THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES: A CASE STUDY OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER POLICING AREA IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

By

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DECLARATION

I, Mufanadzo Emmah Rathogwa, hereby declare that this dissertation for the Master of Criminology Degree at University of Fort Hare, hereby submitted by me, with the title: **"The perception of police officers towards corruption activities in South African Police Services: A Case study of Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area in Limpopo province",** has not been previously submitted for a degree at this or another institution and that this is my own work in design and execution. All reference materials contained herein have been duly acknowledged.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Witnessed by

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

DEDICATIONS

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved sons, Kevin Thendo and Rofulufhela; you are everything to me and I wake up every morning to do my best just for you. Education is the key to unlock every door for you, my princes. I love you and wish you the best in your future.

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ABSTRACT

The 1996 National Crime Prevention Strategy identified corruption within the criminal justice sector as the greatest threat to the governance of security. Police corruption has been a huge obstacle within the South African Police Service's endeavours to tackle improper activities of police officers. A general definition of corruption is "use of public office for private gain"; this includes bribery and extortion, which involves at least two parties, and other types of malfeasance that a public official can carry out alone, including fraud and embezzlement. The corruption of police officers impinges on the capacity and ability of the entire force in ensuring that all citizens abide by the law. This study explored the perceptions of police officers towards corruption activities in South African Police Services (SAPS) within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area in Limpopo province. In this study, a qualitative research design was used. The researcher used purposive sampling to select participants. For collection of data, semi-structured interviews were used where the researcher interviewed police officers within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. The researcher conducted fifty 50 interviews with five police officers from 10 police stations within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area, namely: Botlokwa, Lebowakgomo, Polokwane, Westernburg, Seshego, Mankweng, Mashashane, Matlala, Mogwadi and Zebediela police stations. In addition, secondary sources were used where the researcher relied on documents from the Independent Police Investigations (IPID) on statistics on police corruption, among other scales of measurements. For the analysis of data, thematic content analysis was used to analyse the data collected through interviews whilst document analysis was used for analysing data collected from secondary sources. The findings gathered in this study revealed that police corruption is widespread within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area in Limpopo province due some police officers' fear of victimisation of their families or loved ones if they expose corrupt acts by other police officers. Furthermore, corruption of the South African Police Services personnel has been reported where potential police recruits are required to pay bribes for them to be placed for the job. Weak leadership within the South African police service and poor policy formulation and implementation have been identified by participants to be some of the main determinants of corruption within the South African Police Services. As

a recommendation to counter the adverse effects of police corruption, a number of strategies have been formulated in this study such as the establishment of vibrant anti-corruption mechanisms. It is essential for the government to recall passionate former police officials to investigate all the corrupt officials. The South African government should establish a very sophisticated anti-corruption body independent from the SAPS to spearhead the strategy to combat corruption. The recruitment of police personnel should culminate into hiring individuals who would see the police job as a calling and do it passionately. They should firstly target people who choose police related courses are already studying courses in crime investigation from grassroots level.

Keywords: *Corruption, police officers, police officers' perceptions*

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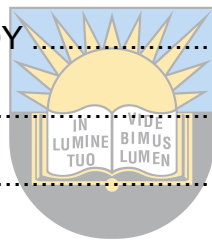
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AU: Auditor-General

ICD: Independent Complaints Directorate

DSI: Directorate of Special Investigations

DCAF: Discipline Control and Assurance Framework

DJCD: Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

DPSA: Department of Public Service and Administration

HSRC: Human Sciences Research Council

IEJS: International Encyclopaedia of Justice Studies

ICD: Independent Complaints Directorate

GCB: Global Corruption Barometer

NVCS: National Victims of Crime Survey

NIA: National Intelligence Agency

NACF: National Anti-Corruption Forum

NDP: National Development Plan

NCPS: National Crime Prevention Strategy

NPC: National Planning Commission

PSC: Public Service Commission

PP: Public Protector

SSA: Statistics South Africa

SASAS: South African Social Attitudes Survey

SIU: Special Investigative Unit

NPA: National Prosecution Authority

SAP: South African Police

SAPS: South African Police Service

SA: South Africa

TI: Transparency International

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This study is on the perception of police officers towards corruption activities in South African Police Services: A Case study of Capricorn District Policing Area in Limpopo Province. This chapter presents the introduction and background of the study, aim of the study, objectives, research questions, motivation for carrying out the study and the layout of the dissertation wraps up this chapter.

The corruption of police officers is a problem which spans cultures, countries and generations. This is because it is based on human weakness and motivations. Moreover, even the lowest ranking officer can exercise power since there are people who want to take advantage of such power; therefore, the threat of corruption is inevitable.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The perceptions of corruption amongst police officers are shaped by the many high-profile cases of corruption within top-ranking officers of SAPS. For example, in June 2001, the National Head of Organised Crime, Assistant National Commissioner Albert Eksteen, was arrested and charged with more than 100 charges related to fraud (Independent Police Investigations Department, 2011). A year earlier, KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Head of Organised Crime, Piet Meyer, was charged with bribe and protecting criminal syndicates (Newham, 2002: 5). Likewise, ex-Head of Crime Intelligence, Richard Mdluli was arrested on corruption and murder charges; although he was not eventually convicted, he was eventually relieved of his duties after six years on suspension (Mahlati, 2018).

Presently, examining the subject of police corruption has shifted from asking whether corruption exists in the police agency to asking questions about the size, nature and impact of problems around police corruption. However, just as some diseases are considered taboo, so too is the topic of corruption in many police agencies. Talking about it can make police officials, particularly at senior levels, uncomfortable. This is because it draws attention to murkier areas of policing often out of the sight of the public. It also brings to the fore critical tension between occupational requirements of police members

to combat criminals and organizational needs of the police agency to be accepted in the eyes of the public. Thus, police corruption lurks in the arena where police members' discretion starts and organizational control ends.

As the existence of corruption signifies a critical weakness of senior police officers' ability to exercise control over the police agency, there is a strong temptation in the senior ranks to deny or play down its existence. Although acknowledging its existence is a step in the right direction, it does not follow that action taken to deal with it will necessarily be useful or effective. The quote at the top of this chapter emphasises the critical role of the 'administrator' in tackling corruption successfully. This insight echoes a theme in literature emphasizing the critical role a police commander, manager or supervisor has to play in dealing with corruption.

The South Africa Police Services (SAPS) is mandated by Section 205 of the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996) to prevent, combat and investigate crimes, including corruption. However, among South Africa's public, there is little faith in the SAPS's ability or willingness to do so. According to the South African Social Attitudes Survey, a nationally representative household level survey of citizens' attitudes two-thirds of South Africans believe that the most corrupt government officials in South Africa are located in the national police service as reported by Corruption Watch (2012).

In South Africa today, politicians have taken advantage of the police service, partly because they recommend and appoint national police commissioners to top positions. Police officers are inevitably put in a competitive and compromised position seeking favours from politicians. The inseparable relationship between the police and politicians is a worrying development in South Africa for two reasons. First, previous researchers have argued that, when there is a fusion between police and politicians, police become less accountable to citizens (Brogden, 1986; Reiner, 2000, 2010).

The collaboration between police and politicians negates the whole theory of the separation of powers propounded by Montesquieu (1977) in his ground-breaking essay titled "Spirit of the Laws". Montesquieu (1977) argued that, within a democratic dispensation in any nation, the three arms of government; namely, the legislature, executive and judiciary should work independently of one another to avoid usurpation and

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abuse of powers by any one arm of government. One of the constitutional duties of the President of the Republic of South Africa is to appoint and fire the National Police Commissioner of the South African Police Service under section 216 (4) (a) South African Police Service Act 1995. A good case in point was the political appointment of General Bheki Cele as the National Police Commissioner by President Jacob Zuma. On June 12, 2012, General Bheki Cele was sacked by the President for alleged offences of fraud and corruption. General Cele was found guilty of maladministration and found unfit for the office of National Police Commissioner by Justice Jake Moloi's independent investigation Inquiry in May 2011.

1.3. RESEARCH PROBLEM

The South African Police Service (SAPS) has been regularly accused by community members of not doing their work properly because of its failure to enforce the law in dealing with corruption in the Polokwane policing area (Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, 2017). Corruption Watch, a South African anticorruption advocacy organization, receives reports of corruption from citizens across the country, which it collects through telephone, e-mail, regular mail and social media platforms (Prevention and combating of Corrupt Activities Act, 2017). According to the Prevention and combating of Corrupt Activities Annual Report, Corruption Watch received 2700 reports of police corruption between January 1st and June 30th, 2017.

Reports of police corruption accounted for the second highest number of corruption (after governance corruption) reports received, while bribery was the leading type of corruption reported among the police (Corruption Watch Annual Report, 2017). If police officials can engage in corrupt activities with impunity, then low arrest rates will inevitably coexist with high levels of corruption. According to Corruption Watch's report, this seems to be exactly the case. The South Africa police are unlikely to emerge as a potential 'positive outlier' of bribery reduction; yet, as the paper shows, this is the case. The term 'positive outlier' is used here to describe an unexpected reduction in bribery in a specific sector within a country, relative to all other sectors.

1.4. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to explore the perception of police officers towards corruption activities in the Capricorn District Policing Area in Limpopo Province.

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To describe police perceptions towards corruption.
- To identify factors that contribute towards corruption activities by police officials.
- To analyse policing legislation regulating police conduct.
- To identify preventative measures in place against police corruption.

1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the factors contributing towards corruption activities by police officials?
- What are police perceptions towards corruptions?
- Which policing legislations regulate police conduct?
- What preventative measures are in place against police corruption?

1.7. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The undertaking of this study is of significance to the Criminology field in that this study explores perceptions of the South African Police Service personnel. As such, dealing with first-hand information from police officers will go a long way in combating police corruption.

1.8. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.8.1. Corruption

In general, corruption is a form of dishonesty or criminal activity undertaken by a person or organization entrusted with a position of authority, often to acquire illicit benefit, or abuse of entrusted power for one's private gain. Corruption may include many activities

such as bribery and embezzlement, though it may also involve practices that are legal in many countries (Kaufmann & Mastruzzi, 2003).

1.8.2. Police

Police is the civil force of a state, responsible for the prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of public order (Heywood, 2017).

1.8.3. Perceptions

Perception (from the Latin *perceptio*) is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information to represent and understand presented information or the environment (Schacter, 2011).

1.9. LAYOUT OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Presents the introduction and background of the study.

Chapter 2: Presents the theoretical framework, relevant rules and policies and review of related literature.

Chapter 3: Discusses the research design and methodology.

Chapter 4: Presentation and analysis of the data.

Chapter 5: Summary, recommendations and conclusion.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORY

2.1.   INTRODUCTION

The points of discussion in this chapter are pivoted on a) factors that contribute towards corruption activities by police officials, b) police perception towards corruption, c) policing legislation and d) preventive measures against police corruption. Corruption is a complex issue spread over in society in several forms. Its roots lie deep in bureaucratic and political institutions, and its effect on development varies from country to country. Corruption is widespread in many developing economies, and South Africa is not an exception. The 2017 Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index assigned South Africa an index of 43 out of 100, ranking South Africa as 71 out of 180 countries. This ranking represents a downward direction change with a drop of two points down from 45 (2016 CPI). Recently, the South African Government has shown its willingness to tackle corruption, for example, through the creation of the Corruption Watch in January 2012.

2.2.   CONCEPTUALISATION OF CORRUPTION

The word *corruption* is derived from the Latin word "*corruptus*," which means "corrupted" and, in legal terms, the abuse of a trusted position in one of the branches of power (executive, legislative and judicial) or in political or other organizations, with the intention of obtaining material benefit not legally justified for itself or for others.

According to Summer Internship (2019), corruption is a great sin in the Bible:

> *Do not accept a bribe, for a bribe blinds those who see and twist the
> words of the innocent.*

However, the history of corruption is related to the beginning of the creation of law; in antiquity it was considered an evil that negatively affects public administration and the functioning of the political system. The earliest records of corruption date back to the thirteenth century BC to the time of the Assyrian civilization. From the plates discovered written in *cuneiform*, archaeologists managed to discern how and who accepted bribes (Summer Internship, 2019).

Under the Roman law, the criminal offense of corruption was defined as giving, receiving or claiming benefits to influence an official in connection with his work (Pickworth, 2016). Due to the prevalence of corruption in the country, this law was supplemented by a new law, which predicted compensation for damage in double value of the damage, and loss of political rights for the perpetrator of the corruptive act. However, this did not help alleviate corruption, especially due to the fact that corruption was most practiced by members of Senate and senior state officials, both in Rome and in remote Roman provinces.

The early Christian faith condemned corruption, yet corruption later also developed greatly in ecclesiastical structures, and achieved its peak with the selling of indulgences in the Middle Ages, all until the condemnation of the latter (as well as of other immoral acts of the clergy, with the Pope at the head) by Martin Luther. Apart from the condemnation of corruption, the Reformation also led to a break until the dominant Catholic culture and the emergence of Protestant ethics (Fraser-Moleketi and Boone, 2003).

Thus, although corruption has been in existence in society, it has only been given more attention in recent periods; research on the phenomenon and its negative impacts have become more common after 1995, when countries and international institutions began to be aware of this problem. The attitude of the public toward corruption was, until then, neutral. Gray and Kaufmann (1998) found that:

- Corruption is widespread, especially in developing and transitioning countries. There are, however, significant differences between and within regions; and
- Corruption increases transaction costs and creates insecurity in the economy.

Corruption usually leads to ineffective economic results, and in the long term, impedes foreign and domestic investments, reallocates talents due to income and distorts sectorial priorities and technology choices (for example, it creates incentives for contracting major defence projects or unnecessary infrastructure projects, but does not encourage investments in rural specialist health clinics or preventive health care). This pushes companies into the "underground" (outside the formal sector), weakens the state's ability

to increase revenue and leads to ever-increasing tax rates (as too little tax is taken), which is levied on less and less taxpayers, consequently diminishing the state's ability to provide enough public goods, including the rule of law.

- Corruption is unfair, as it imposes a regressive tax, which heavily burdens commercial and service activities performed by small businesses; and
- Corruption destroys the legitimacy of the state.

However, different countries and scholars have diverse definitions and interpretations of corruption. In addition, the notion of 'abuse of public or private office for personal gain' is central to all of them. Social science scholars define corruption in terms of certain basic considerations: First, corruption is related to the performance of duties of a public office. According to Skenjana (2001), corruption is, 'behaviour that deviates from normal duties of a public role because of private (family, close private clique), pecuniary or status gains; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private influence. This includes behaviour such as bribery (use of reward to pervert the judgement of a person in a position of trust); nepotism (bestowal of patronage by descriptive relationship rather than merit); and misappropriation (illegal appropriation of public resource for private regarding uses).
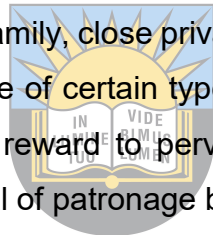
Second, corruption is related to the concept of exchange derived from the theory of the market. Skenjana citing Van Klaveren (2001) argue that a bureaucrat views public office as an enterprise from which to extract extra-legal income. As a consequence, the civil servant's compensation package 'does not depend on an ethical evaluation of his usefulness for the common good but upon the market situation and his talents for finding the point of maximal on the public's demand curve'. In an economy pervaded by high levels of government regulations, civil servants may devote most of their time and effort to assist entrepreneurs to evade state laws and statutes. In exchange, civil servants are paid extra-legal income (Skenjana 2001, citing Mbaku, 1992).

The media in the South Africa publishes new instances of abuse of entrusted power for private benefit almost daily. The issue of corruption has come out of the closet and into the domain of public discussion, media reports, government action and conferences (van

der Merwe, 2001:1). The fact that corruption has had substantial news coverage and more information is becoming available about it in South Africa should be welcome (Rauch, 2012). Thus, study thus sought to fill existing research gaps in literature on police corruption in South Africa. In support, Faull (2007:1) states that, the majority of domestic research on corruption has been produced by a handful of researchers. The author further declares that even less data appears to be available for other countries in the Southern African region.

2.3. GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON POLICE CORRUPTION

The term "corruption" describes a wide range of social conducts condemned and rejected by societies all over the world as dishonest. Corruption is associated with rejection, rotten, contaminated, or depraved acts (Thomashausen, 2000:5). Police deviance and corruption shift over time, are complex, multi-faceted and surrounded by ambiguity (Punch, 2009:3). A major part of corruption sits in countries in Southern Africa and Latin America (van der Merwe, 2001:10).

According to the Global Corruption Barometer 2006, police agencies are where bribes are most commonly paid (Transparency International, 2007:314). Police corruption involves taking bribes in the form of money or other consideration to police officers, with intention to undermine the aim of the criminal justice system (Dempsy *et al.,* 2010:219). For example, police bribery takes place when criminals bribe police to destroy or sell dockets, help prisoners escape or instruct junior officers to cease investigations (Syed and Bruce, 1998). The police and the judiciary are seen as the two most bribery-prone (Global Corruption Barometer, 2013:3). Newburn (1999:14) confirmed that police corruption is a continuing problem, and there is evidence of corrupt practice from all stages of police history. Worldwide, one in four people report having paid a bribe, and police were the most commonly bribed institution (Khazan, 2013).

Surveys from Afro-barometer, a public opinion survey focusing on Africa, have shown that South Africans are increasingly concerned about corruption, while in 2008, 15% of adults thought that corruption was "an important national issue"; by 2011, this had increased to 29% (Polity, 2012). International experience suggests that a specialised unit dedicated to

investigating police corruption is crucial if these problems are to be tackled effectively (Newham and Gomomo, 2003).

2.4. FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES BY POLICE OFFICERS

Although corruption differs from country to country, it is possible to identify some of the key common driving forces that generate it. What is common in countries, which are among the most corrupt, has been that (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2008) all of them are developing countries or countries in transition. These are:

- low-income countries;
- most countries with a closed economy;
- whereby the influence of religion is visible;
- countries with low media freedom; and
- countries with a relatively low level of education.

Regardless of the above-mentioned factors, corruption cannot be assessed unambiguously, since there is never only one phenomenon responsible for its development. Corruption always arisen from an array of several, interrelated factors, which can differ considerably from one another. Among the most commonly mentioned factors that influence the development of corruption are: The political and economic environment, professional ethics and legislation, as well as ethnological factors, such as customs, habits and traditions.

Acts of corruption by police officials have long shaken public faith in government, but loss of public faith is particularly acute when those acts involve the police (Prenzler and Ronken, 2003). That is because the public relies on police to uphold the law, protect the community and assist in times of need. Police are also the most visible arm of government for most citizens and a yardstick by which they measure authority. When an officer acts illegally, he dishonours both himself and the law and justice system he represents.

Unfortunately, the organizational culture of police does encourage some officers to commit acts of corruption (Benson, 2009). Such acts might involve taking monetary bribes, abusing their authority or concealing criminal enterprises. More importantly, they

might also involve violation of human rights or ethnic and racial discrimination. When police organizations fail to punish travesties of justice, they inadvertently foster a culture of corruption that breeds discrimination, deception and greed (Benson, 2009).

A culture of corruption arises primarily from failure in four key areas namely: recruitment, training and promotion; resources, such as pay and equipment; systems of accountability within departments, courts and the law; and cultural traditions that inhibit the development of professional police standards (Africa: Business Against Crime Conference, 2007).

Police corruption exists because police culture embraces and protects officers even when they intentionally kill an innocent person. Police culture is an outgrowth of the group camaraderie that links men who continually confront the dangerous and morally ambiguous world of the streets. A distinct ethic and code of behaviour distinguishes the insulated world of police culture and differs significantly from those outside the police world. Also integral to police culture is a tendency to close ranks in silence and cover up knowledge of an officer's wrongdoing with a collective blanket of self-preservation (Weisburd *et al.,* 2001).
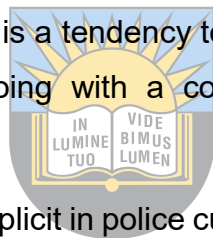
The mentality of "us versus them" implicit in police culture not only sets officers apart from ordinary citizens and creates a barrier to full involvement in the community, it also has a profound impact on the dispensation of justice (Weisburd *et al.,* 2001). That is because an officer's sense of group identity can supersede his legal responsibility to testify against colleagues who have violated the law. The average police officer finds it difficult to betray fellow officers, even when those officers are involved in criminal matters; when he puts their welfare above his own integrity, he confirms the intimate ties that bind police officers (Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date, citing Weisburd *et al.,* 2001).

An entrenched spirit exists because officers depend on each other for their very lives as they confront the violent and hostile world of policing (Journal, Economics and Studies, 2016). Every police officer knows that neither ordinary civilians nor the law will save him in the wee hours of the morning as shots crack out through the air; only a brother officer will do that. He owes that brother officer his unquestioning allegiance and complicit silence; and within this code of silence is the inherent flaw of a police culture that sanctions its members' lawlessness, particularly when race, ethnicity or economic class

motivates an officer's actions. Indeed, the harm that police corruption can inflict on the moral authority of law enforcement is its greatest danger because it undermines both public trust in the law and the ability of the police to do their job (Rauch, 2012).

2.4.1. Recruitment

In order to understand police corruption, a global phenomenon with grave social repercussions, it is necessary to examine its basic element, which is police officers. Who are police officers that police departments recruit? How are they trained? And what are the criteria for promotion? Answering these basic questions involves determining whether departments have procedures to do adequate background checks on recruits, psychological tests that accurately measure their suitability for police work, impartially administered written and physical examinations and training that imparts integrity and self-control. Police departments in which corruption is rife generally have weaknesses in these basic areas (Burberry, 2014). As a result, some of their officers have dangerous criminal tendencies that undermine confidence in law enforcement.

In New Orleans, United States of America, for example, lenient recruitment procedures allowed a woman with murderous instincts into the police force (Heslop, 2015). Antoinette Frank initially failed the civil service psychiatric evaluation upon applying to the New Orleans Police Department in 1993. Undeterred by this rejection, Ms. Frank hired her own psychiatrist to find her fit, and this initiative earned her a place in the department when a second civil service psychiatrist found her suitable after comparing the two previous evaluations.

In Mexico, some officers are also criminals because the country is only in the incipient stages of setting up a computerized database to check applicants' records ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date). Departments have little means of determining whether applicants have been fired by another department or convicted of crimes elsewhere in the country, a serious liability in a nation where many applicants have a personal history involving lawbreaking, violence and drug consumption ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date) . As a result of inadequate background checks, Mexican police departments have unwittingly let too many unsavoury characters

enter their ranks. Some recruits have ties to distributors of narcotics or stolen goods and see police work as an opportunity to expand their distribution and sales network. Others have been police officers for most of their lives and have wandered from one department to another, after being discharged for violent behaviour, corruption or links to drug trafficking('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date citing Botella and Rivera, 2001).

Equally unreliable are recruitment procedures and examinations in rural India, where rich farmers perpetuate their economic advantage by paying their relatives' way into the police force. The practice of bribery plays such a substantial role in the recruitment process that it has spawned an underground industry, involving government clerks and retired policemen who lobby for persons seeking police jobs. Money also talks as recruits with supportive relatives bribe examiners during physical tests and obtain leaked test papers before written exams. The result of these antics is a law enforcement system in which the poor find it difficult to obtain police assistance.

2.4.2. Training

Training can theoretically mitigate some of the errors in recruitment and provide some important safeguards against corruption. It should give officers basic lessons in integrity, such as respect for citizens' rights, a sense of civic duty and self-control. It should teach them limits of their authority and give them a basic understanding of the law, so they know when they are transgressing it. It should also instil a desire in officers to protect their integrity, not because they fear apprehension, but because they know corruption is wrong (Prenzler and Ronken, 2001). In short, training in integrity should produce officers committed to the ideal that they embody the "thin blue lines", as Americans call it, between order and disorder, between honest citizens and hoodlums. Unfortunately, officers in some countries come away from training with a fuzzy conception of this symbolic barrier against crime and anarchy. Poor training methods only serve to exacerbate blunders in recruitment that preceded them.

Poor training has been blamed for violent instances of some Argentine police officers. Among other things, Argentina's police have been accused of involvement in a bloody

terrorist bombing, the mafia-style murder of a journalist, drug trafficking and cattle rustling ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date citing Rotella, 1999). Police committed a third of the killings that took place in Buenos Aires during the late 1990s. The reason, according to the human rights groups that study the police, lies in bad training that fails to impart self-control or effectively define legal parameters of police authority. As a result, some Argentine police officers carry on as a law unto themselves (Bayley and Perito, 2011) citing (Andvig and Fjeldstad.

In an even worse scenario, training in Nigeria accounts for an unsettling mixture of greed and cruelty in some police officers. According to the Centre for Human Rights and Democracy, based in Eldoret, Kenya, Nigerian police recruits, whose trainers frequently torture and mistreat them, work out their aggression while handling suspects in jail. Suspects who encounter such officers can only be pitied, since there have been instances whereby Nigerian policemen tortured jail suspects for money. Odd as it may sound, however, these officers are simply practising lessons in brutality that they drew from their trainers ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date citing Too, 2002; Igbinovia 1985).
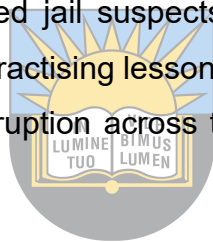
2.4.3. Lack of resources

This form of petty corruption largely stems from cultural and educational deficiencies, according to Mexico's elite. "Not so", say police in Mexico and other countries, who see it as the product of simple necessity: "Everything in this job is money!" (Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date, citing Botello and Rivera, 2000). That is the *cri de coeur* of a typical Mexican police officer as he tries to raise a family on about US$ 4,500 a year, besides paying for gasoline, uniforms and other basic equipment. Graft, bribery and extortion are integral aspects of survival for some Mexican officers, and for police officers throughout the world whose departments lack resources to pay them adequate wages and give them the basic tools that they require for their jobs.

In South Africa, Rauch (2012), published a new report under the Corruption Watch showing a marked increase in corruption within the very institution charged with protecting the rights of all South Africans, the police service. The report was taken from 1,591

whistle-blowers "who exposed corruption in different sectors across the country". The 2019 Analysis of Corruption Trends Report, the third edition of this half-yearly publication, revealed that for the first time, corruption in the police sector has overtaken other sectors such as schools, health and local government. The increase in corruption reports in both the police and health sectors is most likely the result of focused Corruption Watch campaigns in these areas intended to bring to light and address specific systemic corruption challenges (Rauch, 2012).

For example, in the South African Police Service (SAPS), the leading forms of corruption are abuse of power and bribery, which stand at 35.7% and 30.6%, respectively. The impact of the network of patronage within the SAPS frequently protects those engaged in corrupt activities but makes more vulnerable those trying to expose corruption in this critical sector (Somadiyono, 2014).

The report showed that SAPS 'corruption' accounted for 9.2% of all reported corruption up from 6.3% in 2018; followed by schools at 8.4% (10.8% in 2018). Municipal-related corruption was down to 6.4%, from 9.2% in 2018; however, health centres climbed to 3.6%, from 2.7% in 2018. Corruption at licensing centres was relatively unchanged at 3.4%. Collectively, these sectors accounted for a third of reports of corruption received between 1 January, and 30 June 2019. Gauteng received the highest number of reports of corruption, followed by KwaZulu-Natal, with the Western Cape and Limpopo sharing third place. The City of Johannesburg accounted for 27.5% of reports, followed by City of Tshwane (9.3). EThekwini Metro Municipality and City of Ekurhuleni accounted for 7.2% and 6.3% of reports, while the City of Cape Town accounted for 4.3% of reports.

Furthermore, a report produced by the Human Sciences Research Council indicated that 91% of those surveyed believe that corruption is a serious problem in South Africa. In the 2017/18 National Victims of Crime Survey, there were an approximate 134 422 incidents of corruption among 116 014 South Africans interviewed (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The report stated that out of these incidents, 59% were asked to pay a bribe to avoid a traffic fine, and 91% of the participants stated that they did not report the bribe (Statistics South Africa, 2017). There are many different approaches to reduce corruption found around the world. Some strategies include reforms by changing police culture,

recruitment, and training (Heslop, 2015). Other methods to reduce police corruption include police integrity tests (Prenzler and Ronken, 2001) and complaint profiles (Prenzler and Ronken, 2003). According to Newburn and Webb (1999), prevention and control strategies for police corruption can be categorized into the following (a) human resource management, (b) anti-corruption policies, (c) internal controls, and (d) external environmental and external controls.

Another example is Brazil, where the average police officer makes about US$ 300 a month and can go for years at a time without a raise ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date). Some Brazilian police officers have been able to supplement their meagre income by acting as "hit men" for organized criminal groups, a particularly lucrative side-line with the burgeoning of the illicit drug trade. In February 2000, one human rights group estimated that Brazilian police had participated in 2,500 killings since 1997, a figure that some law enforcement officials considered too low. In a partial state-by-state breakdown, this included more than 100 killings in Goias, 160 killings in Bahia and 500 killings in Acre, evidently one of the most violent areas in Brazil ('Core factors of police corruption across the world', no date citing Buckley 2000).

2.4.4. Political and economic environment

The phenomenon of corruption is strongly influenced by the political and economic environment. The more regulated and limited the economic activity in the country, the higher the authority and the power of officials in decision-making and the greater the possibility of corruption, since individuals are willing to pay or offer payment to avoid restrictions. A great potential for corruption is especially where officials are under regulation given the opportunity to decide on the basis of discretion.

The level of corruption is also affected by the monetary policy. Vilakazi and Ngantweni (2015), in their research, found a strong link between monetary policy and corruptive activity in the States. States that have a well-regulated financial sector and not a lot of informal economy or black market are less corrupt than those where the opposite is true. They also found that there is less corruption in countries with higher economic and political freedom. Benson (2009) puts it well in his claim that the level of efficiency of

public administration determines the extent to which corruption can find fertile soil and sprout. Such efficiency is determined by the quality of regulations and permits, since ineffective and unclear regulations help to increase the level of corruption in at least two different ways:

- Artificially created monopoly of power that enables civil servants to obtain bribes is based on their superior position embedded in the system; and
- On the other hand, ineffective and unclear regulations cause inhibition and encourage persons to pay bribes to speed up bureaucratic procedures.

Corruption is also strongly influenced by low salaries of public administration employees (state officials), who are trying to improve their financial positions by receiving bribes; consequently, the socio-economic situation of government officials also affects the phenomenon of corruption. This is demonstrated also by Chappell and Piquero (2004) in their study where they found that corruption arises because agencies, institutions and the government can no longer control corruption effectively due to underpaid officials, which is a problem especially in the developing countries, where they do not have the sufficient tax revenue to properly reward the local officials.

However, low wages are not the only cause of corruption; the poor state of the public administration, which is a consequence of political "overcrowding" of officials, due to which loyalty usually prevails over professional standards, also strongly affects the corruption. As an important factor influencing corruption, some authors also indicate that the more officials are dissatisfied with their work or place of work, the higher the degree of corruption, which is confirmed by Wirth and Sardoska (2019) in their study. The above-mentioned authors also found that the private sector has higher ethical values, in particular those that affect satisfaction with work than the public sector which is less unethical (especially regarding thefts and corruption).

Indirectly, Bruce (2014) affirms this and states that in principle, the salary level of civil servants affects the receipt of a bribe (the higher it is, the smaller the chance that the person will act corruptly). He continues that a higher salary strengthens the negotiating power of the official, which leads to higher bribes and that, on the basis of existing

research, it is very difficult to determine whether a higher salary causes less corruption, which means that the level of the salary is not a decisive factor, but merely one of many.

The political influence of corruption is also manifested through the proverb: examples are attractive! If the top layer of politics (government, parties and leading politicians) is corrupt, then corruption shows at all levels, and this spreads among the ordinary population, as nobody trusts the institutions or the rule of law. Bruce (2014) points out useful thinking in terms of two types of equilibrium: the balance between the openness and the autonomy of the institutions and elites it leads and the balance between political and economic power and opportunities for cooperation. Ideally, institutions should be open to influences and feedback from different sources, yet at the same time sufficiently independent to effectively carry out their work.

Where the openness and independence of the institutions are in balance, officials are accessible, but not excessively exposed to private influences; if they can make authoritative decisions, while not using their power to arbitrate, the corruption is relatively low (Pickworth, 2016). Nonetheless, where the official power is poorly institutionalized, too exposed to private influence, and officials' independence is reflected in excessive exploitation of their power, they can do as they please and as such, the possibility for extreme corruption is high.

2.4.5. Habits, customs, traditions and demography

A study by Masoud *et al.* (2013) sought to find out which groups of people are more likely to pay for corruption. They found that those who think that there is a lot of corruption also perceive it so and are consequently more willing to pay for it (as they think or expect the society to function that way). By using a wide and very heterogeneous set of data and econometrics, it has been shown that the social status and personal characteristics also play an important role in shaping corruption perceptions at the micro level.

While divorced women, unemployed persons, persons working in the private sector or the self-employed are considered to be in positive correlation with the perception of corruption (corruption is perceived more and they are more willing to pay bribes), the opposite applies to married persons, full-time employees, people who frequently attend religious

ceremonies and people with at least secondary education (they perceive less corruption and are also unwilling to pay) (Masoud *et al.,* 2013).

According to classification of countries, they found that it African and Asian countries are in the upper half of the table, and the same applies to former socialist countries and most East Asian countries (Masoud *et al.,* 2013). People living in these countries perceive more corruption than others. On the contrary, most European countries and some former English colonies show lower perceptions than the average (there are also exceptions) and rank in the lower half, the same as half of the richest countries (Wirth, 2019).

They also added that the geographical classification of countries has been strongly correlated with the corruption perception index (CPI), which shows that individual characteristics and social conditions are specific factors that influence the perception of corruption. However, they have also found that better economic results reduce the perception of corruption, while macroeconomic instability and income inequalities have precisely the opposite effect.

2.5. PERCEPTIONS ON CORRUPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS

Corruption is a global phenomenon found in every society since time immemorial. In ancient times, judges received bribes in Egyptian, Babylonian and Hebrew societies. In Rome, bribe was a common feature in elections to public offices. In France, judicial offices were sold during the fifteenth century. England was described as a 'sink-hole' of corruption in the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries. In the nineteenth century, corruption was so rampant in Britain that Gibbon described it as the most infallible symptom of constitutional liberty.

Peiffer (2019) noted that when South African President, Cyril Ramaphosa took office following the resignation of Jacob Zuma in early 2018, he quickly identified fighting corruption and restoring the integrity of public institutions as one of his top priorities. In his maiden speech to parliament, he said:

> *A new dawn is upon us, and a wonderful dawn has arrived … This is the year in which we will turn the tide of corruption in our public institutions.*

This was celebrated in the world's media even as the scale of the challenges facing him were set out in detail. Perceptions of how South Africa's corruption compares to other nations have worsened in the last decade: the country was ranked 43rd out of 179 countries on Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index in 2007, in which a lower ranking indicates a control of corruption, but had risen to 71st out of 180 countries a decade later, in 2017 (Africa: Business Against Crime, 2017). Indeed, South Africa has recently been described as possessing a unique political criminal climate of corruption.

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. (Africa; Business Against Crime, 2017). 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 to secure convictions of suspects, for example, through 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.
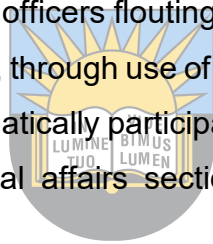
Fifteen years ago, Transparency International's Global Corruption Barometer (GCB), a household level survey, posed the question to its South African respondents: if given a magic wand that could eliminate corruption from one institution in the country, what institutions would you wave it at? The police garnered the most votes: almost a quarter of South Africans volunteered the police as their first choice, while only 4 % named the courts, by comparison (Politics and Science, 2020). Faull (2010) writes that the reason why police corruption is such a salient issue is because 'the police represent the only visible point of support and hope for a safer future'. Perceptions of corruption in the police have likely been shaped by the many high-profile cases of corruption right at the top of SAPS. For example, in June 2001, the National Head of Organised Crime, Assistant National Commissioner Albert Eksteen, was arrested and faced more than 100 charges related to fraud (Faull, 2010). A year earlier, KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Head of Organised Crime, Piet Meyer, was charged with bribes and protecting criminal syndicates (Faull,

2007). Former Head of Crime Intelligence, Richard Mdluli, was also arrested on corruption and murder charges; although he was not convicted, he was relieved of his duties after six years on suspension (Faull, 2011).

Few cases, though, are as infamous as that of Jacky Selebi, the former National Police Commissioner (2000-2009). In 2010, Selebi was found guilty of corruption, fraud and racketeering for contravening Section 4(1)(a) of the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act (12 of 2004) (Vilakazi and Ngantweni, 2015). He was convicted of corruption after accepting bribes from drug dealer, Glenn Agliotti, in exchange for, among other things, top secret police reports (Fry, 2013). The track records of those following Selebi, as the National Police Commissioner, have been similarly unimpressive. Bheki Cele (2009-2012) replaced Selebi but was removed, as well, under suspicion that he was involved in corruption (Vilakazi and Ngantweni, 2015). Rhiah Phiyega (2012-2015) followed but was removed because of her lack of fitness to hold office rather than for corruption [19], although Khomotso Phahlane (2015-2017), Phiyega's replacement, was recently removed for involvement in corruption (Bruce, 2014).

In terms of lower ranking officers, SAPS annual reports show that relatively few police officers are ever arrested for corruption. From 2013/14 to 2015/16, SAPS annual reports show only two dozen police officials arrested for engaging in corruption and registered only eight corruption-related criminal convictions (Skenjana 2001). Corruption Watch, a South African anticorruption advocacy organisation, receives reports of corruption from citizens across the country, which it collects in person, or more frequently through telephone, e-mail, regular mail and social media platforms. According to its 2017 annual report, Corruption Watch received 2700 reports of police corruption between January 1st and June 30th, 2017. Reports of police corruption accounted for the second highest number of corruption reports received, while bribery was the leading type of corruption reported among the police (Peiffer, 2019).

If police officials can engage in corrupt activities with impunity, low arrest rates will inevitably coexist with high levels of corruption. According to Corruption Watch's report, this seems to be exactly the case. All of this makes the South Africa police an unlikely sector to emerge as a potential 'positive outlier' of bribery reduction.

2.6. POLICING LEGISLATION

Crimes that are laid down by legislation, such as corruption, are known as statutory offences, since they form part of statutory law (Joubert, 2013:4). In order to deal with corruption in the entire public service, a Legislative regime is required, both to introduce preventative measures and enable law enforcement agencies to deal with corruption. Van der Merwe (2001:2) proclaims that South Africa has been responsive in this regard through different pieces of legislation, bodies and mechanisms.

Faull (2007:1) indicates that key pieces of anti-corruption legislation, such as the PCCA Act, the Protection of Access to Information Act and the Protected Disclosures Act, remain poorly applied in many instances. Smit, Minnaar and Schenetler (2004:11) proclaim that some regulations, legislation and conventions below regulate and guide SAPS.

Table 2.1: National Anti-Corruption Framework

Tenets	Example
Regulatory framework	Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy
	Local Government Anti-Corruption Strategy
	National Anti-Corruption Programme
	Codes of Conduct
	Financial Disclosure Frameworks
	Procurement Policies
Legislation	The Constitution of the Republic South Africa Act, 108 of 1996
	The Criminal Procedure Act, 51 of 1977
	The Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act No. 12 of 2004
	The Promotion of Access to Information Act No. 2 of 2000
	The Promotion of Administrative Justice Act No. 3 of 2000
	The Protected Disclosure Act No. 26 of 2000
	South African Police Service Act No. 68 of 1995 Section 67 as amended by the
	South African Police Service Amendment Act No. 57 of 2008
	The Finance Management Act No. 1 of 1999 and the Municipality Finance
	Management Act, Act….2003

	The Financial Intelligence Centre Act, Act....2001
	The Prevention of Organized Crime Act No. 121 of 1998
	The National Prosecuting Authority Act, 1998
	The Public Service Act No. 103 of 1994 (as amended)
	Public Finance Management Act No. 1 of 1999
	Protected Disclosure Act No. 26 of 2000
	Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act No. 1 of 2011
Conventions	The United Nations Convention against Corruption
	The African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption
	The Southern African Development Community Protocol against Corruption
	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Convention on
	Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions

(Source: Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy, 2010:118)
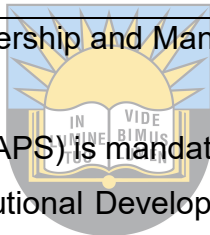
The South Africa Police Services (SAPS) is mandated by Section 205 of the Constitution (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2018) to prevent, combat and investigate crimes, including corruption. However, among South Africa's public, there is little faith in the SAPS' ability or willingness to do so. According to the South African Social Attitudes Survey, a nationally representative household level survey of citizens' attitudes, two-thirds of South Africans believe that the most corrupt government officials in South Africa are located in the national police service (as reported by Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (2018).

There are many legislative and administrative provisions in the Constitution that contribute to good governance and anti-corruption, but one particularly important structure is the Public Protector (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2018). Section 18 (291) of the Constitution allows the Public Protector to investigate any conduct in state affairs, or in the public administration in any sphere of government, that is alleged or suspected to be improper or could result in any impropriety or prejudice (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2018).

Prevention and Combating of Corruption Activities Act came into effect in 2004. Chapter 2 of the Act outlines offences in respect of corrupt activities (Bruce, 2014). These are covered under sections 3 to 21. The Act excludes members of the legislative authorities, the judiciary and the prosecuting authority. However, sections 7, 8 and 9 deal with these. It further separates agents and foreign public officials from the public officer in sections 5 and 6. Section 10 looks at corruption relating to employment. Part 4 of the Act refers to specific acts of corruption, including contracts, procurement processes, sports events and games of chance. Part 5 addresses conflict of interest and unacceptable conduct in the acquisition of public goods and services (Africa: Business and Crime, 2017). Part 6 provides for accessories to corrupt activities and attempting to, inducing or conspiring to commit corruption (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2008).

Table 2.2: Incidents of suspected corruption which were reported to the South African Police Service

(a) (i)		CASES OF SUSPECTED CORRUPTION, COMPANIES ACT		
		Received by Detective Service	**(b) (i) Under Investigation**	**(b) (ii) Successfully Convicted**
(aa)	2015/2016	494	35	53
(aa)	2016/2017	556	76	43
(aa)	2017/2018	584	127	36
(bb)	2018/Current	325	132	3
	Total	**1 959**	**370**	**135**
(a) (i)	**CASES OF SUSPECTED CORRUPTION AND BRIBERY**			
(aa)		**Received by Detective Service**	**(b) (i) Under Investigation**	**(b) (ii) Successfully Convicted**
(aa)	2015/2016	155	1	22
(aa)	2016/2017	191	9	36

(aa)	2017/2018	235	13	41
	Total	**581**	**23**	**99**

Issued by: The Independent Police Investigative Directorate. (2019). Independent Police Investigative Directorate Annual Report 2018/19.

2.6.1. The Constitution

The Constitution of the Republic of South African Act No. 108 of 1996 established precedents according to which a State is governed (McKean, 2005). The Constitution is a set of fundamental principles and the supreme law of the country (Smit *et al.,* 2004:26). Any law or conduct that is not consistent with it is invalid (South Africa, 1996). The Constitution of South Africa ensures a high standard of professional ethics and building SAPS" integrity framework (Ramsingh and Dobie, 2006:2). The community depends on the police to protect the full range of human rights through effective enforcement of the country's Criminal Law (Mishra, 2005:5). A distinct feature of the Constitution is the inclusion of a Bill of Rights (Joubert, 2013). Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 entrenches the fundamental rights of all people and is called the Bill of Rights (Swanepoel *et al.,* 2014:2). The Bill of Rights is the cornerstone of democracy in South Africa, and it enshrines the rights of all people in our country (Burger, 2009:3).

Marx (1999) is of the opinion that the police are both a major support and threat to a democratic society. The South African Constitution protects community freedom by placing limits on police powers such as the freedom of assembly. However, the police forcibly dispersed several demonstrations over poor delivery of basic services by using force (US Department of State, 2010). Thus, police corruption undermines fundamental human rights, endangers the stability and security of societies, undermines values of democracy, and jeopardises the rule of law (Joubert, 2013:193). Police officials are legally obliged to respect and protect the rights of community members to promote and fulfil those rights (Smit *et al.,* 2004:26-27) and perform their duties in a manner consistent with goals of the Constitution (Swanepoel *et al.,* 2014:22). Furthermore, it provides the basis for fighting corruption and promotes good governance (Van der Merwe, 2001:2).

2.6.2. The Police Act

According to Section 13 (1) of the SAPS Act No. 68 of 1995, police officials may exercise powers and perform duties and functions assigned to them by Law (Smit *et al.,* 2004:28). The Police Act No. 7 of 1958 broadened the mission of the SAP to maintaining law and order and investigating and preventing crime and gave the police extraordinary powers to quell unrest and conduct counter insurgency activities (Winslow, 1996). Then the Police Amendment Act No. 70 of 1965 empowered the police to search, without warrant, any person, receptacle, vehicle, aircraft, or premises within two kilometres of any national border, and seize anything found during such a search. This search-and-seize zone was extended to within ten kilometres of any border in 1979 and to the entire country in 1983 (Winslow, 1996).

2.6.3. Police Powers

Policing powers refer to police officials by law and include everything they are legally authorised to do (Smit *et al.,* 2004:27). According to William Pitt (1770), "Unlimited power is apt to corrupt the minds of those who possess it," while Baron Acton, in the 19th Century expanded the notion into "Power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely" (Campbell, 2002: xi). Policing powers only confer discretion to act; this requirement compels police officials to carefully consider and evaluate the impact of their powers on individuals (Joubert, 2010:15). The Criminal Procedure Act places strict limitations on circumstances in which powers may be exercised (Joubert, 2001:20). Police powers may also create opportunities for wrongdoing, especially under poor supervision and poor leadership (Dunn and Caceres, 2010). Accordingly, the law prohibits certain kinds of conduct such as police corruption (Joubert, 2010:11). The Constitutional limitation clause, the exclusionary rule, and the right to just administrative action have influence on policing powers (Smit *et al.,* 2004:29).

2.6.4. Strategic Plan for the SAPS

In terms of the Police Act, Chapter 5, Section 11 (2), the National Commissioner should submit the Strategic Plan for the SAPS before the start of each financial year (Smit *et al.,*

2004:19). The purpose of the Strategic Plan is to improve the service delivery of the SAPS in all communities (South African Police Service (e), 2002:11). One of the SAPS strategic priorities is "to intensify the fight against crime and corruption" (South African Police Service (f), 2010:4).

Research into why police bribery was reduced in Limpopo highlights the role of an unprecedented if unrelated national government anticorruption intervention into the province. From 2011 to 2015, the national government intervened in the province by effectively taking control of five influential provincial departments, none of which were directly related to the police sector. As part of this intervention, many high-profile corruption investigations were conducted, though not directly targeted at the police. This points to the effect on police bribery as a potential 'benign side effect' rather that a direct intervention effect. As Peiffer, (2019) describes: 'Benign side effects are relatively common. Not infrequently, governments or at least, lucky ones undertake a policy for one reason and find that its implementation turns out to be useful for other goals'.

With regard to public service delivery, Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996 lays down that SAPS has a responsibility to prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and uphold and enforce the law ('Police corruption: a threat to South Africa's democracy', no date). According to the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), the SAPS' vision is to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa. Its mission is to prevent anything that may threaten the safety or security of any community; investigate any crimes that threaten the safety or security of any community; ensure that criminals are brought to justice and participate in efforts to deal with the root causes of crime (Faull, 2007 citing SAPS Act, 1995: Act 68 of 1995).

Section 195 (1)(h) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, provides that, "good human resources management and career development practices must be cultivated to maximise human potential" ('Police corruption: a threat to South Africa's democracy', no date). According to Police corruption: a threat to South Africa's democracy (no date), Human Resources Development (HRD) refers to an integrated use of training and development, organisational development and career development to

individuals, groups and organisational effectiveness. Therefore, HRD should focus on police ethics, education and training to develop police officers' skills, knowledge and attitude to enhance effective implementation of an ethical framework.

2.7. GLOBAL AND REGIONAL MECHANISMS IN FIGHTING CORRUPTION

Globalisation has fuelled trans-national corruption, both in the private and the public sectors (Newburn and Webb, 1999). To tackle this, the United Nations adopted a Convention against corruption in 2003. The UN Convention outlines responsibilities of the signatory countries in the creation of legislation to combat corruption. It envisages promoting integrity, accountability and proper management of public resources and provides definitions and clear guidelines on what constitutes an act of corruption in the public and private sector and in trans-national activities. It further recommends actions that should be taken to strengthen the organisational capacity of governments to deal effectively with corruption.

The African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption was also adopted in 2003, just before the UN Convention. The former's purpose is to provide a framework for combating, preventing, detecting and eradicating corruption in member states through policy coordination and legislation (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2008). The AU Convention acknowledges the negative impact corruption has on the development agenda and the need for cooperation between states to combat it (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2008). The SADC Protocol against Corruption came into effect in 2001 with similar aims as the AU Convention, with the hope of strengthening cooperation between states to deal with corruption and harmonise legislation and policy.

Overall, the objectives of all three agreements are complementary. Central to the guidelines that they provide are definitions of what constitutes a public official and different act of corruption (Andvig and Fjeldstad, 2008). The definition of a public official is crucial in determining whether corruption has taken place. It must be noted that the three protocols do not have the same definition of a public officer, with the UN providing a broader explanation while the other two are more specific.

According to the National Anti-Corruption forum:

The most critical element in the fight against corruption is the culture and ethos in government and civil society that should permeate everyday activities. The ethos and culture within government and civil society can be built through communication and training, most importantly, through a process of continual dialogue on ethical issues. In the absence of a positive ethos, even the best rules, systems, procedures and institutions will not be able to curb corruption and unethical behaviour.

In view of the above, police corruption has roots in both police institutions and the societies that engender them. Corruption exists because many departments are not doing a good job of hiring, training, paying and disciplining their officers. It is fostered by vague laws that give police too much discretion and judges who give them too much leeway. It is concealed by a police culture that dispenses rough justice of the streets and closes ranks around renegade officers. It is also sanctioned by cultural mores that stoically accept corruption as an everyday inconvenience rather than fuming against it.

Laws must be passed with zero tolerance for corruption. Government must give departments enough resources to provide their officers with the training and equipment required to carry out their responsibilities; police must, of course, be paid adequate wages (Rauch, 2012). Appropriate monitoring procedures must be established to ensure that police serve the public in accordance with the law, rather than becoming a law unto themselves. Law enforcement agencies must establish a strong code of ethics as a guide and ensure that all officers understand it, that it becomes second nature through training and the example of command reinforces its importance (Pickworth, 2016).

In addition, mechanisms must be established to detect and suppress corruption at the earliest possible stages (Core factors of police corruption across the world, no date). Such mechanisms might include early warning systems, such as Risk Analysis Management System (RAMS II) and Integrated Quality of Service Indicator (QSI), developed by the Police Foundation of Washington, D.C., which help identify and assist troubled officers before they engage in serious misconduct 'Core factors of police corruption across the world, no date). They might also include independent external review groups or federal investigation programmes, such as the Police Misconduct Pattern or Practice Program of the United States Department of Justice. While such measures cannot eradicate all the

underlying sources of corruption, they do have the potential to restore public trust in the police as the most visible arm of government and the law.

Fry (2013) reveals that a review of international guidelines on anticorruption and anti-corruption strategies from developed countries reveals that most strategies are anchored on the following elements:

- Access to information and transparency

Greater access for citizens and news media to government information, including budgets, detailed information on government revenue, disclosures of top public officials and politicians of all financial interests and transparency of political party finances.

- Oversight and watchdogs' mechanisms

A national anti-corruption hotline, the verification of qualifications of all potential incumbents in the public service, opposition parties and civil society acting as watchdogs over government activities, parliamentary oversight, the creation of a national non-statutory independent body to advise and coordinate the implementation of anti-corruption policies.

- Criminal Justice Response

Legal protection for whistle-blowers, tougher legislation enabling more prosecutions and harsher sentences for corruption, more resources to investigate and prosecute corruption cases, the creation of special anti-corruption courts, a single dedicated agency to fight corruption, fighting organised crime and prosecution of high-profile individuals.

- Moral and ethical values

Codes of conduct to promote professional ethics in government, increased commitment by political leaders to fight corruption and fraud, more emphasis on moral values in schools and religious community, as well as a greater emphasis on promoting moral values in everyday life. Public service reforms is the barring of corrupt officials from holding public office, increased salaries and bonuses for government employees, greater internal financial controls, internal audits on government spending as well as the blacklisting of businesses proved to be involved in corruption.

South Africa's anti-corruption strategy is informed by, and is in line with, international approaches. Yet the problems of corruption and unethical leadership appear to be worsening. There is little to fault with the design or development of the local anticorruption strategy as the key issue lies with the implementation of the strategy. To understand the shortcomings in its implementation, one needs to look at the laws and policies around anti-corruption as well as the performance of enforcement agencies.

2.8. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Corruption occurs in various workspaces, and LEAs are not immune to its detrimental effects. Like other forms of crime, corruption is often explored using various criminological and sociological theories (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). These theoretical frameworks play an important role in understanding why some individuals turn to deviance and crime, while others do not. Likewise, it is important to include a theoretical framework of corruption to understand why some officers turn to corruption within Law Enforcement Agents. For the purpose of this article, social learning and differential association theories were explored.

- The differential association theory aims to explore the conditions which are said to cause crime when they are present, and when they are not present then crime should not occur (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). Differential association is summarized into nine key points: Criminal behaviour is learned;
- Criminal behaviour is learned in interaction with other persons in a process of communication;
- The principal part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal groups;
- When criminal behaviour is learned, the learning includes techniques of committing the crime (which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes simple) and the specific direction of motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes;
- A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law over definitions unfavourable to violation of the law;
- Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity;

- The process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anti-criminal patterns involves all mechanisms involved in any other learning; and
- While criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those needs and values, since non-criminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values (Burger and Grobler, no date).

Chappell and Piquero (2004) argue that this theory is related to police and the police subculture in which officers learn definitions. Policing researchers and police officers acknowledge the presence of a policing subculture. This subculture can make deviant and non-deviant behaviour possible by spreading beliefs, values and definitions from one officer to another (Chappell and Piquero, 2004)

The shared value system of the police subculture allows for officers to rationalize, excuse and justify deviance (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). The policing subculture is important to understand as it gives an explanation as to why social isolation occurs and officers are likely to withdraw into the subculture for support and approval (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). The isolation and withdrawal lead officers to spend more time with other officers, even outside of their jobs for social purposes. This social relationship strengthens the "bond" between the officers and adds to the transmission of beliefs, attitudes, values, and definitions from one officer to another in a learning process (Kappeler, Sluder and Alpert, 1998).

Albert Bandura first developed the social learning theory in 1977 and states that one learns by observing other people's attitudes, behaviour and outcomes of those behaviours (Razieh Tadayon Nabavi, 2016 citing Bandura, 1977). According to Bandura (1977), human behaviour is learned through observational modelling, where one observes others, forms an idea of how behaviours are formed and then uses this information as a guide for future action. Ronald Akers then extended this theory to explain how the learning process happens and how it can manufacture crime or deviance.

According to Chappell and Piquero (2004), Akers social learning theory is a development of Edwin Sutherland's differential association theory as a means to explain acts that violate social norms. In essence, the theory assumes that the same learning process one

goes through can produce both conforming and deviant behaviour (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). There are four variables that function to instigate and strengthen attitudes towards social behaviour. These four variables are differential association, definitions, reinforcement and modelling (Chappell and Piquero, 2004) According to Akers (2000), one's interactions with their peers develop favourable or unfavourable definitions of deviance. These definitions are then reinforced positively or negatively by rewards or punishments (real or perceived) that follow this behaviour (Chappell and Piquero, 2004).

Finally, one's social interactions and peers then provide a model of behaviour to follow (Chappell and Piquero, 2004). In short, the theory states that one's behaviour is determined by one's social groups. Therefore, if a law enforcement officer associates with corrupt officials, then that individual is more likely to model the behaviour of the corrupt officers (Chappell and Piquero, 2004).

2.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, a review of primary and secondary sources of data was consulted laying out an extensive foundation for the analysis of findings that the researcher obtained. Sources of data for this chapter included books, journals and government records on the South African Police Services SAPS. Also, the review of literature in this chapter showed that several scholars from all over the world have researched much about perceptions of police corruption.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents how the researcher conducted the study through discussing the research methodology, research design, purpose of the study, population and location, sampling procedures, data collection methods, data management and analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

Babbie and Mouton (2001:75) define research design as the "road map or blueprint according to which one intends to conduct research and achieve her/his research goals and objectives". In addition, Mouton (1996:175) proposes that research design is the way that a study is planned, structured and carried out with the aim of ensuring that the findings are valid. This research employed a case study design to explore the perception of Police Officers towards corruption activities in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province.

This study was largely exploratory in nature and drew on available literature related to governance and accountability in South Africa. Library and Internet searches provided a considerable amount of literature. Documentary sources used included published books, journal articles, magazines, as well as unpublished materials such as dissertations, and conference and seminar proceedings. Exploratory research aims to investigate under-researched phenomena and the prime purpose is to develop understanding in an area that is little understood. This research can generate ideas for further research and lead to the identification and/or determination of categories of meaning. This identifies plausible relationships shaping the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 1999: 33). The explanatory side of this research is mainly concerned with causes.

A qualitative design was used in this study as it has an unravelling capacity to generate data that adds richness, depth, nuance, context, multi-dimensionality and complexity (Flick *et al.,* 2004). Qualitative research provides rich narrative descriptions of the respondents' perspectives on the construction of reality of their social world. The purpose

of qualitative research is to understand social phenomena of multiple realities from respondents' perspectives.

3.2.1. Qualitative research

Qualitative writing tends to be rich with quotations, descriptions and narration, as researchers attempt to capture conversations, experiences, perspectives, voices and meanings. This is research with words instead of numbers (Abdul Hassan, 2014). A qualitative study is concerned with non-statistical methods and small samples, often purposively selected. The characteristics of qualitative research are that it is usually conducted in natural settings. Natural settings such as workplaces and communities have an overwhelming preference for qualitative studies (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). Akinyode and Khan (2018) identified the following as the main tenets of qualitative research:

- The extensive use of descriptive data since qualitative researchers are likely to describe a phenomenon with words, rather than with numbers;
- The emphasis is on process rather than on product;
- It is often based on inductive logic, going from specific to the general; and
- The search for meaning is often evident and focuses in qualitative research on how people try to make sense of their lives. How it is may be nearly as important in a qualitative study as how participants think it is.

Transcripts, conversations and videotapes may be studied to gain a sense of subtle non-verbal communication or understand the interaction in its real context (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). Therefore, the researcher engages in active collaboration with participants to address real-life problems in a specific context; these are directed towards the offering and implementation of feasible solutions to the problem.

Kivunja and Kuyini mention that interpretivist views tend to show a preference for methods that do not only produce facts but analyse and describe the meaning of the social world (situation). Louis (2010) proceeds to indicate that primary analytical methods used in interpretative research are grounded theory and expansion analysis. Use of these methods points to use of qualitative data-gathering methods, which suggests that data are generated mainly through interactions like conversations and interviews. Sonmez

(2013) mentions that research problems are usually formulated in order to address "real-life" problems. These are problems related to everyday life in the social and physical world, like corruption, unemployment, transformation, discrimination, violence, behaviour and conduct of citizens, and many more.

3.3. POPULATION OF THE STUDY

A population of the study is the aggregation of elements from which the sample is actually selected (Chigwendere, 2018). For the current study, the researcher chose topic-specific experts in the field of study as participants based on their specialised expertise and close involvement in police work and neighbourhood watch roles of some community members. This study population comprised police officials in the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area within the Crime Prevention Unit. Population in this study comprised members of the South African Police Service within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province.

The participants of this study were police officers from the Crime Prevention Unit. The population of this study were derived from five police officers from 10 police stations within the Polokwane Cluster Capricorn District Policing Area, namely: Botlokwa, Lebowakgomo, Polokwane, Westernburg, Seshego, Mankweng, Mashashane, Matlala, Mogwadi and Zebediela police station.

3.4. LOCATION OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province, South Africa. Polokwane was formerly (1886-2002) Pietersburg, a capital city of Limpopo province. It is located about midway between Pretoria and the Zimbabwe border, at an elevation of 4,199 feet (1,280 metres) and founded by Voortrekkers (Afrikaans: "Pioneers") in 1886 on land purchased in 1884 from a local farmer and named Pietersburg in honour of Petrus (Piet) Joubert, a Boer General (Formatter, no date). It was a temporary capital in 1900 of both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State during the South African War (1899-1902), and the British occupied Pietersburg in 1901. In 2002, the city's name was changed to Polokwane (Sotho: "Place of Safety") but looking at the current corruption

within the police force of Polokwane, the place has ceased to be the purported "Place of Safety".

Figure 3.1: Map showing the location of the study

(Source: Geographical Positioning Systems, Google Maps).

3.5. SAMPLING

Sampling refers to the selection of a subset of persons or things from a larger population, also known as a sampling frame with the intention of representing the particular population (Thi &Thanh, 2015). A non-probability sampling procedure was used for the selection of knowledgeable and experienced participants. The participants of this research, Crime Prevention Unit, were purposefully selected based on their occupation and familiarity with the concept of police corruption; the number of participants was further viewed as being sufficient. The sampling strategy used in this qualitative research study was a purposeful sampling strategy, and this was considered applicable sampling strategy since the researcher works as a police reservist in the same cluster. The

researcher has access to Senior Police Officials within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province, who also have better statistics of police corruption in the area.

3.5.1. Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling refers to sampling procedures in which all the persons, events or objects in the sampling frame have an unknown and usually different probability of being included in the sample (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2014) defines non-probability sampling as a sample in which the probability of each population element being included in is unknown. The researcher used purposive sampling to get respondents. Marvasti (2018) define purposive sampling as the act of selecting people or messages that will be needed to test a claim and in this study, the claim or default hypothesis for the researcher was about corruption within the police force in the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area.

The study opted for purposive sampling because it needed a sample which had particular features for the study. The particular features were (SAPS) officers in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area.

3.6. DATA COLLECTION

Data gathering is the accurate and methodical gathering of information which relates to identified research problems. This gathering can take place through interviews, participant observation, focus group discussion, narratives and case histories (Burns and Grove, 2003). The primary data obtained for this study was generated from fifty 50 interviews with five police officers from 10 police stations within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area, namely: Botlokwa, Lebowakgomo, Polokwane, Westernburg, Seshego, Mankweng, Mashashane, Matlala, Mogwadi and Zebediela police station.

To yield data for the qualitative investigation, different measuring instruments such as different types of interviews (standardized open-ended, semi-structured and structured), observations and content analysis or review of documents were employed (Bogopane, 2013).

In-depth interviews were used in this study. McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 42) state that the "in-depth interview merely extends and formalises conversation and is often characterised as a conversation with a goal." The open-ended nature of this research method allows respondents to answer questions according to their own frame of reference. For the purpose of this study, qualitative data was analysed using the thematic content analysis. Thematic analysis is used in qualitative research and focuses on examining themes or patterns of meaning within data. Coding is the primary process for developing themes by identifying items of analytic interest in the data and tagging these with a coding label.

3.6.1. Data collection instruments

The quantity and quality of information exchanged depend on how astute and creative the interviewer is at understanding and managing the relationship (Ellis and Levy, 2012). Interviewers are deeply and unavoidably implicated in creating meanings that ostensibly reside within participants. The circumstances in which a qualitative research interview takes place are highlighted below:

- Where a study focuses on the meaning of particular phenomena to participants;
- Where individual perceptions are to be studied prospectively;
- Where individual historical accounts are required of how a particular phenomenon developed: for instance, a new shift system;
- Where exploratory work is required before a quantitative study can be carried out; and
- Where a quantitative study has been carried out, and qualitative data are required to validate particular measures or to clarify and illustrate the meaning of the findings (Creswell, 2014).

For the purposes of this research, interviews were conducted according to a semi-structured interview schedule. This specifies pre-determined questions and sequences for the interviewer.

3.6.2. Data logging

This is the process through which raw data from personal interviews was recorded in a recorded sheet. The process is also known as data documentation, which is the next level after the data collection (Mohajan & Mohajan, 2018). Data logging served the purpose of documenting data collected through every form, researcher's description, feelings, view and insights as well as assumptions and ongoing ideas about corruption of police officers in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province. The process was highly interactive as it necessitated the researcher to go back to check against original data (field notes transcripts) to compare occurrences to identify specific issues.

3.6.3. Data coding

Abdul Hassan (2014) defined coding as the procedure of fragmenting and classifying text to form explanations and comprehensive themes in the data. It is the process through which the researcher gathers or 'tags' content related to a specific theme or idea. It aims at reducing data by sorting out the information transcript into manageable and meaningful transcript segments with the aid of coding framework.

Data coding in qualitative research means assigning labels or codes to different sections of text related with different problems. Akinyode and Khan (2018) described coding as an examination of discrete parts of data for differences and similarities either through the "Open" or through "Axial" coding method. "Open" coding aims at identifying discrete concepts while "Axial" coding is primarily to designate the manner in which links are made in new ways between groups and sub-groups (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). Coding helps in separating data into categories (nodes) or themes so that data from different sources can be easily organized and compared. Thematic network aims at exploring an understanding of a subject or denotation of an idea not to resolve contradictory explanations of a problem, which is a means of establishing a thematic analysis of qualitative data. Creswell (2014) categorized themes as ordinary, unexpected, hard-to-classify and major and minor data findings.

According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), ordinary themes are those a researcher might assume to find, unexpected themes are surprise themes that are not anticipated to surface during a study, while hard-to-classify themes are those that contain ideas that are

not easy to fit into one theme or overlap with several themes. Major themes represent major ideas while minor themes are secondary ideas within the database. The application of a Thematic network is a web-like network organizing principle representing procedures employed from text to interpretation, as shown in Figure 3.1; this is the hierarchical level of a basic theme, organizing theme and a global theme.

However, this technique does not intend or pretend to discern the foundation of arguments or the end of explanations; it simply provides a technique for breaking up text and finding within its explicit explanations and their implicit implication (Bogopane, 2013). The selection of phrases and words depended on research questions which the researcher intended to get answers for. In achieving this, the transcript of the information had to be read repeatedly for proper understanding of the minds of participants on the subject matter.

Figure 3.2: Structure of a Thematic Network
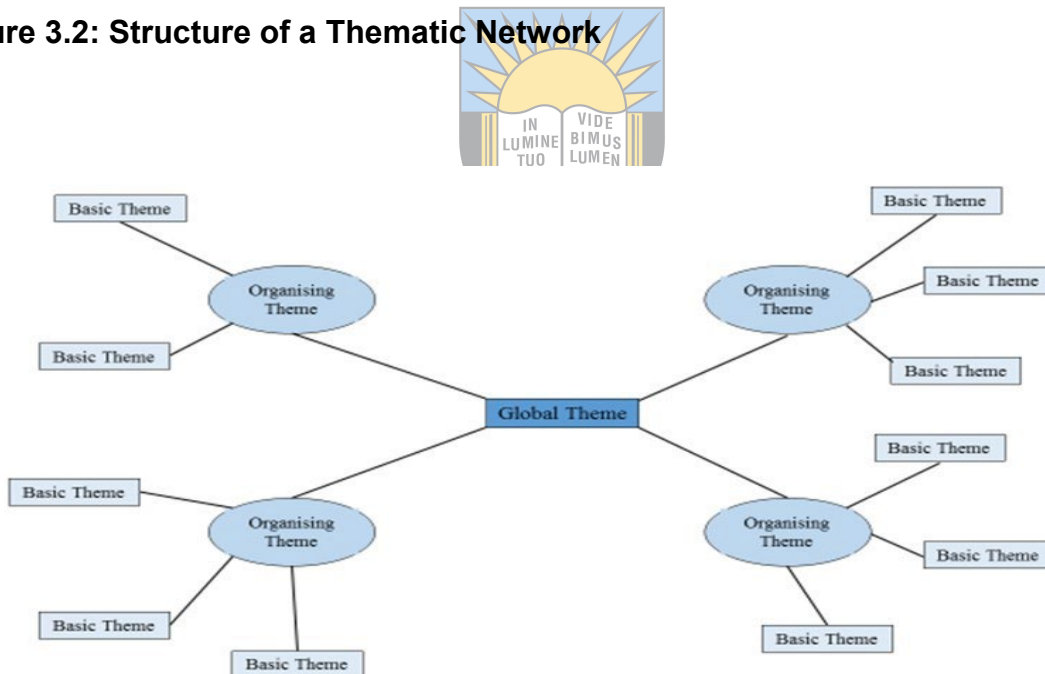
(Source: Attride-Stirling, 2001)

3.7. MEASUREMENT VALIDITIES

Validity is the primary concern of all researchers who gather educational data. Validity is the most important quality of a measured dependent variable (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

This is because validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure, yielding scores that reflect true variables being measured. In other words, validity refers to the soundness of the interpretation of scores from a test, the most important consideration in measurement.

Neuman (Mohajan and Mohajan, 2018) describes measurement validity "as how well an empirical indicator and the conceptual definition of the construct that the indicator is supposed to measure fit together". Although there are many types of validity, authors are generally in agreement that there are a few common techniques used to assess the validity of a measuring instrument.

3.7.1. Content validity

With regard to content validity, Smit (1991:56) distinguishes three types of content validity, namely, face validity, sample validity and factorial validity. Face validity, according to Jabbar (2017) refers to the relationship (similarities or correlation) between the researcher's description of concepts and his or her description of the categories measured.

As a measure of ensuring content validity in this study, the researcher distributed the research instruments to other fellow students and researchers to ascertain the relevance of the questions in relation to objectives of the study. To add, the other measure used to ensure that the content collected was valid was ensuring that all the questions address all matters concerning the study, as laid out in the objectives.

3.7.2. Face validity

In light of the purpose of this current study, face validity thus determines if the interview instrument after a superficial (on the surface or on the face of it) assessment, looks valid at first glance (the face of it) for a respondent (person) who has to answer the interview questions. That is to say, face validity does not refer to what items the interview schedule really measures, but rather what the researcher wants it to measure at first glance. In other words, each question or item on the measurement instrument has a logical link with

an objective. Broadly, the establishment of the referred link is called face validity (Bogopane, 2013).

3.7.3. Sample validity

Sample validity (logical) of measuring instrument as, for instance, interview questions are grounded on a representative sample of the content subjacent to the concept about which information is obtained (Bogopane, 2013).

3.7.4. Factorial validity

The factorial validity of a measuring instrument (interview questions) refers to loading of the research instrument with a general factor; in other words, it is the relation (correlation) which exists between the research instrument and a common factor, as measured by semi-structured interviews.

3.7.5. Internal validity

Internal validity is crucial to experimental research designs; it may be obtained by using at least two groups equal in respect of both the dependent variable and all nuisance variables. Jabbar (2017) believes that the internal validity of a research study is the extent to which its design allows the researcher to draw accurate conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships. To ensure internal validity of research, the researcher needs to eliminate any other possible explanations for results observed (Jabbar, 2017).

3.7.6. External validity

If a study lacks external validity, the assumption is that one is not confident that findings can be applied beyond the narrow confines of the study. One especially common threat to external validity is lack of random selection. When the sample does not reasonably represent the population, that would automatically imply that external validity is lacking and suggests four areas of doubt concerning the ability to generalize findings, namely:

- The researcher's inability to conceptualize performance indicators, so that other researchers can replicate the investigation;

- The researcher's inability to ensure that the investigative (experimental) and control groups are representative of larger populations;

- The researcher's inability to be confident that the operationalized variables in the experimental setting can be replicated in real-life situations; and

- The researcher's inability to be certain that internal validity variables such as history, maturation, pre-test sensation, test reliability and selection will not detrimentally affect external validity.

Two other forms of validity are construct validity and criterion validity. It was the purpose of this study to determine the perceptions of respondents on corruption within the South African Police Services (SAPS) Polokwane Cluster. Construct validity bears relation to assumptions underpinned by theory relevant to the concept. In an endeavour to ensure construct validity for the current study, interview questions were developed in alignment with theoretical underpinnings concerning rampant corruption within (SAPS).

Face validity was optimised by the conduct of a pilot test to verify the relevance and representativeness of various items to the intended setting. Criterion validity is seen as the ability of a measure to correlate with other standard measures of similar constructs or established measures. Given the fact that no other standard measure of similar constructs or established criteria was available, criterion validity was not established. Subsequently, it is in line with the research design adopted for this research.

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS

Marvasti (2018) defined analysis as the process of placing observation in numerical form and manipulating them according to theory arithmetic properties to drive meaning from them. Data analysis is the process of systematically searching the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials accumulated to increase an understanding and present the findings (Louis, 2010). The researcher organized and prepared data for analysis by reading through all data and narrative research project; lastly, the researcher interpreted the data findings.

3.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a philosophical term derived from the Greek word *ethos*, meaning character or custom and connotes a social code that conveys moral integrity and consistent values (Sönmez, 2013). Ethical issues and considerations have mainly to do with permission to carry out the research, participation of respondents, community and public as well as the process employed to analyse data (Ellis and Levy, 2012). Caution was taken to avoid any harm to participants in light of sensitivity of the research theme concerning responses about perception of Police Officers towards corruption activities in the South African Police Services, with close reference to the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area.

3.9.1 Informed consent/voluntary subject participation

According to Gray (2009:577), informed consent is obtaining of voluntary participation in research project based on a full understanding of likely benefits and risks. De vos *et al.,* (2005:21) cell informed consent as a "voluntary participation". The researcher abode with ethics by informing respondents and seeking permission from them to be part of the study. The researcher informed respondents what the study is about before interview questions were given to them and told that is their choice to be part of the study.
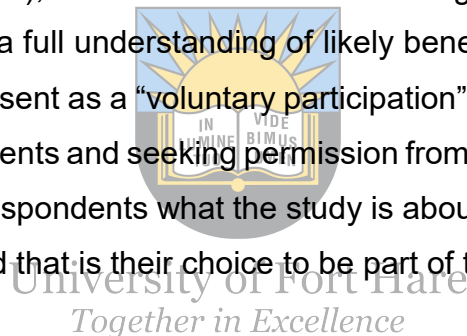
3.9.2. No harmful deception of the subject

According to Neuman (2000:93), in a social research ethical principle, never force anyone to participate in research and do not lie unless it is required for legitimate research reasons. De vos *et al.* (2005:70) describes the deception of a subject as "deliberately misrepresenting facts to make another person believe in stating facts, to make another person believe it is not true and violating the respect to which every person is entitled". The researcher did not use any lies for respondents to form part of the study. Informed consent was used and full information about this study was given to respondents for them to be part of the study willingly.

3.9.3. Anonymity and guaranteed confidentiality

Neuman (2000: 99) explains confidentiality as the subject remaining anonymous or nameless and the information may have names attached to it; the researcher holds it in confidence or keeps it a secret from the public. The researcher used confidentiality and anonymity for respondents to feel safe and protected when answering questions, knowing that the information discussed would be kept between themselves and the researcher. The *no usage of names* provided the researcher with information needed. The names of respondents were not recorded, and this made them feel comfortable when answering interview questions. The information provided by the respondents was not discussed with anyone but the researcher.

3.9.4. Credibility

Credibility refers to the degree to which the research represents the actual meanings of research participants, or the "truth value" (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). The credibility of research findings used to make policy recommendations is particularly important for ecosystem management; assessing the extent to which the reader believes the recommendations are credible, has implications for the expected success of implementation. When evaluating qualitative research, credibility stems from intended research purposes, and credible research decisions are consistent with the researcher's purpose, requiring researchers and practitioners to think critically and contextually when judging methodological decision-making.

Credibility can be demonstrated through strategies such as data and method triangulation (use of multiple sources of data and methods; peer debriefing (sharing questions about the research process and findings with peers who provide an additional perspective on analysis and interpretation); and member-checking (returning findings to participants to determine if the findings reflect their experiences. Both credibility and dependability relate to all aspects of the research design, including focus of the research, context, participant selection, data collection, and amount of data collected, all of which influence how accurately research questions can be answered (Deng, 1998).

3.9.5. Dependability

Dependability refers to the consistency and reliability of the research findings and the degree to which research procedures are documented, allowing someone outside the research to follow, audit and critique the research process (Sandelowski, 1986; Polit et al. 2006; Streubert, 2007). As a quality measure, dependability is particularly relevant to ecological and conservation science applications in the early stages of testing findings in multiple contexts to increase confidence in the evidence (Adams et al. 2014). Detailed coverage of the methodology and methods employed allows the reader to assess the extent to which appropriate research practices have been followed (Shenton, 2004). Researchers should document research design and implementation, including methodology and methods, details of data collection (for example, field notes, memos, the researcher's reflexivity journal), and reflective appraisal of the project (Shenton, 2004; Polit et al., 2006; Streubert, 2007). Reflexivity, which is a self-assessment of subjectivity, can reduce bias (when appropriate to do so) and increase dependability by increasing transparency of the research process (Marvasti, 2018).

3.9.6. Transferability

Transferability, a type of external validity, refers to the degree to which the phenomenon or findings described in one study are applicable to theory, practice, and future; that is, the transferability of research findings to other contexts (Mohajan and Mohajan, 2018). Transferability can be critical to the application of research findings because policy and management can rely on data, conclusions, and recommendations from a single or small number of research projects, often relying on evidence from a range of contexts that can be different to the one in which applications will be made. Thus, it is crucial that researchers clearly state the extent to which findings may or may not be relevant to other contexts.

From a positivist perspective, transferability concerns relate to the extent to which the results of particular research program can be extrapolated, with confidence, to a wider population. Qualitative research studies, however, are not typically generalizable according to quantitative standards, because qualitative research findings often relate to a single or small number of environments or individuals (Sönmez, 2013).

Consequently, the number of research participants in qualitative research is often smaller than quantitative studies, and the exhaustive nature of each case becomes more important than the number of participants (Thanh, Thi and Thanh, 2015). Often, it is not possible, or desirable, to demonstrate that findings or conclusions from qualitative research are applicable to other situations or populations. Instead, the purpose can be to identify and begin to explain a phenomenon where lack of clarity prevents it from being clearly defined.

3.10. PILOT STUDY

Alsamawi (2017) define a pilot study as a small study conducted prior to a larger piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis are adequate and appropriate. Chigwendere (2018) concurs that the pilot test in qualitative research allows the researcher to make use of actual qualitative interviews. According to Ellis and Levy (2012), the researcher can identify and correct imperfections by piloting interview questions with a select few in order to establish clarity. Piloting further assists in eliminating ambiguous questions, as well as in generating useful feedback on the structure and flow of the intended interview. Creswell (2014) summarises the purpose of the pilot study as follows:

- To detect possible flaws in the measurement process (such as ambiguous instructions and inadequate time limits);
- To identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items, in such a pilot study, the actual questions are put to participants who are asked to indicate how they have interpreted the formulated questions; and
- To provide an opportunity for researchers and assistants to notice non-verbal behaviour (on the part of participants) that may possibly signify discomfort or wording of the questions (Creswell, 2014).

3.11. SUMMARY

Chapter three discussed the research design and methodology. The main aim of the chapter was to reveal methods used when conducting data collection. This chapter also

discussed the study population, nature of the study population and location, purpose of the study, sampling, data collection method, data collection instrument and data management and analysis and ethical considerations.

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CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 offers presentation, interpretation, analysis and discussion of findings in this study on the perception of police officers towards corruption activities in the South African Police Service. In this study, data were collected from the Crime Prevention Units of Polokwane Police Station, Westernburg Police Station, Seshego Police Station, Mankweng Police Station, Mashashane Police Station, Matlala Police Station, Mogwadi Police Station, Lebowakgomo Police Station, Zebediela Police Station and Botlokwa Police Station.

4.2. BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

Section A of the questionnaire sought biographical details of participants.
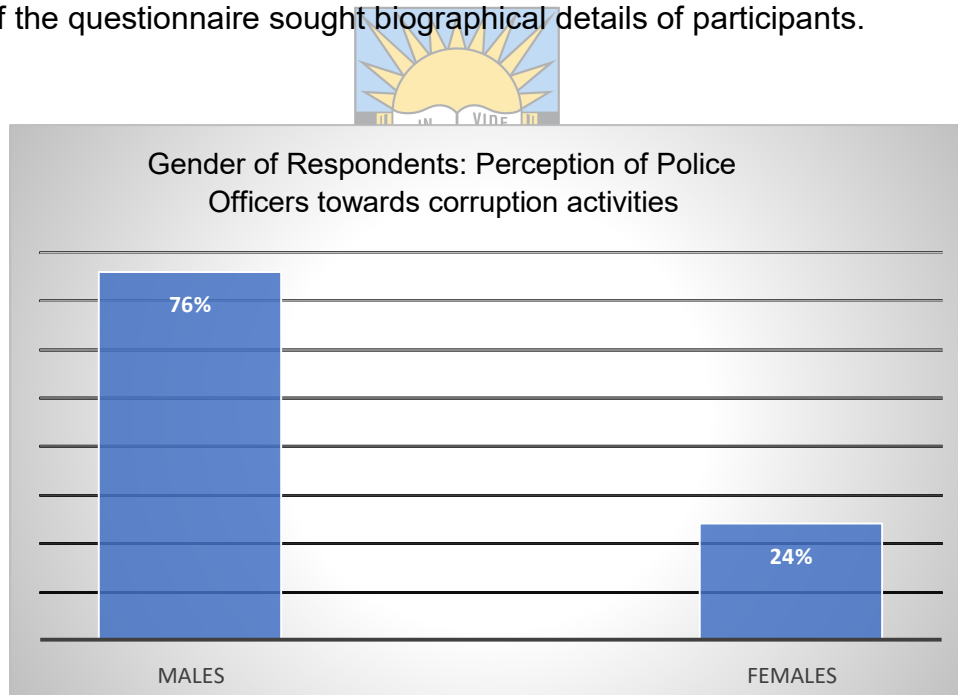
Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Figure 4.1 above displays data showing the gender of participants who took part in responding to questions in this study on the perception of police officers towards corruption activities in the South African Police Service. Figure 4.1 also shows that the

majority of participants in this study were males who made up 76% of the total population and women made up only 24%. The possible explanation for such gender differences in the Polokwane Cluster can be explained by the fact that generally, females are reluctant to take up policing jobs. The other reason why there are fewer female police officers is attributed to the fact that being a police officer is a job that comes with its own risks. Police officers' jobs require them to be responding to matters that are volatile and, in most cases, police officers, especially in South Africa, get killed for just simply doing their jobs. Therefore, these risks can partly provide reasons as to why there are more males than females in the South African Police Services (SAPS).

TABLE 4.1: AGE OF RESPONDENTS

Age	Number of Participants	Percentage Total
20-25	5	13%
25-30	12	23%
30-35	6	14%
35-40	8	16%
40-45	8	7%
45-50	11	10%
50-55	10	9%
55-60	4	3%
60>	6	5%
Total	70	100

From Table 4.1 above, it is noted that participants aged 25-30 constituted the greatest percentage of 23%, followed by participants aged 35-40 who made up 16% of the total population of this study. Participants aged 30-35 made up 14%, followed by those aged 20-25 who amounted to 13% of the total population for this study. Those aged 45-50 made up 10% of the total population, then those aged 50-55 contributed to 9% of the total population.

Furthermore, those aged 60 and above made up 5% of the study's population, then lastly, those falling within the ages of 55-50 constituted 3% of the population of this study.
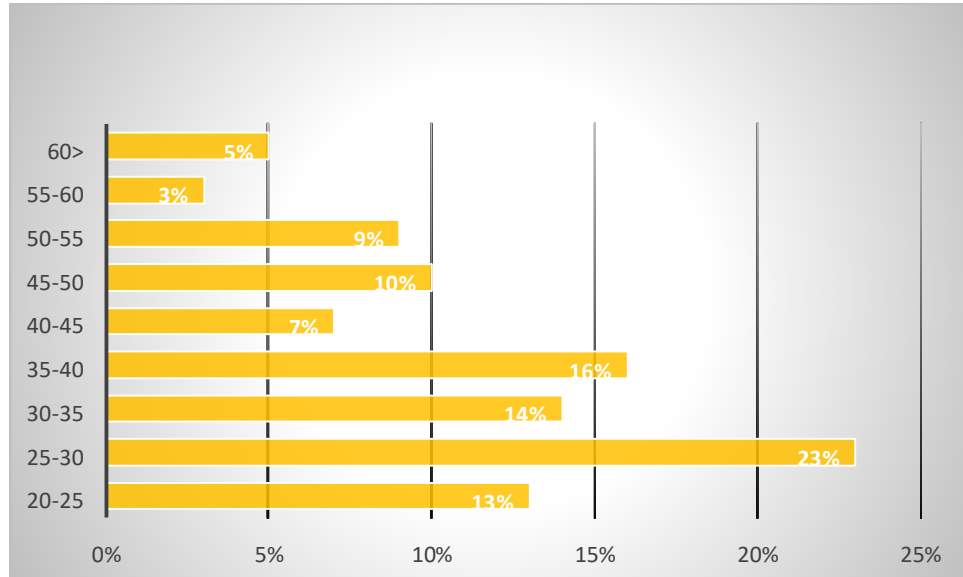
Figure 4.2: Age Range of Respondents

The majority of participants in this study were Black/Africans who made up 97% of the total number of participants, followed by Whites, who constituted 3% of the total population.

TABLE 4.2: HIGHEST QUALIFICATION OBTAINED

Gender	Number of Participants	Percentage Total
Secondary School	5	13%
Standard 10	4	11%
Post School Certificate/Diploma	5	13%
National Diploma/National Higher Diploma	13	34%
Bachelor's Degree/Equivalent	14	11%
Honours Degree/Equivalent	16	11%

Master's Degree/Equivalent	13	8%
Doctors Degree/Equivalent	-	0%
Total	70	100
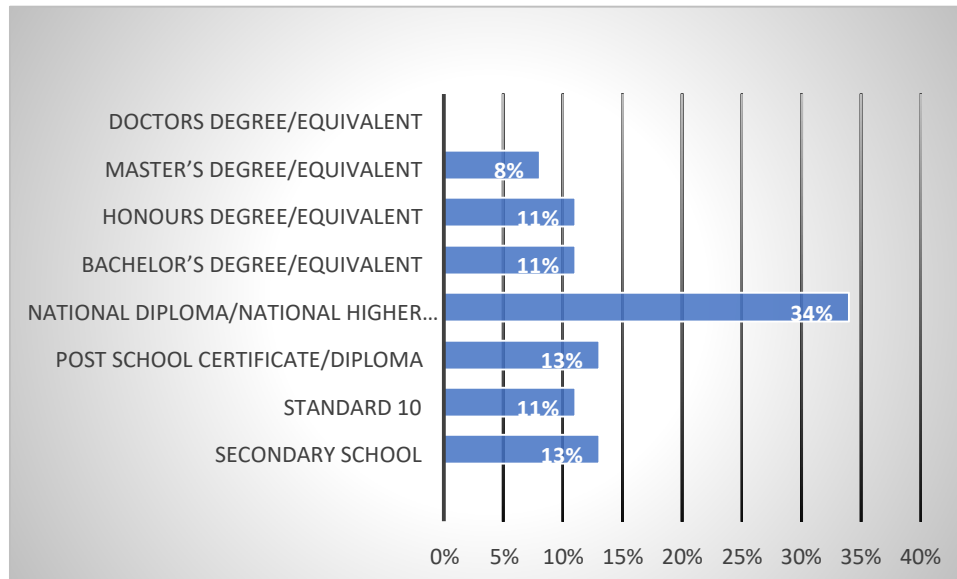
Figure 4.3: Respondent's Qualifications

Table 4.2 above presents data on the educational qualifications of the police officers who responded to questions in this study. Participants who possess National Diploma/National Higher Diploma made up 34% of the total population and were preceded by those possessing Post School Certificate/Diploma and Secondary School (Matric) who made up 13%. Lastly, those with Bachelor's degree/Equivalent, Honours degree/Equivalent and Standard 10 all made up 11% of the total populations of the study.

TABLE 4.3: SCHEDULE FOR VISITING POLICE STATIONS

NAME OF POLICE STATION	DATE	TIME	UNIT
POLOKWANE	28 JANUARY 2021	08H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
WESTERNBURG	28 JANUARY 2021	10H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
SESHEGO	29 JANUARY 2021	08H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
MANKWENG	02 FEBRUARY 2021	09H00	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
MASHASHANE	03 FEBRUARY 2021	08H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
MATLALA	03 FEBRUARY 2021	10H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
MOGWADI	04 FEBRUARY 2021	09H00	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
LEBOWAKGOMO	09 FEBRUARY 2021	08H30	CRIME PREVENTION &DETECTIVE UNIT
ZEBEDIELA	09 FEBRUARY 2021	10H30	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT
BOTLOKWA	10 FEBRUARY 2021	09H00	CRIME PREVENTION & DETECTIVE UNIT

4.3. SECTION B: THEMES

As the title of this study reads: "The Perception of Police Officers towards Corruption Activities in South African Police Services: A Case Study of Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province", the phrase "corruption activities" is more of the default theme under which other subsidiary themes have emanated from.

The overarching themes on this study on police corruption revolve around eight types of police corruption, as observed in findings gathered from South African Police Officers SAPS. The interpretation of findings in this study, through thematization is discussed the following themes:

TABLE 4.4: THEMES THAT EMERGED FROM THE COLLECTED DATA

THEME 1: FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTING TO CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES BY MEMBERS OF SAPS
Sub-theme 1: Nature of police corruption
Category 1: Causes of police corruption
Sub-category 1: Rotten Apple Theory/Overripe Fruit
Sub-category 2: Low/insufficient wages
Sub-category 3: Corrupting public (bribing)
Sub-category 4: Deviant behaviour
Sub-category 5: Lack of supervision
Sub-category 6: Code of Silence
Sub-category 7: Poor hiring practices
Sub-category 8: Interference of Politicians
Sub-category 9: Greediness
THEME 2: POLICE PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS CORRUPTION
Sub-theme 1: Views of Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area SAPS Members towards Police Corruption
Category 1: Effects of Police Corruption
Sub-category 1: Poor service delivery
Sub-category 2: Loss of credibility/trust from the public
Sub-category 3: Increase in crime rate
Sub-category 4: High rate of civil claims against the government/increased liability costs for the state
THEME 3: PREVENTATIVE MEASU RES
Sub-theme 1: Maintain a high standard of ethical conduct
Sub-theme 2: Establishing anti-corruption body
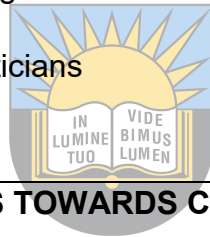
Sub-theme 3: Providing police officials with sufficient resources and equipment at the police stations

Sub-theme 4: Installing reforms within SAPS personnel recruitment

Themes and sub-themes identified in interviews with the Police Officers are presented below. The themes were derived through an extensive reading through of individual transcripts. Similar and contrasting patterns of expressions of emotions and notions of experiences of the Police Officers in the data were used to formulate main themes of the study. Data was presented and analysed according to themes that emerged from the data.

4.3.1. Theme 1: Police Corruption

The most prevalent theme overshadowing other themes is issue of "Police corruption" and it was the same issue that prompted the researcher into carrying out this study. The responses given by Police Officers in this study are evidence that there is a great deal of police corruption in South Africa. Police Officers in this study were able to recall an incident in which another Police Official was accused of corruption activities as evidence enough to sustain the argument that police corruption is an epidemic in South Africa.

4.3.2. Sub-theme 1: Nature of police corruption

Participants in this study cited various forms in which police corruption can take place, that is, the "nature of police corruption". Illustrated *verbatim* (unedited to capture their raw essence) below are some of the views of participants on the nature of corruption that they are familiar with:

Participant 1: *Corruption involves any exchange of either money or favour to someone's advantage*.

Participant 42: *Corruption activities are those activities whereby any person offer or request any payment or the reward or any advantage. It can also mean the offering,*

giving, receiving or soliciting of anything or value to influence the action of any public service, police or any other person.

Participant 3: *Corruption takes the nature of receiving a bribe with intend to gain something which you would not have been able to get in other circumstances.*

Participant 4: *Corruption is when an officer of law receives money from the suspect so that the suspect must not be arrested.*

Participant 55: *Corruption involves dishonest or fraudulent conduct of a member on receiving money or property using his/her position.*

Participant 10: *Corruption is by improper means to violate the duty by means of bribery and dishonest.*

Participant 11: *Corruption activities are those acts which involve bribery usually conduct which are done or led by people with power to gain something. Corruption is not only receiving bribery but also buying one's freedom by manipulating the system.*

Participant 12: *Corruption activities that took place between the corruptor and the corruptee whereby someone gave money to pay his/her silence. For instance, when a drug lord gives policeman money so that his activities or crimes he therefore cannot be arrested.*

> ➢ **Summary of findings**

Given wide-ranging views on the nature of corruption by participants, as indicated above, it is evident that corruption takes many forms but the generally held view amongst participants is that corruption is an unlawful act mainly committed for personal gain. Findings also show that when corruption takes place within Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area, there are usually two culprits, that is, the corruptor and the corrupted. A culture of corruption arises primarily from failure in four key areas namely: recruitment, training, and promotion; resources, such as pay and equipment; systems of accountability within departments, courts and the law; and cultural traditions that inhibit

development of professional police standards (Africa: Business Against Crime Conference, 2007).

4.3.2. Category 1: Causes of police corruption

Causes of police corruption have been identified to be multifaceted, as evidenced by various viewpoints expressed by participants.

4.3.3. Sub-category 1: Rotten Apple Theory/Overripe Fruit

In view of the responses given by participants, the "Rotten Apple Theory/Overripe Fruit" explains why there is corruption within the South African Police Service. This theory envisages that the presence of just one corrupt police official spoils all the good work by law abiding police officers. The verbatim responses given below indicate the existence of the "Rotten Apple" being the direct cause of corruption within the South African Police Service:
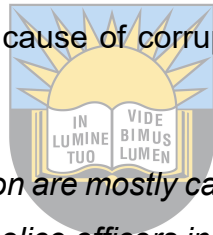
Participant 30: *Incidents of corruption are mostly caused by very few individuals because I as an individual believe that most police officers in our unit are clean and if there can be corruption allegations, I am sure that such will be directed to one or two individuals from the rest of us.*

Participant 35: *Yes, the names of police officers always get soiled due to one person and if one police official acts unlawfully, then it surely will affect all of us, it is just like that.*

Participant 38: *It happened just a few months on our station when one of our members got suspended due to involvement with cash in transit gangs, we ended up being despised by community members due to the action of just one individual.*

Participant 40: *Most of our police officers are law abiding officers but obviously. there will always be some other police members who will not be living up to the expected standard and that is why we are having this conversation of police corruption today, because if that was not the case, we would not be talking about this now.*

➢ **Summary of findings**

The responses presented above are evidence that the presence of just one corrupt police official has damaging effects on other police officials who may be carrying out their duty well. In all police stations visited, it became evident that they each had incidents where they refer to unlawful acts committed by one of their members who is supposed to be abiding by such laws. In South Africa, concerning the causes of police corruption, arguments revolve around one of three themes: the "rotten apple" theory, salary levels, and the "corrupting public" (Faull, 2007:7). Much has been written about the "slippery slope" theory, which claims that corruption begins with minor misconduct and escalates until it is serious (Newham and Faull, 2011:12). Dantzker (1997:159-160) articulates that some people blame police corruption on the "rotten apple" theory. The over-ripe fruit theory argues that actions of a small number of individuals tarnish the reputation of an entire organisation (Faull, 2007:7). Furthermore, Campbell (2002:238-239) suggests that those who believe in the theory of over-ripe fruit, as any police official found to be corrupt is regarded as a rotten apple.

4.3.4. Sub-category 2: Low/insufficient wages

On numerous occasions, participants indicated that low/insufficient wages that SAPS members receive are prime causes of corruption within the police service. Participants said that when wages that police officers are receiving are low, then these police officers will end up looking for some other unorthodox means to cover up where they lack financially. The prevalent idea among participants in this study was that if the salary of police officers is increased, then incidents of police corruption will likely be reduced. Participants' views on low/insufficient wages have been presented verbatim below:

Participant 25: *Poor wages contribute much in police corruption. Police Officers are underpaid, which influences them to compromise their official duties by taking bribes.*

Participant 26: *With the high cost of living and the wages not increasing, the incidents of corruption will somewhat become inevitable within the police service. Most police officers find it hard to make ends meet as a result of low payment from the government, and this creates room for corruption to take place.*

> ➢ **Summary of findings**

Low/insufficient wages has been identified as one factor among others fuelling corruption within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. When police are faced with a situation of finding it hard to live due to low pay, they are tempted to accept bribes from law breakers. However, low wages is not the only cause of corruption; the poor state of public administration, a consequence of political "overcrowding" of officials also strongly causes corruption. As an important factor influencing corruption, some authors also indicate job satisfaction of officials as another factor; the more they are dissatisfied with their work or place of work, the higher the degree of corruption, as confirmed by Wirth and Sardoska (2019) in their study. These authors found that the private sector has higher ethical values, in particular those that affect satisfaction with work than the public sector and is, therefore, less unethical (especially regarding thefts and corruption).

4.3.5. Sub-category 3: Corrupting public (bribing)

A large number of participants indicated that the "Corrupting public" or (bribing) was among the chief causes of corruption among SAPS members operating in Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. Members of the public usually approach police officers to offer them some small gifts when they know that they will need the assistance of that police official at a later stage. The idea of "Corrupting public" basically places the blame on members of the public in that they are the ones who push police officers into committing acts of corruption. The participants' views on the notion of "Corrupting public" are presented verbatim as follows:

Participant 18: *Exchanging of small gifts or goods between the police officials and members of the public is not bad because it will strengthen the community policing but on the other hand, those police officers cannot be effective if they have to deal against those community members*.

Participant 43: *Members of the public who seek favours of the police or who just want to please the police officers for no apparent reasons are the ones to be blamed for the problem of police corruption*.

Participant 57: *If for example, a member of the public is transporting or carrying something illegal they will want to first make a friendly gesture to police officials by offering them drinks or some other things so that when they are caught, the police will be lenient on them*.

➢ **Summary of findings**

Police officers within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area have frequently been reported to have informal ties/relationships with community members. This creates an environment where bribery is the expected behaviour, and willingness to comply by both the police officer and the civilian member is very low. However, the fact that a law-abiding police officer knows an officer involved in corruption activities do not necessarily exclude that corruptibility of the same person corrodes the trust of community members within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area towards a genuine intention to enforce regulations applicable for all community members.

Revelations by respondents suggest that their confidence in their work is diminished by bribery, and this decreases their willingness to comply. This would support the narrative in the literature of the corrosion of trustworthiness from corruption. Similarly, the puzzling role of trust is manifest in the material. According to Bayley and Perito, (2011:1) police corruption is a universal problem, but it is a particular challenge in countries in crisis and emerging from conflict. In certain instances, some of the community members encourage police corruption when it benefits them. Kleinig (1996) is of the opinion that those who are most interested in corrupting police officers may have little to lose and a lot to gain from their illegal activities. Police corruption has been understood largely as a problem of deviant police members responding to a toxic environment (Newham, 2002).

4.3.6. Sub-category 4: Deviant behaviour

Findings in this study show that deviant behaviour exhibited by some members of the South African Police Service is, in part, a causative agent of corruption within SAPS. Deviant behaviour generally refers to the practice of not abiding by codes of occupation within the police, for example, keeping a clean shave, avoiding being friends with individuals involved in criminal activities and obeying commands of the senior police

officers. Some of the participants' views on the effects of deviant behaviour among SAPS have been outlined verbatim as follows:

Participant 27: *Il-discipline, money management which leads to bankruptcy.*

Participant 30: *Senior police officers can be negligent in their duties, for example when a member takes the state vehicle and uses it without the permission of the Commander. Erecting roadblocks without the knowledge of the Commander.*

Participant 47: *Some junior police officials are just too rowdy, and this form of indiscipline is what makes things to get out of hand wherein members end up committing all acts of unprofessionalism such as taking bribes from community members.*

> **Summary of findings**

Deviant behaviour is characterized by corruption acts criminal and in violation of South Africa's laws. Findings in this study show that police corruption occurs within a variety of specific deviant patterns, which can further be discussed along: Acts and actors involved, the norms violated, support from the peer group, organizational degree of the deviant practices in question and lastly, reactions from the police department. Punch (2009:18) articulates that police corruption is committed when police officials knowingly do or not do something against their duty for personal gain. Police corruption involves various acts by police officials, placing their personal gain ahead of duty (Scaramella, Cox and Mc Camey, 2011:459). The authors further pronounce that it may result in the violation of police procedures, criminal law or both. Police corruption is the deviant behaviour guided by a clandestine set of norms. The State or police officials may be held liable for any damage arising from wrongful police action (Joubert, 2010:25). One example of police corruption is the dishonest, unethical, or criminal behaviour of a police official who steals property from a crime scene (Newham and Faull, 2011:5).

4.3.7. Sub-category 5: Lack of supervision

The revelations from participants in this study show that lack of supervision is among the chief causes of corruption within SAPS. It is generally known that some individuals, no

matter the age, will not function effectively in their occupations if they are not being closely supervised and when this happens to the police service, then corruption incidents will likely get out of hand. Participants reiterated that lack of supervision by senior police officials who are supposed to be looking after junior police officers will often lead to a spike in police corruption when such "checks and balances" are not serving their purposes. Responses given below show how lack of supervision necessitates occurrence of corrupt activities by SAPS members:

Participant 21: *Commanders seem to be ignorant when posting members while not checking movements of their subordinates when performing their duties.*

Participant 23: *A member who involves himself/herself in corrupt activities does not get permission from his/her senior. We cannot involve the senior since the corrupt activities are performed behind the senior's back.*

Participant 33: *I believe that each member of the SAPS is responsible for their actions as each one individually made an oath/pledge to the Code of Conduct and Integrity Management of SAPS to be honest police officers. We ourselves are responsible to earn the respect of the public.*

> **Summary of findings**

The response given above shows the element of wanting to escape accountability on the side of the senior police officials. The proper procedure when a police officer is involved in a corrupt activity is that the senior police official responsible for supervising the alleged corrupt officer should be held accountable. Some acts of corruption by police officials are caused by lack of supervision by senior police officers, which makes them part of the problem as well. Some of the factors that lead to police corruption include lack of supervision since most officers can double or triple their salaries through corrupt activities (Gaines and Miller, 2005:203).

4.3.8. Sub-category 6: Code of Silence

The Code of Silence maintained within SAPS has been singled out to be one of the major causes of corruption within the South African Police Service. The Code of Silence mantra maintains that some police officers may be obliged to keep quiet or look the other way when they see one of their colleagues involved in acts that can be classified as corrupt. This Code of Silence idea means that some of the corrupt acts committed by police officers may go unreported because the police service is ashamed, as an institution, that one of their members is involved in unlawful acts. Participants' views on the Code of Silence idea are presented verbatim below:

Participant 20: *Corruption activities do not have eyes. The other senior member will be afraid to tackle it if he/she was also once involved in some acts of corruption. Then it will only be tackled when such corruption activities are exposed by outsiders.*

Participant 31: *Within the police service, there is a code that we are all expected to abide by; that is to say that there is some other information that we are not allowed to reveal because it may compromise us. But I do not think that it will be fair for me to say that these codes of operation create room for corruption even though some members of the public might be having other thoughts.*
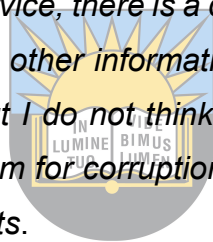
Participant 52: *It is really very difficult for another police official to report the actions of the other police official and in this case, some of my workmates. I do not consider that to be fair because in his life, I might as well find myself in the position of the other colleagues whom I will be reporting about. I was not employed to be a snitch on my work colleagues.*

➢ **Summary of findings**

Findings on the police code of silence show that these police officers would do everything to protect unlawful acts of one of their members to protect the name of SAPS. However, it should be said that maintenance of this code of silence has come at the expense of both the state and the public because this makes corruption by police officers to continue unabated. Police corruption exists because police culture embraces and protects officers even when they intentionally kill an innocent person. Police culture is an outgrowth of the

group camaraderie that links men who continually confront the dangerous and morally ambiguous world of the streets.

A distinct ethic and code of behaviour distinguish the insulated world of police culture and differ significantly from those outside the police world. Also integral to police culture is a tendency to close ranks in silence and cover up knowledge of an officer's wrongdoing with a collective blanket of self-preservation (Weisburd *et al.,* 2001). Police culture typically tends to be characterised by the so-called "code of silence" (Newham and Gomomo, 2003:1). Punch (2009:36-37) identifies police culture as having several elements, such as, solidarity, danger and sacrifice, excitement, "real" police work and so on. According to Basdeo (2010:392), the "code of secrecy" maintained by the police sub-culture helps to protect corrupt police officials from the law. Ehlermann (2007:10-11) of the OECD states that police corruption is difficult to detect because sometimes involve a number of actors working together. Newham (2002) emphasises that police work takes place in messy and difficult circumstances. This motivates officers to "stick together" and "watch each other's backs".
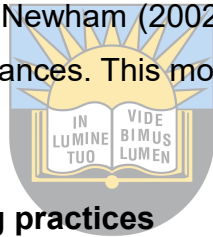
4.3.9. Sub-category 7: Poor hiring practices

Most participants indicated that poor hiring practices necessitate the prevalence of corruption within SAPS. When the hiring process is not transparent, it becomes fairly easy for criminal organisations to infiltrate the police service and cause disruptions. The fact that the majority of participants highlighted poor hiring practices as one of the drivers of corruption is an indication that the hiring process applied in Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area is at fault, and this is further supported by the following revelations from participants:

Participants 15: *It all starts at the recruitment office, for example, if I pay a recruitment official to be considered for a position, I will also demand bribes when I am working.*

Participant 13: *Hiring criminals into SAPS.*

Participant 27: *When recruiting new members, the screening method of employment is no longer applied to investigate the conduct of the new recruits.*

  ➢ **Summary of findings**

Findings from the respondents in this study show that corruption has been institutionalized within the South African Police Services SAPS. The fact that a number of respondents cited flaws in the manner in which the recruitment of police officers is carried out shows that institutionalization of corruption within the South African Police Services SAPS is also one of the factors towards corruption within the police services. It is widely believed that when improper procedures are given space at the expense of professional standards, South African Police Services SAPS will continue recruiting undesirable individuals fully devoted to serve with no conflict of interest.

Findings in this study correspond to revelations by Benson (2009) who reported that "unfortunately, the organizational culture of the police does encourage some officers to commit acts of corruption". Such acts might involve taking monetary bribes, abusing their authority or concealing criminal enterprises. More importantly, they might also involve violation of human rights or ethnic and racial discrimination. When police organizations fail to punish travesties of justice, they inadvertently foster a culture of corruption that breeds discrimination, deception and greed (Benson, 2009). Some people blame police corruption on poor hiring practices (Dantzker, 1997:159-160). In 2010, the former National Police Commissioner, Bheki Cele, admitted to Parliament that, "We have not been big on quality; we have been big on quantity. People have been thrown in by chasing quantity rather than quality" (Newham and Faull, 2011:11-12). For the SAPS to effectively prevent police corruption, it should improve recruitment and selection processes (Newham and Gomomo, 2003:1).

4.3.10. Sub-category 8: Interference of Politicians

The interference of politicians in the work of police officers has been cited to be one of the causative agents necessitating corruption in the study area. Politicians usually seek favours from the police to escape scrutiny or cover up some of the dirty works that they

may not want to be known by the public. The responses given by participants, as presented below, illustrate effects of interference of politicians in the work of police:

Participant 40: *In most cases, politicians who are corrupt will want to stay cushioned from any prosecutions or police investigations and what these corrupt politicians do is that they approach corrupt police officers to provide protection to them.*

Participant 59: *I think that the government or rather the police management should end impunity in the sector by investigating and prosecuting cases. This would ensure transparency and honesty with public office bearers.*

➢ **Summary of findings**

Politicians who corrupt SAPS members have been identified to be on the increase in Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. In the empirical investigation, respondents state that not only small-scale bribery involving inspectors, but also grand corruption involving politicians, decrease compliance intentions. Thus, this study adds to our understanding by illustrating that corruption at both segments of society seems to affect police officers' willingness to comply. Another example of grand scale police corruption fuelled by politicians was noted in Free State Province during the tenure of Ace Magashule as Premier, where it was alleged that every SAPS member was severely compromised due to political interference. Successive politicians used the Police Force as a political instrument. There had been interference that is more political by politicians in the operations of the police (Ruzindana *et al.,* 1998:120).

4.3.11. Sub-category 9: Greediness

A large number of participants cited greed among South African Police Service Officials to be one of the prime causes of corruption. Some police officials are not satisfied with what they earn from their occupation and end up compromising their jobs for financial benefits to receive other favours unlawfully. The responses given below show some of the sentiments brought up by participants in so far as greed within SAPS is concerned:

Participant 53: *Greed, ill-discipline, living above own means, low morale, lack of supervision and the fact that screening of recruits is not sufficiently done.*

Participant 66: *Greed, ill-discipline, living above our means, lack of supervision and bad acts that screening of recruiters is not sufficiently done. It all starts at the recruitment office, i.e., if I pay recruitment officials to be considered for a position, I will also demand bribes when I am working.*

Participant 33: *Human beings cannot be satisfied with the position or possessions or even wages when it comes to our work and some our work colleagues who are corrupt will always be looking for ways to increase their money through corruption activities such as smuggling of cigarettes and other illicit doings.*

➤ **Summary of findings**

Revelations above from participants are an indicator that greed is very pervasive within the SAPS in the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. This greed may be attributed to personalities of individual police officers because not all of them exhibit these traits.

4.4. THEME 2: POLICE PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS CORRUPTION

4.4.1. Sub-category 1: Poor service delivery

Poor service delivery to the public was identified by some participants to be among factors of police corruption. The responses below show participants' verbatim views with regards to poor service delivery caused by police corruption within Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area:

Participant 37: *Public Order Policing has since 2011 been focusing on the unrest, mostly due to service delivery and strikes at the mines.*

Participant 39: *The idea of Sector Policing as defined by Sector Policing National Instruction 3/2013 is perfect, but resources are scarce and therefore make it almost impossible to be implemented.*

Participant 6: *Corruption involves the use of resources without being authorised and illegally being given money or property that you are not supposed to have.*

Participant 47: *Corruption is when you using your position as a law enforcement officer to acquire financial gain in return of favours that are unlawful or criminal.*

Participant 8: *Corruption is all activities against the law to get more money or to earn extra salary in a wrongful way.*

Participant 42: *Dishonesty practices by police officers whereby they compromise their official duties with the aim of gaining something in return, for example, taking a bribe for certain work which should be performed by them.*

➢ **Summary of findings**

Findings in this study show that one of the outcomes of the acts of corruption by police officers is "poor service delivery". This poor service delivery of SAPS is shown every day through the media where incidents of police misconduct are frequently reported. Findings in this study reveal that police officials can create a pleasant environment for everyone to live in a country that is crime free. SAPS has major challenges to deal with officials' faults by putting effective and efficient measures in place to decrease police corruption. Furthermore, this may enable SAPS to establish more effective and efficient measures to decrease this negative impact of police corruption on service delivery. According to Smit *et al.* (2004:151), corruption within the SAPS is a reality; it affects the image and reputation of the police. The authors further mentioned that it has a negative effect on members and influences trust relationships between the police and the communities they serve. In addition to the researcher's conclusion, Faull (2011:1) mentioned that the major reason for the SAPS' poor public image is the perception that many SAPS officials are corrupt.

4.5.   THEME 3: PREVENTATIVE MEASURES

4.5.1. Sub-theme 1: Maintain a high standard of ethical conduct

Participants in this study indicated the need to maintain a high standard of ethical conduct within the South African Police Service SAPS, as part of preventative measures to curb the occurrence of corruption activities within the SAPS. The responses given below sum

up some of the verbatim views expressed by participants on preventing corruption in SAPS:

Participant 39: *Police Management should encourage members of the public to expose corrupt activities because they (public) are aware of these corrupt activities, hence; corruption is always between an Officer (member of SAPS) and a civilian (member of public) who makes it possible for friends and relatives of the corruptor to know about corruption.*

4.5.2. Sub-theme 2: Establishing anti-corruption body

Some findings show that participants believe that establishing of an anti-corruption body within SAPS will limit the prevalence of corruption activities. The anti-corruption body that will specifically deal with corruption within the South African Police Service will enable the government to quickly address incidences of corruption without causing further harm on the credibility of the SAPS as a whole.
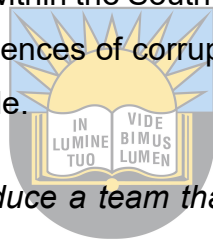
Participant 17: *They have to introduce a team that will do lifestyle audits of members and senior management.*

> **Summary of findings**

In concurrence, Fry (2013) reveals that a review of international guidelines on anti-corruption and anti-corruption strategies from developed countries shows that most strategies are anchored on access to information and transparency, oversight and watchdogs' mechanisms and creation of a national non-statutory independent body to advise and coordinate implementation of anti-corruption policies.

4.5.3. Sub-theme 3: Providing police officials with sufficient resources and equipment at the police stations

A large number of participants said that providing police officials with sufficient resources and equipment at the police stations is an important step in stamping out corruption within

SAPS. The reason behind this recommendation is that when police officers are provided with all resources that they need to carry out their work, including a wage rise, then incidents of police corruption accepting bribes may be limited.

Participant 29: *By paying members better wages and lecturing the members about corruption regulations.*

Participant 56: *Providing enough vehicles for police officers to do their work will lessen these incidents of corruption because police sometimes get paid by a member of the public to follow a suspect whom the state would have failed to pursue, so an individual ends up taking matters into their own hands.*

➢ **Summary of findings**

From the sentiments brought forward by participants, it is evident that there is a high need to provide the police with enough resources needed to carry out their work. Provision of enough resources to police will greatly limit the occurrence of corrupt activities within the SAPS. The sentiments by participants in this study were also echoed by Rauch (2012) who indicated that the government must give departments enough resources to provide their officers with training and equipment required to carry out their responsibilities; police must, of course, be paid adequate wages, and appropriate monitoring procedures must be established to ensure that police serve the public in accordance with the law, rather than becoming a law unto themselves. Law enforcement agencies must establish a strong code of ethics as a guide and make sure that all officers understand it, that it becomes second nature through training and that the example of command reinforces its importance (Pickworth, 2016).

4.5.4. Sub-theme 4: Installing reforms within SAPS personnel recruitment

The findings gathered in this study show that the majority participants have a strong conviction that introducing structural reforms within SAPS personnel recruitment will enable authorities to get rid of corrupt police officers. Reforms, especially in the recruitment process, need to be stringent so that criminal syndicates can find it impossible to infiltrate law enforcement agents.

Participant 29: *During the appointment of the members, they must be screened before appointment because some of the people are criminals and when they get employed, they exercise criminal activities within the force*.

Participant 41: *The recruitment and selection process must be tough so that the joining of criminal gangs becomes difficult*.

➢ **Summary of findings**

The prevailing sentiment among participants was that the need to implement reforms was very urgent to address the scourge of corruption within SAPS. Some sentiments gathered from participants show that some police officials believe that SAPS has been infiltrated by criminal gangs, which that is why corruption is so endemic. So, to solve this problem, implementing structural reforms within SAPS personnel recruitment will enable authorities to address this problem.

4.6. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The responses gathered by the researcher on what entails "corruption activities" is evidence that corruption activities within the South African Police Services are a taboo that violates oaths undertaken by South African Police Service Officers/Personnel. If there was indeed no corruption within the South African Police Services SAPS, carrying out this study would have been insignificant, to say the least, and that is what justifies having the phrase corruption activities as the main theme that overshadows other misconducts or corruption activities being committed by members of the South African Police Services SAPS. The following responses presents what police officers had to say when they were asked about their understanding of the words: "corruption activities":

In view of the findings in this study and the legal dictates of the Prevention and Combatting of Corrupt Activities Act (Act 12 of 2004), the Act broadly defines "corruption" to include any "service or favour or advantage of any description". One also notes that the definition of corruption in the context of SAPS is expressed from various angles with different factors considered. Therefore, police corruption can be said to be a very complex issue. Added to this factor, police cultures have also been alleged to be notoriously secretive and are

assumed to be very suspicious of changes to their environment and work. Police cultures are also known to encourage on-the-spot problem solving rather than the rigid application of laws and codes; this applies to both the application of law on the street as well as within the organisation.

A breakdown of findings in this study on the perceptions of police officers towards corruption activities in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area reveals that the majority of police officers believe that corruption has increased, especially in 2020 with COVID-19 lockdown and police involvement in public affairs becoming increased. The majority of participants also revealed that police corruption is a very serious problem, indicating that they are aware of police officials involved in corruption. However, the majority of participants (police officers) said they cannot report a fellow police officer whom they know is involved in criminal activities.

The implications for policy from these results are quite straightforward as there should be further evidence in the case of not doing corruption, especially small-scale bribery. In order to improve the effectiveness of regulations of natural resources in states where corruption is widespread, policy-makers and practitioners increasingly need to shift attention to public officials involved in everyday bribery.

4.6.1. Police perceptions towards corruption

In South Africa, it has often been claimed that both public and organizational discourses around police corruption have often tended towards over-simplification revolving around one of the three themes, namely, the 'rotten apple" theory, salary levels and the corrupting public, among a host of other themes discussed in this chapter.

4.6.2. Factors that contribute towards corruption activities by police officials

Acts of corruption by people in power have long shaken public faith in government, but loss of public faith is particularly acute when those acts involve the police. That is because the public relies on police to uphold the law, protect the community and assist in times of need. Police are also the most visible arm of government for most citizens and a yardstick

by which they measure authority. When an officer acts illegally, he/she dishonours both himself and the law and the justice system he represents.

Unfortunately, the organizational culture of the police does encourage some officers to commit acts of corruption. Such acts might involve taking monetary bribes, abusing authority or concealing criminal enterprises. More importantly, they might also involve violation of human rights or ethnic and racial discrimination. When police organizations fail to punish travesties of justice, they inadvertently foster a culture of corruption that breeds discrimination, deception and greed.

4.6.3. The "rotten apple" theory

The "rotten apple" theory argues that actions of a small number of individuals can tarnish the reputation of an entire organization (Kaufmann, 1997). However, this notion has been disproved in a number of situations around the globe and it is mostly discredited through reference to organizational factors which may make police organizations to be prone to corruption. A good example is a situation where police officers are forced by gangs to accept bribes or risk being killed if they do not bow down to what the gangs demand. On a number of occasions, police officers have been killed in gang related incidents, with the latest case involving the killing of detective Charl Kinnear who was alleged to have been investigating gang related cases prior to his assassination. A number of scholars have argued that this "rotten apple" approach does little to change the prevailing police culture, not to mention changing the circumstances leading to such behaviour.

4.6.4. Salary levels

Both members of the public and SAPS have frequently made reference to low salary levels as one of the drivers of police corruption. In 2000, a police sergeant wrote to a daily newspaper stating that "corruption" is caused by the low salary earned by SAPS members. For the government to prevent police corruption, the officer argued that police officers should be paid a satisfactory salary, for example, if you own a dog and it is always chained and does not get enough food, the dog is going to feed itself from other rubbish bins and chicken eggs, as well as the chickens themselves (Mtshawe, 2000).

4.6.5. Lack of accountability

Findings in this study show that police corruption arises from deficiencies in the various dimensions of accountability. Police corruption reflects lack of institutional accountability, in which police supervisors and managers sanction their officers' misconduct. It reflects lack of judicial accountability in which courts turn a blind eye to police corruption or fail to mete out a fitting punishment for misbehaviour. It reflects vague or weak laws that put inadequate restrictions on police authority and reflects government's failure to censure police misconduct. In short, police corruption creeps in where justice's gatekeepers fail to shut the door in its face. Corruption occurs when supervisors turn a blind eye to the warning signals of police misconduct.

The Constitution requires that public officials be accountable (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa: Section 195(1) (f). Accountability is understood to mean the relationship "between the bearer of a right or a legitimate claim and the agents or agencies responsible for fulfilling or respecting that right" (Anti-Corruption Resource Centre, 2011). This means that a government must explain how it executed its mandate (Muntingh, 2007). The point has also been made that normal features of a democracy (for example, multi-party elections and universal suffrage) are necessary, but not sufficient to ensure healthy accountability between citizens and the government (Schacter, 2001).

Democratic elections therefore do not make for clean government and new democracies remain haunted by human rights violations, nepotism and corruption, which do not disappear with the advent of democratic elections (Muntingh, 2007: 16). The fact that a relationship exists between the state and another internal or external body does not automatically result in an effective accountability relationship, and three principles need to be adhered to, namely, transparency, answerability and controllability.

Transparency means that state officials have a duty to act visibly, predictably and understandably (Transparency International, 2017). The actions of officials must be predictable in that they should be guided by policy, legislation, regulations, standing orders and good practice. When called to account, officials must be able to justify their decisions and actions in a manner that is rational and justifiable. In sum, it needs to be known what officials are doing, and when asked, they must be able to provide an

understandable and predictable answer (Muntingh, 2007). The answerability requirement states that decision-makers must be able to justify their decisions and actions publicly to substantiate that they are reasonable, rational and within their mandate (Anti-corruption Resource Centre, 2011).

Answerability (and transparency) is, however, be meaningless if there are not mechanisms in place to sanction actions and decisions in contravention of the given mandate; accountability institutions must, therefore, be able to exercise control over institutions that they are overseeing (Anti-corruption Resource Centre, 2011). Failure to hold government and individuals accountable creates conditions for impunity to exist (Muntingh, 2007).

4.7. PREVENTIVE MEASURES TO POLICE CORRUPTION WITHIN SAPS

Training can, theoretically, mitigate some of the errors in recruitment and provide some important safeguards against corruption. It should give officers basic lessons in integrity, such as respect for citizens' rights, a sense of civic duty and self-control. It should teach them limits of their authority and give them a basic understanding of the law, so they know when they are transgressing it. It should also instil a desire in officers to protect their integrity, not because they fear apprehension, but because they know corruption is wrong (Goldstein 1975). In short, training in integrity should produce officers committed to the ideal that they embody the "thin blue lines", as Americans call it, between order and disorder, between honest citizens and hoodlums. Unfortunately, officers in some countries come away from training with a fuzzy conception of this symbolic barrier against crime and anarchy. Poor training methods only serve to exacerbate the blunders in recruitment that preceded them.

Poor training has been blamed for violent instincts of some Argentine police officers. Among other things, Argentina's police have been accused of involvement in a bloody terrorist bombing, mafia-style murder of a journalist, drug trafficking and cattle rustling (Rotella, 1999). Police committed a third of the killings that took place in Buenos Aires during the late 1990s. The reason, according to human rights groups that study the police, lies in bad training that fails to impart self-control.

There has been recent progress on this as countries throughout the world took steps to root out police corruption. In Japan, the Kanagawa Prefectural Police and the Yokohama District Prosecutor's Office have tightened procedures for handling internal affairs' investigations and are prosecuting criminal acts in court that they previously resolved through disciplinary action (Takeshi, 2000).

Hungary has established a roving team of 18 high-ranking police officers to investigate complaints about service and appointed a special "customs commando" to rid its ports of police corruption (Land, 1998). Brazil has passed a law requiring police officers accused of murder to be tried in civilian courts rather than military court, where sentences are rare (Bayley and Perito, 2011). Mexico has taken steps to ensure that hired officers are not opportunists who see police work as a mother lode of bribes: since 1999, police officers in the federal attorney-general's office (known as the PGR) have been required to undergo lie detector, psychological and drug tests, and have received 18 rather than 4 months of training. In addition, PGR officers now receive higher salaries, an extremely important reform in a job where bribery is common (Bayley and Perito, 2011).

While these measures have indisputable value, they do not address all core factors of police corruption. As discussed above, police corruption has roots in both police institutions and societies that engender them. Corruption exists because many departments are not doing good job hiring, training, paying and disciplining their officers. It is fostered by vague laws that give police too much discretion and judges who give them too much leeway. It is concealed by a police culture that dispenses rough justice of streets and closes ranks around renegade officers. It is sanctioned by cultural mores that stoically accepts corruption as an everyday inconvenience rather than fume against it.

Laws must be passed with zero tolerance for corruption. The government must give departments enough resources to provide officers with training and equipment required to carry out responsibilities; police must be paid adequate wages. Appropriate monitoring procedures must be established to ensure that police serve the public in accordance with the law, rather than becoming law unto themselves.

Law enforcement agencies must establish a strong code of ethics as a guide and ensure that all officers understand it, that it becomes second nature through training and that

example of command reinforce its importance (Williams, 1992). In addition, mechanisms must be established to detect and suppress corruption at the earliest possible stages. Such mechanisms might include early warning systems such as Risk Analysis Management System (RAMS II) and Integrated Quality of Service Indicator (QSI), developed by the Police Foundation of Washington, D.C, which help identify and assist troubled officers before they engage in serious misconduct (Williams, 1996). They might also include independent external review groups or federal investigation programmes, such as the Police Misconduct Pattern or Practice Program of the United States Department of Justice. While such measures cannot eradicate all the underlying sources of corruption, they do have the potential to restore public trust in the police as the most visible arm of government and the law.

4.8. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study illustrate that lack of integrity dominates amongst police officers. In addition, this has to do with the individual police officer being able to do the right thing even when no one is looking. Lack of integrity has as one of the dominant themes driving police corruption within the Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area. Nepotism and favouritism were cited by a large number of participants. At the present moment, there is a slogan in South Africa "if you are not connected, you will struggle, or it will be impossible to get employed". This nepotism and favouritism of other individuals at the expense of others due to political affiliation or social class has severely affected the ability of SAPS to operate effectively.

The findings overwhelmingly show that when a police officers are corrupt, then their credibility is compromised because members of the public do not feel safe being assisted by him/her. For example, in situations where an informant might be giving information about criminal activities to police, if police officers have connections with criminal gangs, their duties become compromised as citizens will not be willing to divulge any information to such corrupt police officers. The revelations from police officers in this study show that when police officers are corrupt, there is an increase in the rate of criminal activities because those who are tasked to prevent criminality are involved in criminality. Correspondingly, when police are involved in corrupt activities, criminal gangs start

colluding with the police knowing that they will be protected. This study's findings show that police corruption leads to high rates of civil claims against the government/increased liability costs for the state. For example, in some instances, a police officer can be paid by a member of the public to go and unlawfully arrest another person. These incidents are very common within SAPS, as per participants' responses and when a member of the public sues the state for unlawful arrest, the government ends up losing large sums of money, which would have otherwise been set aside for other development initiatives.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of this study on exploring the perceptions of Police Officers towards corruption activities in Polokwane Cluster Policing area in Limpopo Province. In this chapter, the researcher presents a summary of how the objectives in this study were achieved, and proposed recommendations by the researcher conclude this chapter.

5.2. CONCLUSION

The extent of police corruption cannot be easily or accurately measured, as there is evidence that the problem is a widespread and systemic one (Newham and Faull, 2011). The objectives that the researcher sought to achieve by conducting this study, as indicated in Chapter 1 are as follows:

- To describe police perceptions towards corruption.
- To identify factors that contribute towards corruption activities by police officials.
- To analyse policing legislation regulating police conduct.
- To identify preventative measures in place against police corruption.

5.2.1. Police perceptions towards corruption

Findings in this study show that corruption is very rampant within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province. Some participants in this study (who are all police officers serving under the SAPS) hinted that they are well aware of individual police officers who are corrupt, but due to the fear of being killed, some law-abiding police officers end up having no choice but to keep quiet. The findings in this study also show that the reason for these police officers to be reluctant to report to their seniors other corrupt police officers may even lead to death; this is supported by numerous media reports involving police killings. For example, in the first three months of 2021, that is from 1 January 2021 to 31 March 2021, a total of twenty-four (24) police officers were gunned down in South Africa.

The responses obtained by the researcher from police officers within Polokwane Cluster Policing Area show that police corruption is occurring in all ranks of police officials. Added to this, the researcher encountered difficulties in interviewing some of the Crime Intelligence officials as they argued that the nature of their job requires them to act in the utmost secrecy; the researcher in this instance noticed a degree of complexity in trying to balance transparency in police and the public whom they serve. A large number of police officials also agreed that within big ranks, it is not that they do not engage in corruption, they rather know the way around it to manoeuvre around. The researcher discovered that big ranks within the SAPS are experienced because they have been doing corruption for so long that chances of getting caught are very slim. Participants felt that when it comes to junior ranks, salaries should be increased to mitigate police corruption.

5.2.2. Factors contributing to corruption activities by police officials

A number of factors were cited by participants as driving forces behind police corruption, and the responses from police officers within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area really leave a lot to be desired. For example, one police official said that the corruption of police officials begins at the recruitment centers because for one to be admitted into the South African Police Service, there has been speculation that the process is currently marred with corruption. Therefore, if undeserving individuals are recruited into the police force, it is difficult to instil the moral code of conduct in such individuals because in the first place, they should not be appointed or recruited. As a result, one might hold a strong conviction that overhauling of the entire police recruitment system might be necessary to get rid of rotten apples within the South African police service.

In carrying out this study, the researcher found that the usual crimes committed by police officials within the Polokwane Cluster Policing Area are bribery and extortion; these police officers tend to be caught up in such corrupt activities. Other acts are mostly petty crimes, and these include taking money when an offender is not in possession of a driver's licence. The findings of this study reflect that most police officials in lower ranks turn to extortion for quick cash. This seems to be an everyday practice that has, over the years, gained popularity.

Even though extortion is the most common act of corruption among police officials (SAPS), members of the community give officers money, called active corruption (Vilakazi, 2014). In that regard, a member of society approaches the officer with a lump sum of money, in return for something, usually their freedom in situations where one might be facing arrest.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 12 of the NDP, titled Building Safer Communities, proposes specific targets be introduced to the SAPS. It recommends that the SAPS demilitarise and recruit and train officials to be professional and impartial, responsive to community needs and competent in their work. It suggests that the realisation of these goals will inspire public confidence in the police (National Planning Commission, Our Future-Make It Work, 2012). To accomplish this, the NDP requires that SAPS link its code of conduct and what the NDP calls a 'code of professional police practice' to promotion and disciplinary regulations. In other words, it suggests that SAPS develop indicators through which organisational and individual behaviour can be evaluated, with clear disciplinary and career consequences for those whose conduct is judged as unprofessional or abusive.

In view of the reference to the SAPS code of conduct in briefings to parliament's Portfolio Committee on Police (1998-2016), it is assumed that the new better-enforced code of conduct would have an effect in identifying and curtailing corruption. A co-ordination committee to address professional conduct has been established, and popularisation of the code of conduct would be pursued. Interventions are immediately required to instil and reconfirm professional conduct in the service. For this reason, specific measures are undertaken to institutionalise the code of conduct and optimise the application of the disciplinary process and procedures.

5.3.1. Establishing vibrant anti-corruption mechanisms

It is essential for the government to recall passionate former police officials to investigate all corrupt officials. The South African government should establish a very sophisticated anti-corruption body independent of the SAPS to spearhead the strategy to combat corruption. It should consist of well-trained officials who would take their job seriously to

deter police officials from committing illegal activities. In support, those who have retired because they hate police corruption should be used to deal with police corruption. Committed individuals reinstated to eradicate police corruption are ideal candidates because they know police work very well.

Early warning systems need to be put in place internally and externally to carefully monitor suspected police officers who might be vulnerable to corruption. This will complement the role of the SIU. The SIU was set up to investigate fraud, corruption and maladministration and institute civil litigation to recover losses suffered by the state or prevent further losses. The SIU was set up under Act No 74 of 1996 and Act No11 of 2012 SIU amendment Act.

The Independent Investigation Directorate (IPID) needs to be given more constitutional powers to investigate the police in South Africa. The functions of the IPID are set out under Act 1 of 2011 as:

- Provide independent and impartial investigations of identified criminal offences allegedly committed by members of the SAPS and Municipal Police Services;
- Investigate corruption matters within the police;
- Make disciplinary recommendations in respect of members of the SAPS and MPS resulting from investigations conducted by the directorate;
- Investigate any deaths in police custody;
- Investigate incidents involving police officers' discharge of firearm;
- Rape by a police officer, whether the police officer is on duty or off duty;
- Any complaint of torture or assault;
- Ensure accountability and transparency by the SAPS and MPS in accordance with the Republic of South Africa constitution;
- Entry and search of premises (execution of warrants); and
- Seizure and disposal of articles.

5.3.2. Training and Development

According to Oliver (2008), police officials must be provided with the necessary skills and training to perform their duties to reach their potential. To achieve this, they should be frequently sent to workshops and courses to attain new skills. They should receive

sufficient guidance through additional training, such as refresher courses and advanced training for different skills. SAPS must hire international police training experts to advise them on ways to improve community relations in the service. The police should look out for people with knowledge and integrity rather than just chasing numbers; currently in South Africa, more focus should be placed on specialised courses.

It is imperative that the police should invest in human capital by assisting police officers with training to understand the human mind and acquire skills to deal with different policing circumstances. South Africans should be educated to do things properly for the good of all. There should be some degree of intellectual training for police officers when it comes to dealing with the community. There must be training programmes within SAPS to inspire police officers to study further. SAPS should extend the length of time spent in the police academy to accommodate all necessary training interventions.

5.3.3. Installing reforms within SAPS personnel recruitment

The SAPS should revise its recruitment drive by improving its recruitment strategy and recruiting the relevant people. A variety of the recruitment strategies must be developed to ensure successful recruiting efforts (Brown, 2012:216). The author further mentions that one such strategy should be to identify police officers that are representative of the type of person being recruited. It is very important for them to have proper selection criteria in place to ensure that committed people join the organisation.

A number of scholars argue that the recruitment of police personnel should culminate into hiring individuals who would see the police job as a calling and do it from their hearts. They should firstly target people who choose police related courses and look for people who are already studying courses in crime investigation (Vilakazi, 2015). They should at least have acquired Further Education and Training College certificates. Tertiary education for police is a theme taken up by many modern police organisations (Prenzler, 2009). This shows that they are interested in serving the community and choose becoming a police officer as a career path. They should join the police because they have a passion for the job of enforcing the law of South Africa with courage and willingness to deliver quality service.

A major consideration should be placed in rooting out police misconduct. Ethics represent principles and standards of conduct designed to guide the behaviour of police officers (Brown, 2012). The people at the recruitment section should adequately screen candidates and single out those who should not be in the police; these are trainees willing to be in the organisation. It is essential that they conduct background investigation and improve the selection process.

5.3.4. Community oriented policing

The SAPS should provide the community with accessible community focused initiatives. The police should develop active partnerships with community members. They need to be faithful to the community and work according to the law so that people can support them in the fight against crime. They must take community complaints seriously if they want the community to stop taking the law into their own hands and investigate their cases. They should know that the main aim is for them to be police officers and that they are not there for themselves.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR CRIME PREVENTION UNIT

The interview guide is part of a research project to **explore the perception of Police Officers towards corruption activities in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province**. It is very important to do research considering the above-mentioned topic, because corruption remains a topical issue not only in South Africa but world-over. The researcher would appreciate your completion of this interview guide as honestly as possible in order to obtain correct and trustworthy information. Please forward your completed interview scripts not later than 30 March 2021.

Please be informed that data received from the semi-structured interviews will be kept confidential to protect your identity. I prefer that you remain anonymous, and you are not forced to give any information you are not comfortable with. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any stage of the study if you feel threatened. Should you feel uncomfortable to answer any question in this interview guide, please do not hesitate to discuss it with the researcher.
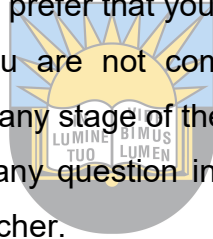
Kind regards

Researcher: Mufanadzo Emmah Rathogwa

Signature of Researcher: _____

Date: _____

SECTION A: Biographical Details of Respondents

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Age: _____

3. Race:

Black/African

White

Coloured

Indian

4. Highest qualification obtained

Secondary School

Standard 10

Post School Certificate/Diploma

National Diploma/National Higher Diploma

Barchelor's Degree/Equivalent

Honours Degree/Equivalent

Master's Degree/Equivalent

Doctors Degree/Equivalent

5. For how many years have you been working under SAPS?

SECTION B: Perception of Police Officers towards corruption activities in Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province

6. With close reference to your profession, what do you understand by the term "corruption activities"?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

7. What are the consequences of police officers indulging in corruption activities?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
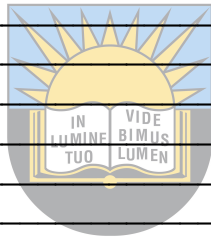
8. Is it true that lack of accountability deprives enforcement of discipline?

_____

Please give reasons for your answer to the above question.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

9. In some instances the police's image has been tarnished by their corrupt actions especially during the COVID-19 lockdown from 26 March to mid-July which negatively impact police legitimacy. In your own view what impact does this lack of trust create?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. How can the problems of police corruption in SAPS be mitigated?

_____

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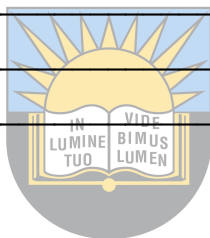
APPENDIX 2: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

23 Elfin Glen Road, Nahoon Valley, East London, 5200, masharose0@gmail.com, 0827708892

Professional EDITORS Group

To whom it may concern:

This document certifies that the research document whose title appears below has been edited for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling and overall style by Rose Masha, a member of the Professional Editors' Group whose qualifications are listed in the footer of this certificate.

Title:

THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION
ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES: A CASE STUDY
OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER (CAPRICORN DISTRICT) POLICING AREA
IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

Author:
EMMAH MUFANADZO RATHOGWA

Date Edited:

11 April 2022

Signed

Dr. Rose Masha

B. Library & Inf. Sc.; HDE; Hons. ELT; M. Phil. Hyll.; PhD Ed.

APPENDIX 3: CONSENT LETTER FROM SAPS

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS ✦ **SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE**

Privaatsak/Private Bag X 94

		THE HEAD: RESEARCH
Verwysing/Reference:	3/34/2	SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
		PRETORIA
Navrae/Enquiries:	Lt Col Joubert	0001
	AC Thenga	
Telefoon/Telephone:	(012) 393 3118	
Email Address:	JoubertG@saps.gov.za	

The Provincial Commissioner
LIMPOPO

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS): A CASE STUDY OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER (CAPRICORN DISTRICT) POLICING AREA IN LIMPOPO: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: ME RATHOGWA

1. The above subject matter refers.

2. The researcher, ME Rathogwa, is conducting a study titled:, The perception of police officers towards corruption activities in South African Police Service (SAPS): A case study of Polokwane Cluster (Capricorn District) Policing Area in Limpopo, with the aim *to explore the perception of police officers towards corruption activities in Capricorn District Policing Area in Limpopo Province.*

3. The researcher is requesting permission to interview one hundred twenty (120) police officials at the following Police Stations: Botlokwa, Lebowakgomo, Mangkweng, Mashashane, Matlala, Mogwadi, Polokwane, Seshego, Westernburg and Zebediela Police Station.

4. The proposal was perused according to National Instruction 1 of 2006. This office recommends that permission be granted for the research study, subject to the final approval and further arrangements by the office of the Provincial Commissioner: Limpopo.

5. We hereby request the final approval by your office if you concur with our recommendation. Your office is also at liberty to set terms and conditions to the researcher to ensure that compliance standards are adhered to during the research process and that research has impact to the organisation.

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS): A CASE STUDY OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER (CAPRICORN DISTRICT) POLICING AREA IN LIMPOPO: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: ME RATHOGWA

6.   If approval is granted by your office, this office will obtain a signed undertaking from researcher prior to the commencement of the research which will include your terms and conditions if there are any and the following:

6.1.   The research will be conducted at his/her exclusive cost.

6.2   The researcher will conduct the research without the disruption of the duties of members of the Service and where it is necessary for the research goals, research procedures or research instruments to disrupt the duties of a member, prior arrangements must be made with the commander of such member.

6.3   The researcher should bear in mind that participation in the interviews must be on a voluntary basis.

6.4   The information will at all times be treated as strictly confidential.

6.5   The researcher will provide an annotated copy of the research work to the Service.

6.6   The researcher will ensure that research report / publication complies with all conditions for the approval of research.

7.   If approval is granted by your office, for smooth coordination of research process between your office and the researcher, the following information is kindly requested to be forwarded to our office:

- **Contact person**: Rank, Initials and Surname.
- **Contact details**: Office telephone number and email address.

8.   A copy of the approval (if granted) and signed undertaking as per paragraph 6 supra to be provided to this office within 21 days after receipt of this letter.

9.   Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

MAJOR GENERAL
THE HEAD: RESEARCH
/DR PR VUMA

DATE: 2020 -11- 2 5

SAP 21

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS   **SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE**

Private Bag x 9428

Verwysing Reference	2/1/2/1 (32/2020)
Navrae Enquiries	Colonel Nelushi Lt Col Montjane
Telefoon Telephone	015 290 6206/6300
Faksnomme r Fax number	015 230 1023

PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
POLOKWANE
LIMPOPO

ME Rathogwa
Box 462
Thohoyandou
0950

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) A CASE STUDY OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER (CAPRICORN DISTRICT) POLICING AREA IN LIMPOPO: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: ME RATHOGWA.

1.   Your authority to conduct research as indicated above is herewith granted.

2.   The researcher should take care of the following:

   - The research will be done at your own cost.
   - The research will be conducted without any disruption of the duties of personnel.
   - The information will at all times be treated strictly confidential.
   - Participation in the interviews must be on a voluntary basis.
   - The researcher will ensure that research report/ publication complies with all conditions for the approval of research.
   - You are expected to donate an annotated copy of the research work to the service.

3.   Hoping you will find everything in order

_____**MAJOR GENERAL**
ACTING PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: LIMPOPO PROVINCE
JP SCHEEPERS

Date   2020 -12- 2 9

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Private Bag x 9428, Polokwane, 0700

Verwysing Reference	2/1/2/1 (32/2020)
Navrae Enquiries	Colonel Nelushi Lt Col Montjane
Telefoon Telephone	015 290 6206/6300
Faksnommer Fax number	015 230 1023

**PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
POLOKWANE
LIMPOPO**

Station Commanders
Botlokwa SAPS
Lebowakgomo SAPS
Mankweng SAPS
Mashashane SAPS
Matlala SAPS
Mogwadi SAPS
Polokwane SAPS
Seshego SAPS
Westernburg SAPS
Zebediela SAPS
South African Police Service
Limpopo

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE PERCEPTION OF POLICE OFFICERS TOWARDS CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) A CASE STUDY OF POLOKWANE CLUSTER (CAPRICORN DISTRICT) POLICING AREA IN LIMPOPO: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE: MASTERS DEGREE: RESEARCHER: ME RATHOGWA.

1. Please take note that the researcher ME Rathogwa has been granted the authority to interview 120 members at the above mentioned stations.

2. You are requested to assist the researcher where it is possible.

3. For further enquiries please contact Strategic Management: Lt Col Montjane at 015 290 6300.

4. Your assistance is always appreciated.

_____ **MAJOR GENERAL**
ACTING PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: LIMPOPO PROVINCE
JP SCHEEPERS

Date 2020 -12- 2 9

APPENDIX 4: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICS CLEARANCE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Project Number: MAG011SRAT01

Project title: **The Perception of Police Officers towards Corruption Activities in South African Police Services: A Case Study of Polokwane Cluster Policing Area in Limpopo Province.**

Qualification: Masters in Criminology

Principal Researcher: Mufanadzo Emmah Rathogwa

Supervisor: Dr T.O Magadze

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby grant ethics approval for MAG011SRAT01. This approval is valid for 12 months from the date of approval. Renewal of approval must be applied for BEFORE termination of this approval period. Renewal is subject to receipt of a satisfactory progress report. The approval covers the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). The research may commence as from the 11/08/20, using the reference number indicated above.

Note that should any other instruments be required or amendments become necessary, these require separate authorisation.
Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material changes in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document;
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research.

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this approval if
    o Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected;
    o Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented;
    o Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require;
    o The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to.

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.

Your compliance with DoH 2015 guidelines and other regulatory instruments and with UREC ethics requirements as contained in the UREC terms of reference and standard operating procedures, is implied.

The UREC wishes you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Renuka Vithal
UREC-Chairperson
23 September 2020