fairly small but large ones are also taken — bribes worth over 50,000 Kenyan shillings (€600, USD\$700) account for 41% of the total value. There is also corruption on a larger scale with each of the last two regimes being criticized (<http://books.google.com/books?isbn=1462036163>).

2.11 Corrupt acts by police officers

Police officers have various opportunities to gain personally from their status and authority as law enforcement officers. The Knapp Commission, which investigated corruption in the New York City Police Department in the early 1970s, divided corrupt officers into two types: *meat-eaters*, who "aggressively misuse their police powers for personal gain," and *grass-eaters*, who "simply accept the payoffs that happen in instances of police work." The sort of corrupt

Acts that have been committed by police officers have been classified as follows: Corruption of authority: police officers receiving free drinks, meals, and other gratuities. Kickbacks: receiving payment from referring people to other businesses. This can include, for instance, contractors and tow truck operators. Opportunistic theft from arrestees and crime victims or their corpse's Shakedowns: accepting bribes for not pursuing a criminal violation. Protection of illegal activity: being "on the take", accepting payment from the operators of illegal establishments such as brothels, casinos, or drug dealers to

protect them from law enforcement and keep them in operation. "Fixing": undermining criminal prosecutions by withholding evidence or failing to appear at judicial hearings, for bribery or as a personal favor and direct criminal activities by law enforcement officers. Internal payoffs: prerogatives and perquisites of law enforcement organizations, such as shifts and holidays, being bought and sold. The "frame up": the planting or adding to evidence, especially in drug cases, i.e. police hazing within law enforcement. Such as the New Jersey State Police Lords of Discipline. Ticket: police officers canceling traffic tickets as a favor to the friends and family of other police officers (Mwaura, N, 2005).

According to Peter Annassi (2005), corruption has a negative impact to the economy of a nation whether small or big, it undermines economic development by advancing, narrow and selfish economic policies that contribute to incompetence in delivery of services to people (Anassi P, 2005).

2.12 Cultural attitude within the police force in relation to corruption

Since the formation of the police force in Kenya, majority of the police and the citizens mind set is positioned such that, the ordinary citizen fears the police, while the police cause fear to the citizen. This perception has contributed to the practice that, the police meets the interests of the rich, and the powerful instead of servicing the needs of all the citizens (World Vision Kenya, 2008).

2.13 Kenya police force culture

Certain culture cropped up within the police force such that ;there is centralized command and control as the police is isolated from the community, there is lack of consultation, participation and partnership on issues concerning the community between the police and the community. Secrecy and lack of democratic accountability dominates the police force. The police force attends to matters in a reactive way which leaves a question mark on their responsibility and pro-activeness in handling different cases. For a long time police force have been known to be unsympathetic and not victim focused. the police force have also been detached from the other element of the justice sector thus encouraging human rights abuse ,unethical behavior practices within the police force. (source: *Department for International Development*), *safety, security and access to justice: putting policy into practice, July2002*)

2.14 Duties of the police force to the society

Good policing is founded on the police doing their specific tasks well and developing and sustaining effective partnership with a range of other state institutions, civil society and business structures. An effective policing strategy ideally combines three components namely improving the core functions of the police which include patrolling /guarding, receiving charges from the public, detection of crime and conducting prosecution. It also includes mobilizing a wide range of stakeholders in sustained efforts to prevent crime. This is sometimes referred to as community policing. It does not replace the core functions of the police but enhances them. Also, it emphasizes that the police

are an integral part of a wider system by fostering linkages with other parts of the government system and relevant civil society structures.

2.15 Causes of corruption in Kenya

2.15.1 Tribalism

One factor that fuels the problems of corruption in Kenya is tribal loyalty. People in Kenya are first and foremost loyal to their families, then their clan (extended family), then their tribe. Member of the same clan or tribe often 'help' each other, even when it involves corruption. Tribal influences have waned over the years, but are still strong (<http://www.kenyaadvis-or.com/corruption-in-kenya.html>).

2.15.2 Ignorance

The general public is deliberately kept in a state of ignorance, which enables corrupt individuals to carry on their practices right in front of the people who have no idea what to do about it. Even when people are aware that a public servant is doing wrong, they are woefully ignorant of the actions they can take to deal with that person.

2.15.3 The poor corporate practices of the state

The state tells people what to do rather than the people telling the state what it should do, in which case there seems to be a master servant relationship between the government and its people. When people believe that the government is a master and they are servants, even basic services are converted

from being rights to favours' hence citizens are ever willing to pay bribes to get what is theirs rightfully.

2.15.4 Abuse of power

The most glaring practice by government agents is misuse and abuse of the power of the offices they hold. Such administrators make decisions that are contrary to the common good, and then face no punishment for it. The case of Goldenberg International scandal shows how a minister abused his office as was documented by the Judicial Commission of Inquiry into the Goldenberg Affair(Transparency International, 2004).

A research by the Transparency International recently showed that more than 51% of Kenyans paid bribes to receive services from government offices. These are services they should already receive without pay. It remains true today that there are those who consider government jobs to be opportunities for amassing wealth by receiving bribes. This tendency has grown to the point where, despite employing qualified professionals, the government always renders mediocre services, due to bad governance, political patronage\lack of political will, breakdown/erosion/perversion of societal values and norms, non-enforcement of the law, tribalism, favoritism, nepotism and cronyism, weak or absence of management systems, procedures and practices, weak civil society and apathy, lack of professional integrity, lack of transparency and accountability, inefficient public sector procedures and greed(<http://softkenya.com/law/benefits-of-fighting-corruption/>).

2.16 Strategies for fighting corruption in Kenya

Several strategies have been put forward as means of fighting and eliminating corruption in Kenya and specifically in the police service. They include; launching of informative campaigns on the impact of corruption, suspension for those caught indulging in corrupt practices and when it's necessary sacking of those officials who are involved in corruption.

a) Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission

Kenya has had an anti-corruption legislation from way back in 1956. The Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65) was in operation from August 1956 to May 2003 when the Anti-Corruption and Economic Crimes Act, No 3 of 2003 became operational and repealed it.

Initially, the Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65) was primarily to be enforced by the Police Department. But corruption grew over the years despite the existence of the Prevention of Corruption Act. An effort was made to establish an Anti-Corruption squad within the Criminal Investigation Department of the Police Department, but the squad was disbanded before it could make an impact. The Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65) was amended in 1987 to provide for the establishment of the Kenya Anti-Corruption Authority (KACA).

The first Director of KACA, Mr. John Harun Mwau was appointed ten years later in December 1997. He was suspended after being in office for only six months and was later removed through a Judicial Tribunal appointed by the

then President Daniel Arap Moi. The second Director of KACA, Justice Aaron Ringera was appointed in early 1998.

However, in December 2000, the High Court in the case of *Gachiengo V Republic* (2000) 1 EA 52(CAK) held that the existence of KACA undermined the powers conferred on both the Attorney General and the Commissioner of Police by the Constitution of the Republic of Kenya. In addition, the High Court further held that the statutory provisions establishing the KACA were in conflict with the Constitution. That spelt the death of KACA and the vigor through which the Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap 65) had sought to fight corruption in Kenya.

b) Legislation

After this debacle, there were efforts to resuscitate the fight against corruption. This culminated in the enactment of two pieces of legislation in April 2003. These were;

- i. The Anti-Corruption and Economic Crimes Act, No 3 of 2003
- ii. The Public Officer Ethics Act, No 4 of 2003.

These two statutes became operational on 2nd May 2003. The Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65) was repealed by Section 70 of the Anti-Corruption and Economic Crimes Act No. 3 of 2003. The Anti-Corruption and Economic Crimes Act, establishes the Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission (KACC) as a body corporate, prescribes its composition and confers power to it. The establishment of KACC has been an important milestone in the fight against

corruption in Kenya. This has been part of the Kenya Government's commitment to eradicate corruption, improve good governance and foster transparency in all sectors. The Director and the three Assistant Directors formally took office on the 10th September, 2004. They then embarked on a spirited campaign to recruit senior and junior staff culminating in the recruitment of the last batch of officers, who reported on duty on the 1st August, 2005.

Within one year or so that KACC has been in existence, a lot has been done within its mandate touching inter-alia on, investigations, asset tracing and recovery, prevention of corruption through identification and elimination of opportunities for corruption in systems and procedures of public bodies and public education aimed at enlisting public support. The Act also establishes the Kenya Anti-Corruption Advisory Board an unincorporated body comprising of persons nominated by a cross-section of stakeholders. The Advisory Board makes recommendations for person to be appointed as a Director and Assistant Directors. It also advises the Commission generally on the exercise of its powers and performance of its functions under the Act (KACC_Annual_Report_2004-2005)

c) Eradicating corruption in the service (Kenya Police Service Strategic plan 2003-2007)

1. Carry of surveys to identify corruption prone ares
2. Assess all process and producures

3. Educate all officers and stakeholders on human rights and virtues of a corruption free society
4. Carry out Zero tolerance campaigns
5. Carry out regular book and manpower audit
6. Discard processes and procedures creating pockets for corruption
7. Operationalize crime prevention committee
8. Publicize identified corruption acts and perpetrators

2.17 Conclusion

This chapter has captured information on historical perspective of the Kenya police service presenting information on corruption in a time series procedure from past to present. The Kenya police had its humble beginning in the period between 1887-1902 tracing its foundation on the Imperial British East Africa (I.B.E.A) Company. The first police officers were recruited in 1887 by the Imperial British East Africa (I.B.E.A) to provide security for its stores in Mombasa. The earliest history of East-Central Africa provided the background for the creation of the British East African Company at the end of 1902. In essence peace law and order had to be maintained despite the fact that the personnel employed then had little training. In order to improve police performance, the then Governor, Sir Hayes Saddler appointed a committee to look into the affairs of the Kenyan police force. One of the committee recommendations was the establishment of the police training school in Nairobi. In 1909 police training department was established in Nairobi in 1911

together with a small finger print section. Later, the office of the inspectorate general was established to unite various units of the police service and to administer the operations of the police force. These developments continued during the turbulent years of First World War (1914-1918). The First World War interrupted this development of the force in 1914 where the Kenya police were deployed in military service to fight alongside British soldiers. After the end of the war in 1918, the police force began to be recognized. In 1926 the railway police unit was also established to specifically deal with prevention and detection of offences in railway from coast to Kisumu, including Kilindini harbor and branch lines. In 1946, the police force was placed under the office of the attorney general. The police officers powers were increased to cope with the new development and a new police training department was opened in Maseno. In 1949, the police air wing was formed to carry out duties of communication and evacuation of sick persons to hospital and was made part of the permanent police force in January 1953.

In 1957, the police headquarters building was opened and in 1958 the force was integrated within the ministry of defense. In the period prior to independence, the Kenya police was greatly involved in the maintenance of law and order during political meetings and at the height of the independence election period. After Kenya gained her independence from Britain on 12th December 1963, there was need to make some drastic changes in the administration of the force. This led to the replacement of the expatriate officers in the senior ranks by Africans. Since then, the force has realized

tremendous achievement in various fields of operation. Among them, due to the increase in criminal activities and in line with the police to effectively deal with security threats and bring down criminal to minimal levels, various smaller units have been formed which include the anti-stock theft unit, anti-motor vehicle theft unit, tourism police unit, the anti-corruption police unit, presidential escort unit, diplomatic and the anti-terrorism police unit. This chapter presented different historical perspective of the Kenyan police service as compared to the Korean situation. The following chapter discusses historical perspective of the Korean police service.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 CORRUPTION AND POLICE IN KOREA

3.1 Introduction

This section of the study gives an analysis of corruption from historical perspective to the modern society of the police service in Korea. The section presents information on corruption in a time series procedure from the past to the present in police service in Korea and also defines the police structure and system.

3.2 History of the modern Korean police force

Organized by the United States Army Military Government in 1945, the Korean National Police (KNP) force was formally activated in 1948 by the new Korean government and placed under the Ministry of Home Affairs. Even after the establishment of a separate military service in 1948, the police force retained a paramilitary role and was employed in military operations during the Korean War. Attacked in its early years as a remnant of Japanese colonial rule (1910-45), beset by low professionalism, factionalism, endemic corruption, and political manipulation, the Korean National Police nonetheless still evolved into a relatively modern and effective force. Although the police force was used by the Rhee regime in such a flagrantly political way that it was held in low esteem by the citizenry, reforms made after the 1961 military coup began the police force's slow evolution into a professional force. Reorganization, recruitment by examination, merit promotion, and modern concepts of

management and training were instituted. Further improvements came during the 1970s when modern communication, data processing, and crime detection practices were introduced.

In 1975 the director general of the KNP was elevated to vice-ministerial rank directly under the minister of home affairs. The KNP reported through its own channels to its headquarters in Seoul. Provincial governors and local officials had no authority over the police. In addition to the regular police functions of law enforcement, criminal investigation, and public safety, the KNP was responsible for riot control, countering student demonstrations, and other public disorders. Coastal security, including patrolling coastal waters, anti-smuggling operations, and coordinating counterespionage operations with the navy and the air force, were also its purview. "Combat operations" against small-scale North Korean infiltration attempts; the monitoring of foreign residents in South Korea; anticommunist operations, including counterintelligence activities and monitoring of "security risks" (historically expanded to including monitoring political, labor, economic, academic, religious, and cultural figures); and counterterrorist operations were all part of the mission of the KNP. There sometimes was competitive overlap between the KNP, Agency for National Security Planning, and the Defense Security Command.

In 1989 the KNP was a 130,000 person organization that consisted of a headquarters, thirteen metropolitan/provincial police bureaus, the Combat Police, the National Maritime Police, an antiterrorist unit, the Central Police

Academy, and other support services, such as a forensics laboratory, a hospital, and other police schools. As of January 1989, there were 201 police stations and 3,220 police substations and detachments throughout the country. The National Police Headquarters exercised authority over all police components. Metropolitan and provincial police bureaus were responsible for maintaining public order by directing and supervising their own police stations. Police boxes were the South Korean equivalent of the USA's cop on the beat. They provided direct contact between the people and the police. Police box personnel were supposed to know their areas and the people who lived and worked in them. Police boxes were commanded by lieutenants or sergeants and had reaction vehicles available on a twenty-four-hour basis.

Recruitment and training were done through the Central Police Academy, the National Police College, and the Police Consolidated Training School. The Central Police Academy was established in 1987. It had a maximum capacity of 35,000 recruits and was capable of simultaneously offering a six-week training course for police recruits, a two-week training course for draftees of the Combat Police, and a variety of basic specialized training courses for junior police. Officials planned to recruit about 10,000 new police officers a year from 1989 to 1991 to alleviate the personnel shortage, although their ability to maintain the quality of the force, given the low starting pay, was questioned. Only 12 percent of police applicants were university graduates in 1989. Screening unsuitable recruits was problematic because neither psychiatric nor polygraph assessments were administered. (In 1982, for example, an unstable

police officer killed fifty- four people in one night following a domestic dispute.)

By 1989 the National Police College had graduated some 500 officers since its first class graduated in 1985. Each college class had about 120 police cadets, divided between law and public administration specializations. The National Police College began admitting women in 1989; five women were admitted each year. The cadets shared a collective life for four years at the college. The goal was to establish a career officer's corps similar to those created by the military academies.

The Police Consolidated Training School provided advanced studies, basic training for junior police staff, and special practical training courses for security and investigative officers from the counterespionage echelons of police agencies. It also trained Maritime Police instructors, key command personnel for the Combat Police force, and foreign-language staff members. Revolvers and carbines were the customary weapons; Billy clubs were carried by patrol officers. The gradual replacement of carbines by rifles began in 1981. In 1989 the KNP reemphasized the planned replacement of carbines with M-16 rifles. Approximately 4,300 M-16s were to be supplied to police boxes and stations in 1989; by 1999 a total of 110,000 M-16s were scheduled to be distributed. Transportation was by motorcycle, bicycle, jeep, truck, and squad car.

The KNP's special weapons and tactics squad was known as Force 868. Organized in 1982, its members were trained in martial arts and counterterrorist tactics. It received significant support and advice from United States and West European counterterrorist task forces preceding the 1988 Seoul Olympics and was well supplied with the more specialized equipment needed for combating terrorism. The Combat Police force was technically subordinate to the Ministry of National Defense, but the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Korean National Police were responsible for its operational management and budget. During hostilities, the Combat Police reverted to the Ministry of National Defense. The members of the Combat Police were conscripted at age twenty or older and served for approximately two-and-a-half years. Divided into companies, the Combat Police force was assigned to the metropolitan police bureaus. Except for supervisory personnel who were regular KNP officers, the Combat Police were paramilitary; their primary responsibilities were riot control and counter infiltration. Under normal conditions, they did not have law enforcement powers as did regular KNP officers. In 1967 the Combat Police force was organized to handle counter infiltration and antiriot duties.

Approximately half of the total strength of the KNP was formed into 350 Combat Police/riot control companies. The percentage of Combat Police in the total force increased during the 1980s. In 1982 there were 39,706 Combat Police, about 40 percent of the police total. By 1987 Combat Police represented 45.8 percent of the total force with 54,100 members. Since service in the

Combat Police was regarded as fulfilling a military obligation, young men who did not wish to serve the compulsory minimum thirty-month service in the military could opt for a thirty-five-month stint with the Korean National Police as combat police. Draftees into military service also could be assigned to the Combat Police force after completion of basic training. While the police were relatively well trained and disciplined, illegal police behavior in the conduct of investigations or handling of suspects was occasionally a serious problem. In 1985, for example, as a result of some form of official misconduct, one-fourth of Seoul's detectives were transferred, demoted, or otherwise disciplined. Rough treatment of suspects before a warrant was obtained was a continuing problem. Redress in cases of official misconduct normally was handled internally and rarely resulted in criminal charges against police officials.

Historically, the use of excessive force by the police was pervasive. In violent confrontations with student demonstrators, police units generally remained well disciplined, but rioters were beaten on apprehension, often by plainclothes police. Charges of police beatings in nonpolitical cases were made fairly frequently and sometimes were reported in the press. Antigovernment youth activists were subjected to repeat and severe physical torture, at times resulting in death during interrogations. Various degrees of physical maltreatment, including sleep and food deprivation, electric shocks, beating, and forced water intake were common during police interrogations under the Rhee, Park, and Chun regimes. With the founding of the Sixth Republic, such reports declined. However, according to the United States Department of State's reports on

human rights, some credible allegations of torture were made during the last half of 1989 by persons arrested under the National Security Act . Credible allegations of cruel treatment also continued in 1990. Although political cases received the most publicity, mistreatment of people detained or arrested for nonpolitical crimes is alleged to be widespread (http://www.photius.com/countries/korea_south/national_security/korea_south_national_security_korean_national_poli~253.html)

3.3 The police structure and system in Korea

3.3.1 The Korean National Police Agency (KNPA)

The Korean National Police Agency (KNPA) is the only police organization in South Korea and is run under the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs. As a national police force it provides all policing services throughout the country. This differs from the situation in many countries including France, where policing is split between the National Police and *Gendarmerie*, and between countries such as the United States which have a layered system of National, State/Regional and/or local Law Enforcement organizations.

The KNPA headquarters are in Migeun-dong, Seodaemun-gu, and Seoul. The agency is divided into 14 local police agencies, including the Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency. Local police agencies are not independent of the national police. There were 96,000 police officers as of 2004. The Combat Police division of the National Police Agency is an anti-riot paramilitary unit,

drafted from military conscripts. Its members deal with counterintelligence and riot policing. It was established in 1967, during the Third Republic. Each battalion is assigned to each municipal police agency in the country. In their riot gear, they can be identified by their signature metal riot shields which are numbered such as "1001" or "1011", and on their helmets with the KNPA emblem. Two weeks of training are taken by each draftee.

3.3.2 Combat police

The Combat Police are deployed at demonstrations and rallies where violent disorder may occur. When such an event becomes violent they rush in and contain the protestors with long batons and often, their metal shields. When blocking the pass of illegal protestors, the Combat Police use the "Passive Formation", where the shields are held up to make a small wall. This is the most frequent formation used. However, they are trained to retaliate from the frequent attacks by protestors by angling the shield and pushing, or jabbing the shield at protestors in this formation. When they are ordered to contain a protest that has become too violent, such as the North Korea-aligned student group Hanchongryun's firebombing tactics, they use the "Offensive Formation". In this case, the shields are angled sideways, with the officers charging forward to break the riot. (<http://www.munhwa.com/news/view.html?no=2007070401037443061002>).

Instances of police brutality have in the past been raised against the South Korean anti-riot units in particular, by the Asian Human Rights Commission,

citing police actions of a "brutal and violent manner" that cause deaths among protesters, including Jeon Young-Cheol on November 24, 2005. The South Korean President, Roh Moo Hyun, later apologized for this violence. The report also cites injuries sustained by protesters during July 2004 protests against a new military base for the US Army. The police force themselves reported that 117 officers were injured against 70 protesters, after being hit "with shards of broken bottles and flower vases". Injuries to the riot police officers have themselves become reason for protest, with one in every 53 officers being injured in 2005, the number of injuries having raised to 893 from 331 in 2000(<http://www.korea-fans.com/forum/konu-korean-national-police-agency-knpa--80007.html?pid=2729900&mode=threaded>)

3.4 Corruption and police force in South Korea

3.4.1 Forms of corruption in Korean police force

When any member of a police force or a police organization discriminates against a person or group because of their sex, gender, race, color, national origin, religion, or sexual orientation, this is considered as Police corruption. Discrimination based on disability may also constitute police corruption and misconduct.

In addition to police corruption that does harm to individual citizens or groups of people, police corruption can also involve external violations like: accepting

bribes from citizens who habitually violate non-criminal statutes or ordinances (i.e. traffic laws); accepting bribes by those who violate the law in order to make money (i.e. prostitutes, drug dealers); accepting money in exchange for police services or protection. Other examples of police corruption can include: fraud, embezzlement, nepotism, extortion, and the Actual commission of felony crimes. (<http://www.criminal-law-lawyer-source.com/terms/police-corruption.html>)

3.4.2 Fights against corruption

President Park Chung Hee initiated the fight against corruption in South Korea, in 1963, when he established the Board of Audit Inspection (BAI) by merging the board of audit and the commission of inspection to serve as direct check on the economic bureaucracy. However BAI primary role is not to investigate corruption cases but to perform the following functions; to confirm the closing accounts of the state's revenue and expenditure; to audit the accounts of the central government agencies, provincial government and other local autonomous bodies and government invested organizations to ensure proper and fair accounting; to inspect the work done by the government agencies and the duties of public officials to improve the operation and quality of government services(*Quah, 2003a:164*).In other words BAI uncovers corruption in government agencies indirect through the auditing of their activities.

3.4.3 The origin of KICAC

The origin of KICAC can be traced to the comprehensive anti-corruption strategy introduced by Kim Dae Jung after he assumed office in February 1998. The most important component of President Kim's strategy was the formation of an anti-corruption committee in August 1999 to co-ordinate the anti-corruption programs and activities, and the formulation of the anti-corruption law to provide protection for whistle-blowers, to strengthen citizen watch and participation in anti-corruption movements, and to reinforce detection and punishment for corruption practices (*Office of the prime minister, 1999:10-11*). However as President Kim's strategy met with stiff resistance in the national assembly, it took more than two years before the anti-corruption Act was passed on July 24, 2001. The public prosecutor's office and the national police agency also opposed to the formation of KICAC during the policy development process for establishing an independent anti-corruption agency (*Kim 2007:144, fri 21*) six months later the KICAC was formed on January 25, 2002.

3.4.4 Functions and powers of KICAC

Chapter 2, Article 10-24 of the anti-corruption Act of 2001 specifies the creation, function and composition of the KICAC. More specifically, Article 11 identifies the KICAC's original functions as: Policy maker: to formulate and coordinate anti-corruption policies by organizing on a regular basis the inter-agency meeting on corruption, Evaluator: to evaluate the levels of integrity and

anticorruption practices of public sector organization, Observer: to monitor corruption conduct, protecting and offering rewards for whistle-blowers, Partner : to promote cooperation for the fight against corruption by encouraging civil society involvement and public-private partnership against corruption by encouraging civil society involvement and public-private partnership against corruption, and engaging in the global fight against corruption, Legal-reformer: to improve the legal and institutional frame work to remove laws and practices which encourage corruption and Ethics- leader: to inculcate ethical values in society by promoting public awareness on the risk of corruption, and enforcing the code of conduct for public sector employees (KICAC, 2006. 4 and 7).

An analysis of the above functions shows that the KICAC cannot investigate corruption cases itself as it has to rely on BAI and the public prosecutor's office to do so. Articles 29-30 of the anti-corruption Act of 2001 describe the procedure for dealing with whistle blowing cases involving public officials, according to article 29, section3, the KICAC refers the investigation of whistle-blowing case involving a public official to the BAI, an investigative agency, or an agency in charge of supervising the relevant public agency. The investigative agency has to inform the KICAC of the results of its investigation within 60 days. KICAC will then notify the whistle-blower of the investigation. However the KICAC may request for a re-investigation if the results of earlier investigation are incomplete (anti-corruption Act , 2001; 18-20).

Thus, the KICAC Achilles heel is its inability to investigate corruption cases. Indeed, Joogi Kim (2006:10) has astutely observed that: while the establishment of KICAC was hailed as another cornerstone in fighting corruption the firm positioning and true value KICAC to the national integrity system) of Korea has yet to be fully realized concern has mounted over the introduction of independent investigative authority, the ineffective nature of whistle blowing mechanism and the limited authority of KICAC.

Furthermore, the KICAC second limitation is that, it focuses only on public sector corruption and does not deal with private sector corruption, such as the bribery of a banker or auditor, the KICAC performs the functions of preventing corruption and community education, but not the critical role of investigating corruption cases, which has been delegated to other investigative agencies instead.

3.4.5 KICAC organizational structure

In terms of organizational structure the KICAC is divided into the Policy Planning Office (PPO), the Corrupt Practices Inspection Unit (CPIU), the Report Inspection Bureau (RIB), and the Public Relation and Cooperation Bureau (PRCB). The PPO has two directors-general and officers concerned with innovation and personnel, policy planning and coordination, evaluation and survey, and institution practices improvement. The CPIU consist of legal advisor and four inspection teams. The RIB comprises of the corruption report center, the inspection coordination division, protection and reward division and

code of conduct division. The PRCB is subdivided into the education and public relation division, international cooperation division and nongovernmental organization and business cooperation division. Finally the general service division and legal affairs management officer provide support and assistance to the PPO, CPIU, RIB, and PRCB. (<http://www.kicac.go.ke/portal/eng/about.o4.jsp>).

3.4.6 Assessing the effectiveness of KICAC

How effective is KICAC in curbing corruption in Korea respectively, the table below provides information on the rankings and scores of Korea on transparency international's 2007 Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) and the 2008 Political and Economic Risk Consultancy (PERC) survey.

Table 3.1. 2007 CPI and 2008 PERC ranking and scores for South Korea

Country	2007 CPI rank	2007 CPI score	2008 PERC rank	2008 PERC score
South Korea	43 th	5.1	5 th	5.65

Source: <http://www.transparencyinternational.org> for the 2007 CPI and "Singapore voted cleanest Asian economy in PERC survey," [channel news Asia .com/stories /Singapore local news/print/334265/1/html](http://channelnewsasia.com/stories/Singapore-local-news/print/334265/1/html).

Similarly, the table below provides data on the World Bank's 2006 sixth governance indicate on the control of corruption for Korea as well as its total average governance score

Table 3.2. Data on the World Bank's 2006 sixth governance

Country	Control of corruption percentage rank	Total governance score	Average governance score
South Korea	64.6	421.9	70.31

3.5 Cultural attitudes and the police force in relation to corruption

3.5.1 Organizational socialization

According to results from a study conducted by (Byongook Moon, 2006) to examine how organizational socialization into police culture impacted officers' opinions about community policing in South Korea indicated that four dimensions of organizational socialization had significant effects on officers' attitudes toward community policing: performance proficiency, politics, organizational values and goals, and people. Officers, who reported higher levels of socialization into the dimensions of performance proficiency, politics, organizational values and goals, and people, were more likely to support community policing as one way of curbing corruption and improving security. These findings were unexpected as previous research has indicated that greater socialization into police culture predicted support for traditional police practices and not community policing. It is possible therefore, that Korean police culture may be fundamentally different from police culture in other

countries. Police agencies in South Korea had recently implemented major reforms that emphasized the importance of positive relationships with citizens and crime prevention. Participation was anonymous and voluntary. Questionnaires measured officers' attitudes toward community policing, job ranking, years of police experience, education level, and various dimensions of organizational socialization. (<http://www.ncjrs.gov/App/Publications/abstract.aspx?ID=238462>)

As perceived by line officers and supervisors, a survey of police officers in South Korea who attended training courses at the Korea National Police University (KNPU), and at the Police Comprehensive Academy (PCA), from June through August of 2008. The results suggest that, overall; police officers across rank and job assignment were dissatisfied, and at best ambivalent, on all dimensions of organizational culture. Lower ranked police officers, relative to other ranks, appear more dissatisfied with managerial support, open lines of communication, and organizational support to fight corruption. Officers who are part of the police administration (e.g. general affairs, public security, and intelligence) are less disenchanted with management support, communication, and innovation than are patrol officers and criminal investigators. The study suggested that both rank and job assignment influences South Korean officers' perceptions of their organizational culture. (Source: Policing)

3.6 Role of the police in Korea

The idea of the role, function, purpose or mission of the police in society requires one to think beyond technical and operational aspects of police work and consider the philosophy of policing or more so the place of legitimate authority in the society. The roles and functions include;

- To prevent and control conduct widely recognized as threatening to life and property
- To aid individuals who are in danger of physical harm such as victims of violent attacks
- To facilitate movement of people and vehicles
- To assist those who cannot care for themselves, the intoxicated the addicts, the mentally ill the physically disabled the old and the young
- To resolve conflict, whether between individuals, groups and individuals or individuals and government
- To identify problems that may grow into matters of national security and deal with them
- To create and maintain a feeling of security in communities.

3.7 Problems affecting ability of police

Weighed down by a wide range of administrative duties, KNP personnel spent only 15 percent of their time on routine enforcement duties in 1989. Among other things, the KNP collected fines, approved death certificates, and

processed security checks for passport applicants. The personnel shortage was acute; official statistics showed that there was only one police officer (excluding the Combat Police, who accounted for nearly half the strength of the KNP) for every 680 South Koreans, as compared with one police officer for every 390 people in the United States, one for every 318 people in West Germany, and one for every 551 people in Japan (the lowest ratio for any major industrialized noncommunist country). This shortage was compounded by a tight budget and the continued preoccupation with riot control, which left the force ill-equipped to deal with the demands of an increasingly affluent and sophisticated society (*Volume 34, Number 2, 2011, pp. 326-346(21)*).

3.8 Strategies to combat corruption

The Seoul conference in December 2000 identified priorities for a successful fight against corruption in Korea as;

- promoting good governance through legal, institutional, and administrative reforms,
- strengthening the rule of law,
- promoting integrity in business operations and
- developing proactive strategies to promote citizens' participation in anti-corruption efforts.(<http://www.oecd.org/document/32/0,3746,en>)

3.9 Conclusion

In Korea the police force has its genesis in 1945 organized by United States army; it was finally activated in 1948 under the home affairs. It has had paramilitary role due to its history. It has been plagued by low professionalism, factionalism, endemic corruption and political manipulation; however it evolved into a relatively modern and effective force. The police force is held in high esteem irrespective of abuse of various political regimes.

Delinking political system has made the force to be largely professional and independent. Recruitment and training are done through a central academy where the level and quality of training has improved their capacity greatly.

However with all the positive aspects there have been isolated cases of illegal police behaviour in investigations or handling of suspects leading to 25% of officers being transferred, demoted or disciplined. There have been cases of rough treatment of suspects before warrants are obtained. There are cases where redress in cases against police officers has not resulted in any criminal charges. There have been cases of torture and physical mistreatment. However these cases have been due to reforms.

Through analysis of various documentation there are forms of corruption in the Korea police force, they include traffic bribery, documentation forgery, criminal protection and favoritism in promotions. However, there have been efforts to fight corruption within the service through audits and inspection.

These efforts have led to improved ranking of Korea by transparency international and World Bank. Korea has been ranked 43rd and had a score of 70% from TI and World Bank in 2007 and 2006 respectively. Further, other elements like organizational socialization for police officers through attitudinal change towards performance, politics, organizational values and goals and people. This has made Korea police fundamentally different for other countries.

However, with the success in the force, there are a number of challenges that presents opportunities for change i.e. staffing levels, budgetary constraint and the level of equipment. There have been successful strategies to combat corruption i.e. good governance, enforcement of the rule of law, integrity and pro-active strategies to promote citizens participation in anti-corruption efforts.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 FACTORS PROMOTING CORRUPTION IN POLICE SERVICE

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on factors promoting corruption in Kenya and Korea police service. The chapter objective is to evaluate factors promoting corruption in police service both in Kenya and Korea. The chapter is structured into sections and subsections. The sections includes; perspectives on causes of corruption, presentation of research findings, discussion of results and conclusions.

4.2 Perspectives on causes of corruption

Corruption has, over the years, become a reality of monumental proportions worldwide. In the recent past, it has grown bigger in terms of the participating personalities and the amount of money involved. Like an ogre, it refuses to let go of the Kenyan society (Kivutha Kibwana, SmokinWanjala, &Okech Owiti, 1996). Thus if remedial measures are not put in place to quickly contain the vice, corruption could become perpetual.

Scholars, practitioners and experts have argued that in the management of corruption, one has to concentrate on the epicenter of corruption. In the case of Kenya, the epicenter of corruption is the public sector; especially in the police service. It is argued that if corruption within the police service can be cured,

then other sectors, such as other public service, parastatals and the private sector can also be cured of this vice.

On the historical context of the fight against corruption in Kenya it's vital to observe that Kenya got independence in December 1963 and despite British efforts to sponsor an alternative political party, Kenyan politics was then dominated by the ruling party Kenya African National Union. During KANU regime, corruption was not easily monitored especially in police service. In the early 1990s, under pressure from Western aid donors, the single party government was finally forced to concede to a multi-party democracy. Single party regime's persistent poor record in tackling official corruption led to a rapid growth in external debt and as a result Kenya was in serious financial difficulties. In December 1997, amid widespread allegations of fraud, malpractices and pre-election violence orchestrated by pro-government elements, the KANU government recorded slight improvements on performance (<http://www.iexplore.com/dmap/Kenya/History>, 27th March 2009). The KANU regime was replaced by National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) in 2002. NARC government formed the Golden Berg Commission of inquiry to punish perpetrators of corruption.

The numerous controversies vis-à-vis the fight against corruption of police service since late 1997, when the Kenya Anti-Corruption Authority (KACA) was established leads to one's conclusion that the struggle is a relatively recent one. Parliament's failure to pass the *Constitutional (Amendment) (No.2) Bill, 2001* on August 14th 2001 was, however, an important landmark on the long

road to a corruption-free Kenya that started before independence, when the first statutory attempt to “provide for the prevention of corruption” the *Prevention of Corruption Act (Cap. 65)* was enacted in 1956 (<http://www.tkenya.org/documents/JudicialDeci>, 27th March 2009). This statute was subsequently amended eight times over following 41 years. However, the common consensus among experts and scholars is that it was not an effective anti-corruption law. For one it contained an inadequate definition of corruption limiting itself to bribery of a member, officer or servant of a public body. It was not capable of addressing what we now call ‘economic crimes and police service corruption.

Experts and practitioners have had their punch on causes of corruption within the police services; this has been collaborated by studies on sectorial and cross-cutting studies on corruption. Several factors have been identified as predisposing or causing corruption especially in public sectors. Some of the factors include; lack of accountability and transparency in management which means monitoring performance is an antidote for corruption since it enhances efficiency, transparency and accountability. Further, management and control failures opens institutions and individuals to corruption, others are inadequate access to information orchestrated by poor record keeping and capacity failures to submit timely report. Others are organisational factors mainly arising from roles and relationship between different actors and finally greed and low pay since it is assumed that higher pay discourages individuals from increasing their incomes through illegal means.

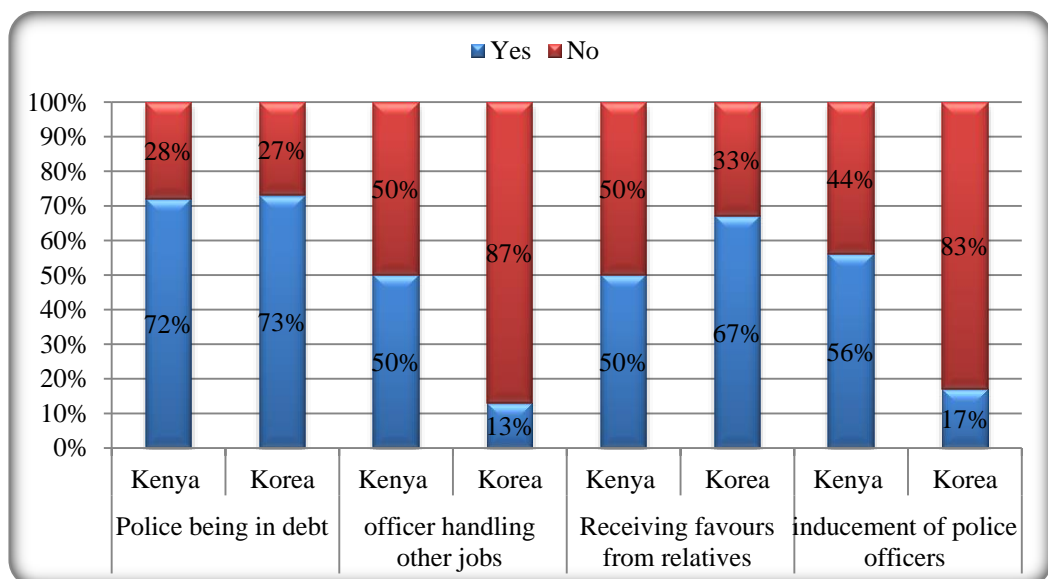
4.3 Presentation of research findings

This section provides the findings from the research process, four categories of respondents were interviewed to provide opinion and perspectives. The categories included; citizenry in the two countries, police officers, foreigners living in the respective countries and the anti-graft agencies in the countries. Various thematic areas were researched on which included; predisposing factors towards corruption in police service, police culture, poor motivation, weak regulatory and enforcement framework and weak punishment enforcement and so on. The data is presented in form of tables, charts and brief description.

4.3.1 Predisposing factors to engage in corruption

a) Possible factors influencing police to engage in corruption

Figure 4.1: Factors influencing police to engage in corruption



(Source: author)

Regarding predisposing factors to corruption for police officer, the study interviewed 35 police officer in Kenya and 35 in South Korea. Four parameters were evaluated, these included, police being in debts, officers handling other jobs, officers receiving favours from relatives and inducement of police officers. The responses were as follows;

On whether, police officers were in debts, amongst the respondents from Kenya police, 72% indicated that they were in debts while 28% were not in debt, whereas amongst Korean respondents, 73% were in debt while 27% were not.

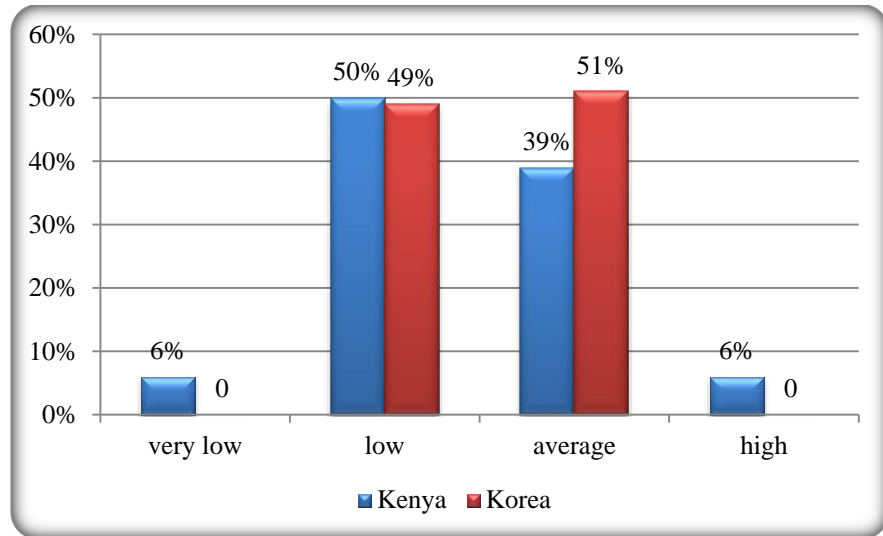
On whether officers handled other jobs, amongst Kenyan respondents 50% had other jobs while 50% had not, whereas amongst Korean respondents, 13% handled other jobs while 87% did not handle other jobs.

On whether officers received favours from relatives owing to their position, amongst Kenyan respondents, 50% had received favours while the other 50% had not, whereas amongst Korean respondents, 67% indicated that they had received while 33% had not.

On whether the respondents have had Inducement to engage in corruption, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 56% indicated that they had been induced while 44% had not been induced, whereas amongst Korean respondents, 17% indicated that they had been induced while 83% had not.

b) Opinion police officers salary

Figure 4.2: Opinion on police remuneration



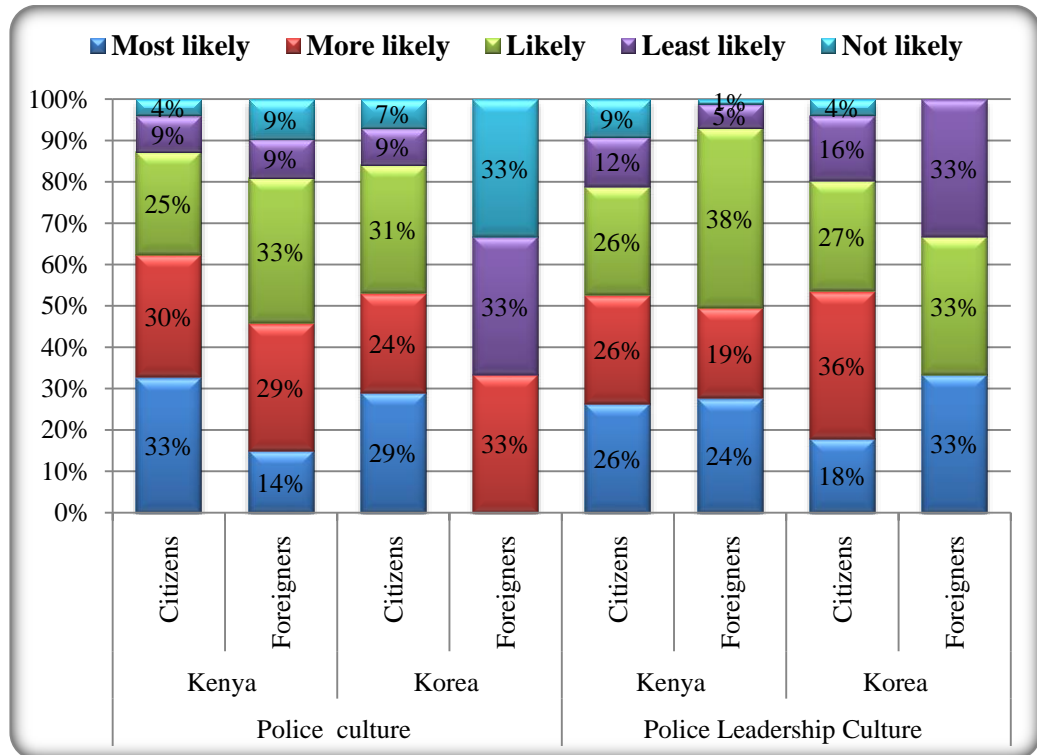
(Source: author)

The study sought opinion from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea, The responding police from Kenya regarding their perception level on their salary, 6% indicated that it was very low, 50% had an opinion that it is low, another 39% indicated that it was average while only 6% indicated that it was high, whereas amongst the Korean respondent, 49% indicated that it was low and 51% indicated it was average.

4.3.2 Factors promoting of corruption in police service

a) Police culture in the police force

Figure 4.3: Police culture as a cause of corruption in the service



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country on culture as the likely cause of corruption within police service in Kenya and Korea, three elements were evaluated, these include police culture, culture of leadership in police, transparency level within the force and high authority of police officers, the responses were as follows;

i) Police culture

On police culture as a likely cause of corruption in the police service, in Kenya, 33% of the respondents indicated that it was the most likely cause, 30% indicated that it was a more likely cause and another 25% indicated that it was a likely cause, while 9% indicated that it was least likely and another 4% indicated that it was not a likely cause. In Korea, 29% indicated that it was most likely cause, 24% indicated that it was a more likely cause and 31% a likely cause while 9% indicated that it was least likely cause and another 7% not a likely cause at all.

On influence of police culture as a catalyst towards corruption, amongst the residents in Kenya, 14% indicated it was the most likely cause, 29% indicated it was more likely cause and 33% indicated that it was a likely cause, while 9% indicated it was least likely cause and another 9% indicated it was not likely cause. Whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, 33% indicated that it was more likely cause while 33% indicated that it was least likely cause and another 33% indicated that it was not a likely cause.

ii) Police leadership culture

On the culture of corrupt police leaders, 26% of the respondents in Kenya indicated that it was a most likely cause, 26% indicated that it was a more likely and another 26% indicated that it was a likely cause, while 12% indicated that it was least likely cause and another 9% as not likely cause. In

Korea 18% indicated that it was most likely cause, 36% as more likely cause and 27% as likely cause while 16% indicated that it was least likely cause and another 4% not likely cause at all.

On whether the culture of police leadership was a likely cause of corruption in the police service, 24% of the foreigners residing in Kenya indicated that it was most likely cause, 19% indicated that it was a more likely cause and 38% as a likely cause, while 5% indicated that it was least likely and only 1% indicated that it not a likely cause. Whereas 33% of the Korean respondents indicated that it was a most likely cause, another 33% indicated that it was likely cause while 33% indicated that it was least likely cause.

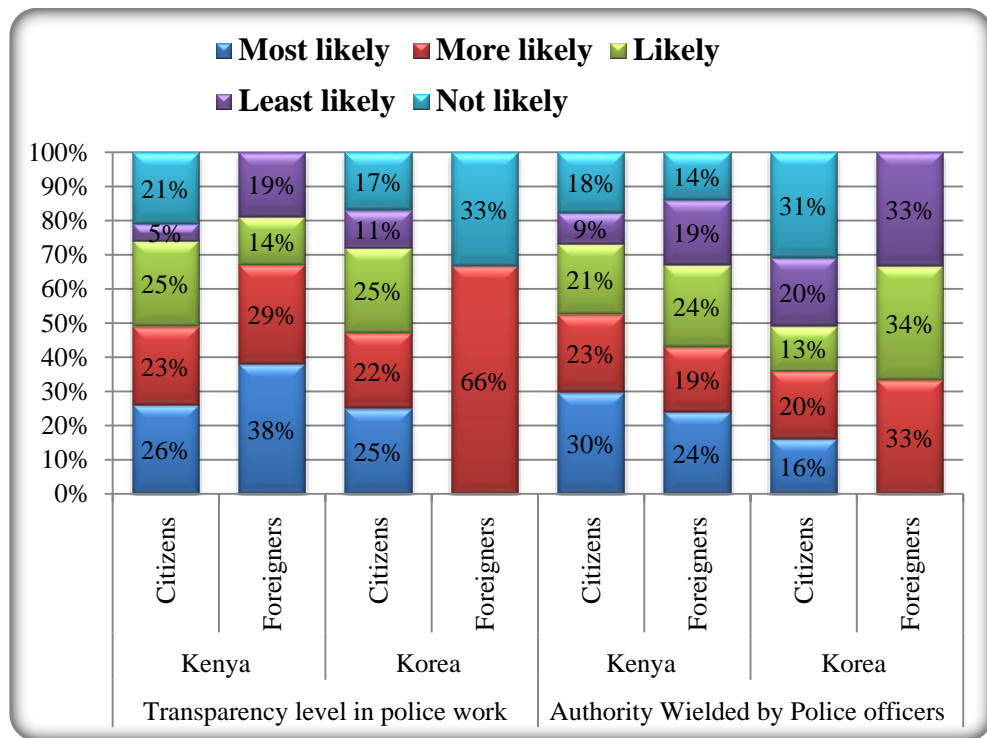
b) Authority and transparency

Table 4.1: Authority and transparency as a cause of corruption

	Transparency level in police work				High authority of police officers			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners
Most likely	26%	38%	25%		30%	24%	16%	
More likely	23%	29%	22%	66%	23%	19%	20%	33%
Likely	25%	14%	25%		21%	24%	13%	33%
Least likely	5%	19%	11%		9%	19%	20%	33%
Not likely	21%		17%	33%	18%	14%	31%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 4.4: Authority and transparency as a cause of corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions from 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding lack of transparency and authority wielded by police as a likely cause of corruption within police service in Kenya and Korea, the research sought opinion from both Kenyan and Korean citizens and foreigners living in the respective country. Under this theme two parameters were evaluated, these includes; transparency level in police work and high authority of police officers, the responses were as follows;

i) Authority wielded by police officers

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 74% indicated that it was most likely 30%, more likely 23% or likely 21%. Whereas amongst the foreigners living in Kenya, the same trend was observed where the majority 67% indicated that it was most likely 24%, more likely 19% or likely 24% cause of corruption in the police service.

Amongst Korean citizenry, those that stated that authority wielded by police officers was a likely cause were equal to those who indicated to the contrary, with 49% indicating that it was most likely 16%, more likely 20% or likely 13% while 51% indicated it was least likely 20% or not likely 31%. Whereas amongst the foreigners living in Korea, the majority 67% indicated that it was more likely 33% or likely 34% cause of corruption in police service.

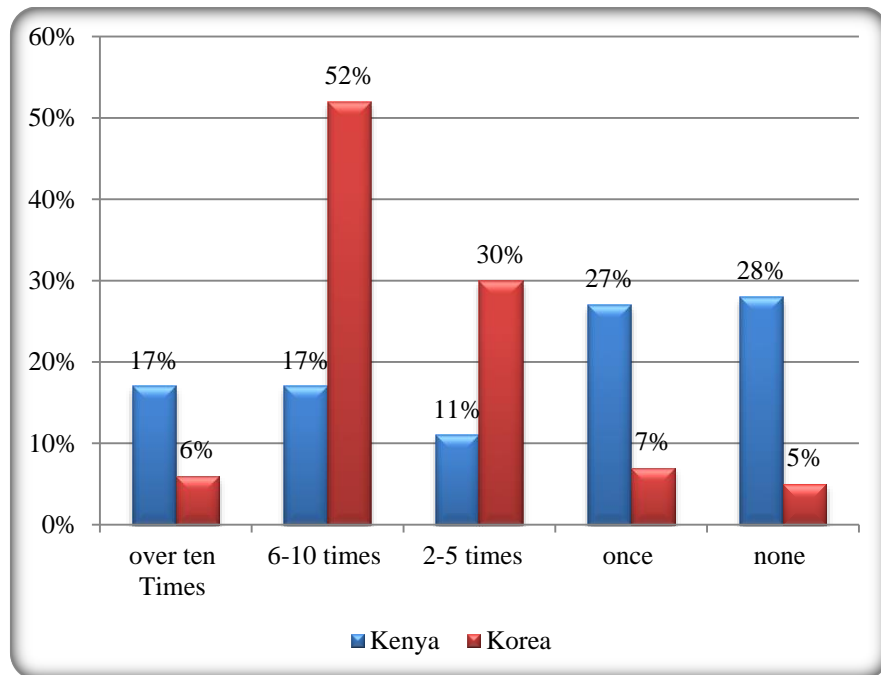
ii) Transparency level in police work

Amongst Kenyan citizenry, the majority 74% indicated that it was most likely 26%, more likely 23% or likely 25% to cause corruption in police service. Whereas amongst the respondents of foreigners living in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was either a most likely cause 38%, a more likely 29% or a likely cause 14% cause of corruption in police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 72% indicated that it was either a most likely 25%, more likely cause 22% or a likely cause 25% of corruption in police. Whereas amongst the foreigners living in Korea, 66% indicated that it was a more likely cause while 34% indicated that it was least likely cause.

4.3.3 Capacity building of police officers to deal with corruption

Figure 4.5: Number of times police trained



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in South Korea on the number of times the respondents received training on corruption prevention, amongst the Kenya respondents, 28% had not received any training, 27% had received training once, 17% had received training for 2-5 times, 17% had received training for 6-10 time while in 17% had received training for over 10 times whereas amongst Korea respondents, 5% had not received any training, 7% had received training once, 30% had received training for 2-5 times, 52% had received training for between 6-10 times and 6% had received training for over 10 times.

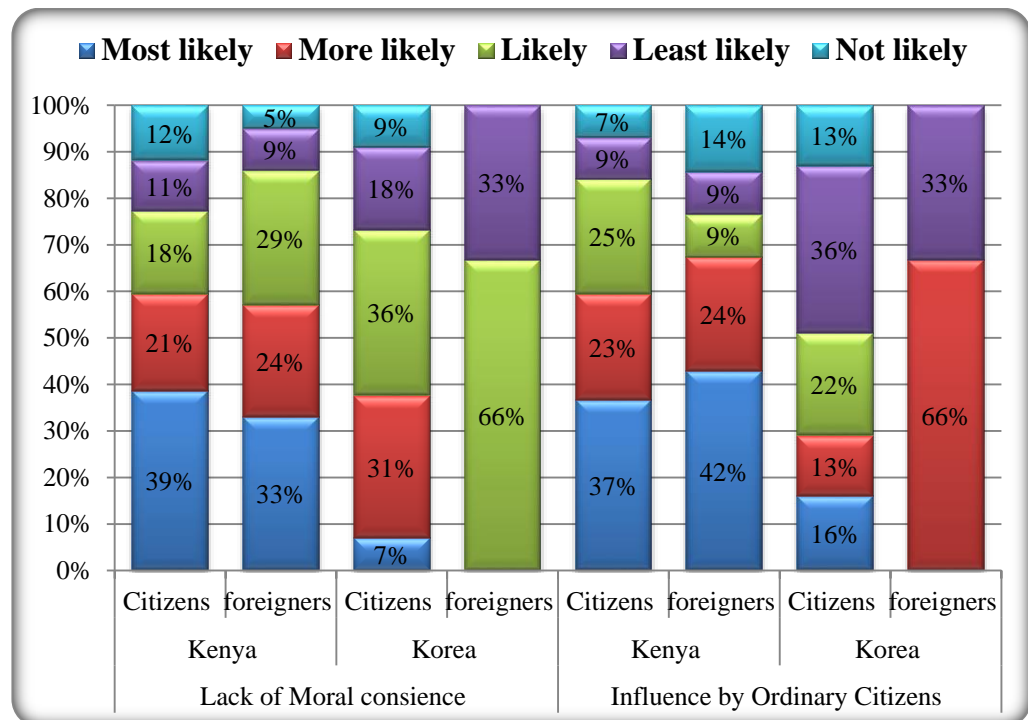
a) Low morality as cause of corruption

Table 4.2: Morality as a factor causing corruption

	Lack of Moral conscience				Influence by Ordinary Citizens			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners
Most likely	39%	33%	7%		37%	42%	16%	
More likely	21%	24%	31%		23%	24%	13%	66%
Likely	18%	29%	36%	66%	25%	9%	22%	
Least likely	11%	9%	18%	33%	9%	9%	36%	33%
Not likely	12%	5%	9%		7%	14%	13%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 4.6: Morality as a factor causing corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding the question of low morality as a cause of corruption where two elements were evaluated, they included lack of moral conscience and influence by ordinary citizen to corrupt practices. The research sought opinion from citizens and foreigners residing in the respective country and foreigners residing in the country. The responses were as follows;

i) Lack of moral conscience

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry the responses were as follows; the majority 78% indicated that it either most likely 39%, more likely 21% or likely 18%

whereas amongst the foreigners living in Kenya, the majority 86% indicated that it most likely, 33% more likely 24% or likely 29% cause.

In Korea, the majority 74% indicated that it was most likely 7%, more likely 31% or a likely cause 36% Whereas amongst the respondents residing in Korea, 66% indicated that it was likely cause while a significant 33% indicated that it was least likely cause.

ii) Influence by ordinary citizens

Amongst the Kenya respondents, the majority 85% indicated that it was most likely 37%, more likely 23% or a 25% as a likely cause. whereas amongst the residents in Kenya, the responses were as follows, the majority 75% indicated it was either a most likely cause 42%, more likely 24% or a likely 9% likely cause.

Amongst Korean Citizenry, those that indicated that it was likely cause were as much as those that indicated that it was not a likely cause, 51% indicating that it was a likely cause, 16% most likely cause 13% More likely cause and 22%, likely cause, while 49% indicated it was not a likely cause 13% or least likely cause 36%. Whereas amongst foreigners living in Korea, 66% indicated that it was a more likely cause while 33% indicated that it was least likely cause.

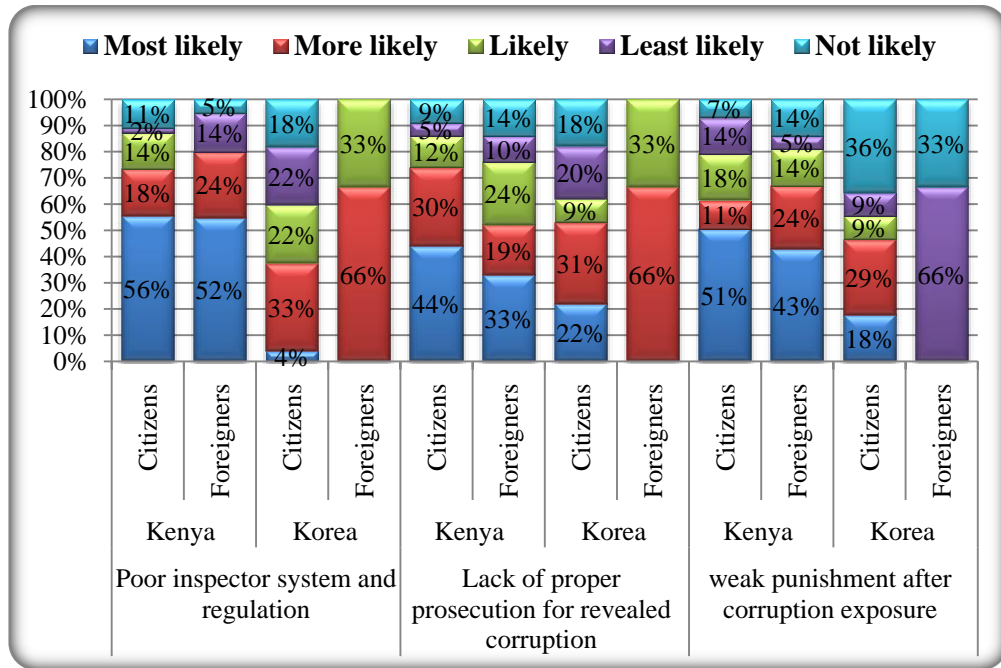
b) Poor regulatory and enforcement framework

Table 4.3: Poor regulatory and enforcement framework

	Poor inspector system and regulation				Lack of proper prosecution for revealed corruption				weak punishment after corruption exposure			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners
Most likely	56%	52%	4%		44%	33%	22%		51%	43%	18%	
More likely	18%	24%	33%	66%	30%	19%	31%	66%	11%	24%	29%	
Likely	14%		22%	33%	12%	24%	9%	33%	18%	14%	9%	
Least likely	2%	14%	22%		5%	10%	20%		14%	5%	9%	66%
Not likely	11%	5%	18%		9%	14%	18%		7%	14%	36%	33%

(Source: Author)

Figure 4.7: Poor regulatory and enforcement framework



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country on poor regulatory and enforcement framework as likely cause of corruption were parameters considered were, inspectorate regulation, prosecution for revealed corruption and punishment after corruption exposure.

i) Poor inspectorate system

Amongst the citizenry in Kenya, the majority 88% indicated that it was most likely 56%, more likely 18% or likely 14% cause of corruption in the police service. Amongst foreigners living in Kenya, the trend was similar, where the majority 90% indicated that it was either, most likely 52%, more likely 24% or likely 14% cause of corruption in police service.

Amongst the Koreans, the majority 59% indicated that it was either most likely 5%, more likely 33% or likely 22% cause of corruption in police service, however a significant 40% indicated that it was either least likely 22% or not likely 18%. Whereas amongst foreigners living in Korea, 66% indicated that it was more likely cause and 33% indicated that it was a likely cause.

ii) Lack of proper prosecution after corruption exposure

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 86% indicated that it was either most likely 44%, more likely 30% or likely 12% amongst the foreigners living in Kenya, the majority, 76% either indicated that it was most likely 33%, more likely 19% or likely 24% cause of corruption in police force.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 62% indicated that it was either most likely 22%, more likely 31% or likely 9% however there was a significant 38% who indicated that it was least likely 18% or not likely 20% to cause corruption in the police force. amongst the foreigners living in Korea, all the respondents 100% either indicated that it was most likely 66% or likely 34% cause.

iii) Weak punishment after corruption exposure

Amongst the Kenya citizenry, the majority 80% indicated that it was most likely 51%, more likely 11% or likely 18% cause of corruption in police force. whereas amongst the foreigners living in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was either most likely 43%, more likely 24% or likely 14% cause of corruption in the police force.

Amongst Korea citizenry, the majority 56% indicated that it was either most likely 18%, more likely 29% or likely 9% cause, however a sizeable number 45% indicated that it was least likely 9% or not likely 36% cause. Whereas amongst foreigners living in Korea, 66% indicated that it was a least likely cause and 33% indicated that it was not a likely cause.

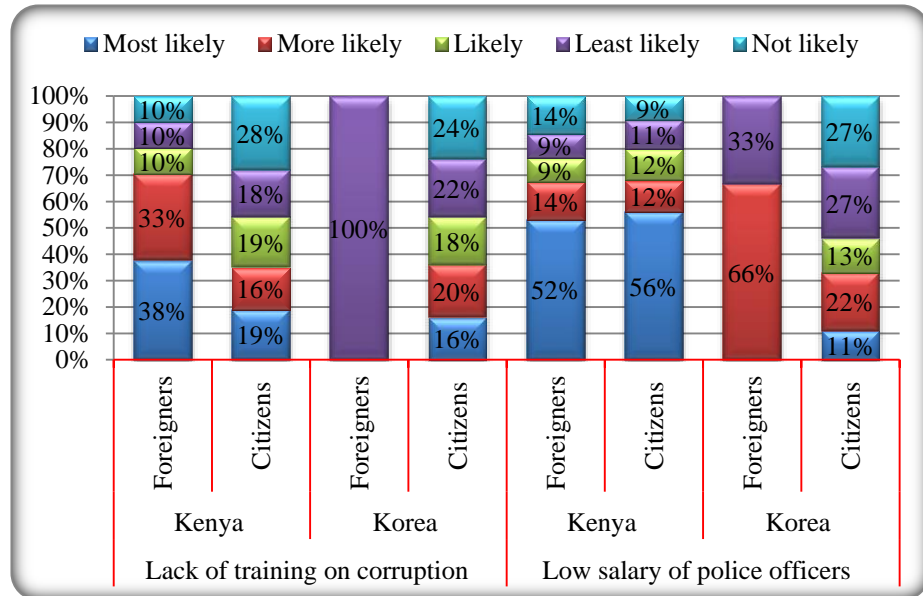
c) Poor motivation framework

Table 4.4: Poor motivation framework as a cause of corruption

	Lack of training on Corruption				Low salary of Police Officers			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens	Foreigners	Citizens
Most likely	38%	19%		16%	52%	56%		11%
More likely	33%	16%		20%	14%	12%	66%	22%
Likely	10%	19%		18%	9%	12%		13%
Least likely	10%	18%	100%	22%	9%	11%	33%	27%
Not likely	10%	28%		24%	14%	9%		27%

(Source: Author)

Figure 4.8: Poor motivation framework as a cause of corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country on the question of lack of training and low salary for the police officers as a likely cause of corruption on the police force. The responses were as follows;

i) Lack of training on corruption

On the question of lack of training as a likely cause of corruption in the police service in Kenya and Korea, the researcher sought opinion from both the citizenry and foreigners residing in the respective country. The responses are as shown in figure x above and described as follows;

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 54% indicated it is most likely 19%, more likely cause 16% or likely cause 19% while a significant 46% indicated that it was least likely or not likely cause. whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, over 80% indicated that it either was most likely 38%, more likely 33% or likely 10%.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 54% indicated that it either most likely 16%, more likely 20% or likely 18% while a significant 46% indicated that it was least likely 22% or not likely cause 24%. Whereas amongst foreigners living in Korea, all 100% indicated that it was a least likely cause.

ii) Low salary as cause of corruption

On the question of low salary as a likely cause of corruption in the police service in Kenya and Korea, the researcher sought opinion from both the citizenry and foreigners residing in the respective country.

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 80% indicated that it was a most likely cause 56%, a more likely cause 12% or a likely cause 12% whereas

amongst the foreigners 75% indicated that it was either a most likely cause 52%, more likely cause 14% or a likely cause 9%

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 54% indicated that it was either a least likely cause 27% or not a likely cause at all 27% though there was a significant 46% that indicated that it was a likely cause. Whereas the foreigners living in Korea, the majority 66% indicated that it was a more likely cause.

4.3.4 KACC and KACIC officials views on causes of corruption

The study interviewed, 5 officials from KACC and 5 officials from KACIC, and the findings indicated that, 88% of the officials believed that Norms and values of individuals, politicians and civil servants were most commonly cause of corruption in the police service. This was followed by Lack of control, supervision, auditing represented by 86%, Strong interrelationships between business, politics, state accounted for 84%, lack of commitment by leadership (providing a bad example) accounted for 80%, disorganization and mismanagement accounted for 78%, values and norms concerning government, state officials and organizations accounted for 77%, while Increased strength of organized crime accounted for 76%. This information is provided in table 5.5

Table 4.5: Causes of corruption in the police service

Cause of corruption	Percentage
Norms and values of individuals, politicians and civil servants	88
Lack of control, supervision, auditing	86
Strong interrelationships between business, politics, state	84
Lack of commitment by leadership (providing a bad example)	80
Disorganization and mismanagement	78
Values and norms concerning government, state officials and organizations	77
Increased strength of organized crime	76

(Source: Author)

According to the officials, entrenched corruption features in societies with the following characteristics: low political competition; low and uneven economic growth; a weak civil society; and the absence of institutional mechanisms to deal with corruption. Ratio of political opportunities is high compared to economic opportunities in Kenya thus affects the nature of corruption.

4.3.5 Expert's opinion on cause of corruption in the police service.

The study interviewed 5 experts in Kenya and 5 experts in South Korea and the focus on the cause of corruption in the police service in Kenya and Korea. In order to elicit a better understanding of the causes of corruption, a number of conditions and popular assumptions were also probed. These include the perception that government officials are so poorly paid that they have no

choice but to ask for extra payment; paying bribes to government officials or doing favors' for them ,democratic systems increase the incidence of corruption in a country; and privatization increases the potential for corruption.

When asked to identify the main causes of corruption in the police service, Experts respondents provided a wealth of different answers. This have been divided in different categories for the purpose of analysis A decline in morals and ethics was the most likely cited reason for corruption in the police service in Kenya and Korea, in general, accounting 41% of responses. This was followed by greed and the desire for self-enrichment 35%, and socio-economic conditions such as poverty and high cost of living 10% and lack of training on corruption which constituted 8% of the responses, followed by high authority of police officers which constituted 6%.

4.4 Summary of the findings

4.4.1 Predisposed factors to police corruption

The study was carried out among 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 officers in Korea. In both countries, 72% and 73% of police officers in Kenya and Korea had debts respectively. Further, in Kenya 50% of officers holds other jobs whereas over 85% of their counterparts in Korea do not hold other jobs.

In Kenya the officers had been induced to engage in corruption, over 55% had been induced while only 17% had been induced in Korea. Further, in both

countries officers had received favors from friends; relatives etc. owing to their position, 50% in Kenya and 67% in Korea had received favors.

The Kenyan police perceive that their salary level is low while their Korean counterpart perceives their salaries as average. In both cases police officers perceives that their salaries are not sufficient.

4.4.2 Causes of corruption

Police culture: In both Kenya and Korea, police culture is one of the likely cause of corruption in the police force over 80% in both countries believes that it is one of the factors to blame for corruption. Further, in both countries, foreigners residing there hold the opinion that police culture a likely cause of corruption in the respective forces, in Kenya, 76% believed it was a cause while in Korea 66% believed it was a cause.

Police leadership culture: In both Kenya and Korea, the culture of police leadership is also a likely cause of corruption in the police service, in both cases over 70% of respondents from both Kenyans and Koreans believes it is a likely cause. Further, the culture of police leadership as cause of corruption, foreigners residing in Kenya strongly believe it is a cause, over 80% hold this opinion while in Korea, 66% believed it was a cause.

Transparency at the police service: In both countries, the level of transparency is viewed as a likely cause of corruption in the respective countries, over 70% of both nationals agreed that it was a likely cause. further,

the level transparency is likely cause of corruption in the police service, over 80% of foreigners living in Kenya believe it was a cause also foreigners living in Korea believe so but on a lower intensity, just about 66% believe so, this means the lower the transparency the more likelihood of corruption there is in police service.

Authority wielded by police officers: in Kenya authority wielded by police officers is viewed as likely cause of corruption over 70% holds this opinion, however, in Korea, this component is not seen a likely cause of corruption. High authority wielded by police officers is viewed a likely cause of corruption within the police force in Kenya, with over 65% believing it was a cause, the same goes for foreigners residing in Korea, over 65% believes that it is a likely cause.

Low morality: In both countries, lack of moral conscience is viewed as likely cause of corruption in the police service; over 70% of respondents from both Koreans and Kenyans believe so. The same trend was observed on the foreigners residing in the respective countries, Lack or moral conscience is a likely cause of corruption in the police service, over 80% of foreigners living in Kenya believes it is a cause. Further, while Kenyans strongly linked influence by ordinary citizen to corruption in police force, in Korea there was a cautionary linkage of influence by citizen as a cause of corruption in the force, only 51% held this opinion. However, among the foreigners residing in the respective countries, both linked influence by ordinary citizens as a causal

factor, with 75% of foreigners in Kenya and 66% of foreigners in Korea being positive that it was a cause.

Poor regulatory and enforcement framework: Poor inspectorate and regulations is a likely cause of corruption in both countries, among the citizenry in both countries it is viewed as a strong likely cause of corruption by ordinary citizens in Kenya, whereas amongst the Korean it is cautionary likely cause of corruption, just about 59% believed it was a cause.

Further, lack of proper prosecution systems when corruption is revealed, is seen as a likely cause, of corruption in by foreigners living in both countries (Kenya and Korea) in both countries over 79% of foreigners living there believes it is a likely cause. Kenyans strongly believes it is a likely cause whereas their Korean counterparts are not as strong, with 86% and 62% believing it was likely cause in the respective countries. finally, weak punishment after corruption is exposed, in Kenya over 80% believed that it was a likely cause whereas in Korea just about 56% believed that it was a cause.

Lack of motivation a likely cause of corruption: In both countries a modest number 54% believes that *lack of training on corruption* is a likely cause of corruption in the police service. Further, foreigners cite lack of training Kenya as a likely cause of corruption however, in Korea this is not viewed as a likely cause of corruption by foreigners living there. However *low salary* has been strongly cited by Kenyan citizenry a likely cause of corruption in the service, however their Korean counterparts are modest 46% in linking low salary in the force as causal factor of corruption in the police service. Further, amongst the

foreigners living in the respective countries, they have cited poor remuneration as a likely cause of corruption, over 70% of foreigners living in Kenya believes so while 66% of foreigners living in Korea believes it is likely cause.

4.5 Discussions

4.5.1 Corruption monitoring and management

Police being in debts is a predisposing factor towards corruption, this is further influenced by the fact that they also held other jobs, though this was a problem majorly in Kenya, it also alluded that the officers are induced to engage in corruption. Their position also predisposes them towards corruption. However, the Kenyan police do not feel as though well paid against their counterparts in Korea who feel their salaries are average meaning they are paid like everyone else in the public service. Though as is human nature, the police in both services feels that their salaries are inadequate a factor that predisposes them to engage in corruption. This is support by anti-corruption report developed by KACC for multi sectoral study where they identified low pay as pre-requisite to greed leading to corruption (KACC, 2009). Further, as it was observed that corruption cases are not reported on time and it was also difficult for anyone to be caught engaging in corruption especially in Kenya, these are other predisposing factors, as experts and practitioners have argued that management control failure predisposes individuals to corrupt practices. However, Kenya can learn from Korea on effectiveness of investigative systems and corruption monitoring within the police force.

4.5.2 Causes of corruption in police service

a) Police culture

Culture has been defined by sociologists as shared values that create the norms of individual behaviour and the tone of the institution they belong to. This element has been singled out in many instances as a causal factor in corruption. Experts and practitioners have argued that culture plays a major role in defining the value systems of individuals and hence the organisation. It has been observed that the culture of the police service that has evolved over time has precipitated the environment for engaging in corruption. In both Korea and Kenya this has been cited as a causal factor of corruption in police service, the same goes for the leadership culture within the police service, as an African proverb puts it the fish start rotting from the head and thus this is why it is not difficult to single out police leadership culture as a precursor to corruption for the entire police service. In both countries, (Korea and Kenya) culture has been strongly linked to corruption as may be deduced from statistical analysis shown in the table below.

b) Authority and transparency

Authority has been defined as rights inherent in leaders to make decisions, give orders, and utilize resources (Kiniki & Williams, 2008). Experts, scholars and practitioners have argued that the other lever of authority is accountability. Since authority has been strongly linked to corruption in Kenya however, in Korea it is not a factor. Abuse of power, or rather authority in the history of humanity has been linked to many social evils like dictatorship, oppression and

corruption. The study based on various responses from both citizens and foreigners indicates that in Korea this is not a major problem whereas in Kenya it is a major problem. Further, transparency of police in their work is seen in both countries as a causal factor of corruption in the police service. This agrees with a KACCA report of a study on multi sectoral analysis of corruption in the public since individual are not accountable due to opaque nature of operations. Experts have argued that accountability and transparency in an institution which means monitoring performance is an antidote for corruption since it enhances efficiency, transparency and accountability. .

c) Poor regulatory and enforcement framework

Regulation and enforcement are levers of the same fulcrum; during the study it was observed that poor regulatory and enforcement has been cited in both Korea and Kenya as causal factor for corruption. The finding concurs with various studies conducted by a number of agencies, in Korea for instance to stem corruption, the Korean government has developed a code of conduct for public officials, under the name 'Code of Conduct for Maintaining the Integrity of Public Officials'. This was enacted by Presidential Decree in February 2003 and put into force starting from May. It specifies that the standards of conduct be observed by both state and local public officials. The code was first amended in December 2005 to complement its weaknesses found during implementation. Besides the code of conduct for public officials, 404 public service-related organizations autonomously enacted and implemented a code of conduct for their employees from September 2004, following

recommendations by the Korea Independent Commission Against Corruption (KICAC). In Kenya such regulations have also been enacted but enforcement seems to be lacking. Prosecution of corruption is a part of enforcement, lack of proper prosecution system was identified also as part factors causing corruption. Corruption prevention is at the heart of the successful fight against corruption. It not only exposes opportunities for corruption but also provides appropriate mechanisms for mitigating such opportunities (MOJNCCA, 2009). In the light of the foregoing observation, the research makes inference that poor regulation and enforcement is a factor that causes the police force to engage in corruption. However, Korea seems to be making some significant steps toward enforcement of anticorruption policies as indicated in their report on Korea's Experience of Operating Anti-corruption and Criminal Justice Policy and the fact that Korea, is ranked amongst some of the countries with high CPI in transparency international reports against Kenya which has been ranked amongst the most corrupt nation in the world. This shows that Kenya has a lot to learn from their Korean counterparts on how to deal with factors that promote corruption.

d) Low morality

Too often the corruption debate and discussions all over the world are focused on how somebody broke a law. By dictionary definition corruption relates to doing things which are not ethical. Further it has been argued that, in philosophical, theological, or moral discussions, corruption is spiritual or moral impurity or deviation from an ideal. Corruption may include many activities

including bribery and embezzlement. Government, or political corruption occurs when an office-holder or other governmental employee acts in an official capacity for personal gain. Additionally, Police corruption is a specific form of police misconduct designed to obtain financial benefits, other personal gain, and/or career advancement for a police officer or officers in exchange for not pursuing, or selectively pursuing, an investigation or arrest. One common form of police corruption is soliciting and/or accepting bribes in exchange for not reporting organized drug or prostitution rings or other illegal activities. Another example is police officers flouting the police code of conduct in order to secure convictions of suspects — for example, through the use of falsified evidence. More rarely, police officers may deliberately and systematically participate in organized crime themselves. In most major cities, there are internal affairs sections to investigate suspected police corruption or misconduct. This study confirmed the foregoing assertion where in both Korea and Kenya corruption has been linked to lack of moral conscience. This further was qualified by the fact that ordinary citizen are seen as the other side of police corruption. This indicates that morality though not possible to create a legal framework to police people morality is a major factor in promoting corruption in police service meaning other methods other than legislation, prosecution and so on must be enlisted to deal with corruption scourge in police force and the larger society.

e) Lack of motivation

Motivation is a psychological feature that arouses an individual to act towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal-directed behaviors. It can be considered a driving force; a psychological one that compels or reinforces an action toward a desired goal. Motivation has been shown to have roots in physiological, behavioral, cognitive, and social areas. Motivation may be rooted in a basic impulse to optimize well-being, minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure. The research observed that lack of motivations is a factor that influences individuals to engage in illicit activities like corruption. In the review a number of motivating factors were put under evaluation, these were salary levels and training on corruption as motivating factors to deter police officers from engaging in corruption. It was observed that in both countries it is a likely cause. However, amongst the Koreans low salary is not seen as an issue indicating Kenya could emulate Korea by remunerating police well to ameliorate corruption in the police service.

4.6 Conclusions

a) Corruption monitoring and management

Indebtedness can be assumed a factor that exerts pressure on an individual, police being in debt could be a predisposing factor towards corruption. Further, holding another job or doing business as an officer could put undue pressure on the individual to favour his enterprise or leading to dishonesty. In Korea a small number hold jobs or have other enterprise, a fact that may explain why corruption is lower within the police service. Further, as holders of instrument of coercions the police are predisposed to abuse power through being induced

to receive favours in order to either ignore offenders, which cause corruption in the police service. The police pay in Kenya is perceived as low and insufficient which could also be a factor that influences them to engage in corrupt practices in order to bridge the earning gap seeming resulting from the low pay. The government as a matter of necessity is out to review police service salary consummate with other public service officers. This review could be informed by Korea who feels their salaries are average meaning they are paid like everyone else in the public service.

b) Causes of corruption in police service

It has been observed culture of the police service that has evolved over time has precipitated the environment for engaging in corruption. This includes the general culture of the force and the leadership culture within the police institution. In both countries, (Korea and Kenya) culture has been strongly linked to corruption. Authority i.e. the abuse of it has been linked to corruption in the police service. Further, low levels of transparency within the activity of the police force is also linked to corruption this is validated by experts have argued that accountability and transparency in an institution which means monitoring performance is an antidote for corruption since it enhances efficiency, transparency and accountability. This means poor regulatory and enforcement is as a factor the lead to corruption. Further, the low morality is a causal factor which includes lack of moral conscience and the members of public seeking for favours from police officers that corrupting their moral leading to corruption.

Lack of motivation is a strong factor in abetting corruption, and is linked with individuals to engage corruption. These mean financial rewards for reporting corruption, training on the impact of corruption, improved pay and so on, therefore the lack of it would result in individuals engaging in corruption.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 STRATEGIES TO COMBAT CORRUPTION:

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KENYAN AND KOREAN EXPERIENCE

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on various methodologies adopted by the respective countries to mitigate corruption within the police force. a number of thematic areas have been considered and both the citizen and foreigners residing in the country were interviewed and also experts and anti-corruption agencies were interviewed. The chapter is organised into sections and subsections. The chapter presents and overview of the strategies adopted, providing the findings and discussions and conclusions based on detailed analysis of documented methodologies in various anti-corruption reports, field research and expert opinions.

5.2 Perspectives on strategies to fight corruption in both countries

Corruption undermines government efforts in realizing equitable and affordable social services like security, justice, health and education among others. More particularly it drains the scarce financial resources available for various public sectors. Thus it makes it imperative to combat corruption in the public sectors.

Dr. Kim in his paper – corruption controlling strategies in Asia countries and Korea argues that the Korean Government has been struggling to provide a moral and transparent public service for the citizens and to curb bureaucratic corruption. He further, argues that the immoral public service has resulted in a dysfunction that has corroded public confidence and raised conflicts between the government and the people. He opines that the Korean experiences in dealing with ethics in the public service have shown that a lack of ethical strategies can raise serious obstacle against all efforts to increase social discipline. Korea has long suffered from discrepancies between the expected level of performance audits and actual performance because of corruption in the public service. These obligations consist of laws and systems, namely and institutions, which are implemented and controlled by the administrative parts of the government. However it follows that if the government stays is blind to the duties of the officials and the corruption of a few of its elites, however, then mistrust and confusion in its society will never disappear. In the recent times Kim Dae Jung's Administration launched comprehensive anti-corruption programs in response to the people's desire for a corruption-free police service. The Korean people expected the government to implement a complete reform of the police service since they had experienced and come to understand the adverse effects of corruption on the economy during the financial crisis and subsequent political turmoil of party disputes in the past. Although Korea rapidly attained enormous economic development in only a few decades, the long-standing collusion between politics and business proved to be a major cause of the unprecedented economic crisis of 1997. The Korean Government's

new anti-corruption programs tie in with the efforts of the international community to eliminate corruption around the world. In conformity with the anti-bribery treaty that was signed by members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and went into effect in February 1999, the Korean Government had also tightened its inspection and punishment of those businesses offering bribes to foreign entities and police service.

In Kenya, according to the UNCAC gap report it is reported that corruption and effectiveness of various anti-corruption measures have been well documented. Over the past six years, various anticorruption instruments and measures have been put into place to tame runaway corruption in various sectors including police service. These instruments include; anti corruption and economic crime Act 2003; the government management Act and so on. Further, according to Kenya national anti-corruption plan it is documented that some of the earliest efforts to fight corruption in Kenya started in the colonial era which eventually led to enactment of the prevention of corruption ordinance in 1956.

5.3 Findings on strategies of corruption mitigation

This section provides the findings on strategies adopted to combat corruption in the police service. The section is structured into subsection each dealing with a thematic area. The major themes whose findings are presented include; corruption monitoring and management, creation of good corruption control strategies, creating accountability framework, enforcing punishment, providing motivation and authority regulation.

5.4 Corruption monitoring and management

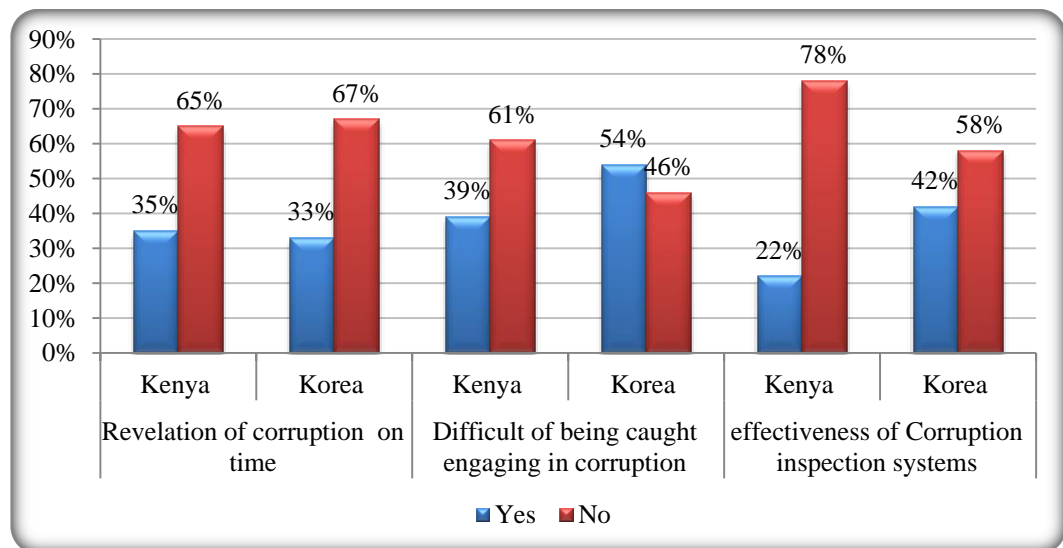
a) Corruption monitoring

Table 5.1: Corruption monitoring

Opinion	Revelation of corruption on time		Difficult of being caught engaging in corruption		effectiveness of Corruption inspection systems	
	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea
Yes	35%	33%	39%	54%	22%	42%
No	65%	67%	61%	46%	78%	58%

(Source: Author)

Figure 5.1: Corruption monitoring



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea on corruption monitoring, three parameters were considered; on time corruption revelation, ease of being caught when corrupt and effectiveness of corruption inspection. The responses were as follows;

On whether, corruption is revealed on time, amongst the Kenya respondents, 35% believed it was revealed on time whereas 65% believed it was not whereas amongst Korean respondents, 33% believed it was the case while 67% believed it was not the case.

On whether it was difficult being caught engaging in corruption, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 39% believed that it was difficult being caught while 61% believed otherwise whereas amongst the Korean respondents, 54% believed it was difficult while 46% believed it was not.

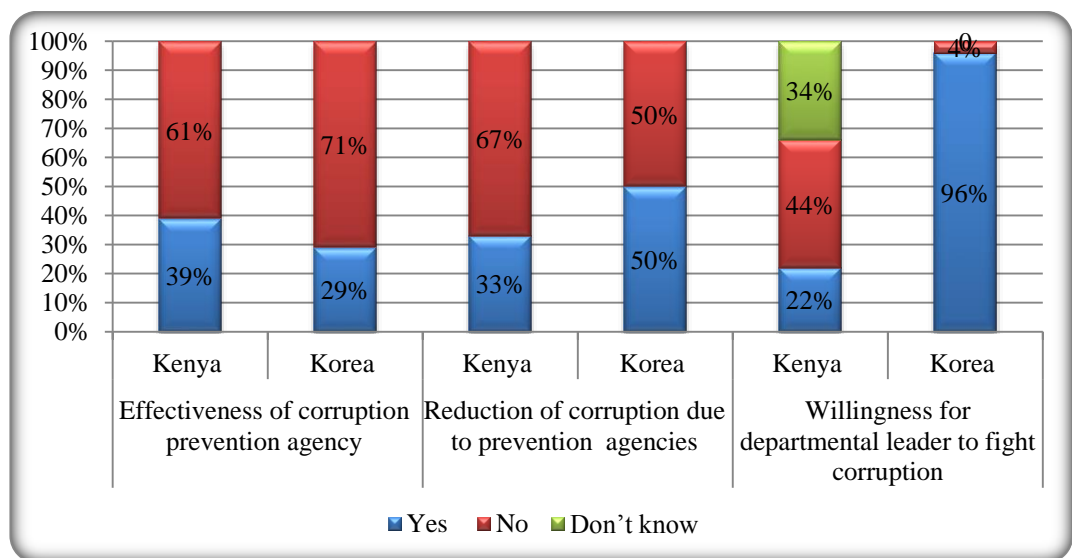
On the effectiveness of corruption inspection systems, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 22% indicated they were effective while 78% believed they were not whereas among Korean respondents, 42% indicated the systems are effective while 58% indicated that they were not.

c) Effectiveness of corruption management agencies

Table 5.2: Effectiveness of corruption control agencies

Opinion	Effectiveness of corruption prevention agency		Reduction of corruption due to prevention agencies		Willingness for departmental leader to fight corruption	
	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea
Yes	39%	29%	33%	50%	22%	96%
No	61%	71%	67%	50%	44%	4%
Don't know					34%	0

Figure 5.2: Effectiveness of corruption control agencies



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea on effectiveness of anticorruption agencies on fighting corruption, three parameters were evaluated, they include, effectiveness of the

agency, reduction of corruption due to the agency and willing of the leader to fight corruption. The responses were as follows;

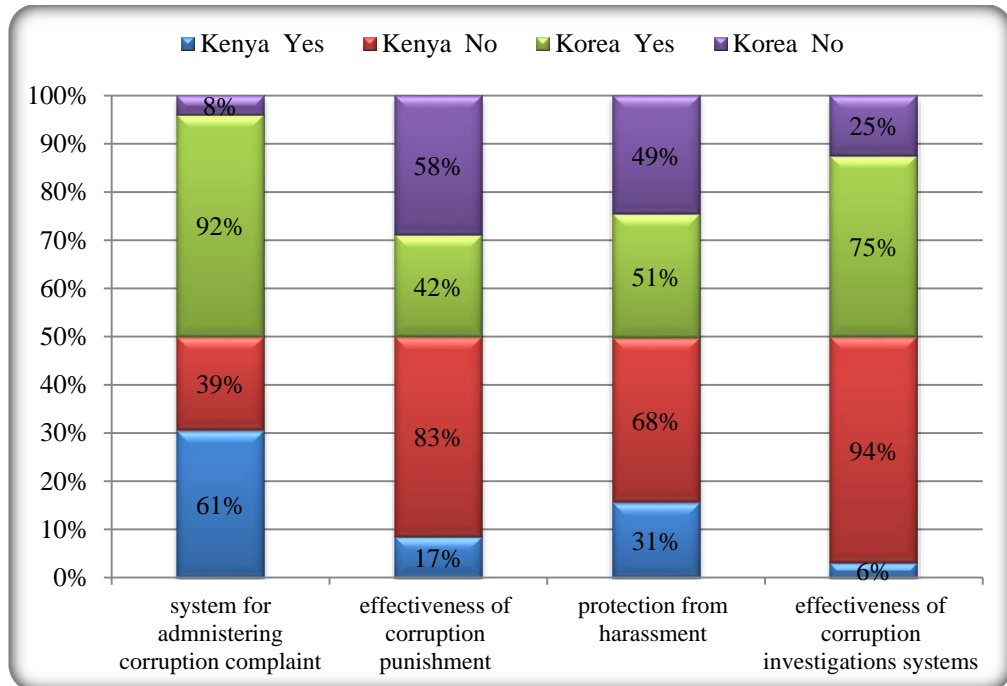
On whether the agencies were effective in fighting corruption, the respondents amongst the Kenya police, 39% indicated that the KACC was effective while 61% indicated it was not, whereas amongst Korea respondent, 29% believed KICAC was effective while 71% believed it was not.

On whether corruption had reduced in the police force due to the agencies, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 33% believed that it had reduced while 67% believed that it had not whereas in Korea those that believed that the agency had reduced corruption and those that did not believe tied at 50% each.

On whether the leader of the agency was willing to fight corruption, amongst the Kenya respondents, 22% indicated that there was willingness, 44% indicated that there was no willingness while 34% did not know, whereas among the Korean respondents 96% indicated that there was willingness while only 4% indicated that there was no willingness.

d) Corruption management

Figure 5.3: Corruption management



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea on the question of corruption management, four parameters were evaluated, these are; system for administering corruption complaints, effectiveness of corruption punishment, protection from harassment for reporting corruption and effective corruption investigation systems.

On the question of systems for administering corruption complaints, amongst respondents from Kenya, 61% indicated that there are systems while 39% indicated that they were not, whereas amongst Korean respondents, 92% indicated that there are while 8% indicated that they are not.

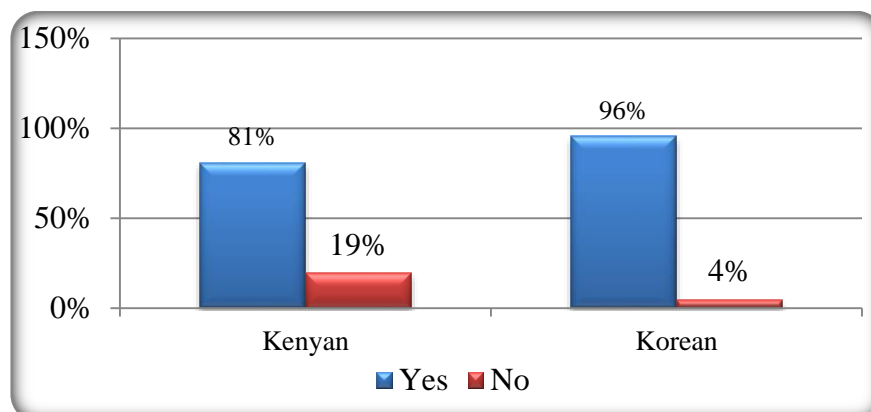
On the effectiveness of corruption punishment, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 17% indicated that the punishments are effective while 83% indicated they are not whereas amongst the Korean respondents 42% indicated that it was effective whereas 58% indicated that they were not.

On protection from harassment for reporting corruption, amongst the Kenya respondents, 31% indicated that that there was protection while 69% indicated that there is no protection whereas amongst Korean respondents, 51% indicated that there was protection from harassment while 49% indicated that there was not protection.

On Effectiveness of corruption investigation systems, amongst the Kenyan respondents, 6% indicated that the systems were effective, while 94% indicated that they were not, whereas amongst the Korean respondents, 75% indicated that the systems were effective while 25% were not effective.

e) Corruption control strategies

Figure 5.4: Creating good corruption control strategies



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea on whether creating good corruption control strategies would reduce corruption, in Kenya 81% believed that it would be effective while 19% believed it would not whereas in Korea, 96% believed the controls would reduce corruption while a mere 4% believed it would not.

5.5 Summary of the findings

5.5.1 Corruption monitoring

In both countries corruption is not revealed on time as observed by 65% Kenyan and 67% of their Korean counterparts. Further, 61% of Kenyan police believes, it is not easy to be caught engaging in corruption, but in Korea, most of the officers 46% believe it is easy to be caught. The system for corruption inspection system is not seen as effective in Kenyan case, over 78% do not believe that they are effective, however in Korea a lesser number of officers do believe that the systems are effective

5.5.2 Effectiveness of anticorruption agencies

KACC is not viewed as effective by police officers in Kenya, at least over 60% do not believe that it is effective, the same trend was observed amongst the Korean police force regarding the anticorruption agency KICAC.

Further, corruption has not been largely affected in Kenya due to the anti-graft agency, over two thirds of police force does not believe that it has reduced due to the ant-graft agency, however in Korea; KICAC is viewed as successful in reducing corruption by half of the police force.

Additionally, in Kenya, police officers do not believe that the anti-graft chief has willingness to fight corruption; however their Korean counterparts, almost all 96% believes that the anti-graft agency head has willingness to fight corruption.

5.5.3 Corruption management

There are systems in Kenya to administering corruption complaints, in Kenya, at least over 60% believed that the systems exists, the same trend is observed amongst the Korea police officer though with a higher intensity, over 90% believed that the systems existed indicating that the police service in Korea was amongst respondents from Kenya, 61% indicated that almost every police officer in Korea has been made aware against just about two thirds of police officers in Kenya.

In Kenya, punishment on corruption are not seen as effective, a very high number believes the punishment are ineffective, the same trend is observed amongst the Korean counterparts, though with a lower intensity since just about 60% believed that they are not effective against Kenyan counterpart where over 80% believed that they were not effective.

In Kenya police do not feel protected for reporting corruption, over 69% do not feel protected from harassment for reporting corruption, however, Koreans feel safer to report corruption since over 50% indicated they felt protected to report corruption.

In Kenya, systems for investigating corruption are not effective, over 90% of the officers holds the opinion that the systems are not effective, however, their Korean counterparts, exudes confidence that corruption investigation systems in their force are effective, over 75% of the officers have confidence with the investigation systems.

In both Kenyan and Korean Police service, there is a believe that if good corruption control strategies are put in place corruption would reduce in the force, over 80% of Kenyan police men held this opinion while over 95% of Korean police men held this position.

5.6 Discussions

According to an online dictionary, monitoring has been defined as supervising Activities in progress to ensure they are on-course and on-schedule in meeting the objectives and performance targets. This means if there is a problem, there are indicators to show and then remedial measure are put in place. The study observed that in both countries corruption is not revealed on time indicating a deficiency in the monitoring framework. This also was affirmed by the fact that it is not easy to be caught engaging in corruption in both countries. However in Korea corruption inspection systems are effective whereas in Kenya they are not. This again means Korea has been ahead of Kenya in some aspects of corruption management such inspection and to some extent corruption detection.

The effectiveness of the anti-graft agencies and or mechanism is a prerequisite for combating corruption in any given society. It was observed in both countries that the anti-graft agencies are not effective in dealing with corruption, an indication that both countries need to develop the capacities of the agencies to deal with corruption problem in the countries and especially in the police force. However, there is higher confidence in the anti-graft agency in Korea which validates transparency international CPI index which ranks Kenya as more corrupt than Korea. further, this is fortified by the fact that, the police in Korea believes strongly that the leaders within the agency are committed to fight corruption in contrast with their Kenya counterparts that feels that the leaders within the agencies are not committed to deal or fight corruption.

The survey also observed that, at least there are systems for corruption administration in both countries; however the level of knowledge about corruption management practice is much higher than in Kenya, this is a learning point for Kenya on training regarding anti-corruption policies. However, both countries are facing challenges in corruption punishment though Korea seems to be performing better than Kenya in this front. Further, Koreans seems safer to report corrupt case than their Kenyan counterparts, it was observed that Koreans feels safer to report corruption than their Kenyan counterparts who overwhelmingly indicated that they did not feel safer to report corruption within the service. The same trend was observed in corruption investigations, Koreans overwhelmingly indicated that they have confidence in the effectiveness of their investigation system contrary the Kenya

police where confidence is very low. However in both forces, there is shared belief that if good corruption control mechanisms are put in place corruption could reduce significantly.

5.7 Corruption mitigation strategies

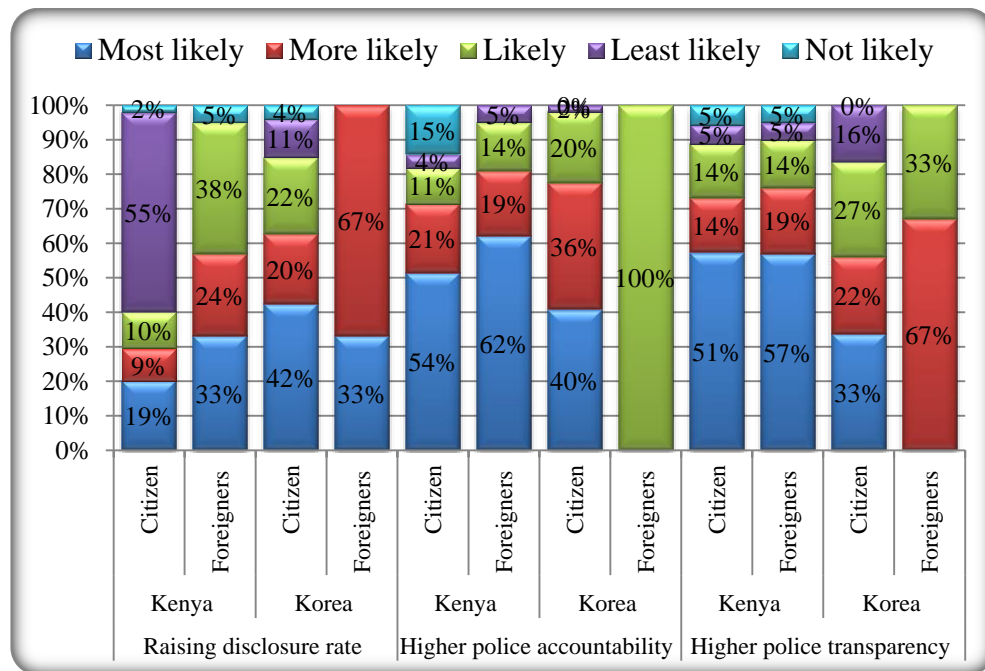
5.7.1 Creating accountability framework

Table 5.3: creating accountability framework

	Raising disclosure rate				Higher police accountability				Higher police transparency			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigne	Citizen	Foreigne	Citizen	Foreigne	Citizen	Foreigne	Citizen	Foreigne	Citizen	Foreigne
Most likely	19%	33%	42%	33%	54%	62%	40%		51%	57%	33%	
More likely	9%	24%	20%	67%	21%	19%	36%		14%	19%	22%	67%
Likely	10%	38%	22%		11%	14%	20%	100%	14%	14%	27%	33%
Least likely	55%		11%		4%	5%	2%		5%	5%	16%	
Not likely	2%	5%	4%		15%		0%		5%	5%	0%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 5.5: Creating accountability framework



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding the question of accountability framework, three parameters were examined and the responses were as follows

a) Raising corruption disclosure rates

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 57% indicated that it was either least likely 55% or not likely 2% whereas, amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 95% indicated that it was either most likely 33%, more likely 24% or likely 38% to mitigate corruption in police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 84% indicated that it was most likely 42%; more likely 20% or likely 22% whereas foreigners residing in

Korea, all 100% indicated that it was most likely 33% or more likely 67% to mitigate corruption in police service.

b) Increasing police accountability

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 86% indicated that it was either most likely 54%, more likely 21% or likely 11% whereas amongst foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 95% indicated that it was either most likely 62%, more likely 19% or likely 14% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst Korean Citizenry, the majority 96% indicated that it was most likely 40%, more likely 36% or likely 20% whereas all 100% of foreigners residing in Korea indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption in police service.

c) Increasing transparency in the police force

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 79% indicated that it was either most likely 51%, more likely 14% or likely 14% whereas amongst foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 90% indicated that it was either most likely 57%, more likely 19% or likely 14% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 82% indicated that it was either most likely 33%, more likely 22% or likely 27%, whereas all 100% the foreigners residing in Korea, indicated that it was more likely 67% or likely 33% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

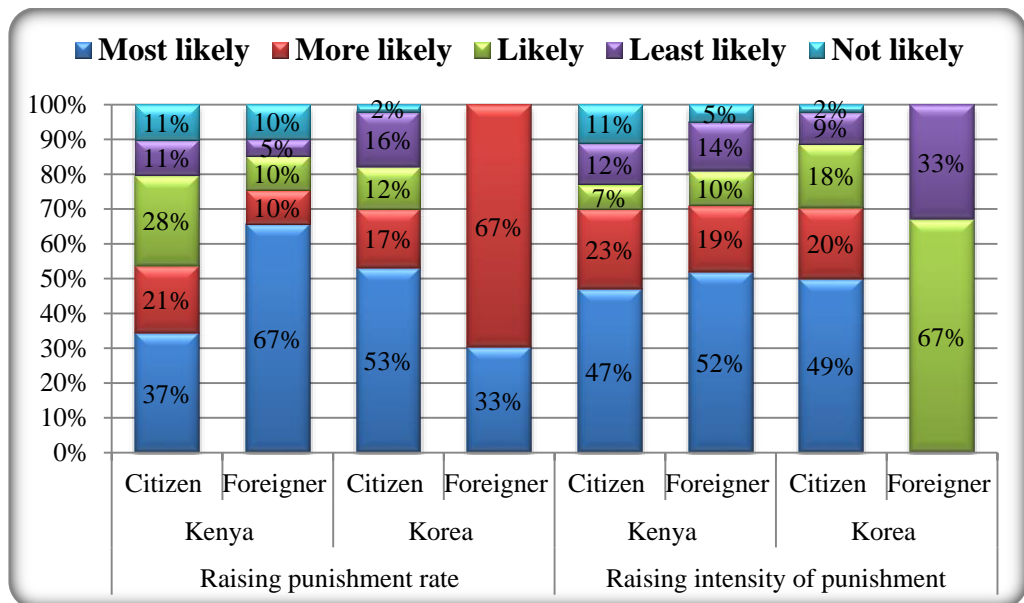
5.7.2 Enforcing punishment

Table 5.4: Enforcing punishment to control corruption

	Raising punishment rate				Raising intensity of punishment			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	37%	67%	53%	33%	47%	52%	49%	
More likely	21%	10%	17%	67%	23%	19%	20%	
Likely	28%	10%	12%		7%	10%	18%	67%
Least likely	11%	5%	16%		12%	14%	9%	33%
Not likely	11%	10%	2%		11%	5%	2%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 5.6: Enforcing punishment to control corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on the question of punishment enforcement; two parameters were evaluate with the responses as follows;

a) Raising punishment rate

Amongst the Kenyan Citizenry, the majority 86% indicated that it was either most likely 37%, more likely 21% or likely 28% whereas Amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 87% indicated that it was either most likely 67%, more likely 10% or likely 10% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst the Korean Citizenry, the majority 82% indicated that it was most likely 53%, more likely 17% or likely 12% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, all 100% indicated that it was most likely 33% or likely 67% to mitigated corruption in the police service.

b) Raising intensity of punishment

Amongst the Kenya citizenry, the majority 77% indicated that it was either most likely 47%, more likely 23% or likely 7% whereas amongst the foreign respondents residing in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was either most likely 52%, more likely 19% or likely 10% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 87% indicated that it was either most likely 49%, more likely 20% or likely 18%, whereas amongst foreigners

residing in Korea, the majority 67% indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption in the police service.

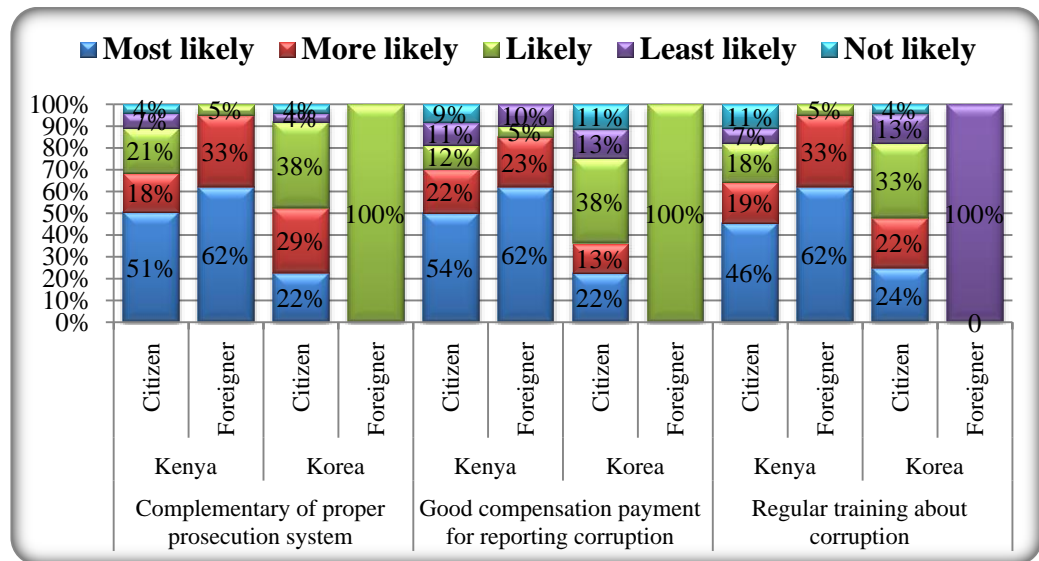
5.7.3 Providing motivation

Table 5.5: Providing motivation to control corruption

	Complementary of proper prosecution system				Good compensation payment for reporting corruption				Regular training about corruption			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	51%	62%	22%		54%	62%	22%		46%	62%	24%	
More likely	18%	33%	29%		22%	23%	13%		19%	33%	22%	
Likely	21%	5%	38%	100%	12%	5%	38%	100%	18%	5%	33%	
Least likely	7%		4%		11%	10%	13%		7%		13%	100%
Not likely	4%		4%		9%		11%		11%		4%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 5.7: Providing motivation to control corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on the question of motivating police officer on corruption mitigation, three parameters were evaluated; the responses were as follows;

a) Complementation for prosecution

Amongst the Kenya citizenry respondent, the majority 90% indicated that it was either most likely 51%, more likely 18% or likely 21% whereas amongst the foreigners, all indicated that it was either most likely 62%, more likely 33% or likely 5% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst Korean citizenry, the majority 89% indicated that it was either, most likely 22%, more likely 29% or likely 38% whereas amongst the foreigners

residing in Korea, all the respondents indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption.

b) Compensation for reporting corruption

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 88% indicated that it was either most likely 54%, more likely 22%, or likely 12% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 90% indicated that it was either most likely 62%, more likely 23% or likely 5% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 73% indicated that it was most likely 22%; more likely 13% or likely 38% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, all 100% indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption in the police service.

c) Regular training on corruption

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 83%, indicated that it was most likely 46%, more likely 19% or likely 18% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the all respondents indicated that it was most likely 62%, more likely 33% or likely 5% indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption, in the police service.

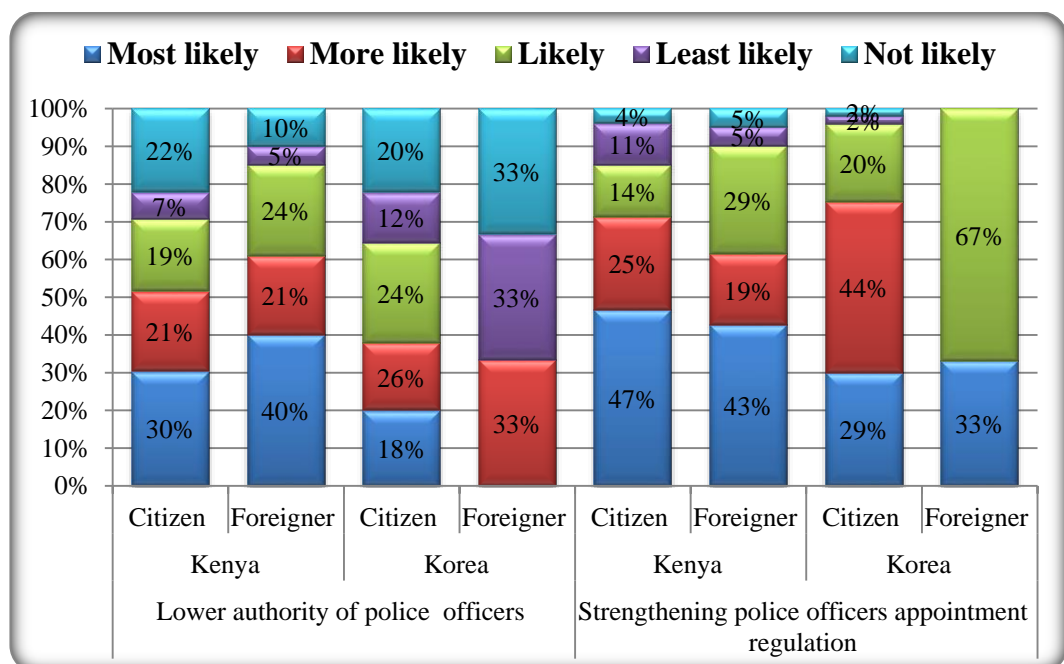
Amongst the Korea citizenry, the majority 79% indicated that it was most likely 24%, more likely 22% or 33%, whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, all 100% indicated that it was likely to mitigate corruption.

5.7.4 Authority regulation

Table 5.6: Authority regulation

	Lower authority of police officers				Strengthening police officers appointment regulation			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	30%	40%	18%		47%	43%	29%	33%
More likely	21%	21%	26%	33%	25%	19%	44%	
Likely	19%	24%	24%		14%	29%	20%	67%
Least likely	7%	5%	12%	33%	11%	5%	2%	
Not likely	22%	10%	20%	33%	4%	5%	2%	

Figure 5.8: Authority regulation



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on the question of authority regulation to mitigate corruption 130 ordinary citizens; two elements were evaluated, the responses were as follows;

a) Lowering the authority of police

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 70% indicated that it was most likely 30%, more likely 21% or likely 19% whereas amongst foreigners living in Kenya, the majority 85% indicated that it was either most likely 40%, more likely 21% or likely 24% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst the Korea citizenry respondents, the majority 68% indicated that it was most likely 18%, more likely 26% or likely 24% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, the majority 66% indicated that it least likely 33% or not likely 33% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

b) Strengthening police officers appointment

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 86% indicated that it was either most likely 47%, more likely 25% or likely 14% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 91% indicated that it was either most likely 43%, more likely 19% or likely 29% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

Amongst Korea citizenry respondents, the majority, 93% indicated that it was either most likely 29%, more likely 44% or likely 20% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, all the respondents indicated that it was most likely 33% or likely 67% to mitigate corruption in the police service.

5.8 Summary of the findings

5.8.1 Creating accountability framework

Raising disclosure rate: This strategy has been cited as possible method for corruption mitigation in Korea with over 80% indicated that it is a possible method, however in Kenya, it is not believed to an effective method for combating corruption, and it is disapproved by 57% of Kenyans. Most of the foreigners residing in Kenya believe this strategy would help combat corruption in police force; over 80% believes that this is a strategy that can mitigate corruption in the police service. The same trend is observed amongst their Korean counterparts.

Higher police accountability: This strategy is viewed as an effective measure to combat corruption in Kenya and Korea, in both cases over 80% of Kenyans and Korean believes it is an effective method. This strategy is also seen a good strategy to mitigate corruption by foreigners residing in Kenya, over 90% holds this opinion, the same trend is observed amongst the foreigner residing in Korea on police accountability as a mitigation factor towards corruption.

Increasing Police Transparency: This is an effective method of combating corruption in the police service, over 75% in both Korea and Kenya approves

this as an effective method. This method is also seen as a good strategy for mitigating corruption in police service, the same belief is held by foreigners residing in Korea, in both cases, 90% and 100% respectively, believes this is a measure that could mitigate corruption in the police service.

5.8.2 Enforcing punishment

Raising punishment rates for those engaging in corruption: This strategy is seen as an effective measure by citizenry both in Kenya and Korea, in both countries, over 80% believes that this is an effective measure. Most of the foreigners residing in Kenya believe strongly that raising punishment rates would be a worthwhile strategy to fight against corruption in the police service, the same trend is observed amongst foreigners residing in Korea, in both instances, over 75% and 100% believed it is an effective methodology.

Raising the intensity of punishment: This strategy is viewed as an effective measure to combat corruption, in Kenya and Korea over 80% of the citizens believes it effective. The foreigners residing in Kenya hold the opinion that if the intensity of punishment is raised corruption would be mitigated in the police service, their counterparts in Korea held the same belief, in both cases 81% (Kenya) and 67% (Korea) hold this position.

5.8.3 Authority regulation

Lowering the authority of police officers: This method has been cited by a significant number as a possible measure to fight corruption, over 70% in Kenyans believes it is an effective measure, in Korea the citizenry is not as

enthusiastic as their counterparts in Kenya, just about 68% believes that this could help mitigate corruption. Amongst the foreigners, both Kenya and Korea were cited as a strategy that could mitigate corruption in the police service, in both cases, 85% for Kenya and 66% for Korea believed the strategy would mitigate corruption in the police service.

Strengthening police appointment: This method is also viewed as a good measure to deal with corruption, in both countries, over 80% of the citizens believes that it is a good measure. This strategy was supported as likely to mitigate corruption in the police service, in Kenya; over 90% believed the strategy would be effective.

5.8.4 Providing motivation

Complementation for prosecution: This is seen as a good strategy to mitigate corruption in the police service; the Kenyan and Korean citizenry hold the opinion that this would be a good strategy to mitigate corruption, in both countries over 80% of the citizens feels this is a good strategy. The same trend is observed amongst foreigners residing in the respective country.

Compensation for reporting corruption: In both Korea and Kenya, this is seen as a good strategy to deal with corruption, in both case an overwhelming majority, over 70% strongly believed that this was a strategy that was likely to mitigate corruption in the respective police services. The foreigners in the respective country also strongly supported this strategy as an effective method with over 90% of both cases holding supportive opinion of this strategy.

Regular training on corruption: In both countries, this strategy has been viewed as a good strategy to mitigate corruption, in Kenya particularly over 80% hold the opinion that this is a good strategy, however in Korea the support was strong with over 75% indicating that this strategy could mitigate corruption. Amongst the foreigners in the respective country, the support was overwhelming in both countries will almost all being unanimous that this strategy is likely to mitigate corruption in the police force.

5.9 Discussions

According to UN-convention against corruption gap analysis and implementation plan, the Kenyan government has made an admission that there is no comprehensive anti-corruption policy. However, some policy and legal provisions have been made to aid in corruption eradication. There are also various programs such Public Service Integrity Program (PSIP), and examinations carried out in various public bodies to identify and seal corruption loopholes in the method of work in the public sector.

In Korea, according to Korea's Experience of Operating Anti-corruption Criminal Justice Policy report, there are Major special laws related to corruption of public officials are the State Public Officials Act and Public Service Ethics Act. The State Public Officials Act sets out obligations for public officials in reference to his/her public duties such as integrity, maintaining dignity, a ban for holding more than a concurrent position for pursuing profit. The said Act also indicates that a violator shall be retired ipso facto, dismissed him/her ex officio or etc. The Public Service Ethics Act,

which is a legal framework possessing a characteristic designed to prevent corruption, requires a public official to register and disclose his/her property and to report on property of transferred person. Furthermore, the said Act imposes restriction on employment of retired public officials in relation to private enterprises, etc. and includes punishment to its violators.

The Act on the Prevention of Corruption and the Establishment and Management of the Anti-corruption and Civil Rights Commission also stipulates basic rules such as establishment of anti-corruption agency to make Korea transparent both in public sector and society, protection and rewarding for whistle-blowers as well as improving audits and participation of citizens.

Furthermore, the Act on special cases concerning forfeiture for offenses of public officials was legislated in and has been entered into force since 1995 on the ground that even if a public official was prosecuted for obtaining illegal proceeds by abusing his/her public duties, it is desirable to thoroughly forfeit the illegal proceeds. The subject of forfeiture and punishment on penalty tax has been expanded to include not only illegal proceeds obtained through acceptance of bribe but also property derivatives of the proceeds.

Considering that the two nations have made efforts to combat corruption and they are at different level of success according the annual ranking by transparency international the survey observed that creating accountability framework would be a method that would aid in dealing with corruption in the police service. As the earlier paragraphs attested, both nations have made

several legal and policy frameworks to deal with corruption. Raising corruption disclosure rates is seen as good mitigation measure in both countries but seems to be of greater importance in Korea than in Kenya, probably based on widespread experience by the citizenry of corruption exposed but the action being less than anticipated. This is validated by a transparency international Kenya survey on corruption where of over 50% of Kenyan believes that even if they report corruption it would not make a difference (TI Kenya, 2013). However, higher accountability within the police force has some confidence amongst Kenyans; they suppose it is an effective method for corruption control in the police service, a stand well shared by their Korean counter parts. This is further, cemented by the fact that higher police transparency in their operation would also deal a blow to corruption.

Corruption punishment has been argued by experts and scholars as a methodology for deterring corruption. The study observed that raising punishment rates and raising the intensity of those punishments would be an effective measure in both countries. Some of the punishment suggested includes freezing of assets, seizure and confiscation of proceeds of crime and instrumentalities in the commission of the offence. Further, as suggested by the UN report on corruption, all illicit enrichment trading in influence and proceeds of crime should be expressly criminalised and stiff penalties prescribed. Further, it suggests that exiting legal framework should be amended to provide for adequately prohibitive consequences for all acts of corruptions

and completely deprive offenders of any benefits obtained as a result of corrupt conduct.

Another element of corruption mitigation measure that was reviewed included; authority regulation meaning lowering the authority of police officers and strengthening the appointment of officers either into the force or for promotion. According to a report done by KACCA on sectoral perspectives on corruption, it has been recommended that a framework for greater community oversight into public sector activities would mitigate corruption. This validates the findings that observed that lowering police authority especially in Kenya would combat corruption, however in Korea this element is not as enthusiastically endorsed meaning this could already be taking place and the results gives the extent of their impact. However, strengthening of police appointment is a measure strongly endorsed as a methodology that would be effective in combating corruption.

Motivation is a psychological feature that arouses an individual to act towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal-directed behaviours. It can be considered a driving force; a psychological one that compels or reinforces an action toward a desired goal. Motivation has been shown to have roots in physiological, behavioural, cognitive, and social areas. Motivation may be rooted in a basic impulse to optimize well-being, minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure. The study observed that complementing police officers for prosecuting corruption would increase or give more impetus in fight against corruption, further, compensation for reporting corruption

would also give positive energy to fight against the vice in the police force and finally regular training on corruption will also have very positive results on the fight against corruption. This is validated by various studies including, the report on Korea's Experience of Operating Anti-corruption Criminal Justice Policy where it was reported that since corruption report compensation system was put in place after the establishment of KICAC, corruption informants can file compensation money payment with KICAC if their report directly recovered or increased revenue of public agency concerned because of their reporting. If they meet the payment criteria, they are legally entitled to such payment. The report indicates that the reward payment system for corruption informants, which was established by fine-tuning the old version, has been implemented since July 2005. Under the reward payment system, reward money is paid to those informants who brought about financial benefits and prevention of losses on the part of public agencies, and promotion of public good even without public agencies' restitution. This reward payment system serves as an effective anti-corruption tool that encourages people's voluntary participation in corruption reporting by rewarding those who are courageous enough to report corruption for the sake of public good in the face of risks.

5.10 Conclusion

Corruption in Kenya is not revealed on time indicating a deficiency in the monitoring framework. However in Korea corruption inspection systems are effective whereas in Kenya they are not. This again means Korea has been ahead of Kenya in some aspects of corruption management such inspection and

to some extent corruption detection and this is a learning point for Kenya police service. The anti-graft agencies are not effective in dealing with corruption, which means that both countries need to develop the capacities of the agencies to deal with corruption in the police force. However, there is higher confidence in the anti-graft agency in Korea against their Kenya counterparts that feels that the leaders within the agencies are not committed to deal or fight corruption. Since the systems in both countries are not effective there is need to set systems that would nab corruption. Kenya has a lesson to learn from Korea on training and ensuring that police officers have higher knowledge as regarding to impact, management and control of corruption. Corruption punishment needs to be enforced more strongly than they currently are, also the officers willing to report corruption without being intimidated, also Kenyans could learn a lesson on protecting officers willing to report corruption in the service. In Korea, corruption investigation is effective whereas in Kenya, the investigations are not effective, this means Kenya could learn a lesson on corruption investigations. Since a premium was place on good corruption control mechanisms, both countries need to develop systems for controlling corruption.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 IMPACT OF CORRUPTION IN KENYA AND KOREA

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the impact of corruption in Kenya and Korea. The objective of this chapter is to evaluate the effect of corruption in the police service to the respective nation. A number of elements were evaluated and findings, discussion and conclusions highlighted. The chapter is structured into section and subsections. The major sections includes; perspectives into corruption, presentation of the findings, discussions and conclusions. The subsections includes

6.2 Perspective into the impact of corruption

Historically, corruption had prevailed in Korea from its foundation and the fight against corruption had declared by successive Korean governments. Regarding Criminal Justice Policy, Korea has not only made numerous efforts to improve the legal system designed to deal with corruption of public officials, legal circles, etc. But also spent enormous amount of budget to prevent corruption. In essence, rooting out corruption has been the first-priority task of government in Korea. Although, Korean government has shown strong will, chanting a slogan of 'eradicate corruption,' especially during the early period of inauguration, a vicious circle of corruption still continues in Korea. Preventing and eradicating corruption has emerged as a task for modern times in Korea where the transition into post-material society, corruption friendly

environment facilitating collusion between politics and business, and deepening ideological conflict are being laid out.

Various forms of corruption, such as bribery offense, political corruption, collusion between politics and business, have deterred Korea from building a transparent and developed society. Therefore, there has been a call to eradicate corruption for a further developed society. However, entering into the 21st century, Koreans' determination to address past corruption allegations has become stronger than ever before. It is impossible for Korea to become a developed nation while maintaining an environment that feeds corruption within the society. To achieve a further developed Korean society, it should be sibilated that stirring up indiscriminate feud, which has been accumulated through the process of democratization and industrialization, as well as continuous pressure or adopting different counter measures to the feud. In Korean society, making efforts to find a way to eradicate corruption and establish a system to control corruptors is not a new phenomenon. Even though the Korean government has made efforts and discussed the issue, no further development has been made. There could be many reasons for the failure, yet major grounds could be attributable to lack of precise analysis on the rapidly changing reality and various anti-corruption policies that have been implemented as remedies without reflecting the reality.

According to Korea's Corruption Perceptions Index, Korea has joined the ranks of developed countries rapidly to fight against corruption compared to other countries. The rampant corruption was disrupted to cultural and social society through a war in the Japanese colonial period. A declaration of war against corruption, related policies and legal system were conducted whenever a regime was replaced. Despite the short period of time, the corruption-related policies prerequisite helped Korea to grow as a driving force of economic growth. Because economic development and corruption have an inseparable relation, corruption can easily diffuse under economic reasons. Thus, the foundation of anti-corruption policy and legal framework contribute to economic development in a healthy and transparent society.

On the Kenya side, the Kenyan government has acknowledged that there are significant dividends of fighting corruption. It has been argued that there is marked improvement in the performance of the public sector, increased integrity in public service delivery, increased awareness on quality and quantity viz cost of service from public sectors, increased rate of economic growth. Further it has been indicated that corruption is costing the country millions shillings every year through siphoning off scarce resources thus diminishing the country prospects for development. Distortions generated by corruption result in lower investments and economic growth.

6.3 Findings on the impact of corruption

This subsection provides findings of the research process on the impact of corruption in the respective nations. A number of parameters were evaluated and included; a) effectiveness of method implemented to fight corruption, b) effects of reducing corruption in police service, c) effects of corruption on countries economic, domestic and foreign policies, d) effect of corruption in economic, domestic policies and even international relations, e) extent of effect of corruption on domestic and foreign policies, f) social impact of corruption, g) economic impact of corruption, and foreign perception impact. The data is presented inform of tables, a charts and brief description of the data.

6.3.1 Perspectives on impact of corruption

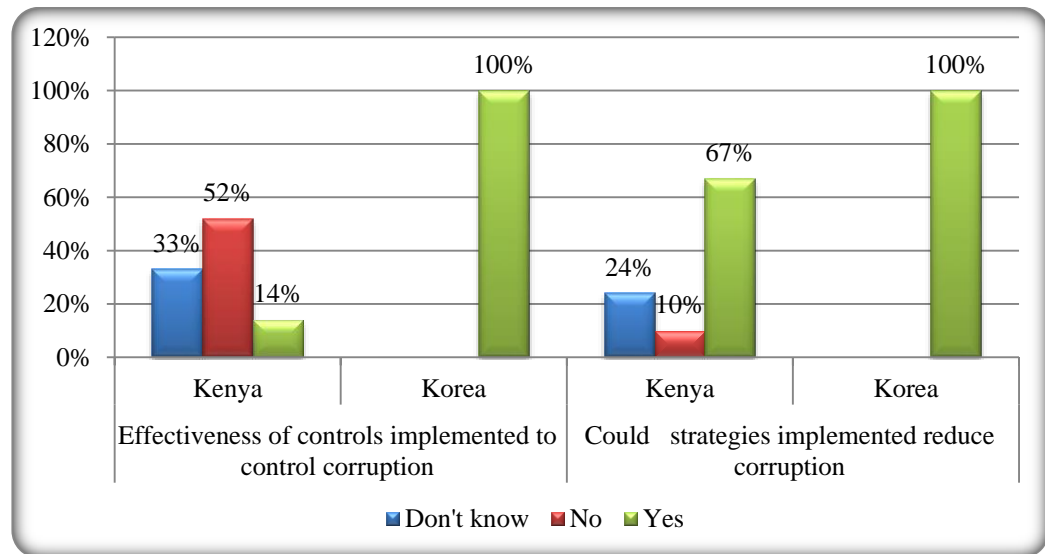
a) Effectiveness of methods implemented to control corruption

Table 6.1: Effectiveness of method for controlling corruption

	Effectiveness of controls implemented to control corruption		Could strategies implemented reduce corruption	
	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea
Don't Know	33%	0%	24%	0%
no	52%	0%	10%	0%
yes	14%	100%	67%	100%

(Source: Author)

Figure 6.1: Effectiveness of method for controlling corruption



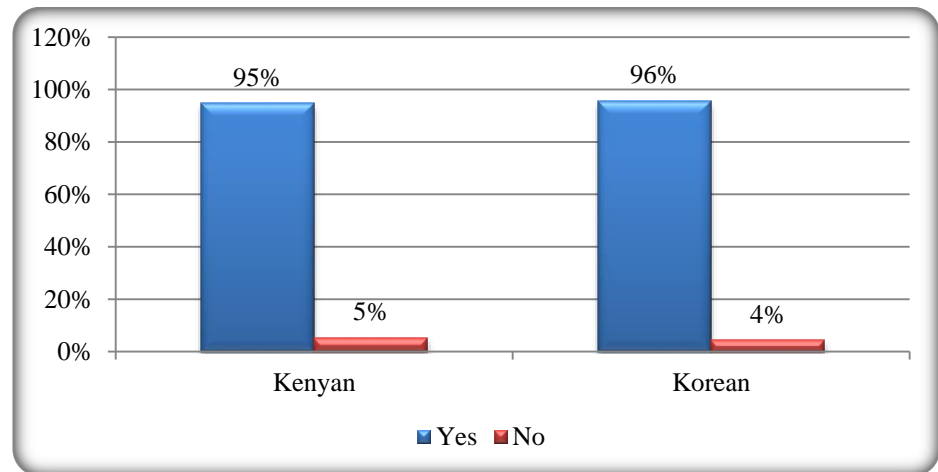
(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in South Korea regarding the measure put in place to control corruption, two parameters were evaluated, they include; controls to mitigate corruption and strategies to reduce corruption.

On whether the measures being implemented to mitigate corruption are viewed as effective, the responses were as follows; amongst foreigners residing in Kenya, 33% indicated that they did not know, 52% it would not mitigate corruption whereas 14% indicated that it would mitigate corruption

b) Effects of corruption on countries economic, domestic and foreign polices

Figure 6.2: Effects of corruption on economic, domestic and foreign policy

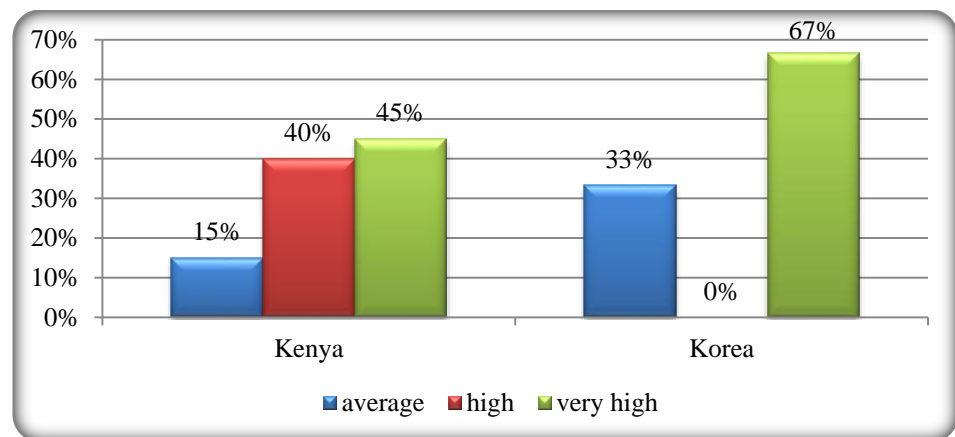


(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in South Korea on whether corruption has effects on both countries economic, domestic and international policies, in Kenya 95% concurred that there are effects while a mere 5% indicated that there were no effects whereas in Korea, 96% indicated that there were effects whereas 4% indicated that there were no effects.

c) Effect of corruption in economic, domestic policies and even international relations

Figure 6.3: Effects of corruption on economic, domestic and foreign policy

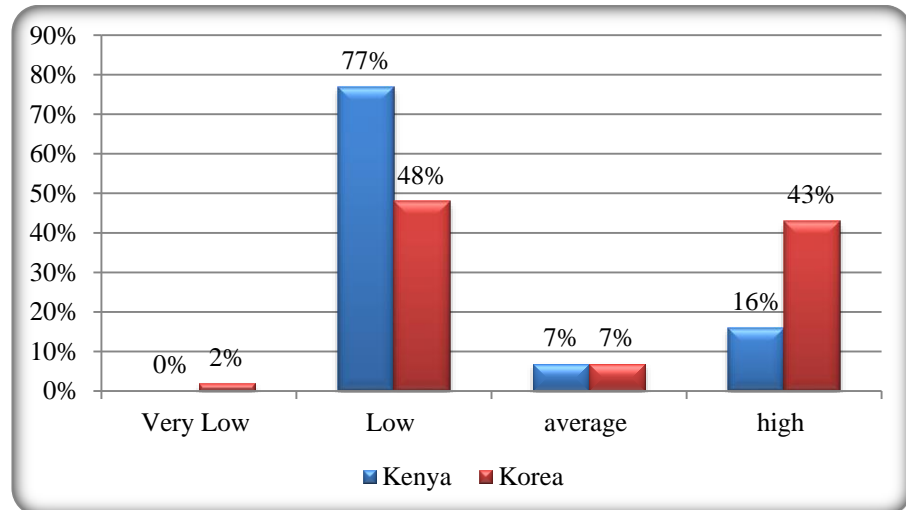


(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in South Korea on the extent of effects of corruption in the respective country they resided, amongst the foreigners living in Kenya, 15% believed that the effects were average, 40% indicated that they were high and 45% indicated that they were very high. Whereas 33% foreigners residing in Korea indicated the effects were average and 67% indicated that they were very high.

d) Extent of effect of corruption on domestic and foreign policies

Figure 6.4: Extent of effects of corruption on domestic and foreign policy



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in south Korea on the extent of the effect of corruption in the two countries economic, domestic and international policies, in Kenya, none believed that it was very low, 77% believed it was low, while 7% believes it is average and only 16% believes it is high whereas in Korea only 2% believed it had very low effect, 48% believed it was low while 7% believes it is average and 47% believed it had high impact.

6.3.2 Social impact of corruption

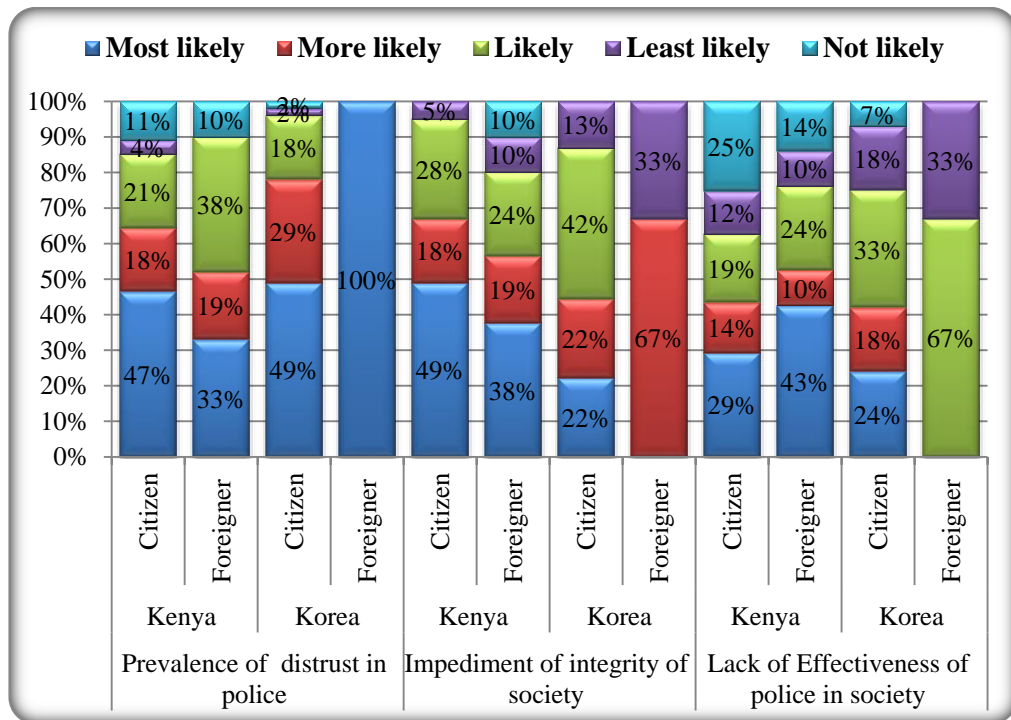
1. poor image on police and its work

Table 6.2: Poor image of the police

	Prevalence of distrust in police				Impediment of integrity of society				Lack of Effectiveness of police in society			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	47%	33%	49%	100%	49%	38%	22%		29%	43%	24%	
More likely	18%	19%	29%		18%	19%	22%	67%	14%	10%	18%	
Likely	21%	38%	18%		28%	24%	42%		19%	24%	33%	67%
Least likely	4%		2%		5%	10%	13%	33%	12%	10%	18%	33%
Not likely	11%	10%	2%			10%			25%	14%	7%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 6.5: Poor image of the police force



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding social impact of corruption on Kenya citizenry, a number of parameters were evaluated, they include; distrust of police, negative impact on integrity in society and lack of effectiveness of police in society. The responses were as follows

a) Prevalence of distrust on police force

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, 86% indicated that it was most likely 47%, more likely 18% or likely 21%, whereas amongst the foreigners, the majority 90% indicated that it was most likely 33%, more likely 19% or likely 38% to cause prevalence of distrust on police force.

Amongst Korean citizenry, the majority 96% indicated that it was most likely 49%, more likely 29%, or likely 18% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, all indicated that it was most likely to cause distrust in police.

b) Impediment to integrity

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 95% indicated that it was most likely 49%, more likely 18%, or likely 28% amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was most likely 38%, more likely 19% or likely 24% to cause impediment of integrity in society.

Amongst the Korean Citizenry, the majority 86% indicated that it was most likely 22%, more likely 22% or likely 42%, whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, 67% indicated that it was likely to cause impediment to integrity in the society.

c) Lack of effectiveness of police service

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 62% indicated that it was most likely 29%, more likely 14% or 19% likely whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 77% indicated that it was most likely 43%, more likely 10% or likely 24% to cause lack of effectiveness of police in their work.

Amongst Korean citizenry, the majority 75% indicated that it was most likely 24%, more likely 18%, or likely 33% whereas amongst the foreigners residing

in Korea, the majority 67% indicated it was likely to cause lack of effectiveness of police.

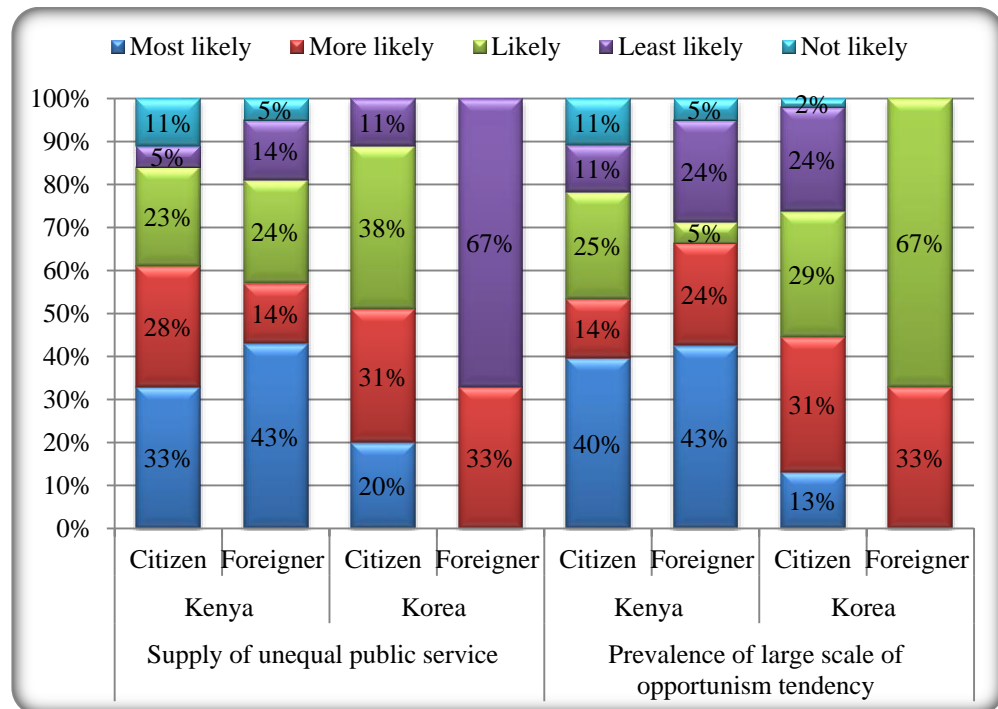
2. Social inequalities

Table 6.3: Social Inequalities

	Supply of unequal public service				Prevalence of large scale of opportunism tendency			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	33%	43%	20%		40%	43%	13%	
More likely	28%	14%	31%	33%	14%	24%	31%	33%
Likely	23%	24%	38%		25%	5%	29%	67%
Least likely	5%	14%	11%	67%	11%	24%	24%	
Not likely	11%	5%	0%		11%	5%	2%	

(Source: Author)

Figure 6.6: Social inequalities



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 police officers in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on social impact of corruption on Kenya citizenry, a number of parameters were evaluated, they include; unequal opportunity in public service and prevalence of large scale opportunism tendency. The responses were as follows

a) Unequal supply of public service opportunities

Amongst the citizenry respondents 84% indicated that it was most likely 33%, more likely 28% or likely 23% whereas amongst foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was most likely 43%, more likely 14% or likely 24% to cause unequal supply of public service opportunities.

Amongst the Korea, the majority 89% indicated that it was most likely 20%, more likely 31% or likely 38% whereas amongst foreigner residing in Korea, 33% indicated it was more likely to cause while 67% indicated that it was least likely to cause unequal supply of public service opportunities.

b) Prevalence of large scale of opportunism

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 79% indicated that it was most likely 40%, more likely 14% or likely 25% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 72% indicated that it was most likely 43%, more likely 24% or likely 5% to cause prevalence of large scale opportunism in the police service.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 73% indicated that it was most likely 13%, more likely 31% or likely 29% whereas foreigners residing in Korea 33% indicated that it was more likely and 67% indicated that it was likely.

6.4 Summary of the Findings

Prevalence of distrust on Police force: The study observed that corruption in police service is likely to cause high prevalence of police distrust, in Kenya over 80% held this opinion, the same trend was observed in Korea over 90% informed the research that this was a likely cause.

Unequal Access of public service opportunities: Corruption is likely to cause unequal access to public service opportunities amongst the citizenry, the survey observed that in both countries, this was perceived as likely impact of

corruption, in Kenya over 80% believed that this will result if corruption is unchecked and the same goes for the Korea.

Impediment to integrity: The integrity of the society is most likely to be compromised by corruption existence in the police service. The citizenry and foreigners residing in the respective country believes that if corruption is unchecked, the integrity of the society in general will be compromised. Over 90% in Kenya and over 80% in Korea believes that corruption is an impediment of integrity in the larger society.

Lack of effectiveness of police service: The effectiveness of police will likely be compromised by corruption, in Kenya the citizenry observes though not as strongly as their Korean counterpart that the effectiveness of police will be affected. In Kenya over 60% and in Korea over 75% believes that corruption is likely to compromise the effectiveness of police service

Prevalence of large scale of opportunism: Corruption in police service is likely to result in incidences of large scale of unscrupulous behaviors in the police service. In both countries over 70% believes that this is a likely result if corruption is not checked in the police service.

6.5 Discussions

Corruption has been termed as a cancer in society and its social impact cannot be assumed since it is crosscutting and affects sectors that aimed at social development. In Kenya, that has been an admission that fighting corruption has greatly improved performance of the public sector with market benefits across the sectors. According to UN convention against corruption gap analysis

report and implementation plan (2009), Kenya government has acknowledged that there are significant dividends of fighting corruption. The dividends cited are crosscutting and forms a basis of transposing the negative impacts against the gains as enumerated in the report. These gains include: (i) marked improvement in the performance of public service; (ii) increased integrity in public service; (iii) increased revenue collection; (iv) increased rate of economic growth and development and (v) increased awareness on quality, quantity and cost of services offered by public institutions. Further, the report notes that Kenya was recognized by UN Nations public service award in first category for improving transparency, accountability and responsiveness in public services an obvious impact on foreign perception improvement.; The study had set on to evaluate the impact of corruption in the social, economic and foreign perception and the outgoing acknowledgement validates the opinions of the citizenry by elucidating the gains realized by fighting corruption. The study observed that corruption in police service is likely to cause high prevalence of police distrust which was the case in both Kenya and Korea. Further, it was observed that it was likely to cause unequal access to public service opportunities amongst the citizenry and also the integrity of the society is most likely to be compromised by corruption existence in the police service. Other marked impacts of corruption include; the effectiveness of police will likely be compromised by corruption, and finally corruption in police service is likely to result in incidences of large scale of unscrupulous behaviors in the police and the public service.

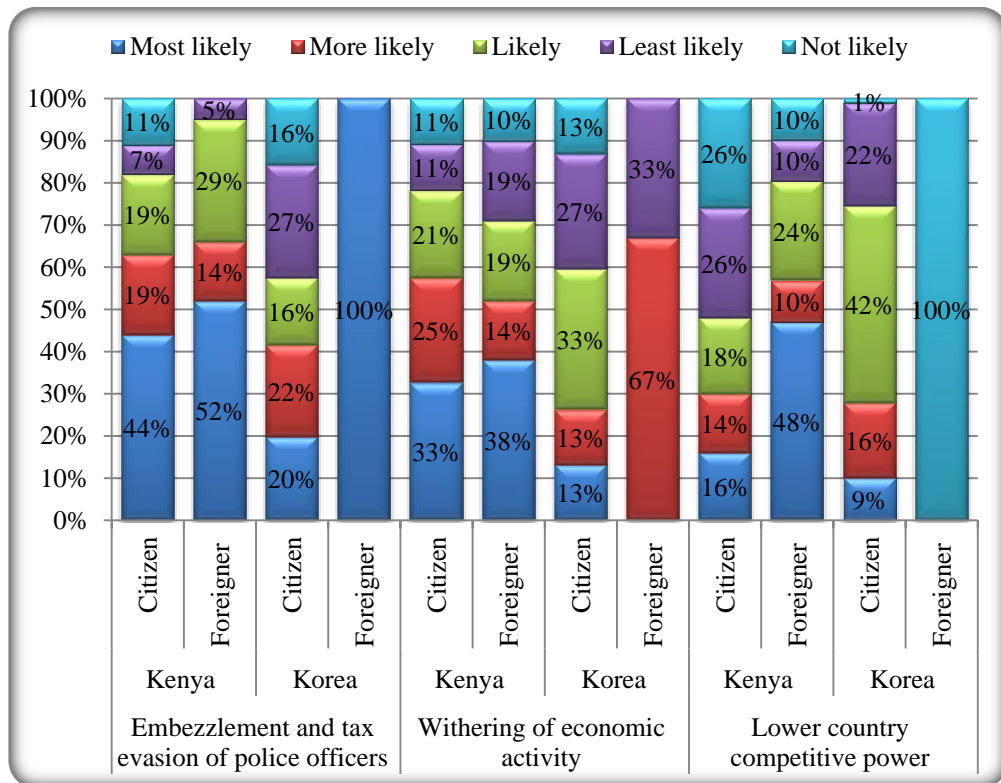
6.5.1 Economic impact of corruption

Table 6.4: Economic impact of corruption

	Embezzlement and tax evasion of police officers				Withering of economic Activity				Lower country competitive power			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	44%	52%	20%	100%	33%	38%	13%		16%	48%	9%	
More likely	19%	14%	22%		25%	14%	13%	67%	14%	10%	16%	
Likely	19%	29%	16%		21%	19%	33%		18%	24%	42%	
Least likely	7%	5%	27%		11%	19%	27%	33%	26%	10%	22%	
Not likely	11%		16%		11%	10%	13%		26%	10%	1%	100%

(Source: Author)

Figure 6.7: Economic impact of corruption



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on likely economic impact of corruption in the country, three parameters were evaluated. These included; embezzlement and tax evasion by police officer, withering economic Activity and lower competitive power of the country. The responses were as follows,

a) Embezzlement and tax evasion

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 82% indicated that it was either most likely 44%, more likely 19% or likely 19% whereas amongst

the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 95% indicated that it was either most likely 52%, more likely 14% or likely 29% to cause embezzlement and tax evasion amongst the police officers.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 58% indicated that it was either most likely 20%, more likely 22% or likely 16% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Korea, all 100% indicated that it was most likely.

b) Withering of economic activity

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 79% indicated that it was either most likely 33%, more likely 25% or likely 21% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 71% either indicated it was most likely 38%, more likely 14% or likely 19% to cause withering economic activity.

Amongst the Korea citizenry, those that indicated that it was likely tied with those that indicated it was least likely at 49% and 51% respectively. Whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea 67% indicated that it was more likely while 33% indicated that it was least likely.

c) Lowered country competitive power

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents the majority 52% indicated that it was least likely 26% or not likely 26%. However, 48% indicated that it was either most likely 16%, more likely 14% or likely 18% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya. The majority 82% indicated that it was either most likely 48%, more likely 10% or likely 24% to lower country competitive power.

Amongst the Korea citizenry, the majority indicated that it was most likely 9%, more likely 16% or likely 42% whereas all 100% of the foreigners residing in Korea indicated that it was not likely.

6.6 Summary of the findings

Embezzlement and tax evasion: Corruption in the police service is likely to cause embezzlement and tax evasion, the survey observed that in Kenya, the citizens and foreigners residing there had strong believe that it is likely result, however, the Koreans do not believe as strongly as their Kenya counterparts since only 58% indicated that it is likely to result against over 80% of Kenyans. This could be an indication that in Korea efforts to delink police with malpractices in other sectors could be in progress and Koreans could be observing some positive impact of those efforts.

Reduced economic activity: In Kenya corruption is likely to cause reduced economic activities, over three quarter 75% of the citizens believes that this is a likely impact; however, Koreans do not believe as strongly, they look neutral on the impact of corruption on economic activities. This is likely due to efforts that are being undertaken to delink corruption in police service from affecting the mainstream economic activities; just about 59% thinks that corruption would have an impact on economic activity in the country.

Lowered country competitive power: Kenyan do not believe that corruption is likely to affect the country competitiveness internationally, over 50% of Kenyan disagrees while their Korean counterparts seems to realize the impact

of corruption within their police service, over 67% believes that it is likely to impact on the competitive power of their nation.

6.7 Discussions

As noted earlier that Kenya efforts to fight corruption and had notable impact in economic such increased revenue collection and increased economic activities. The impact which has been further outlined in the Kenya national anti-corruption plan where it has been indicated that corruption is costing the country millions of shillings through siphoning off scarce resources thus diminishing the country prospects for development. It is argued in the report that distortions generated by corruption results in lower investments and economic growth rate. The study's findings are validated by this assertion in a national anti-corruption agency. Where it was observed that corruption in the police service is likely to cause embezzlement and tax evasion, which are forms of corruption that encourages looting of public resources and using public resources and failing to pay back as taxes to either maintain, build new facilities or infrastructure to facilitate development and so on. However Korea seems to have made efforts to deal with impact of corruption in police service on economy since the citizens do not believe that corruption in police service is likely to cause large scale embezzlement and tax evasion. This is a sign either corruption prosecution is not entirely in the hands of police force which is a major predisposing factor since tax evaders and embezzlers of public resources are protected from prosecution owing to the fact that in, Kenya police has a major role in prosecuting economic crimes and corruption. Further, the survey

observed that corruption in police service is likely to affect the rate of economic activity in both countries. According to Korea's Experience of Operating Anti-corruption Criminal Justice Policy report, it is argued that various forms of corruption such as bribery offense, political corruption, collusion between politics and business has deterred Korea from transparent and a developed society. The report further argues that rampant corruption disrupts cultural and a social society. However the report notes that efforts to fight corruption are a driving force towards Korea economic growth. Further, the scholars and policy makers have argued that corruption and economic activity have a converse correlation which further indicated that anti-corruption efforts and polices contributes to economic development while fostering a transparent society. The nations of the world are seen as attractive to investors depending on their perceived competitiveness. According to Kenya anti-corruption plan, it is recognized that corruption continue to pose one of the greatest challenges facing Kenya, it continue to undermine good governance and distort public policy leading to misallocation of resources. It has contributed to slow economic growth as well as discouraging and frustrating both local and foreign investors. The survey observed that the citizenry are aware that corruption caused lowered country competitive power.

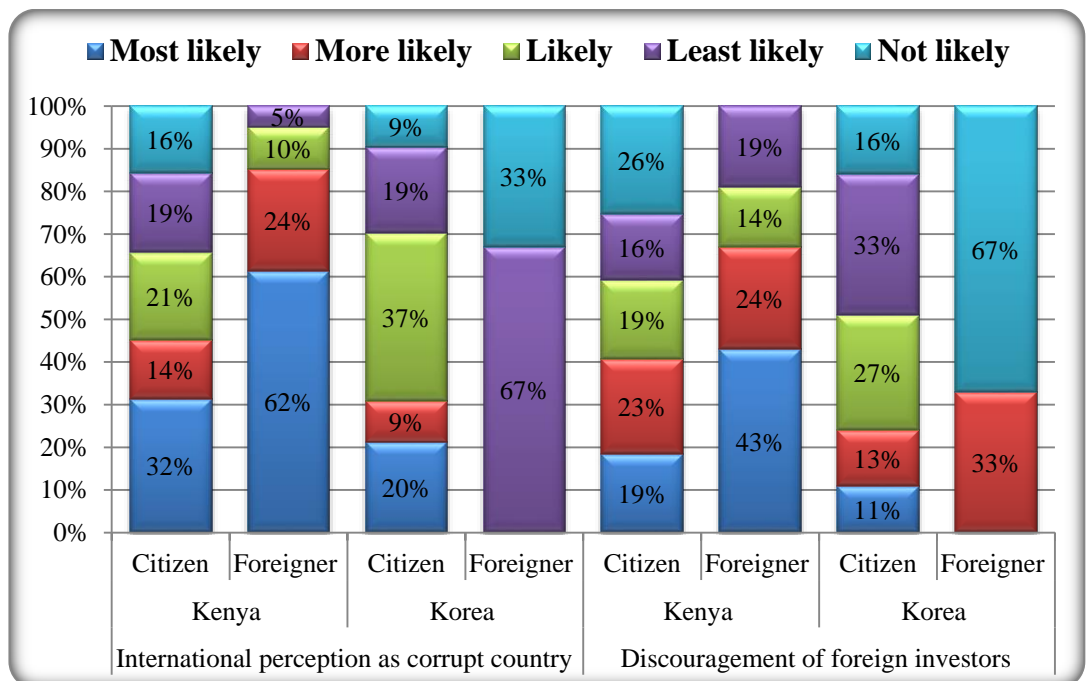
6.7.1 Foreign perception impact

Table 6.5: Foreign policy impact

	International perception as corrupt country				Discouragement of foreign investors			
	Kenya		Korea		Kenya		Korea	
	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner	Citizen	Foreigner
Most likely	32%	62%	20%		19%	43%	11%	
More likely	14%	24%	9%		23%	24%	13%	33%
Likely	21%	10%	37%		19%	14%	27%	
Least likely	19%	5%	19%	67%	16%	19%	33%	
Not likely	16%		9%	33%	26%		16%	67%

(Source: Author)

Figure 6.8: Foreign policy impact



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on impact of corruption on international perception, two parameters were evaluated, these included, perception as corrupt country internationally and discouragement of foreign investors. The responses were as follows;

6.7.2 International perception as a corrupt country

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority 67% indicated that it was either most likely 32%, more likely 14% or likely 21% whereas amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 96% indicated that it was most likely 62%, more likely 24% or likely 10% to make the nation perceived as corrupt internationally.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 66% indicated that it was most likely 20%, more likely 9% or likely 37% whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, 67% indicated that it was least likely and another 33% indicated that it was not likely all to make the nation perceived as corrupt internationally.

6.7.3 Discouragement of foreign investors

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, the majority indicated that it was most likely 19%, more likely 23% or likely 19% whereas amongst foreigners residing in Kenya, the majority 81% indicated that it was either most likely 43%, more likely 24% or likely 14% to discourage foreign investors into the country .

Amongst the Korean citizenry, the majority 51% indicated that it was either most likely 11% or more likely 13% or likely 27%, however 49% believes it is least likely or not likely. Whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, the majority 67% indicated that it was not likely to discourage foreign investors.

6.8 Summary of the findings

International perception as a corrupt country: in both countries, the citizenry are aware of the impact of corruption in police service on their foreign perception; over 65% in both countries believes that corruption in police service is likely to make the nation perceived as corrupt internationally. The same views are held by foreigners residing in the respective country with over 90% Kenyan residents and 67% of Korean residents holding opinion that the nation was likely to be perceived as corrupt internationally.

Discouragement of foreign investors: in Kenya there are stronger feelings on corruption discouraging foreign investors. The same trend is observed amongst foreigners residing in Kenya. In Kenya case over 60% believes that this is a likely effect against their Korean counterparts 51% who believes that this is a likely impact. Foreigners in Kenya and in Korea thinks that corruption is likely to discourage investors, over 80% of those residing in Kenya and over 65% of those residing in Korea believe that this is a likely impact on foreign investor if there is corruption in police service.

6.9 Discussions

The international community has become increasingly concerned with the problem of corruption and its negative impact on economic growth and poverty alleviation. Further, increasing international organizations, non-state actors and academic experts on governance have advocated an integrated comprehensive approach to fighting corruption around the globe. The approaches include; introducing new amended legislation aimed at reducing public official's opportunities for rent seeking, building alliances with other governments in struggle against corruption by signing international anti-corruption agreements and participating in transnational organizations committed to fighting corruption and implementation of anticorruption programs. Some of the transnational organizations include the UN convention against corruption and AU convention against transnational organized crime. The foregoing brief on international community focus on corruption lays a foundation on how significant it is for a nation to be perceived as less corrupt. The study observed that the citizenry is aware of the danger of their nation being perceived as corrupt. They cited this element as likely outcome of corruption in the police service as a part of the public service sector. Further, the Kenyan citizenry understands that corruption in police service is likely to discourage foreign investors.

6.10 Conclusions

In Kenya, there has been an admission that fighting corruption has greatly improved performance of the public sector with market benefits across the

sectors. These gains include: (i) marked improvement in the performance of public service; (ii) increased integrity in public service; (iii) increased revenue collection; (iv) increased rate of economic growth and development and (v) increased awareness on quality, quantity and cost of services offered by public institutions. Leading to Kenya being recognized by UN Nation's public service award in first category for improving transparency, accountability and responsiveness in public services. Corruption in police service is likely to cause high prevalence of police distrust, it is also likely to cause unequal access to public service opportunities amongst the citizenry and also compromise integrity of the society. Further, corruption is likely to compromise the effectiveness of police and also result in incidences of large scale of unscrupulous behaviors in the police service. On the economic front corruption is likely to cause embezzlement and tax evasion. However, in Korea the effects of corruption on the economy are minimal. Further, corruption is likely to affect the rate of economic growth due to impediment from legitimate economic activities. Finally, citizenry are well aware of the dangers of their nation being perceived as corrupt since it would discourage investors

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF STRUGGLES AGAINST POLICE CORRUPTION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a comparative assessment of struggles against police corruption in Kenya and Korea. The objective of this chapter is to analyse various issues related to police corruption in the two countries. The chapter is structured into sections and sub sections. The sections with the chapter include; perspectives on struggles corruption in Kenya and Korea police service, presentation of findings, discussion of results and conclusions.

7.2 Perspectives on corruption in Kenya and Korea police service

Police corruption is a complex phenomenon, which does not readily submit to simple analysis. It is a problem that has and will continue to affect us all, whether we are civilians or law enforcement officers. Since its beginnings, many aspects of policing have changed; however, one aspect that has remained relatively unchanged is the existence of corruption. Examination of any local newspaper or any police-related publication on any given day will have an article about a police officer that got busted committing some kind of corrupt act (<http://www.cyberessays.com/Politics/141.htm>). The Kenya police has been cited as the most corrupt institution in East Africa, this East African Bribery

Index published by Transparency International-Kenya, Transparency Uganda and Tanzania Transparency Forum. The survey conducted between April 16th and May 15th 2009, indicated that Kenya had the highest incidence of corruption at 45% while the level of corruption in Uganda was 34%. According to the findings, Tanzania was the least corrupt country in East Africa with a corruption incidence of 17.8%. The survey sampled 10,517 respondents across all the administrative provinces in the three countries (East African Bribery Index 2009).

A case by Transparency International (TI) report entitled *Global Corruption Barometer 2005* showed that South Korean survey respondents rated police corruption at 3.7 points on a 5-point scale, with 5 indicating that the police are "extremely corrupt" and for comparative purposes, the corresponding figure for Canadian respondents was 2.7 on a 5-point scale.

From this report it is evident that police officers still engage in corruption activities despite the low corruption levels in Korea. It is evident that in Kenya, corruption levels in the police service are very high as compared to literature from Korea. This comparative study will guide in suggesting strategies to reduce police service corruption in Kenya which are applied in Korea.

The powers given by the state to the police to use force have always caused concern. Although improvements have been made to control corruption, numerous opportunities exist for deviant and corrupt practices. The opportunity to acquire power in excess of that which is legally permitted or to misuse

power is always available. The police subculture is a contributing factor to these practices, because officers who often act in a corrupt manner are often over looked, and condoned by other members of the subculture.

7.3 Research Findings

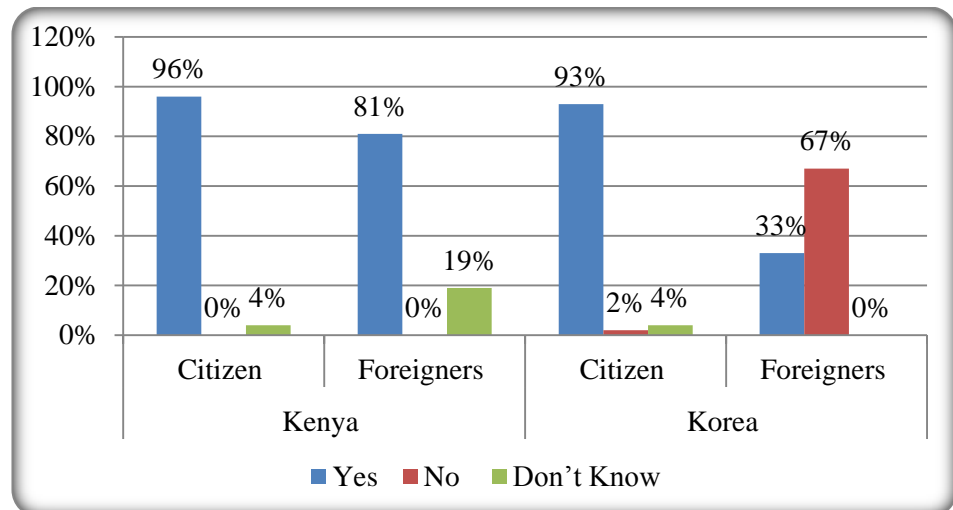
Under the comparative assessment of struggles against police corruption in Kenya and Korea police force a number of parameters were evaluated, the survey sought responses from the citizenry, the police force, the anticorruption agencies and foreigners residing in the respective countries. Various issues were looked into and they included; perception on existence of corruption in the police force, the perceived levels of corruption, comparative analysis of corruption levels in various government departments, the level of corruption in police service and so on. The section is been thematically presented integrating a chart, a table and a brief data description.

7.3.1 Corruption status in Kenya and Korean police

i) Corruption levels

a) Existence of corruption in the two countries

Figure 7.1: Existence of Corruption in the Two Countries

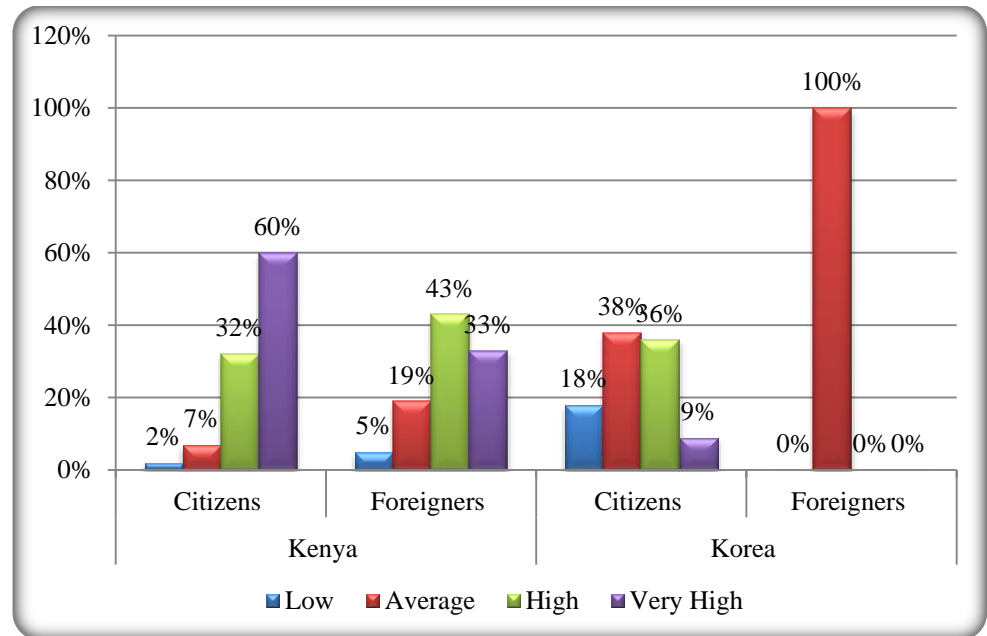


(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on opinion regarding existence of corruption in the countries they were residing, in Kenya, 19% did not know, none indicated that there was no corruption while 81% believed that there was corruption amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the majority 96% believed corruption existed and only 4% who did not know. In Korea 67% of the respondent believed there was no corruption and 33% believed that there was corruption. Whereas amongst the Korean citizenry, 93% indicated that it existed, 2% indicated that it did not while another 4% indicated that they did not know.

b) Corruption levels in both countries

Figure 7.2: Perception on the Corruption Levels



(Source: Author)

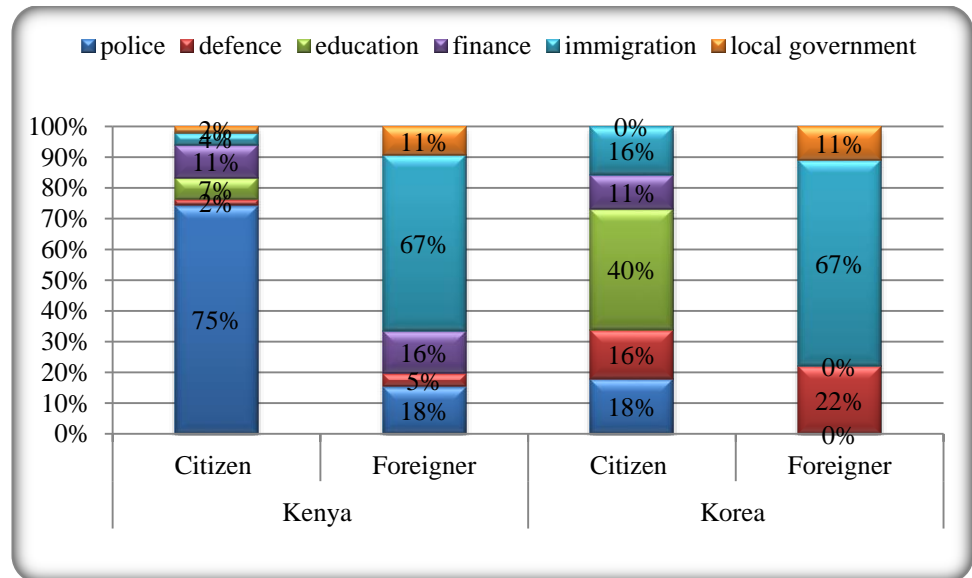
The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country on corruption levels

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry, the respondents indicated that it very high 60%, high 32%, average 7% or low 2%. Whereas the amongst the foreigners 5% believed it was low, 19% average while 43% indicated it was high and another 33% believed it was very high.

Amongst the Korean citizenry, 9% indicated that it was very high, 36% high; another 38% indicated that it was average and 18% indicated that it low whereas amongst the foreigners, all the respondents indicated that it was average.

c) **Most corrupt sector of government in both Korea and Kenya**

Figure 7.3: The most corrupt government department



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding the question of the most corrupt department in both governments, the responses were as follows;

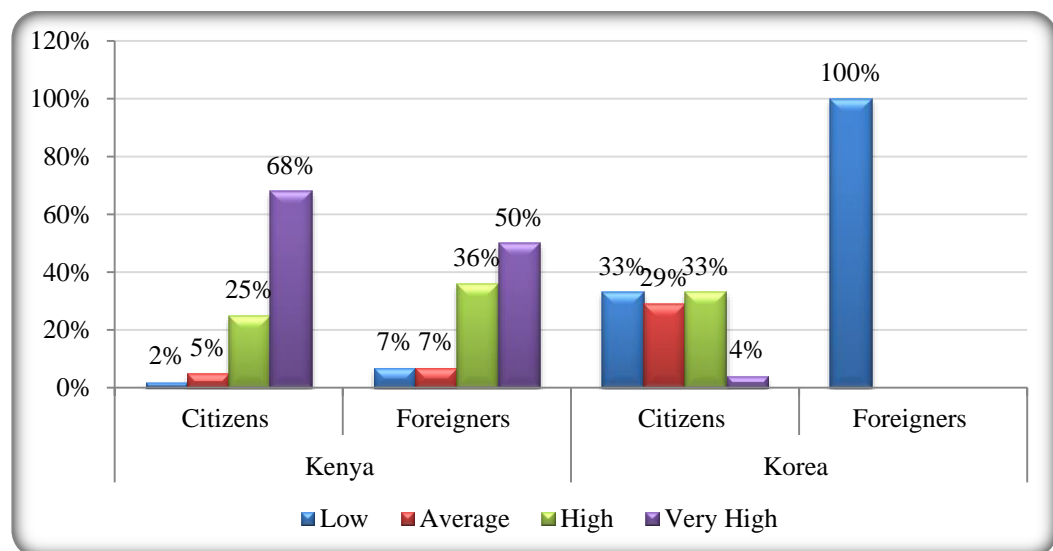
In Kenya, the police were perceived as the most corrupt 75% followed by finance 11%, then education 7%, immigration 4%, local government 2% and defence 2% whereas in Korea education department was perceived as the most corrupt 40% followed by police department 18%, then immigration and defence at 16% each and finance 11%.

On the respondent perception of the most corrupt department in their country of residence, in Kenya 67% indicated immigration department were the most

corrupt, followed by police 18% then finance 16%, then local government 11%, then defence 5% whereas in Korea immigration was perceived as most corrupt 67% followed by defence 22% and then local government 11%.

d) Level of corruption in police service

Figure 7.4: Level of corruption in police service



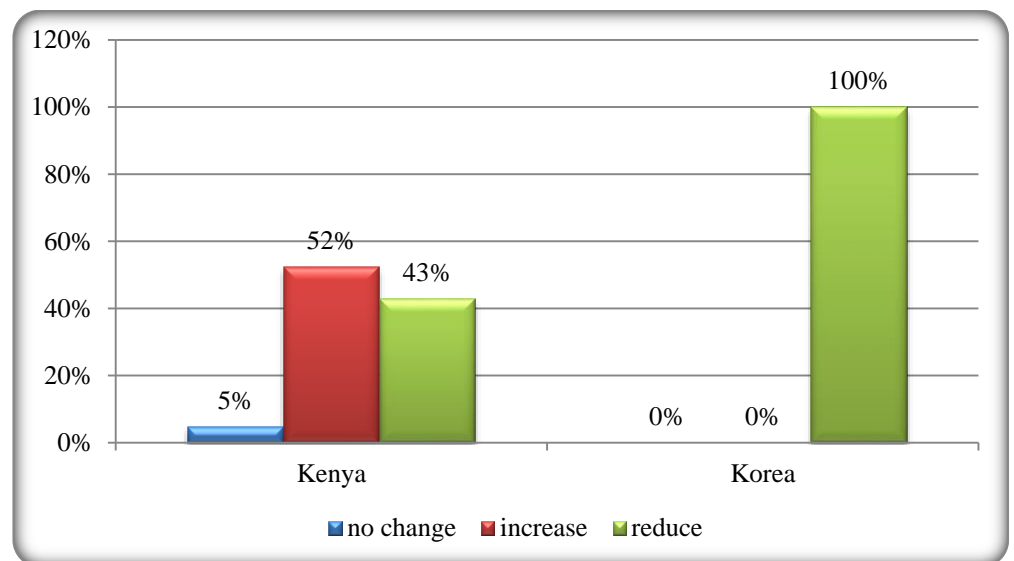
(Source: Author)

On perception of the level of corruption, amongst the Kenyan citizenry, 68% indicated that it very high, 25% indicated that it was high and only 7% indicated that it was either average 5% or low 2%. Whereas foreigners living in Kenya indicated that it was very high 50%, high 36% and only 14% indicated that it was average 7% or low 7%.

In Korea, amongst the Korean citizenry, 4% indicated that it was very high, 33% indicated that it was high, 29% indicated that it was average and another 33% indicated that it was low whereas amongst the foreigners living in Korea all 100% indicated that it was low.

7.3.2 Corruption trends

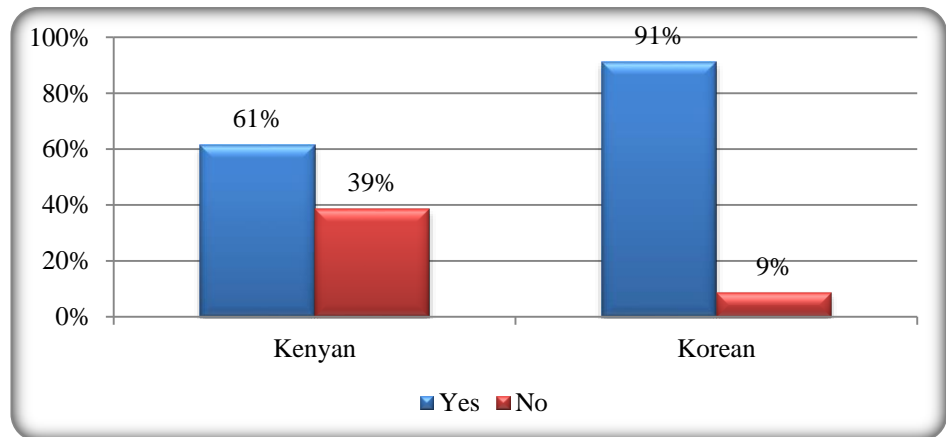
Figure 7.5: Expectation on future corruption trend



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinion from 10 foreigners residing in each of the county on whether corruption will change in future, amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, 5% indicated that there will be no change, 52% indicated that corruption will increase while 43% indicated that corruption will reduce. Whereas amongst foreigners living in Korea, all indicated that corruption will reduce.

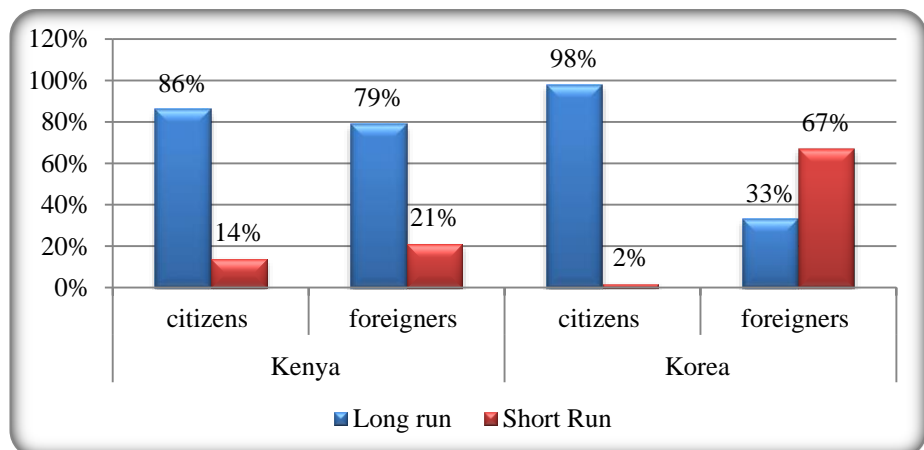
Figure 7.6: Expectation of corruption reduction in future



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinion from 10 foreigners living in each of the country on the question of expectation on corruption reduction in future, in Kenya 61% of the respondents expects corruption to reduce while 39% do not expect corruption to reduce whereas in Korea, 91% expects corruption to reduce and only 9% do not believe.

Figure 7.7: Time period for corruption reduction period

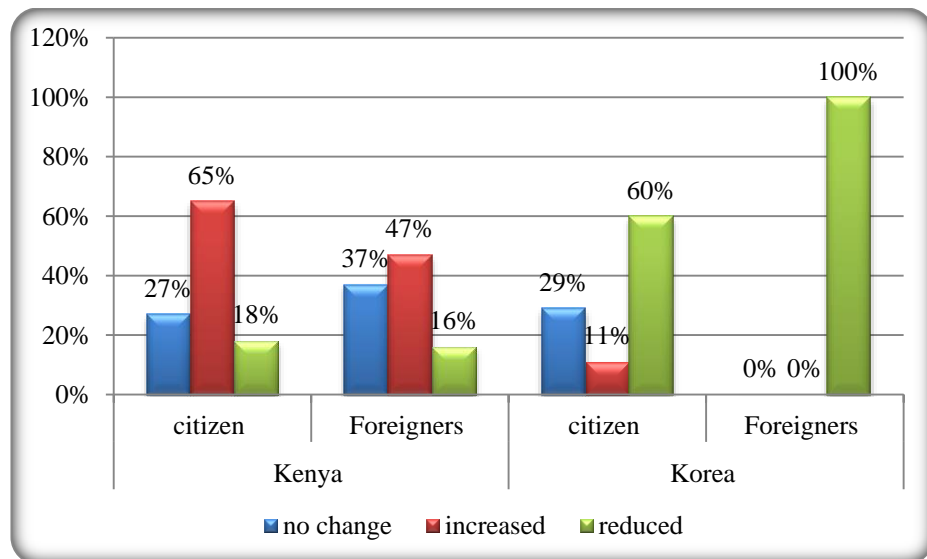


(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on expectation on period within which corruption is expected to reduce, in Kenya 86% believed it will be on the long run while 14% believes it will be on the short run on when the respondents thought corruption will reduce in the respective country of residence, amongst the foreign residents in Kenya, 21% indicated that corruption will reduce in the short run while 79% believed corruption will reduce in the long run.

Whereas in Korea, 98% believes it will be in the long run while a mere 2% believes it will be in the short run. Whereas amongst foreigners residing in Korea, 67% indicated that corruption will reduce in the short run while 33% believed it will reduce in the long run.

Figure 7.8: Corruption trends for the past ten years



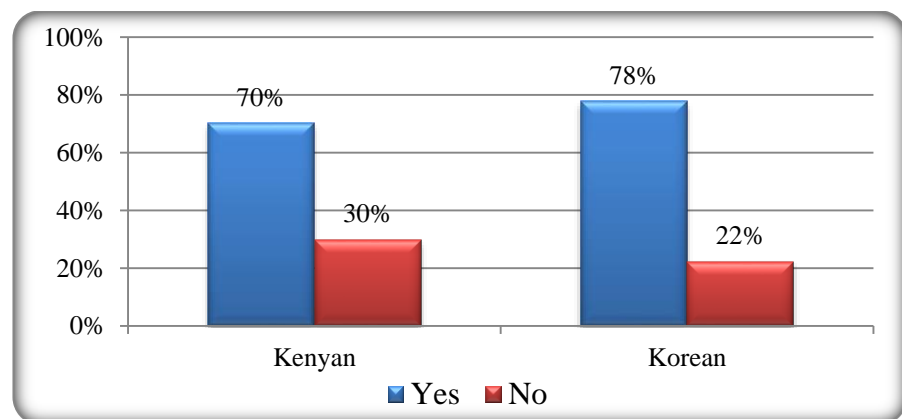
(Source: Author)

The study sought opinions for 65 citizens in Kenya, 65 citizens in South Korea and 10 foreigners living in each of the country regarding on whether corruption has reduced or increased in Kenya and Korea, the responses were as follows;

Amongst the Kenyan citizenry respondents, 27% indicated that there was no change, 65% indicated that it had increased and a mere 18% indicated that it had reduced, whereas foreigners residing in Kenya, 37% indicated that there was no change, 47% believed corruption had increased while only 16% believed that it had reduced

Amongst Korean citizenry, 29% indicated that there was no change, 11% indicated that it had increased while 60% indicated it had reduced, wwhereas foreigners residing in Korea all the respondents indicated that corruption had reduced over the last 10 years.

Figure 7.9: Opinion on effect of corruption reduction in police force in other sectors

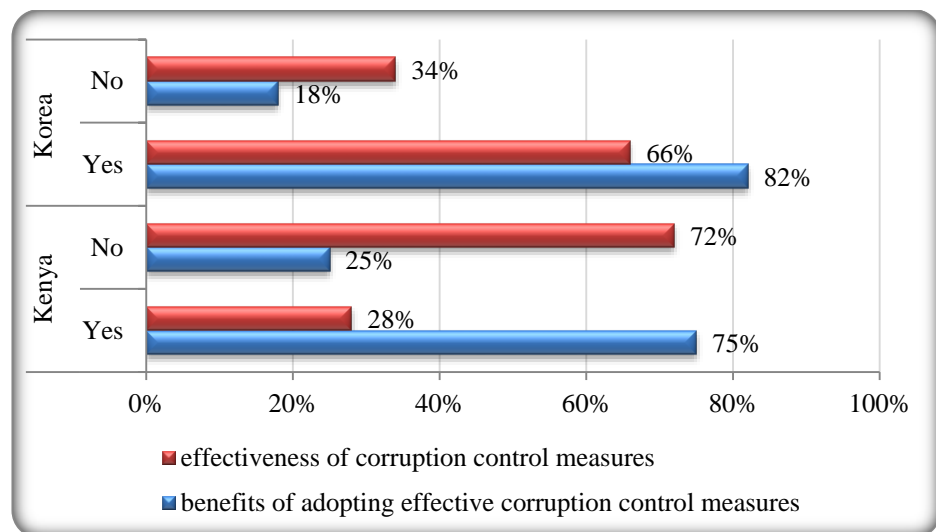


(Source: Author)

On whether reduction of corruption in police service would reduce corruption in other sectors of the government, in Kenya 70% indicated that it would whereas in Korea 78 % indicated that it would whereas 30% of Kenya believed it wouldn't while 22% of Koreans indicated it would not.

7.3.3 Corruption prevention

Figure 7.10: Benefit from adopting the effective measures successful in Korea



(Source: Author)

The study sought opinion from 65 Kenya citizens and 65 South Korean citizens, on whether Kenya could benefit from implementing effective measures that have been successful in Korea, of all the respondents in Kenya, 75% indicated that it would while 25% indicated that it would not, whereas in Korea 82% indicated that it would while only 18% indicated that it would not.

a) Effectiveness of corruption control mechanisms

On whether the mechanisms for controlling corruption are effective, in Kenya 28% indicated they were while 72% indicated that they were not whereas in Korea 66% indicated that they were effective while 34% indicated that they were not.

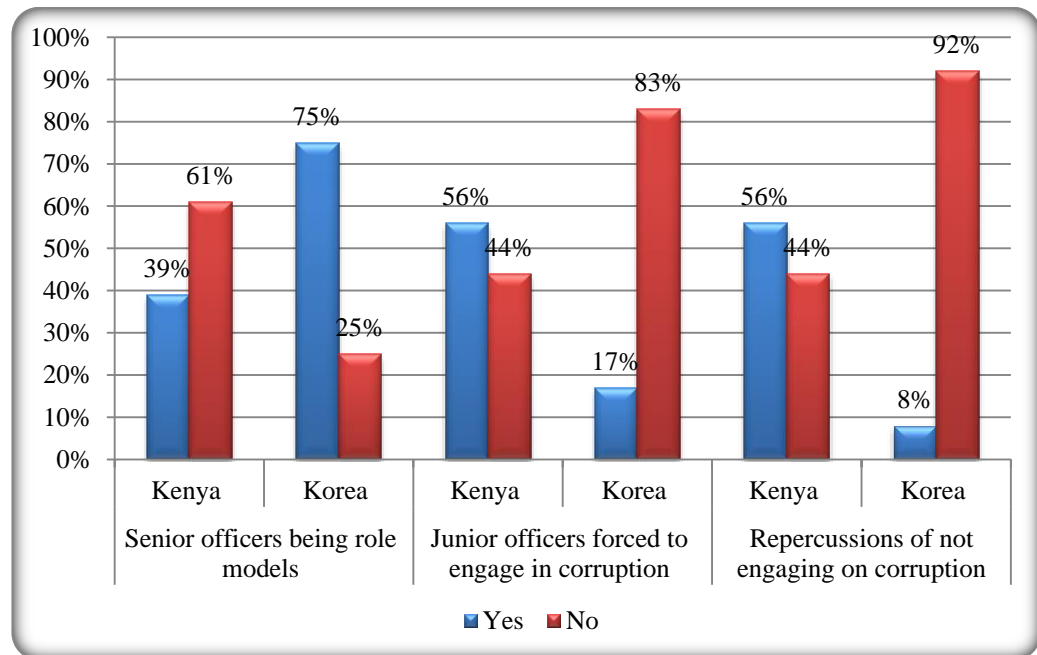
7.3.4 Role modelling in police service

Table 7.1: Role modelling in police service.

Opinion	Senior officers being role models		Junior officers forced to engage in corruption		repercussion of non-engagement in corruption	
	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea	Kenya	Korea
Yes	39%	75%	56%	17%	56%	8%
No	61%	25%	44%	83%	44%	92%

(Source: Author)

Figure 7.11: Role modelling in police service.



(Source: Author)

The study sought responses from 35 police officers in Kenya and 35 police officers in South Korea on the issues regarding role modeling three parameters were evaluated, these include seniors being role models, junior officers being forced to do corruption and repercussions of not engaging in corruption.

On the parameter regarding senior officers being role models in the police force, senior officers being role models, amongst the Kenya police force respondents, 39% believed that senior officers as role models while 61% did not believe so whereas amongst the Korean Police force respondents 75% believed it was so while 25% believed it was not the case.

On whether junior officers are forced to engage in corruption, amongst the respondents from Kenya police service, 56% indicated that they were forced

while 44% believed that they were not forced whereas in Korean police force 17% believed that the junior officers were forced while 83% indicated that they were never forced.

On the respondents' view of the repercussions of not engaging in corruption in police force, the Kenyans police force respondents, 56% percent indicated that there were repercussions while 44% indicated that there were no repercussions whereas amongst the Korean police force respondents, only 8% believed there were repercussions while 92% believed there were no repercussions.

7.4 Summary of the findings

7.4.1 Corruption levels

a) Existence of corruption in both countries

Both Kenyans and foreigners recognises that corruption exists in the police services, 96% and 81% indicated that corruption existed

In Korea, over 90% of the citizens believe that there is corruption in the police service and a smaller number 67% of foreigners believes that there is corruption in police service.

b) Corruption magnitude and levels in both countries

Kenyan perceives their country as having high level of corruption, over 90% believes corruption is very high, the same trend is observed amongst the foreigner where over 75% believes there is corruption in Kenya.

Koreans do not perceive their country as very corrupt, they think is just about average and the same trend is observed amongst foreigners residing in that country.

c) Level of corruption in police service

Corruption in Kenya police service is perceived as high, over 90% of Kenyan believes it is high, the same trend is observed amongst the foreigners residing in Kenya, over 80% believes that corruption is high in the police service.

In Korea the level of corruption in police service is believed to be below averaged, over 60% believes it below averaged, and foreigners believes corruption in police service is low.

d) The most corrupt department

The most corrupt department in Kenya is police 75% followed whereas in Korea the most corrupt department is education 40%, however comparing Kenya and Korean police, Korean police is not perceived as very corrupt only 18% indicated that it is corrupt. The same trend regarding police is observed amongst the foreigners 68% while in Korea immigration is seen as most corrupt by foreigners followed by defence 33%

7.4.2 Corruption trends

a) Expectation on future corruption

Kenyan's expect corruption to increase in the coming days; at least 60% of Kenyan's expect corruption to increase whereas foreigners residing in Kenya expect corruption to increase in the future.

Koreans expect corruption to reduce in their country. At least 90% of Koreans are optimistic that corruption will and the same goes for foreigners in Korea.

b) Time period for corruption

Kenyan's expect corruption to reduce in the long run, over 80% believe this would be the case; foreigners also believe it will reduce in the long run.

Koreans also expect corruption will reduce in the long run, however, foreigners believe corruption will reduce in the short run; over 65% believe this will be the case.

c) Corruption trends for the past ten years

Corruption in Kenya has increased over the past 10 years; over 80% of Kenyan's believe that it has increased.

Corruption in Korea police force is decreasing; this was an observation of over 80% of Koreans and foreigners residing there, believe that corruption had decreased over the last ten years.

d) Effects of corruption reduction in police force on other sectors

In Kenya, it is believed that if corruption is reduced in police force it would also reduce in other sectors; in Korea also reduction of corruption in police service would have the same effect. In both case over 70% believed that reducing corruption in police service would lower corruption in other sectors.

7.4.3 Corruption prevention

a) Benefit from adopting the effective measures successful in Korea

The citizenry in both countries are well aware of the benefits of adopting effective corruption control mechanism, in Kenya 75% and in Korea 82% are well aware of the benefits..

b) Effectiveness of corruption control mechanisms

The Kenyan citizenry do not view corruption control mechanism as effective, over 70% have doubts with effectiveness of the mechanism, however in Korea, the citizen have a good measure of confidence with mechanisms instituted, over 65% indicated that the mechanisms were effective.

Kenyans are well aware of benefits of fighting corruption, over 75% believes that they would benefit. Koreans are more strongly convinced that fighting corruption ultimately would benefit them; over 80% have this confidence.

7.4.4 Role modelling in police service

In Kenya senior police officers are not role models to their junior officers; over 60% of police officers believe that they are not, however in Korea senior

officers are viewed as role models for their junior counterparts, over 70% approves of the senior officers as role models.

In Kenya Junior officers in the police force are forced to be accomplices in corruption with their senior officers, at least 55% of the officers feel they are encouraged or forced to engage in corrupt practices. On the other side Korean junior police officers are not forced to engage in corruption, over 80% disagrees that they are encouraged or forced to engage in corruption.

In Kenya if police do not engage in corruption there are negative backlashes, at least 56% of police officers in Kenya would engage in corruption for fear of either stigmatization or other alienation techniques. In Korea, the police officers do not feel either alienated or stigmatized for not engaging in corruption; an overwhelming 92% believes that there are not backlashes for not engaging in corruption.

7.5 Discussions

The adoption of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC) in Mexico in 2003 represented a significant development for global anti-corruption efforts. It marked a critical reference and focal point for global dialogue on corruption (UNCAC, 2009). This realization was based on struggles in many nations especially developing countries where the impact of corruption was spiraling beyond control. Increased poverty and poor economic performance due to policy distortion and misreporting of actual situations in many nations attracted reactions from the United Nations. This struggle is

global in nature and plagues both the public and private sectors. In Kenya, corruption can be traced back even before attainment of independence from Britain. According to anti-corruption plan published by KACCA, the government seems to trace back corruption to the colonial period which argues that colonial government were based and sustained by authoritarianism, injustice, deceit and plunder of country's natural resources. It is argued that independence came without fundamental restructuring of the colonial state meaning that corruption was transmitted into the independent state. In Korea the issue of corruption has been the first priority agenda ever since its democratization in 1993, Regarding Criminal Justice Policy in particular, Korea has not only made numerous efforts to improve the legal system designed to deal with corruption of public officials and legal circles but also spent enormous amount of budget to prevent corruption. In essence, rooting out corruption has been the first-priority task for successive democratic governments in Korea.

In the foregoing background the citizenry in both countries recognizes that corruption is social ill and it is much alive in their societies. This recognition validating the finding of the study where it was observed that corruption exists in the two countries. However, the magnitude differs, in Korea gains have been made in the fight against corruption. This is evident even from international corruption tracking barometers that have ranked Kenya as more corrupt than Korea. In the last few years Korea has been ranked 43rd against Kenya 150th in 2006 rankings indicating that anticorruption efforts are bearing fruits in Korea

more than in Kenya. This validates the fact that Korea society perceive their society as less corrupt compared to Kenya where there is high level of consensus that corruption is high. Over time Kenya police service have topped the list of most corrupt government department, the study observed that this is the case based on the findings on the other Korea police is not perceived as very corrupt, as such it is viewed as average. Further, the findings validates TI ranking of Kenya police as the most corrupt institution in Kenya, it was viewed as the most corrupt public sector department. Korea police is not viewed as the most corrupt department; as such educational ministry and immigration were cited as the most corrupt department the study observed.

Koreans expect corruption to reduce in their country in the coming days; this is the exact opposite of their Kenyan counterparts who strongly believe that corruption will increase. However, Kenyans are somewhat optimistic that even though corruption is to increase there are possibility for corruption to reduce in the long run. Koreans also believes that corruption in the police service will reduce in the long run. The reason for Korean optimism about corruption reducing could be due to the fact that over the last ten years corruption has been reducing. In Kenya, however, the skepticism could have been informed by the fact that corruption has been on the rise over the past ten years. The study observed that corruption in Kenya has increased over the past 10 years; while in Korea it has been on a downward trend.

In both countries the benefits of controlling corruption are appreciated, however, in Kenya the mechanism put in place to control corruption are not thought to be effective. This could be informed by the fact that although corruption cases have been continually revealed, the actions have been somewhat wanting. In Korea, the mechanism put in place to deal with corruption have above average measure of success owing to the rate approval they received during the study.

Role modeling is an effective measure of psychologically conditioning individuals to act in a certain way; definitely this could be an effective measure of instilling values that detest corruption in the police service. However, the study observed that in Kenya, seniors are not good role models to their juniors, in some cases junior officers are forced to be accomplices in corruption by their seniors. Further, they do not feel motivated to disengage with corruption since there are backlashes or stigmatization if an individual does not engage in corruption like their peers. In Korea, the junior officers can look to their seniors for role modeling, they are not forced to hold briefs for their seniors in corruption and finally they do not feel insecure if they do not engage in corruption. This marked difference validates findings by TI which ranks Kenya police service as more corrupt than Korea police service.

7.6 Conclusions

The international community has placed premium on fighting corruption, and both countries seem cognisant of that factor. It is clear that both countries are grappling with corruption in the society and in the police service. The citizenry in both countries recognises that this is a problem in their respective nations. In Kenya specifically the problem of corruption in the country is very serious. It was observed that corruption levels have increased over the last ten years, however in Korea; corruption has been reducing creating a possibility that Kenya could learn a lesson on combating corruption from Korea. Further, in Kenya, senior police officers are not role models for their juniors. Additionally, Kenya police need to put systems to discourage officers from engaging in corruption, in Korea the senior officers are role model for those working under them, further, there are no dangers of not engaging in corruption unlike in Kenya where officers are stigmatised for not engaging in corruption. The anti-corruption agencies in the respective countries have not affected corruption levels, however, in Korea the anti-corruption leaders are seen as having will to fight corruption. This becomes another front where Kenya could learn from Korea on selection and performance management for the anti-corruption agency leadership.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8.0 Summary and Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the overall summary and general conclusions of the study. The objective of this chapter is to summarise the findings, discussions and provided conclusions, recommendations and propose areas for further research. The chapter is structured into sections and subsections. The sections include; summaries and conclusions, general recommendations and areas for further research.

8.2 Factors promoting corruption in police service

8.2.1 Predisposing factors to police corruption

Police in both countries are indebted, in Kenya the officers have undue influence to engage in corruption from the public, their seniors and holders of political power. Further, police officers confess of holding other jobs. However in Korea the police officers do not face such influence either from public, senior of political leadership, further, Korean police rarely holds other jobs. Additionally the salary of police officers in Kenya are low while their counterparts in Korea perceives their salaries as average meaning they are harmonized with other public servants, though in both cases their salaries are not sufficient as is with all humanity being dissatisfied with what they hold at any given time. On the other hand corruption monitoring is not effective in

both countries; additionally Koreans have mechanisms for nabbing corruption, since it is easy to be caught unlike in Kenya where it is pretty difficult. However, corruption inspection system is effective in Korea unlike in Kenya where corruption inspection is not effective.

8.2.2 Causes of corruption

The Police Culture, i.e. in terms of the overall police service culture and that of the leadership plays a major role in promoting corruption, in both countries the citizens believes that it is factor promoting corruption. Also lack of transparency at the police service has been blamed for breeding corruption in the police service. Further, the authority wielded by police officers in Kenya is a cause of corruption whereas in Korea it is not.

Low morality in both countries is a cause of corruption in the police service which is manifested by lack of moral conscience, influence by ordinary citizens to engage in corruption though this is not a strong factor in Korea. Additionally poor regulatory and enforcement framework is also a cause of corruption which includes; poor inspectorate and regulation, lack of proper prosecution systems when corruption is revealed, and weak punishment after corruption is exposed. Finally lack of motivation causes corruption, training which a form of motivation is not strongly linked to corruption, however low salary amongst Kenya police is a strong factor in causing corruption which is not the case in Korean police force.

8.3 Impact of corruption

8.3.1 Social impact

Corruption in police service causes prevalence of distrust on police force in both countries and also causes unequal access to public service opportunities. Also corruption in police is an impediment to integrity in society in general and also impedes the effectiveness of police service to the society and finally corruption in police service is likely to cause prevalence of large scale of opportunism.

8.3.2 Economic impact

Corruption causes embezzlement and tax evasion, though Koreans seem to be less convicted on the impact of corruption in the service. Further, in Kenya it is believed that corruption in police service is likely to cause reduced economic activity, however Koreans do not believe that this is a likely impact of corruption in the police service. However, Kenyans do not believe that corruption in the police can lower country competitive power but in Korea it is viewed as likely to impact negatively nation's competitive power.

8.3.3 Foreign policy impact

Corruption is almost certainly to cause the country to be perceived as corrupt international; in both countries the citizenry takes cognisance that will be a definite result. However, in Kenya the corruption is seen capable of

discouraging foreign investors but in Korea the citizens are not enthusiastic about the impact of corruption on foreign investment.

8.4 Strategies to combat corruption

Corruption monitoring and management: In both countries have a weak corruption monitoring framework; however in Korea the framework is better than in Kenya. Further, Korea has an effective inspectorate framework while in Kenya there is weak one. Further, in both countries there are corruption complaint administering systems, however in Korea the confidence with system is much higher than in Kenya and also the officer are aware of the system.

In Kenya, systems for investigating corruption are not effective, while in Korea the systems are to some extent effective. Additionally, in both countries there is belief that if good corruption control strategies are put in place corruption would reduce in the force. And finally, in both countries, punishments on corruption are not seen as effective, however in Korea there is some measure of success than in Kenya. On the same plane in Kenya police do not feel protected for reporting corruption; however, their Koreans counterparts are fairly safer.

Effectiveness of anti-corruption agencies: The anti-graft agencies in both countries are not effective in the view of police officers, this informs the opinion that corruption has not been largely affected by anti-graft agency activities. However in Korea the anti-graft agency had had some impact in reducing corruption in the police service. However, in the Kenyan case the ant-

graft agency leadership is not willing to fight graft, however their Korean there is willingness to accost corruption scourge in the police service.

8.4.1 Corruption mitigation methods

Creating Accountability Framework is one of the methods that have been identified by the study as would have impact in dealing with corruption in the police service. A number of methods that were reviewed included; raising disclosure rates, higher police accountability, enforcing punishment and authority regulation and providing a motivation.

In Korea, raising disclosure rates is seen as good measure in corruption mitigation however in Kenya, it is not probably to unprosecuted cases of corruption after they are disclose. Whereas higher police accountability is a strategy that would be effective in both countries in dealing with corrupting. Further, increasing police transparency would also be an effective method of combating corruption in the police service.

Enforcing Punishment and authority regulation, this is seen as an effective measure and it is postulated that corruption would reduce if rate and intensity of punishment rose; in both countries this is seen as an effective measure. Further, authority regulation would work in Kenya since there is a direct link between authority wielded and corruption incidences in the police force, however, strengthening police appointments is considered in both countries as strong mitigatory methodology.

Providing Motivation is also a methodology that could help contain corruption in both countries, this includes; (i) Complementation for prosecution; (ii) Compensation for reporting corruption and (iii) Regular training on corruption in a police service.

8.4.2 Struggles against corruption

Corruption levels: Corruption existence is recognisable by the citizenry in both countries; however, corruption is higher in Kenya than in Korea where they do not feel that corruption is very high and think is just above average. Further, the Kenya police force is perceived as corrupt by the citizens, while on other hand the Koreans feels that corruption in their police service is below average and the most corrupt department in Kenya is police while in Korea is education department.

Corruption trends: Kenyans expect corruption to increase in the coming days; whereas the Koreans expect corruption to reduce in their country in future. Further, Kenyans expects corruption to reduce in the long run, which also the case in Korea. The study established that Corruption in Kenya has increase in the last Ten Years while in Korea corruption has decreased and also reducing corruption in police force will lead to reduced corruption in other sectors; this is prevailing feelings in both Kenya and Korea.

Corruption prevention: The citizenry in both countries are well aware of the benefits of adopting effective corruption control mechanism. In both countries the citizenry understands that there are benefits of fighting corruption in their

country. However, the Kenyan citizenry do not view corruption control mechanism as effective, however in Korea, the citizen have a good measure of confidence with mechanisms instituted.

Role modelling in police service: In Kenya senior police officers are not role models to their junior officers; however in Korea senior officers are viewed as role models for their junior counterparts. Further, in Kenya Junior officer in the police are forced to be accomplices in corruption with their senior officers, on the other side Korean junior police officers are not forced to engage in corruption. Finally, in Kenya if police do not engage in corruption there are negative backlashes, however, in Korea, the police officers do not feel either alienated or stigmatized for not engaging in corruption.

8.5 General conclusions

8.5.1 Historical origins of corruption in Kenya and Korea police service

Corruption in Kenya police service can be traced back to pre-colonial time due to the manner in which colonialist established the service i.e. for protecting and aiding in plundering indigenous people resources, at independence little or no reforms were carried out thus the same culture was imbibed by the independent Kenya police service. Successive political systems in Kenya have used police service to either protect those looting public resources, manage political processes and cover serious crimes committed by the rich an elites and In Korea, link between the old Japanese colonial systems have largely influenced the Korea police service.

8.5.2 Factors promoting corruption in each country's polices service.

In Kenya police officers have held other jobs or are involved in business this predisposes them to engage in corrupt practices to increase their earnings and also, the level of salaries paid to police officers In Kenya has a influence on their engagement in corrupt practices.

8.5.3 Impacts of corruption on economic, social and foreign policies.

Both countries should create programmes to deal with corruption to ensure the society feels safe, trust the police and also have stringent measures in terms of access to opportunities to the service. Further, corruption has significant influence on how the country is perceived international explaining why the CPI index by transparency international has gained currency and also many development and aid agencies use these barometers when drafting parameters as conditionality's for engagement including aid.

8.5.4 Effectiveness of strategies controlling corruption in each of the police service

Since both countries have a weak corruption monitoring framework, policy makers and executioners needs to reevaluate the existing framework that would expanded to cover; (i) Inspectorate on corruption in the force; (ii) corruption complaint administering system;(iii) Corruption punishment and security of officers reporting corruption.

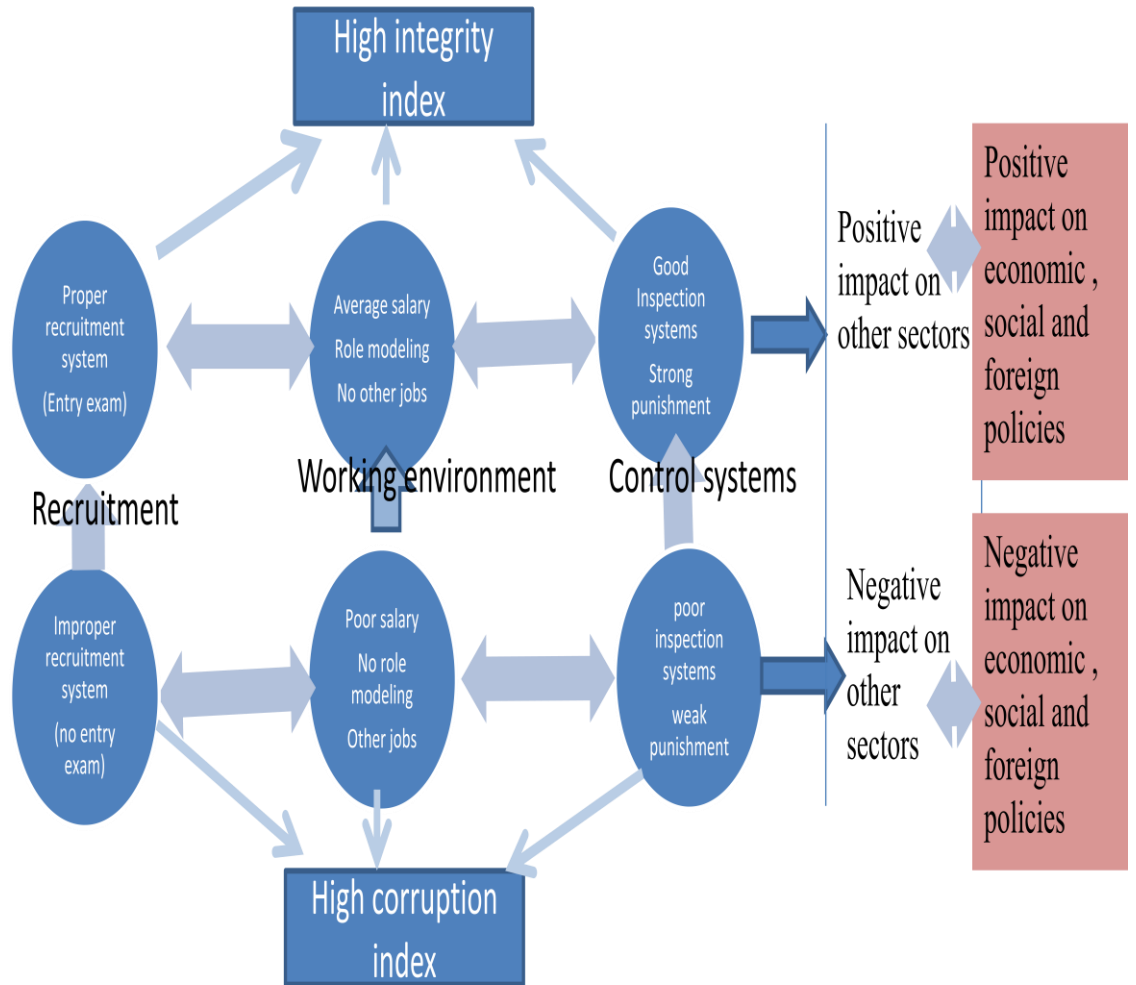
8.5.5 Lessons Kenya police service can learn through Korean experience

Based on the findings and analysis of various corruption related parameters, Kenya can learn a number of lessons from Korea police service, they include; (i) how they have managed to disassociate corruption in police and perception as a competitive economy for foreign investors through delinking corruption investigations prosecution from police service; (ii) benchmark corruption inspectorate system, punishment and protection of officers when they report corruption in the force with the Korean system; (iii) borrow the techniques from Korea so as to implement an effective system for corruption control in the police service; (iv) adopt a compensation programme for those reporting corruption ; (v) in Kenya should study, review and implement a system for regulating police authority.

8.5.6 Common challenges affecting the two police services

Since both police services have a number of challenges that are common, there is need to address these challenges which include; (i) cultural restructuring within the police service in both countries both at the general level and the leadership level; (ii) improve transparency in their working; (iii) deal with morality both in the public and within the force since corruption is two pronged affair involving the police and the civilians and; (iv) improvement of the anticorruption regulatory and enforcement framework, this includes, inspectorate, proper prosecution and enforcing punishment.

Figure 8.1: General conclusion



8.6 Recommendations

Bases on the findings and conclusions made, the study recommends as follows;

1. The recruitment processes for police officers to the police service need to be based on proper examinations systems rather than physical abilities only as is the case today.
2. The Kenya police service as a matter of necessity need to ban police officers from engaging in other jobs or business and provide average salaries to the police officers.
3. The senior officers in the Kenya police service should be role models to the junior officers
4. Both Kenya and Korea need to come up with good inspection systems to control corruption.
5. Kenya need to develop a strong punishment system after corruption has been revealed
6. In Kenya police service ought to be delinked from corruption investigation and prosecutions to ensure those involved in economic crimes do not use police service to buy their freedom or lesser punishments.
7. The police service in both countries need to create a functional framework for complementing, motivating and rewarding officer for effective corruption control.

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Annexes

Sample size

Country Informants	Kenya	Korea	Total
Experts	5	5	10
KACC&KICAC members	5	5	10
Police officers	35	35	70
Ordinary Citizens	65	65	130
Foreigners	10	10	120
Total	120	120	240

Profile of the respondents

Demographic information

The demographic information is organized under the following areas: occupation, age range, sex, marital status and education level of the respondents.

a) Gender of the respondents

- The gender of the respondents were as follows, in Kenya the male respondents accounted for 65% while female accounted for 35% whereas in Korea male accounted for 92% while female accounted for 8%.

b) Age of the respondents

- The ages of the respondents were as follows; the Kenya respondents, 11% were aged below 20 years, 53% aged between 21-30 years, 18% 31-40 years, 11% 41-50 years, 6% 51-60 years and 1% above 60 years whereas the Korean respondents none was aged below 30 years, 23% were aged between 31-40 years, 64% 41-50 years, 10% 51-60 years and 4% above 60 years.

c) Marital status

- The marital status of the respondents were as follows; in Kenya, the respondents marital status were as follows; 53% were single, 45% were married, 1% divorced and another 1% windowed whereas in Korea 5% were single, 95% married and none single or windowed.

d) Educational level

- on the respondents educational level, in Kenya 3% were below O-level, 14% had O-level qualifications, 21% college diploma, 46% bachelor degree, 11% had masters degree and 5% had PHDs whereas in Korea none had lower that O-level Qualifications, 22% had O-level qualifications, 14% had college Diplomas, 54% bachelor degree, 8% had masters degree and only 2% had PHDs.

e) **Occupation**

- The occupations of the respondents were as follows; in Kenya 17% were police officers, 74% other categories of occupations, 4% experts, 5% KACC officials whereas the Koreans had occupations as follows, police officers 48%, other categories 40%, experts 6%, and KICAC officials 6%.

Table 6.1: Response Rate

Category	Target Respondents	Response	Response Rate (%)
Experts	10	10	100%
KACC & KICAC members	10	10	100%
Police officers	70	52	74%
Ordinary citizens	130	97	75%
Foreigners	20	20	100%
Total	240	189	79 %

Table 6.62: Foreigners country of origin

foreigners country of origin	Foreigners country of residence frequency		Total
	Kenya	Korea	
Tanzania	3	1	4
Uganda	1	1	2
Somalia	2	0	2
Japan	0	2	2
Canada	0	3	3
USA	0	3	3
Burundi	2	0	2
south-Sudan	2	0	2
DRC Congo	2	0	2
Zimbabwe	1	0	1
china	0	1	1
Russia	0	1	1
Holland	0	1	1

Introduction Letter

Ha Tae Hyun
Department of History,
Archaeology & Political Studies
Kenyatta University
P.O. Box 43844, Nairobi

Dear Respondent

I am doing PhD from Kenyatta University. I would like to collaborate with you in identifying the status of corruption in the police service and how it can be improved in Kenya and South Korea. I sincerely request for your support through filling the questionnaire provided to you. The information you will give will assist highly in the above goal, which would be very vital in understanding how corruption can be reduced in the police service in Kenya and South Korea. The information provided will be treated with a lot of confidentiality.

Your contribution and sincerity will be highly esteemed

Yours truly,

Signed _____

Date _____

Ha Tae Hyun

*QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE***PART A: BIO-DATA****Name****Nationality****Current Address (province and city/town)****Occupation** i) current ii) previous**Age**(please tick in the box below appropriately)11-20 21-30 31-40 41-50 51-60 Above 60 **Sex** (please tick in the box below appropriately)Male Female **Marital Status** (please tick in the box below appropriately)Single Married Divorced Widower Widow **Educational Level**(please tick in the box below appropriately)Below KCSE/Graduate Secondary KCSE/Graduate Secondary College Certificate/Diploma Bachelor Masters PhD

PART B: ORDINARY CITIZENS AND POLICE OFFICERS**Please tick appropriately**

1. (a) Are there cases of corruption in your country?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) If yes, what is the level of corruption in your country according to your opinion?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low v) Very

2. (a) Which sector of the government is most corrupt according to your opinion?(tick or specify)

i) Police ii) Defence iii) Education v) Finance v) Immigration vi) Local government vii) Health

viii) Others (Specify) _____

(b) If you selected "police" in "(a)" above, what is the level of corruption in the police service according to your opinion?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low v) Very low

(c) Why do you think so? _____

3. According to your opinion, what are the causes of corruption in police service?
(Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely, 3 – Likely, 4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)i) Police Culture 1 2 3 4 5ii) The culture of leader of police 1 2 3 4 5iii) Lack of moral conscience 1 2 3 4 5

iv) Poor inspector system and regulation in police department

 1 2 3 4 5

v) After corruption exposure, weak punishment 1 2 3 4 5

vi) Influence by ordinary Citizens to corrupt practice

1 2 3 4 5

vii) Low Salary of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

viii) High authority of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

ix) Lack of training on corruption 1 2 3 4 5

x) Lack of proper prosecution system revealing corruption

1 2 3 4 5

xi) Transparency level on working police 1 2 3 4 5

xii) Others(Specify) _____

4. According to your opinion, what are the evil influences of corruption in police service?

(Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely,3 – Likely,4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)

i)Prevalence of distrust in police 1 2 3 4 5

ii) Supply of unequal public services 1 2 3 4 5

iii) Impediment of integrity of society 1 2 3 4 5

iv) Embezzlement and tax evasion of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

v) International perception as corruption country 1 2 3 4 5

vi) Discouragement of foreign investors 1 2 3 4 5

vii) Lower country competitive power 1 2 3 4 5

viii) Prevalence of large scale of opportunism tendency 1 2 3 4 5

ix) Withering of economy activity 1 2 3 4 5

x) Effective to society 1 2 3 4 5

xi) Others Specify _____

5. According to your opinion, what are the good solutions of corruption in police service?

(Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely, 3 – Likely, 4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)

i) Raising disclosure rate 1 2 3 4 5

ii) Raising punishment rate 1 2 3 4 5

iii) Raising intensity of punishment 1 2 3 4 5

iv) Higher police accountability 1 2 3 4 5

v) Higher police transparency 1 2 3 4 5

vi) Lower authority of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

vii) Strengthening police officers appointment regulations

1 2 3 4 5

viii) Regularly train about corruption 1 2 3 4 5

ix) Complementary of proper prosecution system revealing corruption 1 2 3 4 5

x) Good compensation payment for reporting corruption cases

1 2 3 4 5

xi) Others (Specify) _____

6. (a) In your opinion, has corruption reduced or increased in the police service in the last 10 years?

i) Reduced ii) Increased iii) No Change (Same)

7. (a) Do you think by reducing corruption in the police service will reduce corruption in other sectors of the government e.g. parastatals and private sectors?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer

8. (a) According to you, are the control mechanisms implemented in controlling police service corruption effective?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If no, what are the problems? _____

9. (a) Do you think by creating good control strategies will reduce corruption in your the police service?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, which control strategies do you think are most effective?

10. (a) Corruption in Kenya still ranks high in the world records despite a lot of efforts to reduce it. In your opinion, can Kenya benefit from adopting the effective measures that are successful in Korea?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer _____

11. (a) Do you think corruption has effect in your country's economic, domestic policies and even international relations?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, to what extent? _____

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low

v) Very low

12. (a) According to you, do you think corruption will reduce in future in your country?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, in what period?

i) In long run ii) In short run

PART C: POLICE OFFICERS ONLY

13. Which is your department and what are your duties? _____

14. How long have you been working as a police officer?

i) Over 10yrs ii) 6-10yrs iii) 3-5yrs iv) 1-2yrs
v) Below 1yr

15. (a) Is police officer job good occupation in your society?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Do you think your job is good for you too? i) Yes ii) No

(c) If no, please give reasons? _____

16. After how long do you want to stop your police service work? (regardless of the remaining period of time before your retirement)

i) Until retirement ii) within 20 yrs iii) Within 10 yrs

iv) Within 5yrs v) within 1yr

17. In your society, how much is your salary?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low

v) Very low

18. In your opinion, is your salary sufficient enough to meet your needs?

i) Yes ii) No

19. (a) Do you have a debt? i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, how much money do you owe? _____

(c) Do you have creditor(s) whose work is related to yours?

i) Yes ii) No

20. (a) Do you have any other job? i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, is it related to your current job? i) Yes ii) No

(c) If you are married, does your wife/ husband have a job as well?

i) Yes ii) No

(d) If yes, is it related to your current job? i) Yes ii) No

21. (a) Have you ever received favour from your relatives, neighbours, friends, colleagues or other people who are close to you?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, what type of favour do you usually receive?

22. (a) Have you ever received a bribe? i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, approximately, how many times and much did you normally receive?

23. Do you think corruption is revealed or not revealed most of the time?

i) Yes ii) No

24. (a) Do you think is difficult to be caught in the Act of corruption?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer _____

25. In your opinion, when corruption is disclosed, are punishments effective?

i) Yes ii) No

26. (a) In your office, suppose everyone is corrupt other than you, is it a disadvantage to you? i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer _____

27. In your division, are civil affairs open so that people would know well?

i) Yes ii) No

28. (a) When you are working, can colleagues and clients know what you are doing particularly?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer _____

29. (a) If a person has a complain in public service, do your office have good system of administering?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If so, how would you administer? _____

30. (a) Have you ever witnessed corruption with your colleagues?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, how many times? _____

31. (a) When you notice your colleagues' corruption can you report him/ her ?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, how many times and present your reasons for reporting?__

32. (a) If you report a corruption case/ person, can you be protected from being harassed?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer_____

33. How many times are you trained on annual basis on corruption matters in your office?

i) Over 10times ii) 6 -10times iii) 2-5times

iv) Once v) None

34. How well do you know about the laws/rules/manual of corruption?

i) Very good ii) Good iii) Average iv) Low

v) None

35. In your office is your senior officer a role model in fighting corruption?

i) Yes ii) No

36. Has your senior officer ever forced you to be involved in corrupt deal?

i) Yes ii) No

37. Do you think corruption investigation system in your country is good?

i) Yes ii) No

38. (a) Through this inspection are they able to discover corruption easily?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) Give reasons for your answer _____

39. When somebody leads you to corruption for his/her public gain, are you worried about being disclosed during inspections?

i) Yes ii) No

40. How many times annually are you inspected in your work place?

i) Over 5times ii) 3-5 times iii) 2times iv) Once

v) None

41. (a) Is your work affected because of Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission(KACC)/ Korea Independent Commission Against Corruption(KACIC)?

i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes/no, why? _____

42. (a) Do you think KACC/KICAC has reduced corruption in your country?

i) Yes ii) No

43. (a) Do you think your department leader has a strong will to reduce corruption?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) If yes, can corruption in your department reduce in future courtesy of your leader's will? If no, why do you think so? _____

44. (a) Do think your department leader does corruption for his private gain through public power? i) Yes ii) No

(b) If yes, to what extent?

i) Strongly agree ii) Agree iii) Don't agree

iv) I don't know

45. How would corruption be reduced in future in your country? Please describe

PART D: FOREIGNERS

46. Which is your country of origin?

47. How long have you been staying in your current country?

i) Over 10yrs ii) 6-10yrs iii) 3-5yrs iv) 1-2yrs

v) Below 1yr

48. (a) Do you think your current country is corrupt?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) Have you ever heard about corruption in your current country?

i) Yes ii) No

(c) If yes, in your opinion, how much is it corrupt?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low
v) Very low

49. Because of your current country's corruption have you ever thought of moving to another country or going back to your country of origin?

i) Yes ii) No

50. (a) In your opinion, has corruption reduced or increased in your current country as compared to 10 years ago?

i) Reduced ii) Increased iii) No Change (Same)

(b) If yes/no please give reason(s) _____

51 (a) Which sector of the government is most corrupt according to your opinion?(tick or specify)

i) Police ii) Defence iii) Education iv) Finance
v) Immigration, vi) Local government vii) Health
viii) Others (Specify) _____

(b) If you selected "police" in "(a)" above, what is the level of corruption in the police service according to your opinion?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low v) Very low

(c) Why do you think so? _____

52. According to your opinion, what are the causes of corruption in police service? (Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely,3 – Likely,4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)

- i) Police Culture 1 2 3 4 5
- ii) The culture of leader of police 1 2 3 4 5
- iii) Lack of moral conscience 1 2 3 4 5
- iv) Poor inspector system and regulation in police department 1 2 3 4 5
- v) After corruption exposure, weak punishment 1 2 3 4 5
- vi) Influence by ordinary Citizens to corrupt practice 1 2 3 4 5
- vii) Low Salary of police officers 1 2 3 4 5
- viii) High authority of police officers 1 2 3 4 5
- ix) Lack of training on corruption 1 2 3 4 5
- x) Lack of proper prosecution system revealing corruption 1 2 3 4 5
- xi) Transparency level on working police 1 2 3 4 5
- xii) Others(Specify) _____

53. According to your opinion, what are the evil influences of corruption in police service? (Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely,3 – Likely,4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)

- i) Prevalence of distrust in police 1 2 3 4 5
- 1 2 3 4 5

ii) Supply of unequal public services

iii) Impediment of integrity of society 1 2 3 4 5

iv) Embezzlement and tax evasion of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

v) International perception as corruption country 1 2 3 4 5

vi) Discouragement of foreign investors 1 2 3 4 5

vii) Lower country competitive power 1 2 3 4 5

viii) Prevalence of large scale of opportunism tendency 1 2 3 4 5

ix) Withering of economy Activity 1 2 3 4 5

x) Effective to society 1 2 3 4 5

xi) Others(Specify) _____

54. According to your opinion, what are the good solutions of corruption in police service?

(Tick appropriately in the 5 point likert scale (1 –Most likely, 2- More Likely,3 – Likely,4- Least Likely, 5- Not likely)

i)Raising disclosure rate 1 2 3 4 5

ii) Raising punishment rate 1 2 3 4 5

iii) Raising intensity of punishment 1 2 3 4 5

iv) Higher police accountability 1 2 3 4 5

v) Higher police transparency 1 2 3 4 5

vi) Lower authority of police officers 1 2 3 4 5

vii) Strengthening police officers appointment regulations

1 2 3 4 5

viii) Regularly train about corruption

1 2 3 4 5

ix) Complementary of proper prosecution system revealing corruption

1 2 3 4 5

x) Good compensation payment for reporting corruption cases

1 2 3 4 5

x) Others (Specify) _____

55. Do you think by reducing corruption in the public service will reduce corruption in other sectors of the government e.g. parastatals and private sectors?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

56. (a) According to you, are the controls implemented in controlling corruption effective?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) If no, what are the problems? _____

57. (a) Do you think by creating good control strategies will reduce corruption in your current country?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) If yes, which control strategies do you think is most effective? _____

58. (a) Do you think corruption has effect in your present country's economic, domestic policies and even international relations?

i) Yes ii) No iii) I don't know

(b) If Yes, to what extent?

i) Very high ii) High iii) Average iv) Low v) Very low

59. (a) According to you, do you think corruption will reduce or increase in future in your current country?

i) Reduce ii) Increase iii) No Change (Same)

(b) If yes, in what period?

i) In the long run ii) In the short run