



**AN EVALUATION OF INDEPENDENT INVESTIGATIVE MECHANISMS IN THE
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES TO CONTROL CORRUPTION: A
CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE.**

By

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DECLARATION

I, **Tintswalo Baloyi**, student number: 213547570 declare that this dissertation titled: *An evaluation of independent investigative mechanisms in the South African Police Services to control corruption: a criminological perspective* is my own work. All the sources used have been acknowledged and properly referenced.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved parents, my late Mother Violet Baloyi and Father Dankie Samuel Baloyi, for pulling through after the departure of our mother, I thank you daddy for your perseverance. I love you.

ABSTRACT

Police corruption is a complex worldwide phenomenon, both in developing and developed countries. The questions arise as to where members of society turn to when it is those that have oathed to serve and protect tend to be the ones that do the damage. This study focuses on strategies that are in place to curb police corruption in the South African Police Services as an organisation. Data for this study were collected qualitatively through semi-structured interviews with purposively selected participants. Twenty-one participants participated in this study. This study used both descriptive and exploratory research designs.

The study used two theories in exploring the possible causes of police corruption, namely Rational Choice Theory (RCT) and Social Learning Theory. These two theories reflected on police corruption as crime being a choice, and crime being learned through motivation. The findings were that independent strategies are there, but so are general ones, ones within the organisation. It has been discovered that even though the strategies are there, police corruption continues being problematic, due to such reasons associated with the challenges faced by officers on a daily basis, like inadequate salaries, thus corruption is something they do not do willingly but rather circumstantial. At the end of the day, they themselves as police disciplinarians themselves, being police officers as well, feel that salaries must be increased.

ACRONYMS

ACU	Anti-Corruption Unit
IDCD	The Independent Complaints Directorate
IPID	Independent Police Investigative Directorate
UNESCO	United National Educational,
SCO	Scientific and Cultural Organisation.
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
PI	Principal Investigator
PPA	The Public Protector Act
SAPS	South African Police Service.
SAPSCFPS	The South African Police Service Corruption and Fraud Preventive Strategy

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CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL ORIENTATION

This study explores the independent investigative mechanisms in the South African Police Services to curb police corruption in the Gauteng Province, the city of gold “Gau-teng”. It is thus important to begin the study with basic orientation of the key concepts. This includes definitions of various important terms which are operationalised for the purposes of this study. A discussion on police corruption serve as a contextual basis for the presentation of the problem formulation. The rationale for the study is presented in relation to the specific objectives of the study followed by a concise outline of the research dissertation.

1.1 Introduction

Corruption has always been problematic, much more of a world-wide phenomenon. Police corruption has been something that the media has been exposing to the public. The public sector, which is the Members of the South African Police Services (SAPS) fail to adhere to their general role of diligently serving the country. Police corruption is a serious crime that is known to the employees of the SAPS. When criminal acts are committed, it is not that the acts are unknown to SAPS members as wrongful acts, but rather something done with an intention that the act will not be accounted for. Regardless of this knowledge, corruption is still committed by police officials. The corrupt activities committed by police officials threaten the impartiality, just and fair treatment of the communities which is required from policing. The communities will begin to lose trust in the police as law enforcers and this will resultantly damage the image of the police.

To date, the image of the police is blemished by corruption (Grobler, 2014), leading to the members of the community having less faith in the justice system; it becomes problematic when those that have oathed to serve and protect the country end up being the ones that threaten the well-being of society. The ‘men and women in blue’ are the servants of the community, employed to be the protectors of the community and the nation (Olutola, 2016). Besides the communities losing trust, corruption will lead to the offenders gaining the upper hand to commit more crime and render communities even more unsafe, which will eventually lead to a dysfunctional society.

The word corruption is used the most in this study, hence defining it is important. Punch (2009) explains that the definition of corruption is complex and involves a range of offences involving abuse of power and authority and that corruption is much broader than bribery. Corruption also involves committing a variety of criminal offences such as theft and defeating the ends of justice. Faull (2007) provides a specific definition and stipulates that for any act to be classified as corruption, it must involve abuse of entrusted power for personal gain. Delegated power is embedded in police work and is something police members have in abundance. The legal power

of the police is entrusted upon them by the legislations and starts in the objects of Section 205 of the Constitution of 1996. The police are given the power to arrest and detain people who are suspected to have committed an offence. Therefore, police corruption is used to describe a range of illicit police behaviours, from falsifying evidence to obtaining personal financial or other materialistic items for either pursuing an investigation, accepting bribes for not reporting criminal activities, providing police information to offenders, opportunistic thefts and corruption during policing activities (MacVean and Neyroud, 2012).

1.2 Conceptualisation of terms

For basic orientation to the topic, as well as to provide the context in which concepts are used, an introduction to the following terms is necessary:

1.2.1 Police corruption

Corruption is known as dishonesty or fraudulent conducts committed by those in power. The fraudulent actions are usually motivated by personal gains, it is seen as ‘when a police man works for himself rather than the country’ (Full, 2007: 7). Corruption is further defined as where a person gives an offer to someone in a position of power, something called ‘gratification’ in the act to use that power, illegally and unfairly (Meeusen, 2000). The Corruption Act defines corruption as the offer or acceptance of a benefit for the commission or omission of an act in relation to the powers and duties of a person upon whom any power has conferred or who has been charged with any duty by any employment or the holding of any office.

1.2.2 The problem statement

Police officials have the power and authority to perform certain duties and tasks entrusted to them by the South African Constitution. In terms of Section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996, the aim of the police service is to maintain public order,

prevent, combat and investigate crime. The officials who are entrusted with these important duties and functions turn to crime and become law breakers by being involved in corruption. If this is the case, there will be no-one to ensure that there is law and order in South Africa (Rajin, 2017). Corruption committed by police officials has vast negative consequences for the police and for the Government, since communities are fast losing trust in the entire Criminal Justice System (CJS) (Masiloane, 2000). Communities rely on the police to investigate cases and take them to court for justice to be done.

However, the above is not always the case in actual reality. The police are the ones that threaten society because they engage in criminal activities such as extortion, robbery and many more. They do not abide by the law, rather they are the ones breaking the same law they are mandated to uphold. The dream of a safe society becomes elusive when the ones responsible for protecting are the ones compromise the safety of ordinary citizens. These corrupt activities range from the “big guns”, the leaders of the SAPS, such as the first civilian National Commissioner of the South African Police Service, the late Jackie Selebi, who was convicted of corruption (Rajin, 2017). For a just system, it boggles the mind in terms of how is it expected that junior rankofficers play by the book when the ones they look up to are corrupt. For the decrease in corrupt activities among the police officials, so much must be done; sustainable and practical strategies need to be implemented.

Corruption statistics in Gauteng show that for the period 2010 to 2015, there were 405 police officials who were arrested for committing corruption-related offences. Corruption-related offences are extortion, bribery, business robbery, house robbery, armed robbery, theft and fraud. These statistics are collated and kept at the provincial disciplinary office and are reliable. They are updated monthly. Every case against a police official is reported to this office, the Crime Registrar, managed by Major General Sekhukhune (South African Police Service Annual report 2016/2017, 2017) and immediately the data is recorded and progress on the investigation and outcome is monitored (Rajin, 2017).

In 2010, there were 43 recorded cases, and in 2011, the number increased to 71. There was a further increase in 2012, to 83 cases. The initiative of a proper record keeping mechanism improved in 2011 and this could be the reason for the clear depiction of an increase in the number of members arrested for corruption. The proper record keeping mechanism was initiated by then National Police Commissioner, General Bheki Cele in 2010 (Rajin, 2017). In 2013, a decline in corruption was recorded, as police statistics revealed a decrease to 61 followed by a further decrease to 44 in 2014. The decrease however could be attributed to police officials becoming a little more cautious when committing corruption (Booyesen, 2015).

Regardless of any circumstance, be it money related that an officer could engage in any form of corruption such as extortion, police officials must be ethically and morally strong to resist any form of corrupt deed. The code of conduct and the prevention of corruption strategy were both put in place to ensure that corruption is prevented in the SAPS. Even though all these preventative measures are in place, senior officers as well as junior officials are still committing acts of corruption. Hence, this study seeks to explore the strategies currently in place to curb police corruption, and to identify reasons why the strategies may not be conducive.

1.3 The objectives of the study.

The specific objective of this study is to focus on corruption that takes place within the SAPS. Adding to this, the study explores the strategies implemented to curb corruption. The objectives are thus:

1. To identify independent strategies implemented in the SAPS to curb corruption
2. To explore the effectiveness of the strategies to curb corruption
3. To assess the challenges that come with implementing strategies

1.4 Research questions

Crime within the South African Police Services is a problematic issue. Despite the facts known to society that officers are there to be protective and abide by the law, police reports against the police seem to be escalating. Police corruption is known as dishonesty or fraudulent conducts committed by officers, the fraudulent actions are usually caused for personal gains. This research aims to make a valuable contribution to ascertain whether there are strategies in the curbing of police corruption in the Gauteng Province. To ascertain this, the following questions are asked in this study:

Below are the research questions.

1. What independent strategies have implemented in the SAPS to curb corruption?
2. How effectiveness are these strategies to curb corruption?
3. What are the challenges that come with implementing strategies?

1.5 Chapter outline

Chapter Two

Empirical Perspective- (Literature review on police corruption and the strategies that are in place in curbing it.

This chapter provides a discussion on the literature that is relevant to the current study. The literature review provides a background to the study on police corruption. Existing literature gives an indication of where the current study fits into the existing body of knowledge.

Chapter Three

This chapter outlines the theoretical frameworks guiding the study. The theoretical frameworks help locate the study and demonstrate an understanding of different theories and concepts that are relevant to this study. This chapter introduces and describes the normative sponsorship, broken windows and social resource theories which explain why the research problem under this study exists.

Chapter Four

The chapter describes how the study was conducted, and why different approaches were chosen. An in-depth description of the research methodology and various research techniques that are used in the study are presented in this chapter. Furthermore, an in-depth explanation of the data collection instruments is provided.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five is data presentation and data analysis. It provides an interpretation of the findings collected considering the aims and overall objectives of the research.

Chapter Six

This chapter provides recommendations for further research on police corruption in the SAPS.

1.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, an introduction which briefly introduced the problem of police corruption was presented. The problem statement was discussed. The key concept, i.e. corruption, was defined and the aim and objectives of the study were described. The next chapter discusses police corruption, its causes, and the strategies to curb police corruption.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two focuses on police corruption, from a local and international perspective, the causes of police corruption, together with the strategies in place in the curbing of police corruption.

2.1 International and national perspectives on police corruption.

2.1.1 Police corruption

Corruption is fundamentally a moral, as opposed to a legal phenomenon (Newburn, 1999). Furthermore, it is a worldwide phenomenon and countries all over the world go through challenges caused by police corruption. Police misconduct stands as an obstacle which compromises the safety of citizens. The Americas Barometer Insights report (2010) states that police misconduct is prominent all over the world. It has been discovered that places such as those in Latin America, like any other place undergo high police misconduct, including problems related to abuse of power, extrajudicial killings and organised crimes. Countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Guatemala, and Mexico experience high police misconduct rates (Beltran, 2007).

When gathering the opinions about the notion of police corruption, members of the communities are the best judges. A study based on a citizen survey in Finland, using a survey known as the Police Barometer, found in terms of police corruption, ethics and values, citizens had lost their faith in the police (Juntunen and Kahkyo, 2008). More than 60 percent of the surveyed populations think that their local police were involved in criminal activities. The outlook is not positive in many countries. In most nations, the proportion of people who view the police with concern is above 30 percent. It is only in Belize, Colombia, Chile, Haiti Nicaragua, are negative views on the police below 30 percent. As mentioned above, the perception of police corruption internationally is no different from what is happening within the African continent. In terms of police corruption, the Global Corruption report by Transparency International (TI) states that Africa, of all the countries from its continent, twenty countries are perceived as having high rates of police misconduct (Wambua, 2015). Of all these countries, bribery remains the highest form

of corruption. For South Africa, the corruption rates are quite high since the formation of the organisation (South African Police Service. The organisation has struggled with fostering a good image as a professional organisation that has been introduced to serve and protect the citizens (Institute for Security Studies, n.d).

2.2 Police corruption in South Africa

To date, South Africa is failing in keeping consistency when it comes to crime level regulations (Grobler, 2014). Corruption is till today at a high peak. However, it becomes problematic when it is those that have taken oath to serve and protect the country end up being the ones that violate the rules and regulations of the country, the members of the South African Police Service. The public protectors, the South African Police Service, also known as the (SAPS) are regarded as officials that are responsible for combating reckless criminal behaviours. The police organisation (SAPS) was introduced to serve the people of South Africa as protectors of members of the public's safety in particular; this however, becomes problematic when the police fail to meet the demands of the people who are reliant on them. The police officials are witnessed to be doing more damage than good as they fail to meet the needs and demands of citizens. Police corruption is known as a form of police misconduct in which law enforcement officers end up breaking their contract and abuse their power for personal or departmental gain (Balboa and Medalla, 2006). During this, they engage in unlawful behaviours, opposing their roles to serve as protectors.

Police corruption is seen as a taboo in South Africa, a taboo seen as visibly uncomfortable talking about, the same way that the IPID, also known as Independent Police Investigative Directorate, and the South African Police Services have always been expressed as a “rat and a cat”, implying that whenever they are together, it is never comfortable, one is said to be always out to get the other, the same way that Grobler (2009), in his dissertation A criminological perspective on corruption in the public protector, stating that the Independent Police Investigative Directorate is always out to get the corrupt officials within the South African Police Services. It makes those holding senior positions very uncomfortable, because it draws attention

to the gloomy areas of policing which are often out of the sight of the public. It brings to the front a critical tension between the occupational requirements of police members to combat criminals and the organisational needs of the police agency to be accepted in the eyes of the public (Grobler, 2009). Simply put, police corruption lurks in the arena where police members' discretion starts and organisational control ends (Newman, 2002).

2.3 Defining police corruption

The Corruption Act defines corruption as the offer or acceptance of a benefit for the commission or omission of an act in relation to the powers and duties of a person upon whom any power has been conferred or who has been charged with any duty by virtue of any employment or the holding of any office. The use of power for personal gain is witnessed within the South African Police Services, which in this case undermines the democracy of the country because police officials take an oath to serve and protect the country (South African Police Services corruption and fraud prevention strategy, n,d). Therefore, the act of corruption belittles the oath taken to serve and protect. Corruption rates are seen at highest peaks within the South African Police Services, as many members of the community have laid complaints about police corruption (Vilakazi, 2015). Three quarters of South Africans believed that it is the public protectors that are the most corrupt, as stated by the Corruption Watch (2012). The crimes committed have become so serious that the police themselves admitted having been criminals themselves, with different reasons as to why they have committed crimes that go against the oath.

Kututwa (2005) defines corruption as an evil that reduces productivity, encourages laziness and leads to sub-standard products, sorrow, distress or calamity as well as suffering to a person or community. The other social and political evils of corruption include the illicit dealing in state resources for one's personal gain whilst creating suffering among communities through the diversion of resources (Rotberg, 2009). When the systems of governance have been corrupted, the principles of equality and fairness become compromised. In such cases, the poor become the victims of corrupt governance. This is a form of injustice. Uneke (2010) defines corruption as a

horizontal web of dishonesty and injustice. In other words, corruption involves the pervasion of laws and procedures that guide the conduct of public servants. Corruption is viewed as the violation of established rules for self-gain (Rotberg, 2009). People violate the law to accumulate wealth by illegitimate means at the expense of the public. The rightful beneficiaries are denied the opportunity to access the resources or services through manipulation of laws to circumvent the laid down procedures of accessing and distributing wealth (Rotberg, 2009).

Police corruption is the abuse of power, whereby members who hold certain positions abuse the resources or engage in illegal behaviour for personal gain (Newburn, 1999, Skolnick 1967; Klockars et al. 2004; Ivkovic and Haberfeld, 2015). An action is deemed corrupt only if it corrupts something or someone, so corruption is not only a moral concept, but also a causal of what Hindess (2001) calls an orquasi-causal concept, that is, an action is corrupt by virtue of having a corrupting effect on a person's moral character or on an institutional process or purpose. If an action has a corrupting effect on an institution, undermining institutional processes or purposes, then typically but not necessarily it has a corrupting effect and on persons qua role occupants in the affected institutions. Therefore, an action is an act of institutional corruption only if it has the effect of undermining an institutional process or of subverting an institutional purpose or of despoiling the character of some role occupant qua role occupant. Let us refer to this as the causal character of corruption.

Furthermore, the European Code of Police Ethics, states that the term "police corruption" is often used to describe a wide range of activities as stated above, such as bribery, fabrication or destruction of evidence, favouritism, and nepotism. What seems to be a common understanding of police corruption is that it necessarily involves abuse of position, i.e. being a police officer. Moreover, it is widely recognised that corruption should be regarded as a constant threat to the integrity of the police.

Police corruption is an action or omission, a promise of action or omission, or an attempted action or omission committed by a police officer or a group of police officers, characterized by

the police officer's misuse of the official position, motivated in significant part by the achievement of personal gain (Juntunen and Kayhko, 2008:17).

The South African Department of Public Service and Administration states that corruption has different manifestations (Vilakazi, 2014). Within these manifestations, there is bribery, embezzlement, fraud, and extortion, abuse of power, conflict of interest, and nepotism. Bribery often involves the promise, the offering or giving of a benefit that inappropriately affects the actions or decisions of a member of the public. This benefit may accumulate to the public servant, another person or an entity. A variation of this manifestation occurs where a political party or government is offered, promised or given a benefit that improperly affects the actions or decisions of the political party or government. In its most extreme manifestation, this is referred to as state capture, or the sale of parliamentary votes, presidential decrees, criminal court decisions and commercial decisions. An example is when a traffic officer accepts a cash payment in order not to issue a speed fine (Public Services Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). The other manifestation of corruption known as embezzlement means the involvement in theft of resources by persons entrusted with the authority and control of such resources.

The manifestation of fraud means or rather involves actions or behaviours by a public servant, other person or entity that fool others into providing a benefit that would not normally accrue to the public servant, other persons or entity. An example being a public servant that registers a fictitious employee in to collect the salary of that non-existent person. According to the Public Services Anti-Corruption Strategy, the manifestation of extortion involves the practice of obtaining something through forced threats. The abuse of power is a manifestation that involves a public servant using his or her vested authority to improperly benefit another public servant, person or entity, using the vested authority to improperly discriminate against another public servant, person or entity. An example could be that during the process of selecting candidates for a certain post, the highest member in the rank wishes that the post be given to someone they already know (Public Services Anti-Corruption Strategy, 2002). Conflict of interest involves a public servant acting or failing to act on a matter where the public servant has an interest or another person or entity that stands in a relationship with the public servant has an interest. The

last manifestation is nepotism, which involves a public servant with the aim that a family member is appointed to public service positions or that family members receive contracts from state resources, this is the most common in the public sector.

Corruption affects the economy, not only the economy, but also reduces budget revenues, which is very crucial in the development of a country (Voskanyan, 2000). In a study of the effects of corruption on economic and political development of Armenia states, it emerged that corruption can affect on human capital formation, which is the most important input in the process of production and transformation that is called economic development. First corruption weakens tax administration and can lead to tax evasion and improper tax exemptions as discussed above. Therefore, for a given tax system, the higher the level of corruption, the lower the revenue and the lower the resources available for funding public provision of certain service, including education. Second corruption increase the operating cost of government and therefore reduces the resources available for other uses, including the financing of social spending that is crucial to the formation of human capital. A high corruption rate is found to be associated with lower education and health spending (Voskanyan, 2000: 36).

Police corruption, like other definitions involves the acts of misusing authority, with the goal to achieve a personal gain (Grobler, 2002). Police members engage in extortion. They are seen taking bribes from offenders when reaching crime scenes, perpetrators are often witnessed to silence or can be said to “buy” officers (Maguire and Radish, 1999). The Corruption Act (94 of 1992) defines corruption in a legal manner, it regards as guilty of corruption, anyone that gives or offers to give any benefits of whatever nature which is not legally due to any person who has any power by virtue of any employment, to influence the person upon whom such power has been conferred to commit any act in relation to such power or duty (Grober, 2002).

The definition of police corruption rounds up to the abuse of power to the weak. Furthermore, the act goes on to say that “Any person whom any power has been conferred or who has been charged with any duty by virtue of any employment, and therefore attempt to obtain any benefit

of whatever nature which is not legally due with the intention, that he should commit or omit to do any act in relation to such power whether the giver or offerer of the benefit has the intention to influence the person upon whom such power has conferred, so to act or not” (Grobler, 2002, 27). With the above being said, taking a closer look at the history of police corruption, it started with the South African Police (SAP), serving as the police system from 1913 till 1994. The South African Police served as public protectors during the apartheid regime. Through the harsh decades of apartheid, the South African Police were trained to invade into the homes through brutality, displaying absolute contempt for human rights (Marks, 2005). The arrangement of police roles back in the days can be somehow labelled as the foundation of police corruption; the cases of police brutality were severe. Political leaders such as Hendrick Verwoed intensified the ways in human kind was to be treated, and this was done through giving out orders to cause victimisation based on race (Dubow and Mary, 2015).

Police corruption is no different from the past, as much as it was sugar-coated as “orders”, the actions of the police were complete brutality, and contributed to terminating humanity. However, as time progressed, due to the advent of democracy, the SAP was later replaced by the South African Police Services. To date, the SAPS has one thousand one hundred and thirty-eight police stations in South Africa, which are divided according to the provincial borders, with a Provincial Commissioner appointed in each province (Bella and Olutola, 2016).

The South African Police Services Act 68 of 1995 states that the South African Police Service has a responsibility to prevent, combat and investigate crime, together with maintaining public order. To protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, uphold and enforce the law, create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa, 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 criminals are brought to justice and participate in efforts to address the causes of crime. However, serious concerns have been expressed about police brutality in South Africa. It has been argued that the post-apartheid police force is no better than the apartheid police force. Cases of police brutality towards members of the public have been reported (Vilakazi, 2015).

According to Vilakazi (2015), corruption among the police falls under two categories, which are “meat eaters” and “grass eaters” (Gaines and Miller, 2005:202). Grass eaters are those members of the police service who engage in criminal behaviours that involve minor criminal acts, and on the other hand, meat eaters refer to police officials engaging in major corruption actions (Gaines et al., 2005). Meat eaters in the police service engage in criminal acts that can be classified as aggressive, aggressively misusing the resources of the state, together with their powers as police officials. They manipulate their power as officials that serve and protect the country and its civilians in the name of personal gain. Prenzler and Ransley (2002) have looked at the typologies of police corruption, and these include what they call graft or ‘classic corruption’, which includes petty crimes, e.g. tips, cancellation of tickets and the acceptance of bribes, usually for personal gain.

Other forms of police typologies include what is called process corruption, whereby police officials steal valuables from crime scenes; this is very common within the South African Police Services (Vilakazi, 2015). The third typology is what is called excessive force ‘brutality or ‘injustice force’, this comprises verbal, torture, serious assault and murder. Although the SAPS general standing orders cautions unethical behaviour in accordance with section thirteen of the South African Police Service Act (Vilakazi, 2015), members of the SAPS continue with unethical behaviours. Another typology of police corruption includes unprofessionalism both at the workplace and outside the place of work.

The extent of police corruption has taken over and has affected the ways in which unethical behaviours are not feared (Vilakazi, 2015). For example, it has been noted that it is far much easier to get away with inappropriate behaviours in the workplace. For example, when looking at the ways in which other police members are caught, yet no arrests are made, it is far much easier to attempt the same action, and this culminates into a vicious circle of corruption (Treisman, 2000). It is problematic when the leaders are the ones that contribute most to corruption. To show the ways in which corruption further increases, politicians have taken advantage of the

police service, partly because they recommend and appoint national police commissioners to the top positions in the police. Police officers are inevitably put in a competitive and compromised position seeking favours from politicians (Yesufu, 2014). The inseparable relationship between the police and politicians is a worrying development in South Africa. Researchers have argued that, when there is a fusion between police and politicians, the police become less accountable to the citizens (Brogden, 2008; Reiner 2000, 2010). This shows the ways in which the system is corrupted.

Corruption is a cancer that spreads and ravages the entire body (Rotberg, 2009). It has increased in various forms, creating links between different mafias and organisations with damaging effects on economic growth and development in countries as it promotes inefficiency and greed (Theobald, 1990, as cited in Uneke, 2010). Where corruption is endemic, public enterprises become ineffective, inefficient and wasteful to the extent of being persistently bailed out with taxpayers' money (Mundia, 2014). The spread of corruption is difficult to control as corrupt operations are done in secrecy, and victims are not easily recognised (Peurala, 2011). According to Mundia (2014), organised corruption within the South African Police Services can bring the economy to a grinding halt and create artificial shortages that are then exploited for private economic gain. Such corruption has service delivery implications. It causes municipalities and other government departments to waste and mismanage state funds (Myint, 2000). When municipalities embezzle and mismanage funds, it becomes difficult to provide adequate services to the residents. This can trigger civil unrest. In developing countries such as South Africa, mismanagement, and police misconduct are very common and these are mostly associated with very poor service delivery.

2.4 Forms of police corruption

Police corruption comes in various forms, these include bribery, extortion, drug dealing and police brutality. These are discussed in detail below.

2.4.1 Bribery

Bribery is one of most common forms of corruption within the South African Police Service. Vilakazi (2015) states that bribery is everywhere, in many instances whereby members of the public may not be having a driving licence, thus the police officials, mainly the lower ranks, the constables and sergeants negotiate for a bribe. It is alleged that police officials in lower ranks constantly stop taxi drivers, with the knowledge that taxi drivers don't follow the law, in terms of driving without a licence and not following road rules. The drivers are known to beg that there should be no legal acts against them, thus they bribe the police officers. Police officers are also said to take bribes from street vendors selling pirated CD's, almost as if they join the police force to take bribes as an extra profiting job on the side (Vilakazi, 2015).

2.4.2 Extortion

Vilakazi (2015), states that police officials tend to forcefully demand money from members of public, particularly the undocumented members of society, with the intention to let them stay illegally in the country. Members of the police services are witnessed to extort people found doing "petty" crimes such as urinating in public and public drinking. Therefore, for them not to arrest for inappropriate behaviour, money extortion takes place. This is also prevalent when it comes to sex workers; they rarely make arrests, and the only thing they do is demand money from the sex workers or have sexual intercourse with them. In that regard, police officials do not see it as extortion, but rather a way to avoid arrests.

2.4.3 Drug dealing

Drug leading by police officials is very common within the South African Police Services. The respondents in Vikakazi's (2015) study, on the impact of service delivery in Pretoria, indicated that dishonest officials work hand in hand with crime syndicates to sell drugs such as *nyaope* and other drugs in their respective communities. Some of the police officials inform drug dealers about police operations. They are issuing the drug dealers warnings to remove their drugs to avoid being arrested. As a result, many young South Africans are using drugs because nowadays police officials are the driving force behind drug dealing (Vilakazi, 2015).

2.4.4 Police brutality

Many cases of police brutality have been reported numerous times, people often complain about the police ruthlessly beating them. Police tend to use excessive power on offenders. Members of the community claim that they thought the days of police brutality went away with apartheid. However, to date, members of the force abuse their power on their own kind, instead of playing the role of civil protectors, they have become the enemy that members of society fear for. Police brutality is mainly witnessed in during protest action; they tend to be violent, in the name of "controlling" the strike. Police officers have members of society dying in their hands due to brutality. Police killings in communities are increasing due to the "shoot first, shoot to kill and answer questions later" mantra, which somehow gives them some sense of control, and leeway to abuse their power (Vilakazi, 2015). Participants in Vilakazi's study (2015) state that you find police officials at the taverns that are always abusing and showing violence against the community, like taking alcohol, throwing it out on top of the people and beating them up, no matter how drunken people are, they are still people and there should be a humane way to handle them. If they manhandle people that way, you wonder what kind of training they are getting in the SAPS.

2.5 The causes of police corruption

For every action, there are reasons as to why and how it occurs. Treisman (2002) states that the main causal factor of corruption is the way in which a country operates, that is its strictness and the harsh measures taken to control it. When looking at corruption within the South African Police Services, calculations are done before committing the crimes, punishments and rewards are already calculated. Loop holes are known by the members of the SAPS, and they know how things are done within the organisation. Treisman (2002) continues to say that the cracks of the system are known because as police officials themselves, having been involved in corruption (as protectors), they are aware of getting around the system when they are caught.

2.5.1 The weakness of the justice system

According to Mundia (2014), corruption is caused by the weakness of the judicial system, which leads to poor prosecution rates of perpetrators of corruption in many countries' public sectors. This problem can be attributed to the absence of rule of law. In a country where rule of law does not exist, governance structures tend to be weak and easy to manipulate in ways that undermine democracy and development (Rose-Ackerman, 1999). Rose-Ackerman (1999) further argues that public accountability is necessary, whether the country is democratic or autocratic, as long as there are necessary tools to combat corruption. Some democratic countries resist accountability, which creates opportunities or gaps for corruption. Corruption predominantly occurs in countries whose democratic principles, such as transparency and accountability, do not exist, whereby the system is corrupt and no actions are taken when there are cases of corruption, when they go not reported or swept under the carpet. Norad (2009) asserts the importance of rule of law in creating democratic principles that are tools for creating anti-corruption institutions used to combat corruption. Democratically elected governments have the potential to establish institutions that are credible enough not to use corrupt elements (Mundia, 2014).

2.5.2. The lack of ethical standards

The lack of ethical standards within the police force is a contributing factor to the rise in any form of corruption. As it is well known, ethical standards do not condone bribery or any form of corruption for that matter, however within the police service, this is the opposite (Yesufu, 2014). The ethical standards are known to the officials; however, they are not put to test because of the chaos that goes behind closed doors. The failure of police officials' lack of commitment and following procedure result high rates of corruption, therefore a rigid ethical enforcement of ethical standards needs to be revised, to dispatch corruption in the South African Police Services. The police service has become more politicised recently (Yesufu, 2014), it has become difficult to separate the police service from politics. This can be traced back to the case of disgraced SAPS National Commissioner Jackie Selebi who was jailed for 15 years for corruption and the sentence was never completed. The integrity of the police lie in the appointment of Divisional Commissioners, so due to the appointment of Commissioners, the appointment is politically based, meaning that the post are filled in terms of politics, this affects the structure of the SAPS because they may not know police culture, for example, Minister BH Cele is a former teacher, this Commissioner may not necessarily know police culture and police background, this may affect the SAPS integrity as they are not necessarily career policemen, the decisions that may be done may affect SAPS.

2.5.3. The leaders

The leaders that should be leading by example are the ones that are the most corrupt. The then appointed Acting police National Commissioner Lieutenant Nhlanhla Mkwazi was reported to have said before the Members of Parliament that he had been instructed by “ Powers beyond us to release some case dockets to the Inspector –general for intelligence” suggesting once gain illegal political interference to derail the investigation of General Richard Mdluli for alleged murder and fraudulent use of the crime intelligence slush funds which he diverted to his personal use. When analyzing the fact that members of the parliament give out statements with regards to “powers beyond us releasing dockets”, this implies that the police officers are protected by politicians, especially when it comes to power, and high positions.

2.5.4. Peer pressure

Alpert and Dunham (1997) state that one of the most profound pressures operating in police agencies is peer influences. These influences are resulting from police subculture, the subculture within members of the SAPS, through research, Alpert and Duham (1997) noted that police subculture causes police deviance, due to the initial human need to be part of a social group. It is well known that humans are designed with the urge of sense of belonging, thus the absence of a social belonging may result in actions that may cause one to do the unspeakable. Subculture thus influences deviant behaviour by transmitting the beliefs, values, definitions, and “manners of expression” that depart from acceptable behaviour. As noted above, adding to this, the sense of subculture is mostly influenced by the fact that human beings are known to be social beings, the feeling of alienation or isolation is thus a high causal factor of criminalization, that is engaging in criminal activities for instance, having to be constantly segregated from the rest can be a stressor and an act of “cowardice”, This is common in men because they are known to have been brought up with the notion of masculinity, therefore being a coward does not form part of masculinity, hence criminalisation may occur, for acceptance and sense of belonging.

2.5.5. The public

Other than the sense of belonging, the public has allegedly contributed to police corruption. It has been noted that the public have problems with the police. The acts of citizens have sustained the corruption rates (Yesufu, 2014), these are done in the form of bribes, and citizens have encouraged police officers to work from a compromised position, they would offer bribes, a certain amount for an act that is illegal. This however, does not force police officials to be criminal; they know the law and ethics that go against criminal behaviours. Members of the public only “test” their way to get out of any criminal situation and in many cases, members of the public win, since it is well known that police officials love money. The ways in which police officials love money is driven by greed, they are rarely satisfied with what they get as salaries (Yesufu, 2014). For instance, the then former police commissioner Jackie Selebi was known to

more than R1 3 000 000p.a, more than enough money to sustain him, yet he was never satisfied; one can never understand the reasons why he got involved in a web of corruption.

2.5.6. Poor management

A model for the prevention of corruption and the prevention of corruption related offences at Gauteng police stations state that the increased level in police misconduct is caused governed by poor management (Rajin and Dayananda, 2017). The appointed investigators, leaders and supervisors who deal with discipline fail to facilitate the misconducts that occur within police departments, this is not only a South African problem, however a worldwide problem. The corruption rates that are occurring in the SAPS are what we call “rotten apples”, in that there is a vicious circle of corrupting one another, from poor management in high ranks to corrupting the juniors. Investigators of corruption cases argue that often senior officers fail to take responsibility for the corrupt behavior of police officials, even though they know about it, this constantly increasing the corruption rates. The fact that the Divisional Commissioners are appointed on the basis of politics and not necessarily on merit, that is, not formed on the background of the police culture, results to poor management.

South Africa is known for its poor leadership skills, ranging from its presidency, it therefore does not come off as a surprise when the levels of corruption in lower ranks initiate in criminal activities. The leadership of the South African Police Service e.g. police commissioners stimulates the increase in police misconduct, for example, Khomotso Phahlane, Jackie Selebi and other former police commissioners. Instead of leading by example, leaders are the ones that commit these high levels of police corruption (Rajin and Dayananda, 2017). Examples such as those mentioned above result in increased corruption rates. Michael (2007) states that poor management should be managed by the management to direct and manage the subordinates when unethical behaviour starts to manifest within the workplace or outside the workplace due to the overall shaming of the entire organisation of the SAPS by members of the community.

2.5.7. The work environment

The police deal with certain crimes which they are aware of the benefits involved. For example, a police officer dealing with drug dealers, for instance may be tempted to become involved in such criminal acts, having calculated the risks and benefits of that crime if he/she believes that such involvement will go undetected (Manning and Redlinger, 1977; Punch (2009). Former National Police Commissioner Bheki Cele's downfall is an example, he is said to have engaged in unlawful dealings of drugs with convicted drug dealer Glen Agloitti. The former National Police Commissioner General Riah Phiyega on the other hand is currently being investigated by the Independent Police Investigative Directorate for alleged criminal offences of defeating the ends of justice. It was reported that General Phiyega tipped off Western Cape Commissioner of Police Lieutenant –General Arno Lamoer that he was under investigation by the crime intelligence unit as having possible dealings with a drug lord (The Sunday Independent, November 10:6). This shows how power corrupts such that those that hold senior positions destroy the system through corruption. Essentially, they fail the system as leaders. The fact that the former National Commissioners are alleged to have acted unlawful ways shows that corruption remains institutionalised within the South African Police Service.

2.5.8. Lack of transparency

The way in which the system works, the involvement of politics in the SAPS, has an influence on the South African Police Service, leads to the organisation seen as dysfunctional. The lack of transparency in the organization is a cause of corruption (Habte and Sahle, 2009). This is accompanied by weak controls and bad governance. Some governments are too weak, both at the policy and at the implementation levels. As such, controlling unethical behaviour in such societies become difficult. Such political softness and poor auditing mechanisms lead to corruption (Andvig et al., 2008; Gould and Amar-Reyes, and the United Nations, cited in Khan, 1998). According to Caiden et al. (2001) the rules of weak institutions are vacuous, faulty, uncertain, ambivalent, unclear, contradictory, deficient, defective, too loose, too narrow, too

restricted, and so forth, which denotes defective governance constituting fertile ground for corruption. Police corruption tends to flourish when institutions or organisations are weak, this therefore makes the ground fertile for more unethical behaviours which derail the functioning of the South African Police Services.

2.5.9. Insufficient income

There seems to be a high correlation between the level of income and corruption (Vilakazi, 2014). When looking at the causal factors of corruption in terms of income, research has revealed that poor countries are the ones that are most likely to have higher corruption prevalence (Kasper, 2005). Kasper (2005:5), continues to say that, the association between income levels and corruption levels does of course not tell us anything about causation, but it seems plausible that there is circular interaction: countries are poor because rulers are highly corrupt; and poor living standards invite corruption.

In counties such as South Africa a developing country, the government does not pay the police much in terms of salaries ‘capitulation’ wages to employees. As it is well known that the people of colour have always been exposed to socio-economic factors such as poverty, they are most likely in need to support extended families, a high causal factor of corruption (Goud and Amaro-Reyes, 1983). This is mainly due to inequalities that exist between people of colour and whites. Furthermore, the alignment of incentives in the South African Police Services seems to be a causal factor of unethical behaviour. The combination of poor incentives and unbearable working conditions are prevalent within the SAPS. The poor salaries do not motivate individual police officers to increase service delivery or rather enhance their commitment to the organisational ethics standards, the greed that comes with police officials therefore ensures that criminalising behaviours within the organisation are prevalent (Rasheed, 1995).

2.5.10. Lack of education

As the saying goes, “education is the key to success”, education plays a huge role in any sector, it lays the foundation when it comes to the functioning of any job that one might have. The South African Police Service as an organisation that deals with members of the community is no exception. There is a high rate of uneducated members of the SAPS, and this may lead to the lack of understanding ethics and the way in which behaviour is to be governed. Middlemist (1981) argues that education and training resemble a systematic acquisition of skills, rules, knowledge and attitudes that have broad and general applicability in one’s total environment. Thus, lack of ethics, education and training has the potential to inhibit the enhancement of good performance. The lack of education instigates good work progress; hence members of the South African Police Services tend to be finding themselves in trouble with the law (Michael, 2015). Mafunisa (2000) argues that lack of ethics, education and training is a restriction for the accomplishment of both efficiency and effectiveness in public service delivery, particularly because a productive organisation is determined and measured in terms of whether it can deliver services that are responsive to community needs, of which in the case of the South African Police Service, the general public has had it with the police members, due to the high rates of corruption.

Adding to the above, the former South African National Police Commissioner, Selebi, told the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Public Accounts that “all police trainees have grade twelve certificates, but can hardly construct a sentence in English” (SAPS, 2004). The National Police Commissioner argued that “the requirements for the appointment of functional police officers are both grade 12 certificate and a driver’s license”. Therefore, applicants present their grade 12 certificate and a driver’s licence, however, it is found that they can hardly construct a sentence in English. This implies that lack of competency, which is a critical barrier for an effective service delivery. With regards to the police trainees’ level of education, the Department of Education is responsible for producing incompetent matriculants (SAPS, 2005). This demonstrates the problems associated with inadequate education and training (Michael, 2007).

2.5.11. Inadequate training

Police staff require adequate training. What needs to be done is the training of officers to equip them with the basic lessons of integrity, including respect for fellow citizens, respecting them enough to know that the society is reliant on them (Williams, 2002). By so doing, training of employees helps in instilling in officers, the desire to protecting integrity, not based on fearing apprehension, but because they know corruption is wrong (Goldstein, 1975). According to Benson (2008), within the South African Police Service, introductions of workshops on corruption must be attended by members of the organisation. These activities should be more of a person centred kind of training. To keep this type of training in progress, all members of the organisation holding managerial positions should also undergo these courses as this will help empower them to fulfil their role as displaying managers with integrity and transparency in an environment with ethically difficult situations.

2.5.12. Recruiting strategy

Grobler (2002) states that the causal factor of police corruption is the quality of what is called the bureaucratic quality, which is largely determined by the criteria that is used in the recruitment process, mainly focusing on either recruitment on merit or not. In a South African context, it is less likely rare to be appointed on merit; instead appointment is based on nepotism, political affiliation, patronage and the rewards for loyalty as opposed to capability and experience (Grobler, 2002). The determinants of a bureaucratic South Africa are rooted in the belief system that when one gets appointed, the family should also be appointed, thus one being forced to engage in dishonest behaviours with the reasons to adhere to family values (Mbaku, 1996). Bauer and Van Wyk (1999) highlighted that the lack of interest in what is going on within the public services also increases in the rise of police corruption with the South African Police Services, members of the public seem to have reached the stage whereby they believe that their opinions do not matter, thus corruption levels increase.

A challenge that exists within the South African Police Services is police culture. This typically tends to be characterized by the so-called code of silence (Newham and Gomomo, 2000). Punch

(2009) identifies police culture as having several elements, such as, solidarity; danger and sacrifice; excitement; “real” police work; and so on. According to Basdeo (2010), the code of secrecy, maintained by the police sub-culture, helps to protect corrupt police officials from the law. Ehlermann (2007) states that police corruption is difficult to detect because it sometimes involves many actors working together. Newham (2000) emphasizes that police work takes place in messy and difficult circumstances. This motivates officers to stick together and watch each other's backs.

2.6. Legislative framework and regulatory framework of strategies to curb police corruption.

This section will discuss the legislative framework that deals with police corruption. There are legislative frameworks that deal with police corruption; with the aim of controlling it, below are the discussions of the strategies.

2.6.1. The Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID)

The government has implemented strategies that help curb corruption within the SAPS. One of the implementing strategic plans being the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) Strategic Plan 2014-2019. The Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act No 1 of 2011, which progressed April 1, 2012 replaced the Independent Complaint’s Directorate (hereafter referred to as ICD)(Rajinand and Dayananda, 2017). The Independent Police Investigative Directorate promotes proper police conduct in accordance with the principles of the Constitution. It aspires to adhere to the highest standards of ethical behaviour, integrity and the continuous application of values (Independent Police Investigative Directorate Strategic Plan, 2014). IPID grants the directorate an extended mandate which focuses on more serious and priority crimes committed by members of the SAPS and the Municipal Police Services. It places strict obligations on the SAPS and the Municipal Police Services regarding reporting on matters. Currently, the IPID takes the role of dealing with cases that involve death in police custody and rape cases that either happened on duty or off duty. Therefore, cases of offending members of the

SAPS are taken when they have been reported by members of the public (Rajalina and Dayanananda, 2017).

However, the above strategy to curb police corruption within the South Africa Police Services seems more of a challenge due to the lack of trained investigators. The cases that the IPID end up becoming ineffective to the reliance of information on the public and fellow police officers, as other cases cannot be proved without the general members of the public. Regardless of having private testimonials, many witnesses end up being murdered (Rajalin and Dayananda, 2017). The Independent Police Investigative Directorate made recommendations to make a bill to increase the power of the unit, however due to lack of resources to make detailed investigations about police officers; it has led to less progress in the cases that come upfront to be investigated. Therefore, this becomes a drawback to the strategies to seeking to help in regulating crime rates with the South African Police Services, a draw back in making a better system of functioning. The lack of professional investigators results in an overload in cases that are given to IPID investigators. There have been reports of having four hundred and forty investigators, who altogether deal with at least 4937, which is much more than they can take. This therefore leaves the government with the role to take part in ensuring that the strengthening of corruption regulations is in place and adhering to the demands of the IPID (Rajalin and Dayananda, 2017).

2.6.2. The South African Police Service Corruption and Fraud Preventive Strategy

Additional strategies to curbing corruption include the South African Police Service Corruption and Fraud Prevention Strategy. This has been designed to eradicate corruption in the SAPS. These range from government policy requirements such as the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, Act 12 of 2004, to the Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy 2002 (Anon, 2017). The South African Police Service Strategy of Corruption and Fraud Prevention Strategy seeks to eliminate the incidence of corruption by the application of multi-dimensional approaches which incorporate aspects relating to the causes and effects of the involvement of the police on corruption. According to Anon (2017), the South African Police Service Corruption and Fraud Prevention Strategy of corruption comprise pillars that help in the eradication of

corruption. These include prevention, investigation and restoration. They are the core activities, which must be practiced avoiding the spread of corruption and fraud, whereas the pillar of prevention seeks to ensure that corruption ceases to happen. It prevents the opportunity for and actual perpetration of acts of corruption and fraud by SAPS personnel, and this is done by ensuring that the appropriate preventive mechanisms are developed (Anon, 2017).

2.6.3. The Independent Complaints Directorate

Section 50 of the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995) provides for the establishment of the Independent Complaints Directorate to oversee the conduct of individual police officers in their implementation of safety and security. The Independent Complaints Directorate is structured to operate at both national and provincial spheres of government by ensuring a high level of professional ethics among members of the SAPS and the Municipal Police Service (MPS). The ICD operates independently from the SAPS and ensures that individual police officers are held accountable in the performance of their daily tasks. According to the Independent Complaints Directorate's Annual Report (2003/4), the vision of the Independent Complaints Directorate is to achieve a police service that is in line with the spirit of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 and its mission is to promote proper police conduct. The effective utilisation of the ICD has the potential to enhance positive work ethics and ethos, which is critical for the effective delivery of safety and security.

The Independent Complaint Directorate has an important role to play to create a police service that is grounded in high levels of moral ground and that is critical for the enhancement of positive work ethics and ethos. For example, the Gauteng Provincial Independent Complaint Directorate oversees the operation of individual police officers. This civilian oversight institution ensures a high level of ethical conduct among individual police by investigating complaints of brutality, criminality and acts of misconduct or unethical practices allegedly committed by police officers (Masiapata, 2007). It serves in dealing with police misconduct and cases involving members of the South African Police Services (Grobler, 2002).

2.6.4. The Public Protector Act

To control corruption rates within the South African Police Services, section 182 (1), of the constitution, the Public Protector was introduced. It has the role to investigate affairs that are deemed inappropriate. The Public Protector Act, 1994 (Act no 23 07 1994), states that the role of the public protector is to deal with disputes in terms of mediation, conciliation or negotiation, together with making appropriate recommendations to the public (Grobler, 2009). The public protector, according to Grobler (2009), is an independent high-ranking official appointed by parliament to report investigations that may cause prejudices and maladministration; this is reported to the parliament in the form of feedback, establishing facts through investigations. In simple terms, the office of the public protector ensures the process of investigations in the abuse of power by the police officers. Instead of solely focusing on the South African Police Services, it mainly focuses the protection of the rights of civil members, mainly violated by police officials. The public protector serves as institution that protects human rights in becoming more accessible to the public, thus the public protector eases feelings of helplessness (Baqwa in Sangweni and Balia, 1999).

The public protector has the wires to investigate any alleged misconduct in state affairs, as many cases that are reported to the public protector are mainly criminal in nature, committed by members of the SAPS in several occasions, as the South African Police Services are known to violate the rights of community members (Grobler, 2009). Adding to this, South Africa introduced what is called the Transparency-South Africa (T-SA). This is a non-governmental organisation that was introduced in 1997 with the intention to address issues of corruption and government (Grobler, 2009). The mission of the organisation is to ensure good governance in all aspects of government, including the monitoring of corruption at a local level and raising awareness about corruption in society.

Additionally, the detection pillar on the other hand seeks to look at the establishment of exposing corruption in the SAPS; while the restoration pillar seeks to limit the impact of corruption in the

SAPS. These pillars go hand in hand in terms of reducing the corruption that goes on behind closed doors. They are a collection of corruption eradication since they improve the institutional capacity of the South African Police Services to deal with corruption and fraud, together with management policies to ensure that corruption is at its lowest. Anon (2017) further mentions that the government takes initiative in building more strategies to eliminate corruption, and these include the strengthening of the Criminal Justice System, professionalisation of the Police Service, demilitarisation of the Police Service and the building safety through using an integrated approach.

2.6.5. The Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy.

The Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy has also been put forward to help in prevention and combating corruption through a multiplicity of supportive actions. The Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy is informed by the following principles to root out corruption, including the need for a holistic and integrated approach to fighting corruption, with a balanced mixture of prevention, investigation, prosecution and public participation as the platform for the strategy. Public service tailor-made strategies are required to operate independently but complimentary to national strategies, particularly regarding detection, investigation, prosecution and adjudication of acts of corruption, as well as the recovery of the proceeds of corruption.

2.6.6. The South African Police Service Code of Conduct

The South African Police Service on its own has a strategic plan in the controlling of police corruption. The South African Police Service Code of Conduct was introduced September 1997 (Rajin and Dayananda, 2017). This strategic plan requires every recruit to read the code of ethics. They are required to sign it and later keep it in the members of the SAPS files. This code of ethics ensures that the members of the South African Police Service abide to serve and protect the citizens as requested by the code of conduct, committing to creating a safe environment for South African citizens. During the process of signing the Code of Conduct, police officials pledge to uphold the Constitution and the law by protecting the fundamental rights of every

person and exercise the powers conferred to them in a responsible and controlled manner (Joubert, 2015). However, there have been cases of police officers not living by the code of conduct.

When a police officer is found to have committed any corrupt action, any act that goes against the code of conduct, disciplinary actions are taken against him/her. The officer that will be found guilty is said to be charged departmentally in terms of the SAPS Disciplinary Regulation, implying that a common law or statutory offence has been committed (Rajalin and Dayananda, 2017). An additional departmental charge will be added in terms of Regulation. A charge for failing to adhere to the Code of Conduct will be added (SAPS, 2016). The above-mentioned offences in terms of the South African Police Service Regulations are regarded as serious misconduct. When a police official is tried for such an offence and found guilty by the Departmental Tribunal, the official will be dismissed from the SAPS with a dishonourable discharge.

2.6.7. Anti-Corruption Capacity Requirements (DPSA)

According to the DPSA's Anti-Corruption Capacity Requirements (2006:52), the most effective way of detecting unethical conduct is when people, either staff or people from outside the organisation report such incidents in their daily lives. Unfortunately, many people are reluctant to report the incidents which they witness around them. The DPSA's Anti-Corruption Capacity Requirements (2006:52) cited reasons as to why cases are not reported. The reasons include facts that people do not believe that the department will do something about it, and people have a fear of retaliation from management. Linked to the fear of retaliation, people feel that there is a lack of anonymity and confidential means of reporting. This strategy in curbing police crime thus becomes a strategy that is not highly effective, implying that individual employees have been reluctant to report incidents of unethical practices due to uncertainty about their anonymity. However, the Public Service Commission (2006) indicates that the National Anti-Corruption Hotline is an independent and impartial initiative that is meant to maintain a high standard of professional ethics and anonymity in the reporting of unethical practices in the public service.

This means that the hotline provides for a safe, confidential and private way of reporting incidents of unethical conduct across the public service.

2.6.8. SAPS Anti-Corruption Unit

Grobler (2002) states that the South African Police Services has its own Anti-Corruption Unit, which is responsible for investigating illegal behaviours which occur within the South African Police Service. The mission of this unit is to ensure that there is the prevention of corruption within the organisation. The unit was set up to investigate some of the allegations of corruption or any criminal acts related to mischievous acts. The unit was also initiated to ensure the initiation and implementations of awareness campaigns against corruption within the organisation, and the reporting of dysfunctional behaviours (Prinsloo, 2000).

The South African Police Services Anti- corruption has its successes, and these include what they call *Operation Jacobs*, which investigated unlawful smuggling of drugs by the members of the South African Police Services, which were worth R1.5 million. Another successful anti-corruption campaign is *Operation Cruiser*, which also dealt with corrupt members of the organisation; it specialized in police officers in specialized units involved in criminal activities. The anti- corruption also had a successful launch in what they call *Operation Dust*, which looked at inside jobs which involved members of the South African Police Services, it operated within a national level (Grobler, 2002).

Most studies on police corruption are beginning to reject the “bad apple” theory, that corrupt officers are only a few rotten apples in the barrel. Instead, they are beginning to examine the “barrel”, being the individual police department, for signs that corruption is allowed, encouraged, or ignored. Police departments must ensure that only fully qualified applicants who demonstrate integrity are selected to become police officers. To prevent corruption, police officers should be

frequently assigned new roles or to different departments, especially those officers who work in positions that are more prone to corruption, such as vice squads or drug units. In addition, police officers should be held to a higher standard of conduct than ordinary citizens, and the standards should be raised as officer progresses through the ranks.

Corruption is one of the most hated behaviours since antiquity (Grobler, 2002). Many government leaders have been toppled because of corruption; and many political parties have had to surrender to social discontent and have lost their power. Allegations of corruption also lead to the political demise (but to the rise, under other circumstances) of the actors; a recent example is South Africa's president and deputy president (Habte-Micheal, 2009). Corruption destabilizes nations in general; people lose trust in their leaders and are not ready to implement the policies leading to the weakening of the legitimacy of a government. Eizenstat (1998) indicates that, apart from damaging economic development and reform, corruption hinders the growth of democratic institutions as well. Rose-Ackerman (1999:) also notes that corruption in the provision of public goods and services and in the imposition of costs, casts a cloud over governments seeking popular legitimacy (Johnston, cited in Robinson, 1998).

2.7. General strategies to curbing police corruption

There are other strategies with regards to curbing police corruption, not only legislative framework, but there are other ways of curbing police corruption. These strategies are discussed below.

2.7.1. Salary

Faull (2011) states that the government could help in decreasing the levels of police corruption by merely increasing the salary wages of police officials. However, this is critiqued by the government that members of the South African Police Services get enough money to sustain

them from engaging in criminalising behaviours. The study by Faull (2011), which mainly focused on the perceptions of police corruption, states that civilians preferred that the corrupt police officials be arrested and made examples of, however, it has been noted that SAPS members, some were charged; however, they were not dismissed. Civilians indicated that they would like to have technology that will help monitor the life of police officials on duty; this includes the use of cameras that will record engagements, dash board-mounted cameras, this according to civilians will reduce the rates of police corruption.

2.7.2 Management

It has been discovered that not only policies ensure the curbing of police corruption within the South African Police Service. The management is expected to play a leading role in the implementation of the ethical framework and that is critical for the enhancement of positive work ethics and ethos. According to Du Toit et al. (1998), there are various elements which have the potential to enhance the implementation of the ethical framework, which eventually lead to the decrease in police corruption; these include the enforcement of high moral tone in the organisation itself. Using the system of rewards in the workplace can be a way of controlling corruption levels in the SAPS, thus when good performance is delivered, rewards are due (Michael, 2007). This can work together with the strategic management approach to ensuring accountability.

2.7.3. Budget reforms

The curbing of police corruption could be reduced by having a budget reform. According to Voskanyan (2000), the government must sit and have the reforming of a budget; there should also be the well allocation of resources, and ensuring that these resources are used with responsibility. To ensure the effectiveness of this strategy, there should be constant facilitation in the use of these resources. This should be accompanied by good financial management, this serves as a powerful tool in the control of corruption, not only in the South African Police Services, but in any public facility. One of the most important in curbing police corruption is raising awareness

and educating employees (Voskanyan, 2000). In these, awareness campaigns and training must take place. There must be a keen commitment to the promotion of the guidelines on professional ethics, and training, both at induction level and continuous training on practical application of professional ethics. This should be accompanied by encouragement of employees to blow the whistle on corruption within their work environments.

2.7.4. Naming and shaming “Snitching”

Another strategy of curbing police corruption is that of naming and shaming corrupt members of the police services organisation. Corrupt officials must therefore be named and shamed without fear or favour (Mundia, 2014). Doig and Riley (1998) emphasizes such exposure of corrupt public officers as a helpful type of anti-corruption strategy. Public humiliation by members of the public serves a fundamental role in the helping of curbing police corruption. According to Riley (1998), the humiliation of public office bearers through purges, and making examples in quasi-official tribunals, are effective ways of curbing corruption if correctly mainstreamed in an array of mechanisms. This can be a great strategy in the curbing of police corruption.

2.7.5. Ethics

To control police corruption, there should be ethical organisational culture (Vilakazi, 2015). This is crucial to the success of any organisation. Ethical values are what are regarded as good and bad in the interactions with others. Like people, work organisations should have ethical values. These create its ethical culture and provide guidelines for how every member of the organisation should behave. For example, if an organisation’s culture supports service delivery, and this is made visible in everything it does, most staff will start to behave accordingly. If its culture is based on fairness and honesty, employees will expose those that threaten this way of doing things (Department of Public Service Act, n.d). Management also plays a vital role in determining organisational culture, particularly the culture around corruption. If employees do not respect management, the possibility of things going wrong increases. However, if

management always acts ethically, adheres to policies, procedures and guidelines, and acts strongly and consistently when corruption is discovered, employees will do the same.

2.7.6. Improving the recruiting strategy

The South African Police Service should revise its recruitment strategy by recruiting relevant people (Vilakazi, 2015). A variety of the recruitment strategies must be developed to ensure a successful recruiting effort (Brown, 2012). The author further mentions that one of such strategies 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 will join the organisation. They should hire the most reliable officials because of their high degree of integrity. Integrity is more important in the police service than any other institution because the police are empowered by society to uphold and enforce the law (Brown, 2012). Police organisations are encouraged to think outside the box in their effort to reach qualified candidates by improving benefits and incentives such as salary, educational incentive, and overtime opportunities and so forth (Dempsey and Forst, 2012). If they recruit this way, they shall recruit potential police officials who are willing to help the community and to protect the country with pride. A former Harvard Business School professor, HrandSaxenian, advocated the theory that the selection process should emphasise the selection of the most mature, intelligent, stable applicant (Dempsey and Frost, 2012). They should fill the hiring gaps with the intent to avoid hiring candidates who have low ethical standards because it compromises the South African Police Services' integrity.

The South African Police Services' top management should be aware of the police corruption that exists within the SAPS and they should deal with it. They should strive to maintain a high standard of ethical conduct that can serve as the key to prevent police corruption and maintain the community member's trust. They should visit the police stations once or twice yearly so that

they can understand police member's problems and other challenges they encounter. Thereafter, the SAPS management should attend to those challenges and help police officials to deal with them. Some of the community members believe that the SAPS must have the Field Commanders in the police stations to monitor the police official's performance daily. The sergeants, warrants and lieutenants have the daily and ongoing responsibility to ensure that the appropriate workplace standards are maintained (Vilakazi, 2015).

2.8. Conclusion

In concluding this chapter, police corruption is a worldwide phenomenon. It is problematic in society, and people have lost their faith in the criminal justice. The extent of police corruption cannot be easily or accurately measured, there is evidence that the problem is a widespread and systemic one. People from broader society tend to die in the arms of those they are entrusted to serve and trust them. The chapter has discussed the different types of police corruption, together with its causes, the reasons behind why they act the way they do. The chapter has also discussed the strategies to curb police corruption, with the aim to reduce the prevalence of police corruption.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

This chapter explains theories that inform the current study. In the field of social sciences, a theory is known to explain human behaviour, understanding how and why behaviours occur (Akers and Sellers, 2013). There are a few theories that explain the prevalence of police corruption. These theories include the Rational Choice Theory and Social Learning Theory. As such, these theories have been chosen for this study. The Rational Choice Theory states that behaviour is rationalised and calculated. On the other hand, Social Learning Theory is a theory that explains the cause of police corruption. This theory is relevant to the study of police corruption because of its focus on the process of actions which are guided by observations through modelling. When observing behaviour, we need to be considerate of the surroundings that exist within as well as the external factors of an individual. Bandura (1976), the father of the Social Learning Theory has emphasized that behaviour is learned through observations that occur within the surroundings. This chapter focuses on theories of police corruption within the South Africa Police Services (SAPS). The theories are explained in detail below.

3.1.1 The Rational Choice Theory

The Rational Choice Theory (RCT) was introduced in the 1980s, during the formulation of classical criminology, traced back to eighteenth-century by philosopher Cesare Beccaria who was born (1738–1794), an Italian nobleman, prominent in the eighteenth century. Cesare Beccaria wrote on crimes and punishment (Akers and Sellers, 2018). The Rational Choice Theory, similar to Social Learning Theory is an analytical framework that aims to understand human behaviour. This theory generally begins with the consideration of the behavioural choice of one or more individuals in decision-making (Green, 2002).

According to the RCT, humans are wired to make choices and calculated decision making. The Rational Choice Theory states that humans make calculated decisions, implying that for every action one takes, risks, benefits and the consequences of the actions are already known or rather perceived. Crime here is purposive behaviour, be it its benefits or consequences. People generally act in their self-interest and make decisions to commit crime after weighing the potential risks, which include getting caught and punished against the rewards (Becker, 1968). When looking at literature about offending police officials, there has always been beliefs that they may not get caught in the act, however, at the back of their minds, they do know that one way or the other, getting caught is a possibility, for example, a police officer will take a bribe, with the belief that he or she will not be caught, however, thoughts of being caught are known.

The RCT is more of a personal theory than one focused on social factors such as colleagues or surroundings. It states that offenders choose their own behaviours, and choose those behaviours on the basis of a rational consideration of the costs and benefits of the intended action (Becker, 1968). The rational choice offender, then, is rational and self-interested and importantly, chooses to commit crime on the basis of their assessment that it will be rewarding, profitable or capable of satisfying some need better than a non-criminal behaviour. The Rational Choice Theory takes the position that offenders are not compelled to commit crime because of some extraordinary motivation, but are rather compelled by personal gains, an example of this would be that the police officer already knows that when he takes a bribe of a certain amount, he will accumulate so much and thus use the money for whatever personal reason. Cornish et al. (2009) state that criminal behaviour, like illegal behaviour, is not determined by biological, psychological, or environmental factors acting on the person, compelling him or her to commit crimes. Therefore, people voluntarily and willingly engage in criminal behaviours; for example, an officer can steal things, things like drugs, things that might generate him some money, while on duty because he knows that he must fend for his family.

The theory states that individuals are motivated by the wants or goals that express their 'preferences', in other cases be it something right or wrong, but based on what they prefer at that point in time. They act within specific, given constraints and based on the information that they

have about the conditions under which they are acting. At its simplest, the relationship between preferences and constraints can be seen in the purely technical terms of the relationship of a means to an end (Scott, 2000). As it is not possible for individuals to achieve all of the various things that they want, they must also make choices in relation to both their goals and the means for attaining these goals. The Rational Choice Theory holds that individuals must anticipate the outcomes of alternative courses of action and calculate that which will be best for them. Rational individuals choose the alternative that is likely to give them the greatest satisfaction (Carling, 1992; Coleman, 1973; Heath 1976), an example of this would be that of getting a bribe for such an amount will reward so much from that specific fact.

Furthermore, the idea of rational action has generally been taken to entail a conscious social actor engaging in deliberate calculative strategies, thus, in many cases, before acting out, one knows the benefits and the consequences of behaviour initiated, for example, being part of a heist as a police officer, the goal of getting close to fifty thousand for instance is known, the goal has already been calculated, together with the chances of being caught. Scott (2002) argued that human behaviour, like all animal behaviour, is not free but determined. Behaviour is shaped by the rewards and punishments that are encountered. People do those things that lead to rewards and they avoid whatever they are punished for as this is human instinct, hence, when engaging in criminal activities, the offenders make sure that they are not caught; they try the best way possible to not get caught. Reinforcement through rewards and punishments, technically termed 'conditioning' is the determining factor in human behaviour (Bandura, 1976). This behaviour can, therefore, be studied in purely external and objective terms; there is no need to invoke any internal mental states. People learn from their past experiences, which can be applied within the South African Police Services, when punishment is served in any form, behaviour is likely to decrease, and that is all we need to know to explain the behaviour of others.

The Rational Choice Theory explains that man makes rationality, meaning that a person reasons, outweighing the benefits of an act. This theory in simple terms states that crime is purposive, with the aim to meet the needs of one, the meeting of these needs may involve the making of criminal rudiment decisions. Scott (2000) states that the Rational Choice Theory adopts a

methodological individualist position and attempts to explain all social phenomena in terms of the rational calculations made by self-interested individuals. It sees social interaction as social exchange modelled on economic action. People are seen to be motivated by the rewards and costs of actions and by the profits that they can make, hence within the South African Police Services as an organisation, members that are caught in the act of unethical behaviour or through evidence of having acted unethically, but before the behaviour is made, calculations of rewards had would been made. *Gul* (2009) states that the theory is based on the notion of individualism, thus the offender thus sees oneself as a person, a person with needs and, goals that should be attained, and in this process, offenders try to find ways of advancing their personal goals. The central points of this theory lie in the fact that the individual is a rational actor, in a sense that thoughts are calculated, and these thoughts involve calculations, meaning that an individual takes time to think about the criminal act, calculating the rewards, together with the punishments. Thus, humans have the free will to choose the type of behaviour they engage in, be it behaviour that is conforming or deviant (*Gul*, 2009). *Akers and Sellers* (2013) state that within the Rational Choice Theory, there is the notion of free will, as stated above. It is believed that humans are rational, and can make decisions according to everyone's own will and purposes. Using this perspective, people can understand the difference between right and wrong, and can choose to commit criminal acts or to follow the law. When the Rational Choice Theory is applied to police corruption within the South African Police Service, members from the organisation think, that if they rationalise, they will not get caught when doing criminal activities, regardless of the known risks.

Similarly, *Steele* (2016) asserts that a decision to offend takes place, and that such a decision is taken by reasoning and rationalising, weighing up the costs and benefits of the action. Focusing on the members of the SAPS, it can be said that the circumstances that officers come across may deviate behaviour, meaning that the cases they handle may make them act irrationally, like stealing goods. Often, these conditions are financial constraints. However, when SAPS officers are offending, it may not necessarily be a result of financial problems, but the will to offend based on whatever reason. Within the limits of the Rational Choice Theory, the assumption of free will has however been criticised (*Steele*, 2016). *Cornish and Clarke* (1993) suggest that individuals are unlikely to go through a deliberate, calculating mental process, the values and costs of an action, being unable to process information to the level assumed by this normative

model. Instead, “offenders are thought to be operating under a 'bounded rationality' in which offenders are seen as making a weighted decision, but in a more 'rudimentary and cursory way' than advocated by the classical economic approach to decision making” (Steele, 2016:3). It is also recognised that while an individual can make a measured decision based on expected utility of various outcomes, their range of actions may be limited by circumstances. An example of this is the study of shoplifters by Schlueter, O'Neal, Hickey and Seiler (1989) which suggests that costs, meaning consequences are not considered as a deterrent. Goals were identified as including money, convenience and the 'challenge'. Schlueter et al. (1999), cited from Cornish and Clarke (1993), discovered that that non-monetary goals were recognised as motivating the behaviour of the offenders. Carroll and Weaver (1986) also studied shoplifters and, found that they did think about risk, and were aware of the penalties, but due to circumstances ended up deviating set this aside once focused on their actions (Steele, 2016).

Steele (2016) criticises the theory through the conducting interviews, with the beliefs that when committing crimes, one was not in the “rightful mind”, this disagrees with the theory that behaviour is rationalized and calculated. An example is what Steele found in her interview conduction, that when looking at the narratives of violent or emotive offenders, there seemed to be fewer references to deciding, or planning, they believe that “things just happen” at that point in time, and only realize later. Within the author’s interviewing process, interviewees, when caught in the act of offending claim to have had a blank mind, trying to explain that within their state of mind, thoughts were not given to behaviour. One can argue that behaviours are not always calculated in terms of benefits, costs and punishments as the RCT suggests.

3.1.2. Social Learning Theory

Social Learning Theory is known to have begun as an attempt by Robert Sears, as cited in Grusec (1992) and others to merge psychoanalytic and stimulus response learning theory into a comprehensive explanation of human behaviour (Grusec, 1992). Albert Bandura (1971) is however known as the “father” of this theory, and he abandoned the psychoanalytic approach, and instead emphasized the cognitive and information processing capacities that mediate social

behaviour. Among others, Albert Bandura is considered, as stated above the leading proponent of the Social Learning Theory. Within this theory, among the various processes involved in the socialisation process, engagement in social contexts often determines behavioural outcome (Wenger, n.d). Humans are known to be naturally social beings, and through this process they engage directly in activities, conversations, reflections and other forms of personal participation in social life. Gosling (1969), states that the entire need for beings to socialise is a natural thing, and thus through this sense of seeking belonging, behaviour is directly or indirectly learned. Gosling (1969) further argues that it is evident from informal observation that the complex repertoires of behaviour displayed by members of society are to a large extent acquired with little or no direct tuition through observation of patterns by various social agents.

The Social Learning Theory states that both criminal and conforming behaviours are acquired, maintained, or changed by the same process of interaction with others. The difference lies in the conforming or deviant direction or balance of the social influences such as reinforcement, values and attitudes, and imitation (Akers and Sellers, 2013). The Social Learning Theory thus focuses on learning processes that occur within a social context, meaning that, as stated above by Wenger (2010), within a social context, individuals learn from one another through observations, imitations and modelling (Bandura, 1965). People can learn by observing others within a social context, together with the outcomes of such behaviours. Behaviourists state that in the process of learning, because people can learn through observation alone, their learning may not necessarily be shown in their performance, this learning can either result in behavioural change or no behavioural change, meaning that through this learning, the act upon imitation can either take place or not (Bandura, 1976).

According to Bandura (1976), the environment reinforces modelling, in that the observer in many instances is reinforced by what is called the model, this can be the one thing or figure one looks up to, an example of this would be the junior ranks in the South African Police Services looking up to senior members. This imitated behaviour learned produces satisfying or rather reinforcing results, and an example would be the rewards accumulated from taking bribes. The process of modelling is known to influence the frequency of the behaviours that was previously

learned. Modelling creates frequency of similar behaviours, this is proven in his 'The role of modelling processes in personality development' (1976). In this instance, Social Learning Theory, when applied to police corruption, SAPS members learn a great deal of behaviours through the process of modelling and observing other members.

The process of observational learning, is known to often occur when the observer's behaviour changes after the viewing of a model, in this instance, when applying it to members of the SAPS, a member viewing behaviour, and the behaviour of what fellow members do when on duty. This learning through observing involves the processes of *attention*, *retention*, *production* and *motivation*. In terms of *attention* without having to observe, learning cannot take place. The observer takes or pays attention to detail, the way in which the model acts. Retention is a process whereby the observers must not only recognize the observed behaviour but also remember it at some later time (Bandura, 1977). This process depends on the observer's ability to code or structure the information in an easily remembered form or to mentally or physically rehearse the model's actions. Within a context that involves members of the SAPS, because members may work in groups, the actions observed, may be later coded, thus acting upon such behaviour. The production process in the process of learning involves capability of acting out observed or learned behaviour. Observers in this learning process must be physically and intellectually capable of producing the act. Lastly, the motivational learning process involve, observers performing the act only if they have some motivation or reason to do so. The presence of reinforcement or punishment, either to the model or directly to the observer, becomes most important in this process (Bandura, 1986).

Furthermore, Bandura (1965) states that it is widely assumed that the occurrence of imitative behaviour or observational learning are known to be what the theorist states to be contingent on the administration of reinforcing stimuli to the observer. Miller and Dollard (1941 cited in Grusec (1992) among others, who contributed to propounding of the Social Learning Theory, state that the necessary condition for learning through the process of imitation includes what they call a motivated subject, who is positively reinforced for matching rewarding behaviour. This explains what is called operational conditioning, consists both negative and positive reinforcement, which

is geared by Skinner, the father of operational conditioning. This behavioural learning is said to be controlled by consequences of certain actions.

Operational conditioning is described as a process that attempts to modify behaviour using positive and negative reinforcement, meaning that it either promotes or decreases behaviour. Through this conditioning, an individual makes association between a behaviour and its consequences (Skinner, 1938 cited in Wenger, 2010). Skinner identified three types of responses following behaviour, namely the neutral operant, reinforcers and punishers. The neutral operant is known as a response existing due to the environment, which is known to neither increase nor decrease the probability of behaviour being repeated. Reinforcers on the other hand are responses from the environment that are likely to increase the probability of a behaviour being repeated, these reinforcers can either be positive or negative, they are known to either increase or increase behaviour. Punishers are the responses from the environment that decrease likelihood of a behaviour being repeated (Skinner, 1938). In terms of application to the study, an example of this would be within the SAPS where, when the members are found guilty of corruption, actions are taken to arrest them. Owing to such negative reinforcement, the behaviours of other members within the organisation can be decreased, with the likelihood of the bad behaviour eventually stopping.

According to Skinner (1953, cited in Wenger (2010), all that is needed to know in the explaining of behaviour, is that actions, whether good or bad, are mainly governed by good outcomes, and thus that behaviour is likely to recur when rewards are given. Skinner used what was called the Law of effect, which was developed by Thorndike (1898), which states that the environment shapes consequential behaviour, thus a better state of affairs increases the probability of behaviour occurring. The worst state of affairs is the decreased probability of behaviour occurring gain, which when dealing with police corruption, the prevalence of rewards for excellent behaviour may reduce the likelihood of unwanted behaviour. The operant conditioning techniques, as stated above involves positive and negative reinforcement, which when explained in detail, means that positive reinforcement is behaviour that is likely to be repeated (Omonia

and Omomia2014). This contributes to behaviour in the process or rather administering a reward. Positive reinforcement strengthens a behaviour.

Behaviour is not only rewarded, when need be, behaviour can result in negative responses. This is what is called negative reinforcement; this on the other hand is a response that allows the escaping of an undesirable situation (Omomia, 2014). Negative reinforcement motivates behaviour in the attempt to remove or avoid some undesirable effect (Grice, 2011). The process of this reinforcement is typically known to remove, reduce or prevent stimuli (Iwata, 1987). Hineline (1977) cited in Iwata (1987) states that the negative reinforcement paradigm includes features, namely the presence of an aversion stimulation, availability of a response and stimulation.

Adding to the above, another operant conditioning technique is the punishment technique. This conditioning is known to decrease a behaviour (Skinner, 1938). It involves responses that bring undesirable consequences, these undesirable consequences will be suppressed, however this does not assure that the behaviour will not be repeated since it may reappear. Behaviour is known to be determined by a desire to gain positive reinforcement and avoiding negative reinforcement. As such, in the presence of positive reinforcement, bad behaviour can be avoided, and for this to work, the behaviourism guidelines should be implemented. These include the setting of goals, determining the appropriate reinforcers, selecting procedures and evaluating progress (Skinner, 1953). The last operant conditioning technique is what Skinner calls extinction or non-reinforcement. This involves the responses that are not reinforced, resulting in behaviour being repeated. It is known to decrease a behaviour. In simple terms, it means not rewarding a behaviour with the hope that it will eventually stop, (Omomia and Omomia, 2014).

When looking at the structure of the organisation, there is the presence of ranks, and at times, high ranks can be influential to subordinates. This however does not necessarily mean that ranks are the only aspects that constitute mischievous behaviours; the mere presence of viewing a fellow employee can result in learning certain behaviours. The presence of a certain human being

can dictate behaviour. An example would be that because of low ranks within the South Africa Police Services, officers work in small groups, the behaviours of others, like taking bribes can be a something learned through observation and associations, thus proving what Albert Bandura calls imitation, that is, an individual learns through observation, and then imitate that behaviour.

The behaviours of members of the SAPS organisation are most likely to be increased by the absence of what Skinner calls negative and positive reinforcement. In other instances, reports are made by fellow employees; however, there is the absence of punishments, thus members are not punished for wrong actions. This then indirectly increases corruption rates since they can see that wrong behaviour is eventually not a bad thing, because they get away with crimes. Provided there was the presence of taking reports into considerations, police corruption would decrease. So too would the rewarding of reporting corruption among themselves, when these reports are followed by rewards, for example, this can be done in the form of incentives. The Social Learning Theory believes in that human beings are social beings, and therefore it comes in naturally that a sense of belonging arises. The sense of belonging can sometimes come with demands, and when these demands are not met, frustrations may occur, hence at times, certain members may engage in bad behaviours due to the need to feel that they belong.

Allison, Chappell and Piqueuro (2004) apply the Social Learning Theory to police misconduct. The article supports that the subculture is the primary peer group in which officers learn definitions. According to Alpert and Dunham (1997), one of the most profound pressures operating in police agencies is peer influence. In this regard, most researchers and police officers acknowledge the existence of a police subculture (Conser, 1980). The subculture may facilitate deviant behaviour by transmitting the beliefs, values, definitions, and “manners of expression” that depart from acceptable behaviour. This happens because the subculture shared value system allows them the opportunity to rationalise, excuse, and justify deviance (Kappeler et al., 1998).

Alpert and Dunham (1997) maintain that since social isolation is a feature of the police subculture, officers are likely to withdraw into the subculture for support and approval. The

result is that the police officer is subjected to intense peer influence and control and this can involve the acceptance of deviance (Kappeler, Sluder, and Alpert, 2001). Due to the isolation that police officers often feel, they tend to spend more time with other officers, especially for social purposes. Therefore, it becomes more important for the officer to feel accepted by the peer group for the development of a satisfactory self-concept. Accordingly, Skolnick (1994) reported that the strength of the organisational culture in a police department was so salient that regardless of personal differences, individuals adopted the beliefs and definitions of the department. The police subculture provides an opportunity to learn deviant activity because attitudes, values, and beliefs are transmitted from one generation to another in a learning process (Kappeler et al., 1998).

Adding to the above, the importance of peer acceptance and approval regarding own behaviour and beliefs is important. According to Herbert (1998), officers engage in certain behaviours to maintain good standing in a desirable occupational environment. It is suggested that officers learn corrupt behaviour through the reinforcements obtained from the subcultural group (Aultman, 1976). According to Conser (1980), the subculture is a powerful reference group that has a great capacity for the reinforcement of corrupt behaviour. This scholar suggests that corruption arises through a process of interaction during which the individual officer learns such behaviour in accordance with the responses of others. Akers (2000) noted that the selection and continuation of associations are functions of differential reinforcement. However, in the special circumstance of the police subculture, it would be more difficult to determine whether peers are deviant or not.

The Social Learning Theory has however been criticized. For example, Alfie Kohn (2004), an educational theorist stated that rewards and extrinsic motivation yield compliance which is not as what Skinner believed to be a natural behaviour devoid of wilful choice. Kohn insisted that rewards however train humans to expect rewards so much that they fail to find motivation in the absence of a promised reward. Kohn (2004) acknowledged the role that rewards and punishments played in society, however, the fact that Skinner made his experiments on animals and not humans makes his theory unreliable. The theory, as it is known, focuses on the notion

that behaviour is likely to be imitated through observation. There are however genetics-related conditions, and given that some behaviours are transmitted through genetic disposition, the social surrounding thus has no influence on behaviour that others engage in (Burdick, 2014). Family history also serves as a contributing factor, which has nothing to do with learned behaviour, observed or the presence of a model, but more on the history of the family, for instance, Burt et al. (2005) suggest that mothers who suffer from depression are more inconsistent, insensitive and inattentive towards their children. These behaviours in turn suggest that it is the impairment of parenting that predisposes depression and mental illness to the children, resulting in deviance when they get old.

The theory was further criticised because it has been witnessed that it is not everybody that witnesses criminal behaviour and act on it. The process of engaging with others through social interactions does not lead to criminal acts (Bradshaw, 2011). Furthermore, biological theorists argue that the Social Learning Theory completely ignores an individual's biological state. The Social Learning Theory rejects the differences of individuals due to genetic, brain, and learning differences (Jeffery, 1985). This can be applied to some of the acts that are witnessed by people in society. For example, the Social Learning Theory ignores that within certain scenes, biological theorists believe that should a person find the other person raping someone for instance, the autonomic nervous system, the heart rate, increased blood pressure, nausea, and fainting would be normal symptoms of the responses that individuals might express in this particular situation. Therefore, the symptoms and behaviour are not learned, but are rather partially automatic (Jeffrey, 1985).

On the hand, the Rational Choice Theory, another theory that is used to form theory triangulation in this study states that the behaviour of anyone that is deviant, of which in this study it is the members of the SAPS, they do act on the notion of free will. As such, any form of police corruption that is undergone is calculated, and the benefits are known, and so too are the consequences. In the process of this doing, they seek to avoid costs, and that the rewards of an action or behaviour will be weighed against those costs, hence corruption levels are very high. The Rational Choice Theory further assumes that, under the conditions of uncertainty, the decision to engage in crime is a function of the perceived costs and benefits of crime relative to

the perceived expenses and rewards. Individuals, therefore, are assumed to be sensitive to the consequences of their actions and thus make reasoned judgments after considering the costs and benefits of legal and illegal solutions to problems (Simpson et al. 2002). This theory is criticised, on the basis that at times, criminal behaviour is not always performed on rationality.

The Social Learning Theory on the other hand states that the environment, observation, imitation and the presence of a specific model contributes to deviant behaviours; these are the “shapers” of behaviour. This theory widely assumes that the occurrence of imitative or observational learning is determined by administration of reinforcing stimuli either to the model or to the observer. According to the theory propounded by Miller and Bollard (1941), the necessary conditions for learning through imitation include a motivated subject who is positively reinforced for matching the rewarded behaviour of a model during a series of initially random, as stated above. Since this conceptualisation of observational learning requires the subject to perform the imitative response before he can learn it, this theory evidently accounts more adequately for the emission of previously learned matching responses, than for their acquisition (Bandura, 1965). This theory comprises these four processes, namely attention, attention on the model, this is someone similar in a position of power such as co-workers showing the behaviour. Followed by the process of retention, which involves recalling the behaviour. In the case of police deviancy, it can be taking bribes. The motivation process is determined by the presence of having a reason to emulate the behaviour that was observed. Lastly, the reproduction process follows; this is the final stage, whereby the behaviour is imitated.

3.2. Conclusion

This chapter explained the two theories with regards to the prevalence of police corruption within the South African Police Services. The theories have the common ground, that is, they both try to understand human behaviour, why humans behave they do. In the discipline of Criminology, they both focus on the ideas that stem around the causes of crime, of which in this study, specifically looking at police corruption, the ideas that lie behind it. Using the Rational

Choice Theory, crime is said to be given thorough thoughts, weighing the benefits that will come out of it and the consequences that may arise should the plans fail, in other instances however, behaviour is said to be non-rationalized, thus challenges may cloud judgments, e.g. in the case of desperation. In Social Learning Theory on the other hand, behaviour is not rationalised or calculated, it is learned through different social contexts, and environmental factors that contribute to behaviour.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

The research methods adopted by the researcher form the backbone of any study undertaken. These methods make fieldwork possible and provide a systematic guide for data collection procedures and analysis, hence the goals of the study can be met. To fulfil the aims and objectives of the study, it was imperative to select appropriate methodological procedures and techniques. Furthermore, the research design of a study provides the framework for aspects related to how the study is to be carried out in the field. In support of this statement, Bayens and Roberson (2011) provide that a good research design encompasses adherence to the rules of scientific investigation along with a level of creativity which allows the researcher to be flexible within the context of the study.

In light of the above, this chapter discusses the research methodology of the study, the research approach (qualitative), research approaches, the study areas, data collection method and instrument (in-depth interviews and interview guide), sample size, participant selection procedures and the methods of data analysis. The chapter also provides a description of how trustworthiness was ensured (credibility, confirmability, dependability and transferability). The researcher also describes the ethical considerations observed in conducting the current study.

4.2. Research design

The problem that formed this study was derived from the ways in which it has been witnessed that police corruption has been at its highest peak. More police officials were reported to be involved in activities that were problematic in nature. The figures for corruption in Gauteng province were very high, thus police officials were arrested for committing corruption-related

offences. To gain in-depth understanding of the topic, the researcher had to choose a research design that would enhance the elicitation of views and opinions relevant to answering the research questions. In this regard, a qualitative design was deemed appropriate for the study.

The research design is an overall strategy that is chosen to integrate different components of the study conducted. The purpose of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to address the research problem and to provide important details about the substance the researcher aims to assess (Berry and Otley, 2004; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Yin, 2012, cited in Wahyuni, 2012). The study on police corruption adopted a qualitative research design. The researcher adopted a qualitative design because it is interpretative, and ethnographic in nature. This underlying approach requires detailed observation, explanation and assumes that it is impossible to define exactly what elements are important and should be considered to the exclusion of others. It argues that trustworthiness in this approach is important than attempting rigorously to define what is being observed and by so doing study the whole situation. It attempts to study the whole situation to evaluate the complexity and ensure that conclusions take account of both unique and general factors (Bayens and Roberson, 2011).

There are however other research designs used in social sciences, namely quantitative and mixed methods (Kothari, 2004). Quantitative research design is empirical in nature; it is also known as the scientific research approach. This approach ensures validity and reliability by the process of rigorous clarification, definition or use of pilot experiments. Pilot tests include trying out the instruments beforehand, and checking their relevance with experts and assessing their reliability by use of statistical tests. This approach can be further sub-classified into inferential, experimental and simulation approaches to research (Bayens and Roberson, 2011). On the other hand, the mixed methods approach is a combined approach that gathers data using both qualitative and quantitative designs and methods in a single research project. Combining quantitative and qualitative methods can capitalise on the strengths of each approach and offset their weaknesses (Bezuidenhout, 2011).

4.2. Research paradigm

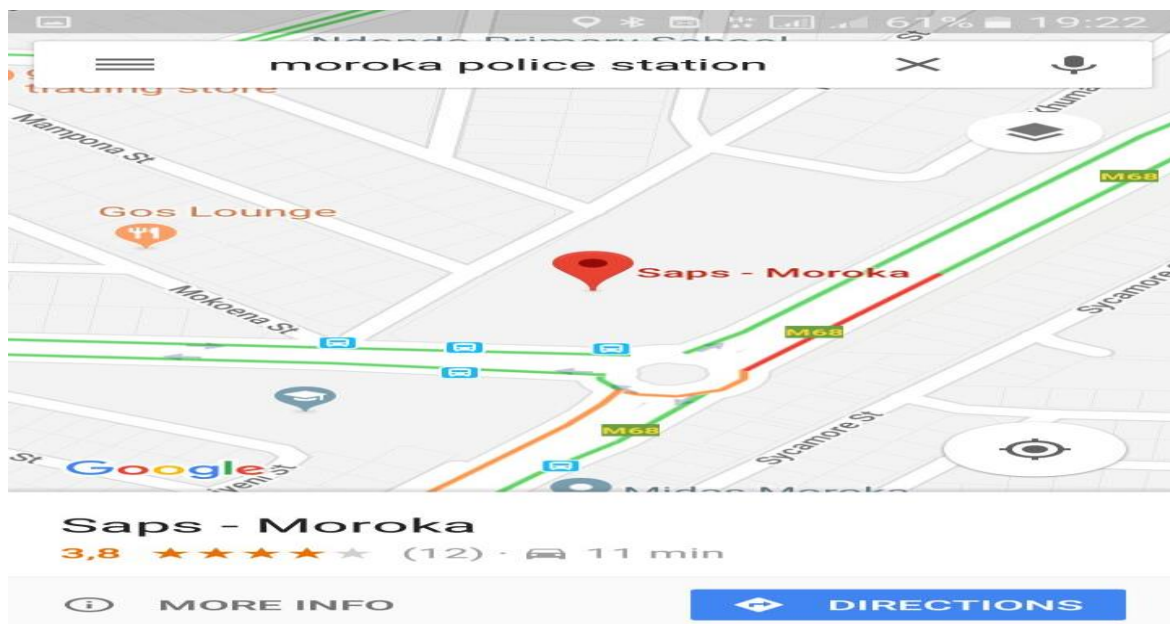
Research paradigms are known to address philosophical dimensions in the field of social sciences (Wayhuni, 2012). A paradigm is a set of assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived and therefore, it serves as a thinking framework guiding behaviour of the researcher (Jonker and Pennink, 2010, cited in Wayhuni,2012). The current study adopted interpretivism as its research paradigm. According to this paradigm, reality is socially constructed, subjective and may change (Saunders et al.,2009; Guba and Lincoln,2005;Hallebone and Priest,2009). This paradigm believes that reality is constructed by social actors and the perceptions people make of it (Wayhuni, 2012). Furthermore, Wayhuni (2012:71), states that “individuals with their own varied backgrounds, assumptions and experiences contribute to the on-going construction of reality existing in their broader social context through social interaction”.

Human perspectives and experiences are subjective;thus, reality may change, leading to multiple perspectives (Hennink, Hutter and Bailey, 2011). Thus, the interpretivist paradigm rejects objectivism, and researchers in this paradigm tend to favour the interaction and have a dialogue with the studied participants to provide rich descriptions of social constructions. The approach uses a descriptive form of analysis to describe specifics and highly detailed accounts of a social reality being studied, termed the idiographic approach (Neuman, 2011). The intepretivist researcher studies social reality from the perspective of the people themselves for detailed information (Wayhuni, 2012). Therefore, in this study, the researcher went into the respective areas, the Moroka Police station in Soweto, and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate, to get full depth detail about the investigators dealing with offending police officer. The information helped the researcher because it is first-hand experience that was shared by the investigators.

4.3. Study area

The study area chosen for the current study is Gauteng region, specifically the Investigative Police Investigative Directorate in the Pretoria region, and the Disciplinary Trial Unit in Soweto, Moroka Police Station.

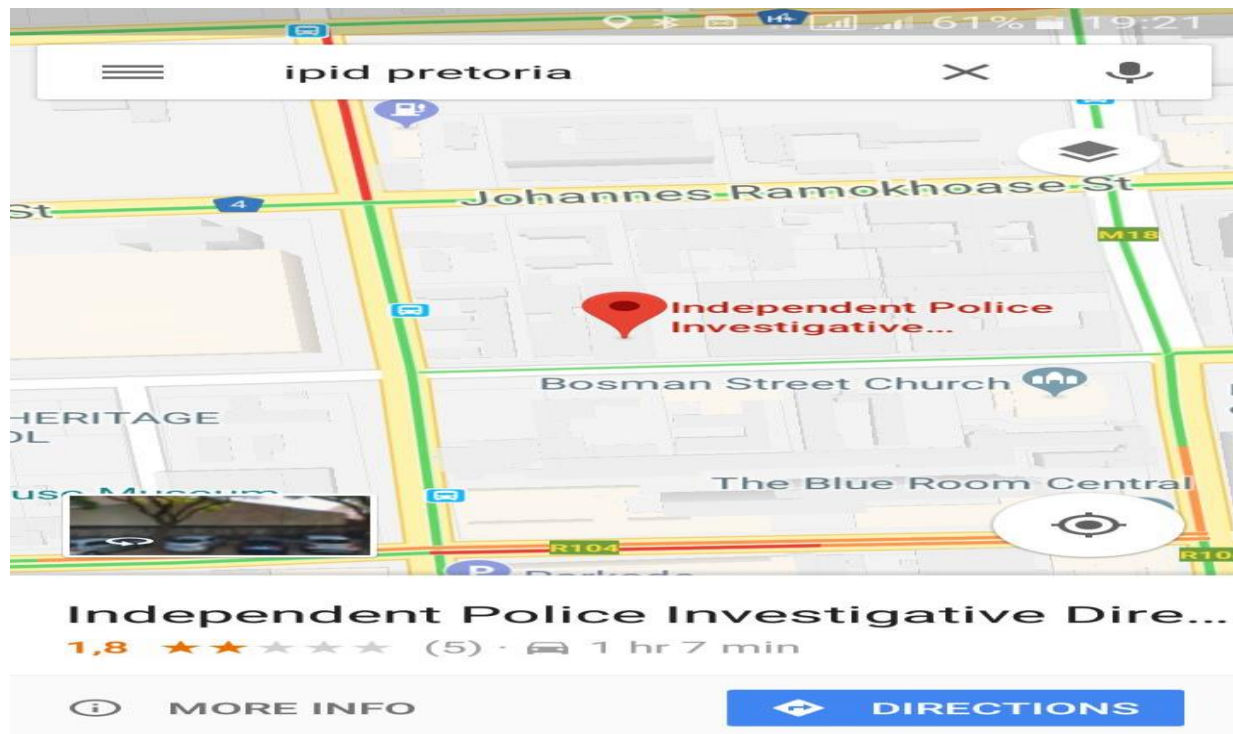
Figure 4.1. Moroka Police Station where research was conducted map



Source: Google Maps (2018)

Moroka Police Station is in one of the famous locations in South Africa, Soweto, which is within the Gauteng province. Soweto is one of the oldest townships, known for its role in the struggle for justice and peace during the apartheid era. The police station is one where nearby community members from Pimville, Chiawelo and Dobsonville report crimes.

Figure 4.2. The Map where research was conducted, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate in Pretoria.



Source: Google Maps (2018)

The Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) is located in the capital city of South Africa, Pretoria. It is the head office of all the IPID departments in the country, located at Madiba street, City Forum Building.

4.3.1. Entry into the research site.

The researcher started by going to the respective places where interviews were to be conducted. The first place the researcher went to is the Independent Police Investigative Directorate in Pretoria, of which access was given in the form of a letter. The IPID gave permission to conduct the study. Before interviews started, the research department from IPID person accompanied the researcher to the respective participants. The same procedure was followed in the case SAPS Disciplinary Trial Unit. Data was collected in the form of interview conduction, taken from the

investigators. Researcher did this by using the time schedule that the participants felt comfortable with, before the interview conductions, the participants were given consent forms which they had to sign. Then a recording device was used upon doing interviews. Access into the field was facilitated by the people that granted the researcher access to conduct research.

4.3.2. Selection of participants

Although there are many kinds of sampling techniques, these can be divided broadly into two types: probability and non-probability. Probability sampling allows us to specify the probability that any given element in a population will be included in the sample, while non-probability sampling designs are used when the number of elements is either known or unknown (Kumar, 2004). Probability sampling therefore has significant advantages over non-probability sampling. Sampling, according to Polit and Bek (2008) is the process of selecting elements of a targeted population of a study. For this study, purposive sampling was used. This sampling technique was selected because the researcher relied on the experience of the chosen population. Furthermore, the sampling technique chosen serves the aim of giving the researcher the advantage of getting related data due to participants who have experienced the phenomena being studied. This sampling is further appropriate because it could give the researcher unique, rich and valuable information.

The sample of the study comprised 21 participants. The researcher planned to sample until saturation was reached. Data saturation was reached at participant 15th, but to continuously conducting interviews to broaden the findings. According to Fusch and Ness (2015), data saturation is somehow a challenge in qualitative research when conducting interviews. The researcher must thus address the question of how may interviews are enough to reach data saturation. To reach data saturation, interviews are the known method in data saturation.

The sample comprised members from both the South African Police Services (Disciplinary Trial Unit) and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate in the Gauteng province. The

researcher chose these participants because they deal specifically with police corruption-related cases. These participants had varying age, race, gender, rank, education, marital status and experience within the field of work.

4.3.3. Data collection method

There are many ways to collect data in research, these include using available information (Chaleunvong, 2009). The process of data collection basically involves collection of primary and secondary data (Wahyuni, 2012). The current study is empirical, hence it relied on primary data where the researcher physically interacted with the participants to elicit their views and opinions in relation to the topic. The candidate interviewed a total of twenty one participants, nine participants were from the Independent Police Investigative Directorate and nine were from the Disciplinary Trial Unit from the SAPS. The interviews ranged from twenty minutes to thirty minutes.

The researcher used interviews (face-to-face) as a data collection method. Semi-structured interviews, a combination of structured and unstructured interviews were used in this study. These allowed the participants to explore the topic in detail. Unlike formal interviews, which follow a rigid format of set questions, semi-structured interviews focus on specific themes but cover them in a conversational style (Kumar, 2004). They are often the best way for learning about the motivations behind people's choices and behaviour, their attitudes and beliefs, and the impacts on their lives of specific policies or events. Semi-structured interviews often provide valuable information that wasn't anticipated by the researcher. It is against this background that the researcher chose face-to-face interviews as a method of data collection.

4.3.4. Data collection instruments

The researcher served as a key instrument for the research, especially in terms of data collection. It is believed that in qualitative research, the researcher is the key instrument (Kvale, 1996;

Patton, 1990). In qualitative research, data is gathered in the form of the use of primary sources, the use of structured and unstructured interviews (Kumar, 2004). The primary source in this study is the first-hand experiences the officers dealing with discipline, thus the researcher went into the field, that is the places where the participants were to be found. The investigators from the Independent Police Investigative Directorate were interviewed. Prior to conducting interviews, the researcher:

- made an appointment with each participant at a time which suited them
- created a quiet room conducive to conversation
- arranged chairs to enhance face-to-face interviewing
- prepared an audio recorder, pen and paper

Data collection for this study was based on key informant interviews (KIIs) in the form of semi-structured interviews conducted on an individual basis. An interview schedule that was generated after a thorough literature search was done was used as the data collection instrument. It combined a set of pre-determined questions that enabled the interviewer to explore further particular themes and responses. The semi-structured interview was appropriate for this study because it allowed for a free and open dialogue with the interviewees, and provided a unique opportunity to acquire in-depth information about the strategies used in curbing police corruption in the study area Gauteng. This allowed for a great degree of flexibility and prompted participants to speak on issues that were relevant to the current study.

In undertaking research, ethical considerations played an important role. For example, the researcher had to ask only those questions which were on the interview schedule and of course some probes relevant to the study. Semi structured interviews were constructed in such a manner that more neutral social demographic information was requested at the onset of the interview and more sensitive questions were asked once the research participant felt at ease and comfortable to participate in the presence of the researcher. The interview session started with less sensitive

(easy) questions to facilitate the conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee by creating an informal, friendly atmosphere that enabled a natural flow of ideas and opinions.

The sample comprised 21 participants from the SAPS Disciplinary Trial Unit and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate. The participants ranged from Warrant Officers to the ranks of the Brigadiers. Their experience within the ranks ranged from 10 years to 35 years, with the education level that ranged from Grade 12 to degrees in Policing. Below is a demographic graph that explains.

Table 4.1

Participants	Age	Sex	Ethnicity	Marital status	Home language	Rank	Educational level
1	42	M	Black	Married	Tshivenda	Const.	Grade 12
2	31	M	Coloured	Married	English	Capt.	Grade 12
3	55	M	Black	Married	Xitsonga	Cpt.	Degree
4	38	M	Indian	Married	English	Cpt.	Grade 12
5	54	M	Black	M	IsiZulu	Brig.	Diploma
6	53	M	White	M	English	Lt. Col	Diploma
7	36	F	Black	M	Sesotho	Cpt.	Diploma
8	33	M	Black	M	Sepedi	Cpt.	Degree
9	42	M	Black	M	Tshivenda	Const.	Grade 12
10	31	M	Black	M	Setswana	Const.	Grade 12
11	37	F	Black	S	Sepedi	Const.	Degree
12	38	M	Black	M	Xitsonga	Sgt.	Grade 12
13	48	M	Black	M	Sepedi	WO.	Grade 12
14	42	M	Black	M	Sepedi	Const.	Grade 12
15	36	F	Black	S	Sesotho	Const.	Grade 12
16	49	M	Black	M	Xitsonga	Capt.	Grade 12
17	50	M	Black	M	Sepedi	WO.	Diploma
18	36	M	Black	S	Setswana	Sgt.	Grade 12
19	42	M	Black	S	IsiZulu	Capt.	Grade 12
20	41	F	Black	M	Sesotho	Cpt.	Grade 12
21	55	M	Black	M	Xitsonga	Cpt.	Diploma

The table above gives information about the participants' demographics, this being the participants' age, gender, race, marital status, home language, the rank and their highest qualification.

4.3.5. Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted to improve the research instrument, that is the researcher got an opportunity to perfect the interview skills and secondly to improve the interview schedule. For example, the interview schedule was improved through removing ambiguities and presenting logical questions. The candidate conducted interviews from the year 2017 in June and in 2018 in May, in Pretoria and in Soweto. The candidate conducted interviews alone.

4.4. Data analysis

Exploratory data were generated through the semi-structure interview schedule, and this was presented in terms of a thematic analysis. This helped in getting a better understanding of the strategies in place for mitigating corruption in the SAPS. Thematic analysis is one of the most common forms of analysis in qualitative research. It emphasizes pin-pointing, examining, and recording patterns (or "themes") within data (Kumar, 2004). Themes are patterns across data sets that are important to the description of a phenomenon and are associated to a specific research question. The effectiveness of thematic analysis derives from the familiarisation of data by the researcher. This is possible because the researcher conducted audio-recorded interviews and later transcribed them, which then allowed the researcher to familiarise with the data for an expedited and insightful analysis. This research looked for common threads from among the participants that would provide an opportunity to ascertain patterns that show common cause or commonalities among the research participants.

Two distinct types of coding were used in the analysis, namely: (i) *Descriptive coding*, which described the cases in the study. This process related both to the coding of information in categories and the creation of attributes to clarify them. (ii) The second type was *analytical coding*; and it was done by selecting source content to interpret and reflect on the meaning of the

data to arrive at new ideas and categories. The process entailed gathering material that could be re-thought and reviewed given the growing understanding of the inter-relationship of the categories in the data. Topic coding was not undertaken because the study already had relevant topics under different themes. The original themes had been embedded within an interview schedule. The themes generated in the analysis were modified to suit the aims and objectives of this study.

4.5. Trustworthiness

Gathering of raw data in a semi-structured way confirms the data collection process in qualitative research approach. This study used semi-structured interviews (questions) and key informant interviews (KIIs) as the preferred data collection technique. Examples of raw data are the voice recordings or transcripts of responses from the questions posed to the participants in this study. It should be noted that a true reflection of qualitative study findings is ensured by means of the maintenance of vast records interviews and by documenting the data analysis in detail. The participants of this study were listened to attentively by the researcher during the interviews to attain trustworthiness. Trustworthiness according to Shenton (2004) in qualitative research is that which is often questioned by positivists. Qualitative researchers in the pursuit of trustworthiness, these include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Shenton, 2004).

The researcher used proper recording techniques to record data. The maintenance of accuracy of the findings of this research was attained by the researcher by reporting the exact participant responses, and seeking feedback from the participants when the need arose. For this study, qualitative processes to ensure that data collection methods meet the requirements of trustworthiness (validity and reliability in quantitative research) were followed and taken into account. Methodological and disciplinary conventions and principles were applied to ensure trustworthiness of this study.

4.5.1. Credibility (in preference to internal validity)

One of the key criteria addressed by positivist researchers is that of internal validity, in which they seek to ensure that their study measures or tests what is intended. According to Shenton (2002:2), the qualitative investigator's equivalent concept, i.e. credibility, deals with the question, "How congruent are the findings with reality?" Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that ensuring credibility is one of most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. For this study, the researcher interpreted the data elicited from the participants in a correct and exact manner. The researcher further used multiple sources of data collection (interviews, 21 interviews were conducted, of which 12 participants were from IPID and 9 from the SAPS Disciplinary Trial Unit and 21 KIIs were conducted, together with the use of literature review) and spent long periods of time with the participants in the natural setting to understand their perceptions on the subject under investigation. This helped in getting a better understanding of the participant's insight to this problem, that is, the level of corruption within the SAPS and the strategies in place to curb corruption. To increase the credibility of this study, the findings were believable from the participants' viewpoints.

Furthermore, the following provisions were made by the researcher to promote confidence in the credibility of the collected data in this study,

- The adoption of research methods was well established in a qualitative research approach.
- The development of an early familiarity with the culture of participating organisations before the first data collection dialogues take place. This was achieved through consulting appropriate documents and preliminary visits to the organisations themselves and the selected areas in Gauteng to conduct the study.
- Use of purposive sampling methods in the selection of participants of this study. Although much qualitative research involves the use of purposive sampling, a random approach negated charges of researcher biasness in the selection of participants.
- Frequent debriefing sessions between the researcher and the study supervisor, were constantly held. Through discussion, the vision of the investigator was widened as the supervisor brought to bear her experiences and perceptions. Such collaborative sessions

were used by the researcher to discuss alternative approaches, and drew attention to flaws in the research.

4.5.2. Transferability

According to Vilakazi (2015), transferability refers to the “degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalised or transferred to other context or settings” as cited from (Kumar, 2014). Furthermore, transferability concerns the ability of a study’s findings, similarity in phenomenon at a universal level (Denscombe, 2010). The researcher obtained thick detailed descriptions through purposive sampling to maximise the range of the data obtained and reports them, with sufficient detail and precision, to allow judgments about transferability of findings of this study to other contexts to be made by the reader (Lincoln and Guba, 1985 cited in Shenton, 2004).

4.5.3 Dependability (in preference with reliability)

The idea of dependability emphasizes the need for the researcher to account for the ever-changing context within which research occurs. The researcher is responsible for describing the changes that occur in the setting and how these changes affected the way the research approached the study (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). In qualitative research, dependability is measured by how consistent the sample is. It is also concerned with the notion that should we conduct the same research twice, would we obtain the same results if we could observe the same thing twice (Kumar, 2014). Reliability refers to the consistency in its findings when used repeatedly (Kumar, 2014).

Reliability indicates the degree of exactness in measurement of an instrument (Flick, 2011). The researcher ensured reliability of this study by using all participants needed for the research, the South African Police Services officers that form part of the Disciplinary Trial Unit and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate dealing with corrupt members of the service. The

sample chosen serves as fruitful sample for the study since they mainly deal specifically with police officers that do not abide by the law.

4.5.4 Confirmability (in preference to objectivity)

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings could be confirmed by others. This can be achieved by documenting the procedures for checking and rechecking the data throughout the study. Reference to literature and findings by other authors that confirm the inquirer's interpretations can strengthen confirmability of the study in addition to information and interpretations by people other than the inquirer from within the inquiry site itself (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Confirmability in this study was possible because the researcher followed the process (documenting the procedures for checking and rechecking the data) in a similar manner described above for the results to be compared (Kumar, 2014). The researcher kept raw data of the participants' audio recordings and transcriptions as a confirmability audit trail (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Denscombe, 2010).

4.6 Ethical considerations

The researcher abides by the Research Policy and the Code of Ethics of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher also had to abide by the instruction that was given by the Independent Police Investigative Directorate that the researcher will have no access to the department's files, the Code of Conduct of the South African Police Service, and the Code of Ethics of the South African Police Service. The researcher did not commit plagiarism, piracy, or fabrication of results. As prescribed, the researcher protected the interests of the participants.

4.6.1 South African Police Service National Instruction 1/2006: research in the service

Application to conduct research in SAPS is guided by National Instruction 1/2006. The purpose of this instruction is to regulate requests to conduct research in the Service by persons from

outside the Service or by employees who wish to conduct research for private purposes (such as for the purposes of their studies). The researcher adhered to sections (1-6) of the said document and fully understood the instructions in her capacity as an applicant, and undertook the submission of indemnity and declaration.

4.6.2 The University of KwaZulu-Natal Policy on Research Ethics

Similarly, this study was in line with the UKZN Policy on Research Ethics (2014: np). Research at UKZN is conducted and governed within the framework of policies and guidelines that promote impeccable ethical standards.

All research protocols, irrespective of the level (undergraduate, post-graduate, post-doctoral, staff research) are reviewed, using a standard pre-determined set of criteria. Studies are categorised as either: Green: No Risk (no human participant involvement); Orange: Minimal or Low Risk and Red: Increase over Minimal Risk or High Risk. Expedited reviews are conducted on protocols in the Green and Orange categories. Any research protocol classified as Red is subject to a Full Committee Review. The researcher applied for ethical clearance and was granted, the letter is attached in the end of the dissertation on the figures section.

4.6.3 Data Management

Data management was explained above, in the section about the university policy on research ethics clearly (storage and eventual disposal) and how confidentiality and privacy was to be maintained. The university will preserve the research for the next five years in the university research site.

4.6.4 Gatekeeper Permission

Gatekeeper permission refers to access into an institution/organisation. This access can either be physical or informational. All institutions or organisations have the right to be aware of and be given the right to grant or decline permission to a researcher to conduct research in their

domains. Research being conducted in public settings do not usually need gatekeeper permissions, but one must be aware that some ‘public’ spaces, e.g. malls, concerts, etc. are private spaces where management permission is required to conduct research.

Gatekeepers can only provide access permission and do not provide consent for the study. Consent is only obtained from the individual participants, care givers, guardians, etc. The gatekeeper permission letter must ideally be presented as an official document bearing either a school/company/clinic stamp or letterhead. An electronic communication is accepted provided that a corresponding e-mail address is attached. Permission was granted from different organisations. The letters are attached in the figures section.

4.6.5 Informed consent

According to the South African Constitutional Law in Chapter Two of the Bill of Rights, one of the requirements of freedom and security of the person is that: “Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity, which includes the right to not be subjected to medical or scientific experiments (research) without their informed consent.” The researcher informed research participants in writing of the details of the research process, in terms of being able to excuse themselves in the process of interview conduction should they feel the need to, together with the fact that they have the right to not answer whatever they deem uncomfortable.

The Consent process consisted of three parts:

- The **Information Sheet** (that covers the aims of the study, data collection instrument, duration of data collection, risks/benefits of the study, HSSREC contact details, PI/supervisor and student contact details).
- The **Declaration of Consent** (where the participant confirms that he/she understands the research process, his/her rights, including the right to refuse participation and/or withdraw from the study without any negative consequences).
- The Principal Investigator (PI) should also request for permission to audio-record/video record an interview. The PI simply inserts a sentence:

- **Signatures** of participants, date, etc. Parental consent must be considered, where applicable. For children under 18 years, learner assent must also be included, where necessary.

5. Other Considerations in the Ethics Process

The following considerations were considered:

- How will the study findings be appropriately disseminated among the research participants? This is an ethical obligation to maximise benefit.
- Is there post intervention access to control groups in experimental studies (where an intervention has yielded positive results)?
- What is the social value of the proposed study?

In line with this, Ethical Clearance was given by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Human and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (see attachments in the figures section)

4.7 The Belmont Report

The national Research Act was signed into law on 12 July 1974 and enacted by the 93rd United States (US) Congress to pave way for the creation of the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioural Research. Its objective was to ensure that all research involving human subjects is conducted humanely and in accordance with the principles.

Therefore, the researcher in this study adhered to the following principles as outlined in the Belmont Report:

- **Respect for Persons:** this has at least two ethical considerations. The first is that the individual human research participant be treated as an autonomous being—a person who makes decisions or deliberates for herself about personal goals and then acts upon them. The second is that those persons who are not able to make and carry out decisions for themselves, such as children or sick people or those who have a mental disorder, must be protected from coercion by others and from activities that harm them. All participants in this study were treated with respect and as autonomous agents who are capable of

deliberating on the study subject under investigation, and to act under such deliberations. Importantly, none of the participants belonged to any of the categories identified above. Moreover, in this study, participants entered the research program voluntarily and with good information about the research goals.

- **Beneficence:** this must do with doing well to the individual. In the Belmont Report, beneficence is understood in a stronger sense, as an obligation, to do no harm and to “maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harms” to the individual research participant. This study emphasised the fact that the participants should be treated in an ethical manner, which included ensuring that their well-being was protected against any harm.
- **Justice:** this study acknowledges that the basic principle of justice is based on the fact that all people should be treated equally.

4.8 Singapore Statement on Research Integrity

The Preamble suggests that the value and benefits of research are vitally dependent on the integrity of research. While there can be and are national and disciplinary differences in the way research is organized and conducted, there are also principles and professional responsibilities that are fundamental to the integrity of research wherever it is undertaken. These principles are founded on the following:

- *Honesty* in all aspects of research
- *Accountability* in the conduct of research
- *Professional courtesy and fairness* in working with others
- *Good stewardship* of research on behalf of others

4.9 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) guidelines on research ethics Code of Conduct in Social Science Research

UNESCO attaches the highest priority to the maintenance of high standards of integrity, responsibility and accountability in the research it supports. This applies to all aspects of that research from data collection, recording, citing and reporting to the retention of scientific material.

As UNESCO fosters international, interdisciplinary, comparative and policy-relevant social science research, network and research activities will take place in many parts of the world, and within a variety of economic, cultural, legal and political settings. Researchers may therefore inevitably face ethical, sometimes legal, dilemmas from competing obligations and conflicts of interest.

For the most part, researchers will be aware of the potential difficulties arising from their work. However, UNESCO is concerned to draw the attention of all researchers to certain areas in which conflicts between ethical principles and aims of the research might arise, and to stress the need for their resolution. Therefore, a set of ethical guidelines has been developed to provide a framework to guide research practice. They are intended to act as signposts rather than detailed prescriptions or regulations. They are not intended to be a substitute for the scientific and professional judgement of the individual researcher. UNESCO encourages the participating institutions and networks to develop policies and promote information sessions for awareness-raising concerning ethical issues in social research.

4.10 Conclusion

With the information presented in this chapter (Chapter Four), it can be deduced that this study was executed using an appropriate research design and methodology to fulfil the aims and objectives guiding this study as outlined in Chapter One of this study. The following chapter will

therefore present the findings of this study in relation to the aims and objective based on the captured data stemming from the selected participants through the use of measuring instruments (semi-structured interview schedule).

In concluding this chapter, the researcher, in the year 2017, was given permission from the Ethics board of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate and the Disciplinary Trial officers from the South Africa Police Services. The twenty-one participants were all interviewed. Eventually, with data obtained from the research participants and existing literature, it was possible to build an effective explanation on the curbing of police corruption within the South African Police Services. The next chapter focuses on the discussion of findings.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the findings of the study are presented and discussed in relation to the objectives formulated in Chapter One. The researcher describes the trends observed and mobilises appropriate quotes to aid illustration.

Chapter Five presents' data collected. This section presents the primary findings, as well as their analysis and interpretation. The researcher views these participants as primary sources to the study including the Independent for Police Investigative Directorate (IPID), South African Police Services (SAPS) members including the Disciplinary Trial Unit (DTU) to obtain their attitudes, learn about their experiences, and gather their views and opinions on the effectiveness of strategies that help in the curbing of police corruption in the Gauteng region.

The 21 participants were selected in the above area. The participants were asked to answer questions individually. The interviewer worked individually and was multilingual. Participants could answer questions in the language they found suitable for themselves. During conducting interviews, the researcher asked questions in English and ensured that there was clarity when there was confusion in terms of understanding questions. In this chapter all the verbatim quotations from participants are presented in italics. Individuals are not identified by name in keeping with the policy of anonymity discussed in the previous chapter and for reasons associated with ethical considerations already outlined in the previous chapters, they are however identified in terms of 'P1', which stands for participant one, accordingly.

The following section of data presentation, analysis and interpretation, the following questions (in italics) were asked by the researcher. Notes were taken and a voice recorder was used to record the participants` responses,

- *In your own words can you please describe the nature and the extent of police corruption*
- *What do you think are the contributing factors for the police officers to engage in corruption?*
- *Which ranks and units do you think are more likely to engage in corruption?*
- *What are the most prominent corrupt actions you come across during cases?*
- *Do you feel like the nature of your job puts you at risk?*
- *How do you deal with cases involving relatives and friends?*
- *Are there any strategies that have been put in place to combat police corruption? Do you think these strategies are effective?*

It should be noted that findings presented below are classified according to the study area Gauteng Province. The respondents from both the Independent Police Investigative Directorate and the Disciplinary Trial Unit indicated that the nature and extent of police corruption is severe. The following are the responses quoted verbatim, and no corrections were made on the language.

In terms of the nature and extent of crime, both IPID and the Disciplinary Trial Unit specified that crime seems to be very high, and it is almost as if the police officers are getting worse in terms of continuously engaging in criminal behaviours.

The nature of police corruption dates back, and it is something that persists on a daily basis. The nature of corruption is “huge”, as a police officer, I have a feeling of doubt by the number of corruption that is done by the police officers.

(P1)

I believes that is massive, I believe this because it starts from the National Commissioner, with the belief that if it is the Commissioner engaging in such behaviours, what is really expected of his subordinates. (P2)

The nature of police corruption to me is a personally driven goal, police officers have become so corrupt, and members of the community have lost their faith in the organisation, what then does that tell you about our country (P5)

It is very bad, it certainly is not looking good, it is extreme” (P7)

The nature of police corruption differs from serious to petty crimes in the street of taking your “tjotjo” on the street. Corruption manifests in different ways, this corruption depends on the context, corruption can occur in the streets or in the offices. Its extent is so high, and it depends on the type of criminal activity one does, it is not controllable, it is difficult, and it takes two to tango, I believe that if nobody can corrupt the police, because out there, there is someone that is willing to corrupt the police, that is where we talk about active corruption and passive corruption, active corruption I mean when someone wants to offer an officer something with the avoidance of getting arrested. (P15)

I think is growing tremendously, they not worried if they gonna get caught, that’s the nature of corruption, they ask for big amounts of money, i have noticed that through my work and they arrogant when they land in the disciplinary hearing, they would say this “is this what you want to charge me for (P6).

On the contributing factors, participants’ responses differed. Others believed that corruption is fuelled by poor salaries, hence police officials, especially those in lower ranks engage in corrupt activities to supplement their meagre incomes. However, others, especially most of those in the Disciplinary Trial Unit, believed that corruption had nothing to do with low salaries, but rather, they attributed it to for personal reasons.

The problem with these members is that they love too much money yeeer. (P3)

The rank structure has changed in the police system, this had a tremendous impact. The old rank structure was so effective; I believe that if that is back again, give platform of accountability in terms of ranks. There is lack of commando control in the SAPS, police officers have too much freedom and do as they please. (P6)

They are underpaid these people, they are greedy, personal situations lead to corruption, within the SAPS, there are no supportive structures, in as much as you have your counsellors, confiding in them is not easy, they are not trustworthy. The increase in VAT also contributes to it (P7)

One thing for sure, it is not poverty, like I said before, it has to do with morale, corruption is a crime, there are people that are poor yet not corrupt, they don't steal, it cannot be attributed to poverty, it is greed!!!” (P15)

I believe that the contributing factor of crime is greed, the standard the police officers is hard to maintain, they are said to live beyond their means, mismanagement. (P7)

I think the contributing factors to police corruption is the grouping that occurs among the police officers, they are said to be in groups when on duty, thus they have “points” to prove among themselves, that they are not cowards. (P19)

The views differed among interviewees. With regards to ranks, the lower ranks were the ones that mostly engaged in police corruption, which ranged from the bribes to extortion. However, the higher ranks also engaged in such acts, and emerged that it was rare that they get caught.

The constables, and to my surprise they knew the salary, it is the budget you should live with, same as someone sweeping the street, they know how much they are getting, i believe integrity is important. I have seen it in all races, integrity isn't as important to these officers, i cannot say that brigadiers do not associate themselves, but they may have more experienced to get away with crimes. (P12)

Lower ranks, they are exposed to the outside jobs, they are underpaid and overworked. The lower ranks, usually ranging from the age of twenty-three to twenty-six, they are so troublesome, and for them taking “tjotjo” seems like a good option because they believe that when they engage in these activities, tjotjo plays a substitute for the “overtime” they believe is given to them, one without pay. (P20)

For me, the corruption rates are not necessarily about higher or lower ranks, these officers, regardless of rank structures, it does not even stop them. However, I believe that the higher structures should be questioned when found to be engaging in such behaviours, I mean they get way more than they should, but get this, to answer your question, all I can say is that you don't even have to ask me that question, have you not seen what Bheki Cele and Selebi did, have I answered your question. (P18)

The Generals, and the senior ranks, participant thinks that they team up with the “Guptas”, hence they get away with such acts. In my experience in the organisation, I have noticed that those in power know the bigger guns, the ones higher than them, they know that they are there to cover up their mess when they get caught, so how do you honestly think that the corruption rates in this organisation drop down, I mean it's like we are working backwards (P8)

The drug units, the flying squad and normal policing members tend to engage in corrupted acts. One thing I have noticed about working in this discipline is that certain

units in the SAPS compete in terms of who is the “baddest”, and I have noticed that the flying squad feel as if they hold the special unit, their arrogance to my surprise leads to criminating behaviours (P1)

The NPA is corrupt; there is corruption within the criminal justice, adding to this, the police have connections. It is not even a surprise that the country is looking this bad, everyone seems to be doing what they believe is best for themselves, what can I say (P2)

I don't have statistics, but the media shows that junior members are normally caught, maybe it is because the type of corrupt acts they engage in are trivial and reckless, you find that someone is fired for R50, which is not even a significant percentage of one's salary; and it's not that the bigger guns are not being corrupt, their activities are a bit concealed, it depends who policies who, they can manoeuvre around. (P15)

Judging by the number of years that I have been in the organisation, these youngsters love belonging; they always arrange themselves in groups, always following each other. (P19)

Several views were expressed in terms of the crimes they come across, but it is usually petty crimes they come across when dealing with cases.

All these cases, you name it, but bribery, petty cash, but with such cases I am very lenient, the dismissal i relocate you to another section where you are not in the eye of the public, I cannot support dismissal without salary because I am sending the employee to steal even more, why penalise the family because of one person, I have always explained to my divisional commissioner. (P6)

Unscrupulous police officials have the tendency of extorting money from illegal foreigners in order not to arrest and repatriate them, when the police officials find someone urinate in public they extort money from such a person and they let him go, when I used to be on call, I witnessed this, immigrants had to take their last cent and give it to police officers. (P3)

Uhm, its mostly extortion, the requesting of money, you find that the poor man gives his last money, you find that if money is not given, one must protect his life, he has a family to feed, jail is not an alternative. These police officers go as far as following you to your house to withdraw the more; it is possible, can you see, there is too much extortion. However, there are cases whereby it's reverse now, active corruption, you approach me as an officer for a favour to give me something in return. (P15)

Participants in this set of questions mostly stated that they excuse themselves from cases of people they know. This is because they feel as if taking the case is bias. Furthermore, they believe and feel that it affects the relationship they might be having with the case they must deal

with, hence they disclose that they will not take the case, as this can affect the relationships they have.

For me it is conflict of interest, there is no way that I will agree to handle that case, it also puts my life at risk (P21)

There is no way that I will take a case of someone I know, it does not even have to be a relationship whereby we are related, or some friendship, the fact that that person bumps into me any time of the day, I will not take charge of the case, let alone be a part of it. (P18)

I will most definitely take the case, me knowing the person guilty does not give me shivers, you need to be responsible, a job is a job. (P3)

As an investigator I will excuse myself from the case, it is a tricky situation, I believe in avoiding nepotism. (P16)

It depends on the closeness, if it is a relative, then definitely I must excuse myself, I cannot arrest my mother for instance, somebody must come deal with it, not me, because even a judge can excuse himself when dealing with such (P15)

For me, i believe that a gun cannot protect me, so i do not need to put my life at risk, sometimes when we are given cases, the people that give you cases do not consider such, so for me, a job does not mean that I risk my life and my family's lives at sake (P5)

On the issue of safety in terms of the position they hold as the discipline, participants fear for their lives. Participants expressed that they do not feel safe when it comes to their jobs. The job is risky due to beliefs that people do not respond the same to rejection. Officers that took part in the interviews expressed that as far as guns are known to be protectors, they however not something they can rely on for their own safety.

You know i believe in God, i know where i am going, however there are two occasions when i was at risk, when i am in the hearing process, nobody can bring a gun, but still, this officer brought a gun, what do you call that. When dealing with cases, you deal with different people, and one thing they have in common is that they all want to be right, and they will try to convince you, especially during hearing, I grew a thick skin, because you know when someone will strike, after all, I am called the devil, I dismiss, I don't like corruption. (P6)

Yes, what would you expect, I mean you are taking another man's source of survival, I expect anything, it is even scarier because daily, police officers are murdered, personally, I expect anything, just as long my family does not get to witness it. (P7)

Yes, it is dangerous, IPID does not protect whatever that happens to you.
(P12)

Okay, generally, the police job is not safe, we try our best to act when doing our duties, we know that our job is not safe, so in actual sense criminals don't want to be arrested and they will do anything to stay out of jail, we hear about police getting killed day and night, every day, it is not safe, but rather a job must be done by us to protect the community, but it is not so safe
(P15)

When it comes to the strategies that have been put in place, most participants stated that strategies are there to curb police corruption. Participants have mentioned a few of the strategies. However, the researcher discovered that with the strategies at hand, these strategies according to participants were not effective; participants felt that the ones that write the strategies down the strategies do not experience the problems that are encountered by the officers in the line of duty.

The strategies are starting to work, i see the Anti- corruption unit, i have also noticed that the public are approaching structures that they starting to trust, i have learned that community policing forums are at work, strategies that are inclusive of the community is something must be introduced to stop corruption, hiring police officials within the area, I mean the community knows its people, a loyal person would be easy to hire since the community knows the person. We can change structures to fight corruption.
(P6)

Yes, there are strategies, I think after 2010 strategies were introduced; however, its effectiveness is not seen because these strategies are always edited. So personally, I recommend that the people that make strategies have no idea the lives these people lead, you find that the people writing them has no idea what as an officer you come across, like the saying goes 'heal your people before healing others', the people up there, the commissioners, they do not know the lives we lead and challenges, VAT has increased, but salaries no, how are we supposed to survive, a strategy should be practical, not theoretical.
(P7)

Yes, as you can see that we have the Hawks, the IPID act and NPA, yes, these strategies are effective, and many officers do lose their jobs. As investigators, we have ensured that corrupt police officials are excused when found guilty. I have seen the strategies working. As painful as it is to take away the job of the bread winner, we must set by example, and unfortunately someone must be the leading example.
(P18)

The SAPS on its own has integrity management, a section that deals with integrity of the members, it tries to deal with members from engaging in corrupt activities, however, i don't think it is so much effective because it is only information given to people, because once members are out there, that is where these things happen. Discipline has to do with the moral fibre of the members involved and society, because there is a corrupter and a corruptee.
(P15)

Yes, there are strategies that have been put to control the misbehaving members of the organisation, no, they are not effective, as far as I have been an investigator, no case of mine i have dealt with came out to be a success, you need to understand that before a case has even started, it is already dead, we are working for nothing here, sisebenzakanzima (we work hard) and our work comes down to nothing.

(P7)

Yes, there are strategies, we sometimes make traps, there are toll free numbers also, a country can only do so much, the strategies are effective, the success of the implemented strategies depends who is handling the case.

(P4)

“the strategies are not effective, everyone from the top to the bottom is corrupt, within the criminal justice there is corruption, the police have connections, everyone knows someone that will make it go away. As officers our work is stamped. Corruption is like a relationship of organs of state, everyone covers for everyone. You scratch my back I scratch yours.

(P13)

5.2 Discussions of findings

This section discusses the findings that were elicited during the process of data collection. Data were collected using in-depth interviews. Interpretation means relating the researcher’s findings to existing literature and demonstrating whether these are supported or contradicted by the interpretation (Mouton, 2011). Interpretation also means considering rival explanations or interpretations of one’s data and showing what levels of support the data provides for the preferred interpretation. Data was interpreted with the objective of identifying the strategies implemented to curb police corruption.

5.2.1. An interpretation of the themes

During the analysis of the research data, several themes were identified. The following themes were identified, namely; nature and extent of police corruption, the contributing factors in police corruption, the ranks and units engaging in police corruption, the prominent corrupt activities dealt with when dealing with corruption cases, dealing with cases involving friends and relatives, the nature of the job putting one at risk, and the strategies in place to combat police corruption and their effectiveness. These themes are structured as sections of the current chapter. The main

purpose of this study was to find out if there are any strategies meant to combat crime and to explore their effectiveness. Therefore, in this section, the participants' responses are interpreted and discussed.

5.2.1.1. The nature and extent of police corruption.

In the findings, all participants were familiar with the dynamics involved in police corruption. They knew that corruption is something that has been happening and continued to happen. Participants stated that the nature of police corruption is beyond what they can take, their efforts come down to nothing. They all felt that it was a waste of their time to be even given cases because the cases fail before they even start.

The nature of police corruption according to participants is drastic; it ranges from petty crimes “tjotjo” to serious corruption. Participants felt that it is something based on context, for example where an officer could be working at that point in time. Participants argued that corruption can either be serious or petty, that is how one defines its extent. Corruption seems to be not controllable, because it takes two to be corrupt. According to the participants, there is a will to corrupt officers sometimes, which according to some participants is something called active corruptive, meaning that a perpetrator or police corruption pays a fellow colleague either not to act against corrupt action by not saying anything or not making any arrests because of an incentive that would have been offered. Corruption takes many forms because society is also willing to budge. Society poses temptations to officers. It emerged that perpetrators are often aware of what officers need, in terms of knowing their salary wage. Other participants regarded corruption as being massive. They stated that even Police Commissioners are corrupt themselves.

5.2.1.2. Factors contributing to police corruption

In this study, the researcher discovered that there was commonality in terms of the responses with regards to the possible causal factors of police corruption. Most of the participants saw

greed as a cause of misbehaving. There were others that argued that the officers are paid according to rank, hence it is all in the ways one manages their finances. In the interview process, participants believed that it is the power that the police wield that makes police officials do what they do. Insufficient remuneration was a common concern raised, which is also supported by Vilakazi (2015). According to this scholar, police officials are underpaid, which compels them to seek to supplement their incomes.

There has been an argument from one of some participants that the people that design strategies to combat police corruption are not the ones that lead the lives of police officials, especially for officers at the junior levels. For them, the Commissioners for instance, simply draft something which is not practical, something that is far from them, and they forget that the practicality of paper work is not as functional as they may wish. Participants indicated that police officials' salaries must be regularly reviewed and adjusted such that when taxes such as value added tax (VAT) and pay as you earn (PAYE) are increased, their salaries should also be increased so that they live above the poverty datum line.

5.2.1.3. The ranks and units that engage in police corruption

During the process of conducting interviews, the researcher discovered that police corruption is not necessarily about ranks since every rank within the SAPS engages in corrupt activities. However, it emerged that junior members such as warrant officers and constables were the ones that were usually caught in the act. Participants have similar answers as to why this is so, on the basis on exposure since the junior members are usually within the force, thus they have too much time dealing with petty crimes. Many participants also agree that within the big ranks, it is not that they do not engage in corruption, they rather know the way around it, to manoeuvre around it. The researcher discovered that the big ranks within the SAPS are experienced because they have been doing it for so long that chances of getting caught are very slim. Participants felt that when it comes to the junior ranks, salaries should be increased to mitigate police corruption.

5.2.1.4. The prominent corrupt activities dealt with when dealing with corruption cases

The researcher discovered that the most common crimes they came across were bribery and extortion; 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. Police officials, in the lower ranks, in many instances engage in extortion, fast cash seems to be something that they engage in, thus engaging in, a "fast fast" kind of transaction. However, in as much as it can be stated that extortion is the most common act of corruption among police officials (SAPS), the members of the community at large are the ones that give officers money, what they call active corruption. In that regard, a member of society approaches the officer with a lump sum of money, in return of something, usually their freedom (Vilakazi, 2014).

5.2.1.5. Dealing with cases involving friends and relatives

Participants in this section of dealing with cases involving the ones they know, that they would rather excuse themselves from the case, they believe that there would not be accuracy in the case because of conflict of interest biasness. This biasness is not necessarily due to taking sides, but a matter of not wanting the one next to you to get hurt. Dealing with a case in which the investigator knows the perpetrator makes it to not be easy to let his friend go down when he can help, be it jeopardising evidence or any means to help him or her get out of the case without being found guilty. To conclude the findings, most claimed that they must be excused when given a case of someone they know.

5.2.1.6. The nature of the job putting one at risk

The researcher in this section has agreed that the nature of the officers' job does put them at risk. For them, a gun is not enough to protect them; one respondent from IPID stated that the organisation on its own does not care about their safety, all they expect is that the job is well

done at the end of the day. The researcher gathered that the officers already know that as an officer, the job is already dangerous, so every job that comes with it is risky, this however does not make them quit, because they must survive. The circumstances, or rather the challenges that come with taking someone's job come with challenges, it is therefore a given that someone is willing to retaliate once they are found guilty. The researcher concluded that the job is dangerous, and lives of workers dealing with discipline are at a high risk of being attacked after firing an officer that did not follow the law

5.2.1.7. The strategies in place to combat police corruption and their effectiveness

Participants knew what several strategies were in place to combat police corruption. Other participants knew the different strategies, they named the strategies. This is supported by Vilakazi (2015), in his dissertation about service delivery, the researcher wrote about The Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) established in terms of the IPD ACT 1 of 2011 (Joubert, 2013). The IPID, known as the Independent Complaints Directorate, is an agency of the South African government. The IPID investigates criminal offences allegedly committed by the police officials and makes appropriate recommendations. Independent Police Investigative Directorate, participants were aware of the organisation and the ways in which it functions to control police corruption. The NPA is something the police officials are familiar with in terms of fighting limiting corruption. It was established in terms of Section 179(1) of the Constitution and the NPA Act 32 of 1998 (Swanepoel et al., 2014). The NPA is a key partner in the criminal justice system and it institutes criminal proceedings on behalf of the State (The Sunday Independent, 2014). It plays a critical role in ensuring that perpetrators of crime are held responsible for their criminal actions (National Prosecuting Authority of South Africa, 2008).

In the process of interviews, participants felt that in as much these strategies are there, but they are not as effective as they should. While the SAPS have its own anti-corruption strategies, participants felt that these were not effective, irrespective of the strategies being written down, in actual sense, when going into the field; officers tend to forget the strategies read to them.

In this study, the researcher discovered that there was commonality in terms of the responses with regards to the possible causes of police corruption. Most of the participants saw greed as a cause of misbehaving(Vilkazi, 2015). There were others that argued that the officers are paid according to rank, it is all in the ways one manages their finances. In the interview process, respondents believe that it is power that makes police officials do what they do. Insufficient wages seem to be also common, which is also supported by Vilakazi (2015), whereby he states that police officials are underpaid. There has been an argument from one of the respondent that the people that do strategies are not the ones that live the lives of police officials, especially the junior levels, for them, the Commissioners, all they do is draft something which is not practical, something that is far from them, and they forget that the practicality of paper work is not as functional.

5.3. Conclusion

Based on the feedback of the data from the selected participants to this study, the most important lesson learnt regarding the strategies in place to curb corruption is the fact that strategies are there, but there is lack of practicality. The main reason being that those that come up with policies and strategies are not the ones that live the life of the officers they are writing the strategies to, they do not live the life of minimum wage, thus they must consult with the officers to ensure effectiveness, to find out if they may come across any issues regarding corrupt acts. This current chapter provided the findings of the study, the study purpose, objectives, the research questions, the research design and methodology. The questions posed to the participants, were presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed in line with the legislative and policy that underpin this study by the researcher.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study and the conclusions drawn concerning the strategies that are in place for curbing of police corruption in the SAPS, in the Gauteng Province. Based on the findings, recommendations on how to improve the current strategies in controlling police corruption among South African Police Service members are presented. These recommendations focus on aspects deduced from the empirical study. The researcher conducted KIIs, literature and one on one interviews with persons who are actively involved in investigations regarding police officers engaging in corruption.

6.2. Conclusions pertaining to the fulfilment of the aim and objectives of the Study

The following discussion pertains to the conclusions derived from the study findings based on the objectives developed in Chapter One with the express purpose to consider the achievement of the aim of this research. The objectives of the study have been met, being the identification of the presence of strategies that could be in place in curbing police corruption, analysing and exploring the effectiveness of the strategies and the assessing of challenges that come with implementing these strategies.

6.3. Recommendations

Based on analysed data, the researcher recommends the following interventions to mitigate police corruption and thus an effective and efficient service delivery in the Gauteng Province. The police officials must display good conduct and a positive attitude always towards the members of the community at large. It is recommended that the Police Department embark on a mission relating to deal with police corruption. The recommendations include an improved recruitment strategy, employing the right people, training and development, police wages and stronger Anti-police corruption mechanisms.

6.3.1. Improved recruiting strategy

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 a successful recruiting effort (Brown, 2012). The author further mentions that one of 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 will join the organisation. Integrity is more important in the police than any other institution because the police are empowered by society to uphold and enforce the law (Brown, 2012). Police organisations are encouraged to think outside the box in their effort to reach qualified candidates by improving benefits and incentives such as salary, educational incentive, and overtime opportunities and so forth (Dempsey and Forst, 2012). If they recruit this way, they shall recruit potential police officials who are willing to help the community and to protect the country with pride. They should fill the hiring gaps with the intent to avoid hiring candidates who have low ethical standards because it compromises the SAPS' integrity (Vilakazi, 2015).

6.3.2. Employing the right people

The SAPS should start to employ capable people and stop deploying people who are not competent to do policing job. Community members say that they need real police officials. 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 in the 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 thereby improve its selection process. In addition to this, applicants should be given background investigation form to fill out regarding their entire lives, including residences, schools, jobs, driving, police experience, and criminal activity detected and undetected (Dempsey and Forst, 2012). The police

organisation should not recruit trainees that might pose threat to the country by means of having the potential to destroy the reputation of the organisation

The recruitment of police personnel should culminate into hiring individuals who would see the police job as a calling and will do it from their heart. They should firstly target people who choose police related courses. They should start to 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, and that with the courage and willingness to deliver quality service.

6.3.3. Training and development

Lack of training and development in the SAPS is the main obstacle to the effective service delivery. It is imperative that the police should enormously invest in human capital by assisting police officers with training to understand the human mind and to acquire the 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 the SAPS, which inspire police officers to study further academically. The SAPS should extend the length of time spent in the police academy to accommodate all the necessary training interventions.

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 sending them to additional training, such as refresher courses and advanced training for different skills. The 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.

Furthermore, police officials should receive training, during which rules and regulations are set down as their guidelines and emphasis put on them. It is very significant for the SAPS to sensitise the police officials by sending them to the anti-corruption courses to make them aware of the consequences of police corruption. These courses should build enough capacity and skills in members to deal with community complaints. The SAPS must discontinue recruitment practices that include hiring people because they are connected to certain individuals in political affiliations or political appointments. Such practices only destroy the organisational's morale and integrity. In addition, it will create a negative atmosphere within the SAPS, which will affect the organisation's good code of conduct.

6.3.4. Police salaries

The police officials should have every reason not to take a bribe. They should be able to say that their salaries, and incentives are enough for them and they are bound not to be corrupt. If they are well paid, it may be enough reason to make them not to accept the bribes. This is very important because they should not have any doubt that everything was done for their well-being. They may regain confidence in their profession. At least by doing that, the police would lessen police officials' desire to accept or solicit for bribes from people. When you only give them basic training and pay them little, they are likely to keep on taking bribes.

6.3.5. Strong anti- corruption mechanisms

The South African government should establish a very sophisticated anti-corruption body that is independent from 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. It is essential for government to recall passionate former police officials to investigate all the corrupt officials. In support, those who have retired because they hate police corruption should be the people who are used to deal with police corruption. The committed individuals reinstated to eradicate police corruption are ideal candidates because they know police work very well. For instance, if such person(s) can come in and work at the police stations for about six months, looking for those who take bribes and arrest them, that can be the solution to the problem of police corruption. They will know that someone is watching them, and

therefore they will be afraid of being arrested or losing their jobs. Then the community will trust that they have proper police officials in South Africa. Government should have confidence knowing that they did everything possible to deal with the problem of the police corruption.

6.4 Conclusion

There is a wide acknowledgement that police corruption in South Africa is widespread. The extent of police corruption cannot be easily or accurately measured, there is evidence that the problem is a widespread and systemic one (Newham and Faull, 2011). However, this study is predominantly focused on police corruption in Gauteng. It was necessary to conduct this study of police corruption in this province. The participants in this study are aware of the strategies that are in place to control the criminal acts committed by the police officials, the members of the South African Police Service.

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APPENDICES

Acceptance letter to conduct research from the Independent Police Investigative Directorate



INDEPENDENT POLICE INVESTIGATIVE DIRECTORATE

Private Bag X941, PRETORIA, 0001. City Forum Building, 114 Madiba Street, PRETORIA
Tel: (012) 369 0000, Fax: (012) 326-0408, Enquiries: Mr. Aim Rikhotso Email: ARikhotso@pid.gov.za

2017 -06- 19

PRIVATE BAG X941
PRETORIA
0001

Ms. Tintswalo Baloyi
Department of Criminology and Forensic Studies
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Howard College Campus
Durban
4001

RE: Request for permission to conduct research "An evaluation of independent investigative mechanisms in the South African Police Services to curb corruption: A criminological perspective"

1. Your application refers.
2. You are hereby granted a permission to conduct research on the above mentioned topic within the Independent Police Investigative Directorate.
3. Kindly be informed that:
 - The Department will not be liable for any cost/remuneration relating to your study.
 - During the course of your study there should be no action that will disrupt the service delivery.
 - After completion of the study, a copy of your dissertation should be submitted to the Department to serve as a resource.
 - No access to confidential IPID documents
4. Wishing you successful academic year.

Your cooperation in this regard will be highly appreciated.


19/06/2017
MR R. MCBRIDE

The researcher should not have access to IPID's investigation files.
RKS.

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: INDEPENDENT POLICE INVESTIGATIVE DIRECTORATE

Acceptance letter to conduct research from the South African Police Services National Research Instruction

IDSUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS



SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X 94

Verwysing/Reference: 3/34/2
Navrae/Enquiries: Lt Col Joubert
Intern Thenga
Telefoon/Telephone: (012) 393 3118

DIVISION: RESEARCH
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
PRETORIA
0001

- A. The National Head
DIRECTORATE FOR PRIORITY CRIME INVESTIGATION
- B. The Provincial Commissioner
GAUTENG
- C. The Divisional Commissioner
DETECTIVE SERVICE
- D. The Divisional Commissioner
PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EVALUATION OF INDEPENDENT INVESTIGATIVE MECHANISMS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE TO CONTROL CORRUPTION: MASTERS DEGREE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: RESEARCHER: T BALOYI

- A-D
1. The above subject matter refers.
 2. The researcher, Ms T Baloyi, is conducting a research study with the aim is *to identify the strategies in place to combat corruption within the South African Police Service.*
 3. The researcher is requesting permission to interview 10 Disciplinary Officers from office of the Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng.
 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 National Head: Directorate For Priority Crime Investigation, the Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng and the Divisional Commissioners: Detective Service and Personnel Management.
 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

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EVALUATION OF INDEPENDENT INVESTIGATIVE MECHANISMS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE TO CONTROL CORRUPTION: MASTERS DEGREE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: RESEARCHER: T BALOYI

to the researcher to ensure that compliance standards are adhered to during research process and that research has impact to the organisation.

6. If approval 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.
7. If approval 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.


**LIEUTENANT GENERAL
DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH
DR BM ZULU**

DATE: 2017/08/04

Acceptance letter from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Ethics Committee



31 July 2017

Ms Tintswalo Baloyi 213547570
School of Social Sciences
Howard College Campus

Dear Ms Baloyi

Protocol reference number: HSS/0554/017M

Project title: An evaluation of independent investigative mechanisms in the South African Police Services to control corruption : A Criminological perspective.

Full Approval – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

In response to your application received 16 May 2017, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....
Dr Shrenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Mr Siyanda Dlamini
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr J Steyn
cc School Administrator: Ms Ayanda Ntuli

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview questions

Disciplinary Trial Unit (SAPS) and the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID)

Semi-structured interview

1. *Demographics:*

- a. Rank:*
- b. Age range:*
- c. Gender:*
- d. Race:*
- e. Name of Organisation:*
- f. Qualification*
- g. Marital status*

2. *How long have you been with this organization?*

Police curbing strategies in place

- In your own words can you please describe the nature and the extent of police corruption
- What do you think are the contributing factors for the police officers to engage in corruption?
- Which ranks and units do you think are more likely to engage in corruption?
- What are the most prominent corrupt actions you come across during cases?
- Do you feel like the nature of your job puts you at risk?
- How do you deal with cases involving relatives and friends?

- Are there any strategies that have been put in place to combat police corruption? Do you think these strategies are effective?