

**AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN COMBATING
PUBLIC SECTOR CORRUPTION IN MALAWI: A CASE OF MCHINJI
DISTRICT COUNCIL**

MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT THESIS

GEORGE LUCIUS DAYILESI MAKANDE

UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI

SEPTEMBER, 2021



**AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN COMBATING
PUBLIC SECTOR CORRUPTION IN MALAWI: A CASE OF MCHINJI
DISTRICT COUNCIL**

MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT THESIS

By

GEORGE LUCIUS DAYILESI MAKANDE

B.Ed. (Science) - University of Malawi

Submitted to the Department of Political and Administrative Studies, Faculty of
Social Sciences, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Public Administration and Management

University of Malawi

September, 2021

DECLARATION

This thesis is my own original work which has not been submitted to any institution for similar purposes. Acknowledgements have been duly made where other people's work have been used. I bear the responsibility for the contents of this paper.

GEORGE LUCIUS DAYILESI MAKANDE

Full Legal Name

Signature

Date

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

The undersigned certify that this thesis represents the student's own work and effort and has been submitted with our approval.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Banik, Dan, PhD (Professor)

Main Supervisor

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Hussein, Mustafa, PhD (Associate Professor)

Second Supervisor

DEDICATION

To my wife, Fatima Makande and my three lovely children; namely, Paul, Blessings and Hastings for their continued support and understanding.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I thank God, the Almighty, for giving me the opportunity to complete studies for a Master degree and the thesis without any hindrance. May your name be praised!

My deepest gratitude also goes to my wife Fatima Makande for her encouragement. My lovely children Paul, Blessings and Hastings who endured my busy schedule also deserve appreciation.

My supervisor Professor Dan Banik, and his co-supervisor, Associate Professor Mustafa Hussein deserve special mention for their unwavering support, guidance, constructive criticism, encouragement and suggestions in the process of writing this thesis. Their efforts have made me reach this far.

My sincere appreciation also extends to the MPAM Coordinator, Mr. Ernest Thindwa for coordinating the Programme tirelessly. I am also grateful to the University of Oslo, Norway for partnering with University of Malawi in offering this prestigious course. To all lecturers both from University of Malawi and Oslo, I say thank you for your effort.

My sincerely gratitude also goes to Mrs Beatrice Raphael, Mrs Emmaculate Banda, Mr Mike Makande, Mrs Mary Phombeya, Mr Paul Kanyenda, Mr Geoffrey Mkandawire, Mr Ezilon Kasoka and Mr Medson Makulu for their moral support. You were always there for me.

My final appreciation goes to all respondents who participated in this study. Thank you for giving me your precious time.

I would have loved to mention the name of everyone who has contributed towards the success of this thesis. However, it may not be possible for me to mention each one by name. For that reason, I say thank you all.

ABSTRACT

The study is an analysis of public participation in combating corruption in public sector in Malawi focusing at Mchinji District Council. Specifically, the study aims at assessing the extent to which and how public participate in combating corruption in public institutions. The study is significant because s public participation is critical in combating corruption and as such there is need for deeper analysis on how public participate in the fight against corruption. The study used qualitative research design using analysis of documents, key informant interviews and Focus Group Discussions to obtain information. Malawi is one of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that has been severely affected by corruption. The study established that the level of public participation in fighting corruption is low as indicated by majority of the respondents due to a number of factors which among others include financial constraints, loss of trust on authorities and institutional failures. The study revealed that greed, lack of punitive measures, lack of awareness of corruption issues, discretionary powers without accountability and low salaries are the major causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council. It also found out that lack of reporting mechanisms, lack of knowledge of corruption issues, failure by authorities to take action, harassment of whistle-blowers by suspected offenders, lack of whistle-blower protection mechanisms and financial constraints are the most common factors that prevent public participation in fighting corruption. The study further proposes further research in private sector to have a complete analysis of public participation in combating corruption in both public and private institutions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF APPENDICES	xvi
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xvii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction.....	1
1.2. Background and rationale	3
1.3. Research problem.....	6
1.4. Research questions.....	7
1.5. Research objectives.....	7
1.5.1. <i>Specific objectives</i>	7
1.6. Significance of the study.....	8
1.7. Structure of the thesis.....	8
1.8. Chapter summary	9
CHAPTER TWO	10
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	10
2.1. Introduction.....	10
2.2. Definitions of corruption.....	10
2.2.1. <i>Public-office centred definitions</i>	12
2.2.2. <i>Public-interest centred definitions</i>	13
2.2.3. <i>Market-centred definitions</i>	13
2.3. Forms of corruption	13

2.3.1. <i>Grand corruption</i>	13
2.3.2. <i>Political corruption</i>	14
2.3.3. <i>Bureaucratic corruption</i>	14
2.3.4. <i>Corporate corruption</i>	15
2.3.5. <i>State capture or influence peddling</i>	15
2.4. <i>Types of corruption</i>	15
2.5. <i>Approaches toward corruption</i>	16
2.5.1. <i>Institutional approach</i>	16
2.5.2. <i>Individual or personalistic or incidental</i>	17
2.5.3. <i>Systemic</i>	18
2.6. <i>Corruption in Africa</i>	18
2.7. <i>Causes of corruption in Africa</i>	19
2.7.1. <i>Soft state</i>	20
2.7.2. <i>Absence of the rule of law</i>	20
2.7.3. <i>Excessive bureaucratic red tape and weak legislative and judicial systems</i>	20
2.7.4. <i>Opportunity to abuse power</i>	21
2.7.5. <i>Greed of public officials</i>	21
2.7.6. <i>Motivation to earn income</i>	22
2.7.7. <i>Poverty and personalisation of public office</i>	22
2.8. <i>Efforts to address corruption in Africa</i>	22
2.8.1. <i>The United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC)</i>	23
2.8.2. <i>African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption (AUCPCC)</i>	23
2.8.3. <i>Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol against Corruption</i>	24
2.8.4. <i>Establishment of Anti-Corruption Agencies</i>	24
2.9. <i>Corruption in Malawi: An overview</i>	25
2.9.1. <i>Efforts to address corruption in Malawi</i>	25

2.10. Definitions of public participation	28
2.11. Factors that promote public participation.	29
2.11.1. Knowledge of public participation methods	29
2.11.2. Public awareness/education.....	30
2.11.3. Initiative and desire to make a difference	30
2.11.4. Dedication to the issue	30
2.11.5. Access to information.....	30
2.11.6. Feeling that public voice counts	31
2.11.7. Mobilisation strategy	31
2.12. Factors that hinder public participation in fighting corruption.	31
2.12.1. Fear of reprisals.....	31
2.12.2. Loss of trust to authorities.....	31
2.12.3. Weak anti-corruption institutions	32
2.12.4. Acceptance of corruption as norm of the society	32
2.12.5. Lack of knowledge on people's rights and entitlements.....	32
2.13. Models of public participation	32
2.14. Public participation in the fight against corruption.....	34
2.15. Role of the public in the fight against corruption	35
2.15.1. Bring suspected corruption to light.....	35
2.15.2. Resist and reject corrupt practices	36
2.15.3. Teach good life values to society	36
2.15.4. Vote for non- corrupt politicians in elections	36
2.15.5. Seek accountability and transparency from government or leaders.....	36
2.16. Public participation in fighting corruption in selected countries	36
2.16.1. Public participation in fighting corruption in India	36
2.16.2. Public participation in fighting corruption in Brazil.....	37
2.16.3. Public participation in fighting corruption in Malawi	37

2.17. Theoretical framework.....	38
2.17.1 <i>The Principal-agent approach</i>	38
2.17.2. <i>Theory of citizen participation</i>	39
2.18. Chapter Summary	44
CHAPTER THREE	45
METHODOLOGY	45
3.1. Introduction.....	45
3.2. Rationale for qualitative research approach.....	45
3.3. Research population.....	45
3.3.1. <i>Population sample</i>	46
3.4. Data collection method	46
3.4.1. <i>Literature Review</i>	47
3.4.2. <i>Semi-structured interviews</i>	47
3.4.3. <i>Interview with key informants</i>	47
3.4.4. <i>Focus Group Discussions</i>	48
3.5. Data analysis	48
3.6. Ethical considerations	48
3.7. Limitations of the study	49
3.8. Chapter summary	50
CHAPTER FOUR.....	51
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	51
4.1. Introduction.....	51
4.2. Understanding the concept of corruption.....	51
4.2.1. <i>Definition of corruption</i>	51
4.2.2. <i>Forms of corruption</i>	53
4.3. Causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council	56
4.3.1. <i>Discretionary powers minus accountability</i>	57
4.3.2. <i>Ignorance on citizens' rights</i>	58

4.3.3. <i>Ignorance of citizens about responsibility of public officers towards the public.</i>	58
4.3.4. <i>Low salaries</i>	59
4.3.5. <i>Greed</i>	60
4.3.6. <i>Weak internal controls</i>	61
4.3.7. <i>Lack of punitive measures</i>	61
4.3.8. <i>Lack of awareness in corruption issues</i>	62
4.4. <i>Prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council</i>	62
4.5. <i>How the public participates in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council</i>	64
4.5.1. <i>Reporting corruption</i>	64
4.5.2. <i>Demand for accountability and transparency</i>	65
4.6. <i>Level of participation</i>	66
4.7. <i>Public desire to fight corruption</i>	67
4.8. <i>Initiatives implemented by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in the fight against corruption</i>	68
4.8.1. <i>Establishment of an integrity committee</i>	68
4.8.2. <i>Open meetings with public representatives</i>	70
4.8.3. <i>Engagement of stakeholders</i>	70
4.9. <i>Challenges facing the public in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council</i>	70
4.9.1. <i>Lack of corruption reporting mechanisms.</i>	72
4.9.2. <i>Harassment by suspected offenders</i>	72
4.9.3. <i>Lack of information in corruption issues</i>	73
4.9.4. <i>Failure by authorities to deal with reported cases of corruption</i>	74
4.9.5. <i>Failure to protect whistle blowers</i>	75
4.9.6. <i>Financial constraints</i>	75
4.10. <i>Suggestions to promote public participation in fighting corruption</i>	77

4.11. Chapter summary	78
CHAPTER FIVE	79
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION.....	79
5.1. Introduction.....	79
5.2. Summary of research findings	79
5.2.1. <i>Participants' understanding of corruption</i>	79
5.2.2. <i>Causes of corruption</i>	80
5.2.3. <i>Prevalence of corruption</i>	80
5.2.4. <i>Observation and reporting of corruption</i>	80
5.2.5. <i>Demand for accountability and transparency from public officers</i>	81
5.2.6. <i>Public desire to fight corruption</i>	81
5.2.7. <i>Initiatives to promote public participation</i>	82
5.2.8. <i>Challenges facing the public to participate in the fight against corruption</i> .	82
5.2.9. <i>Level of participation</i>	82
5.2.10. <i>Suggestion to improve public participation</i>	82
5.3. Conclusion	83
5.4. Areas for further research	83
REFERENCES	84
APPENDICES	93

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Malawi's ranking on Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index from 2009 to 2018.....	4
Figure 2: Fraud/Corruption Triangle	17
Figure 3: Conventional model of participation.....	33
Figure 4: Authentic model of participation.....	34
Figure 5: Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation.....	40
Figure 6: Frequency of forms of corruption from respondents: Interviews conducted on 25 th July, 2019, 20 th August, 2019 and 5 th September, 2019.	54
Figure 7: Causes of corruption at Mchinji District council from respondents	57
Figure 8: Corruption level at Mchinji District Council	63
Figure 9: Observation and reporting of corruption for Council staff and VDC members	65
Figure 10: Challenges facing the public in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council.....	71

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Malawi's score on Corruption Perception Index	3
Table 2: Loot of some African Heads of State.	22
Table 3: Selected definitions of corruption from respondents	52
Table 4: Number of complaints received through telephone by ACB.....	77
Table 5: Suggestions to improve public participation	77

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Guide for key informant interviews.....	93
Appendix 2: Interview guide questions for Member of Parliaments, Local Councillors, and Chairpersons for ADC and VDC.	95
Appendix 3: Interview guide for Council Staff	97
Appendix 4: Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussion.....	98
Appendix 5: Letter of introduction from College	100
Appendix 6: Letter of introduction from Mchinji District Commissioner	101

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACB	Anti- Corruption Bureau
ACC	Anti- Corruption Commission
ADCs	Area Development Committee
AUCPCC	African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption
CAC	Citizens Against Corruption
CPA	Corrupt Practices Act
CPI	Corruption Perception Index
CRA	Corruption Risk Assessment
CRC	Complaint Review Committee
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
DCEC	Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime
ECLRD	European Committee on Local and Regional Democracy
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MEJN	Malawi Economic and Justice Network
MHRC	Malawi Human Rights Commission
MP	Member of Parliament
NACS	National Anti-Corruption Strategy
NICE	National Initiative for Civic Education
ODPOD	Office of the Directorate of Public Officer's Declaration
PPDA	Office of Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
TI	Transparency International
UNCAC	United Nations Convention Against Corruption
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
VDCs	Village Development Committee

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Corruption is a social phenomenon, deeply rooted in the history of mankind. Its history is as old as the history of government although countries did not give much attention to it until early 1990s (Sumah, 2018). In as early as 350 B.C, Aristotle argued that “... to protect the treasury from being defrauded, let all money be issued openly in front of the whole city, and let copies of the accounts be deposited in various wards” (cited in Shar et al., 2004, 1). In this statement, Aristotle acknowledged the existence of corruption in his society. Although corruption has been in existence for quite a long time, it became a topic of fierce debate in development studies from early 1990s, particularly after the end of the Cold War (Banik, 2010, 48). Research on corruption and its negative impact has become more common from this period when countries and international institutions began to be aware of it as a problem (Sumah, 2018). The concerns about corruption have, over recent years, increased in tandem with growing evidence of its detrimental impact on development.

Corruption is defined as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain (World Bank, 2006). Corruption hampers investment and economic growth, aggravates problems of underground economies, exacerbates the difference between the poor and rich and creates obstacles to economic and political reform (Justesen et al., 2014). Further, corruption has shown to lower the quality of public infrastructure, education and health services, and reduce the effectiveness of development aid (Shar et al., 2004, 1). Lawal (2007) also argues that corruption undermines social values because people find it easier and more lucrative to engage in corrupt acts than to seek legitimate employment.

As a result of the detrimental impact of corruption on development, there has been a universal condemnation of corrupt practices. Governments worldwide have made tremendous efforts to fight corruption. In recent years, institutions and forums have

raised themes relating to the control of corruption, and various initiatives have stressed the importance of combating corruption in order to attain sustainable socio-economic development (Hussein, 2005). One of the strategies that countries use to combat corruption is to engage the public to participate in the fight against corruption (Xiaoqian Li and Qiushi Liu, 2018). This is in line with the fact that the fight against corruption cannot be won without citizens' support, participation and vigilance (OECD, 2011, 2). According to André et al. (2012, 1) public participation is a "process in which ordinary people take part – whether on a voluntary or obligatory basis and whether acting alone or as part of a group – with the goal of influencing a decision involving significant choices that will affect their community. Public participation has been valued for its contributions in various public affairs (Xiaoqian et al., 2018) such that it is now widely considered as the best and key weapon to fight corruption (Transparency International, 2011).

Countries which are regarded as the world's least corrupt countries like Denmark, New Zealand, Sweden and Singapore also engage citizens to fight corruption by strengthening citizens' demand for anti-corruption and empowering them to hold government accountable in addition to emphasis on political will and good governance and promotion of equality and moderation (Transparency International, 2016, Quash, 2015, 102).

Malawi is also one of the countries that promote public participation as a strategy in the fight against corruption. It developed a National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) which promotes a holistic approach in the fight against corruption through public participation (Government of Malawi, 2008). Although this is the case, corruption in public institutions in Malawi is still rampant (Chinsinga et al., 2014; Afrobarometer, 2017; Dulani et al., 2019). District councils are among the public institutions where there is serious prevalence of corruption.

This study therefore assesses participation of the public in combating corruption at Mchinji District Council. The study focuses on Mchinji District Council because of the following reasons: Increased number of registered corruption cases and other abuses of public funds by ACB from 2017 to 2018, report of a Corruption Risk Assessment (CRA) which was done by the ACB in 2019 which revealed existence of corruption in

almost all the sectors of the council and media reports of prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1.2. Background and rationale

Corruption is a universal problem which has affected many countries economically, socially, environmentally as well as politically. The patterns of corruption vary from society to society and over time (Doig et al., 1998, 45; Banik, 2010, 52). Malawi is one of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that has been severely affected by the menace. The country has experienced high levels of corruption and this is evidenced, among others, by its poor ranking on several global and regional indices. Transparency International has, for example, rated Malawi poorly using the Corruption Perception Index (CPI). Table 1 shows Malawi's score on the CPI from 2010 to 2018 on a scale range between 0 (highly corrupt) and 100 (clean).

Table 1: Malawi's score on Corruption Perception Index

Year	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Score	34	30	37	37	33	31	31	31	32

Source: Transparency International (2018)

The scores over the years show high levels of corruption in the country. On average, the corruption index in Malawi is 32.33 percent from 1998 until 2018 reaching an all-time high score of 41 per cent in 1999 and a low score of 27 per cent in 2007¹. These scores have made Malawi to be poorly ranked against other countries. For instance, in 2016 Malawi was on position 120 out of 175 countries that were assessed, in 2017 it was on position 122 out of 183 countries and in 2018 it was on position 120 out of 180 countries. (Transparency International, 2018). With the rankings, Malawi continued to be perceived as the most corrupt in the region and globally (ibid). Figure 1 shows how Malawi has been ranked from 2009 to 2018.

¹ <https://tradingeconomics.com/malawi/corruption-rank>

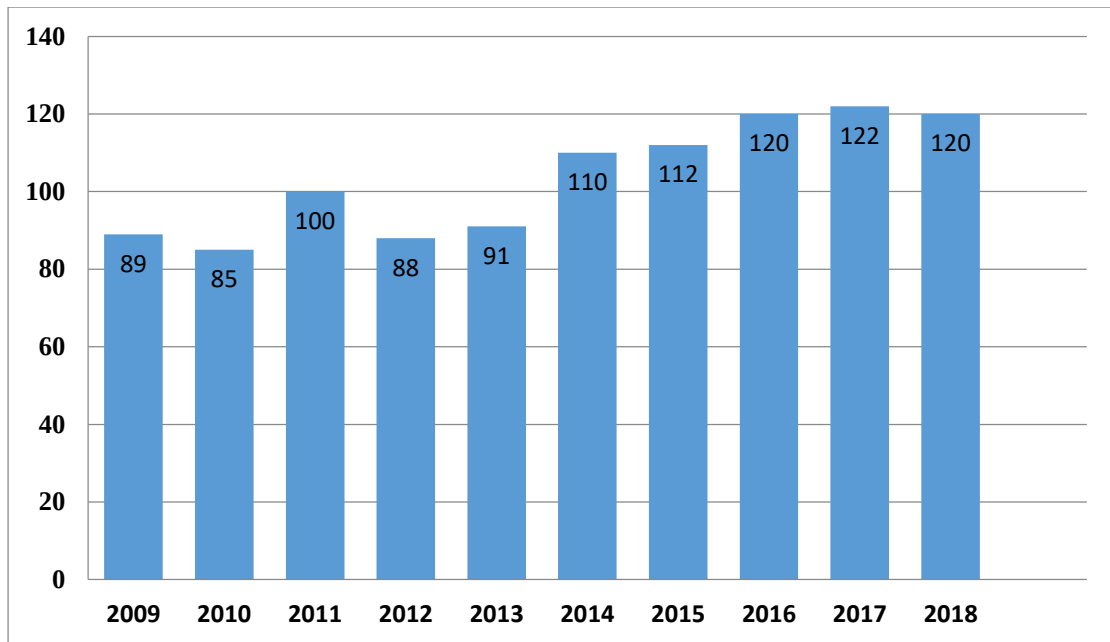


Figure 1: Malawi's ranking on Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index from 2009 to 2018

Source: Generated from Transparency International data

The Afro Barometer Survey and the Ibrahim Index of African Governance also depict a similar picture. The results of Round Seven (7) of the Afro-barometer survey conducted in 2017 revealed that more than seven out of ten Malawians (72%) said corruption had increased over the past year. Locally, the Governance and Corruption survey of 2013 also indicates that corruption is increasing as compared to the preceeding years. There is a widespread perception among citizens, businesses and public officials that the incidences of corruption have become more serious and the frequency has increased (Nawaz, 2012; Chinsinga et al., 2014). A large majority of citizens (96%) interviewed in the survey described it as a severe problem. Corruption has therefore been ranked as the second most significant obstacle to socio-economic development in Malawi? (Chinsinga et al, 2014,39).

Since the return of multiparty democracy in Malawi in 1994, successive governments have publicly expressed interest in containing corruption, and every political party that has come to power since then has made the fight against corruption a central part of its agenda (Martinez, 2014). For instance, in 1995 the Malawi government adopted a new constitution which emphasised the need to promote the welfare and development of the people of Malawi by adopting and implementing policies and legislation aimed at

promoting good governance, and greater accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity (Section 13 of the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi, 1995). As a direct result of this constitutional commitment, the Parliament of Malawi passed legislation establishing a set of institutions for the promotion of transparency and accountability, respect for human rights and respect for the rule of law. These include the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB), Office of the Ombudsman, Malawi Human Rights Commission (MHRC) and the Law Commission (Martinez, 2014, 5).

The Anti-Corruption Bureau was established in 1995 under the Corrupt Practices Act (CPA) Section 4(1). The ACB has the mandate to take necessary measures for the prevention of corruption in both public and private bodies by, among other things, enlisting and fostering public support against corruption. Both the Corrupt Practices Act and the NACS promote the involvement of the public in the fight against corruption as argued by different scholars. For instance, Mittal (2016) pointed that public participation is an effective tool to fighting social problems, including corruption. Traynor (cited in Mtapuri, 2016, 9) also argues that “participation of the public is crucial to bring about sustainable change to any social problem that is affecting them (people)”. The UNDP (2014) also expresses that public participation is a key ingredient to curbing corruption. Likewise, the World Bank (2014) also recognises that citizens remain essential to constraining corruption especially when they are involved in the process of designing anti-corruption strategies and decision-making.

Apart from the Corrupt Practices and the National Anti-Corruption Strategy that promote public participation, several leaders in Malawi also realised the importance of public participation in the fight against corruption. For example, at the 2012 National Anti-Corruption Day, the President of the Republic of Malawi urged Malawians to take part in the fight against corruption by reporting the culprits to relevant bodies. She argued that corruption is perpetuated when people remain silent while they have information about the wrongdoers.² Similar remarks were also made by the UNPD Administrator Helen Clark, who encouraged Malawians to act against corruption for the good of the country.³

² Speech made by the former President of Malawi, Dr Joyce Banda during 2012 National Anti-Corruption Day whose theme was “Break the Silence, Stop Corruption”.

³ Speech by UNDP Administrator during 2012 National Anti-Corruption Day

Also, during the 7th annual meeting of Commonwealth Heads of Anti-Corruption Agencies in Africa, the Malawi ACB Director General acknowledged that fighting corruption is a challenge and as such it requires all citizens to devise ways to ensure corruption is rooted out. It is against this background that this study intends to assess the participation of the public in combating corruption at Mchinji District Council amidst reports of high prevalence of corruption at the Council.

1.3. Research problem

There is a general acceptance across the world that fighting corruption requires a joint effort from the public at large. Public participation is frequently recognised by many scholars and practitioners as an active tool in the prevention of corruption and in the process of sustainable development (Rostam et al., 2018). Other scholars further argue that public participation is a protection tool for the provision of interests and needs of the people (Muzaffar, 2009, cited in Rostam et al., 2018, 3). In Malawi, efforts have been made to promote public participation in the fight against corruption. One of such efforts is the development of the NACS. The strategy calls for public participation from all sectors of society to fight against corruption. It encourages the public to report corrupt practices and demand accountability from service providers and duty bearers among others.

Mchinji District Council is one of the institutions that provide essential services like health, education, agriculture, trade, environment and housing to the local people within its area of jurisdiction. There are a number of reports that indicate the prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council. For instance, the Auditor General's reports from 2015 to 2018 indicate that there is abuse and mismanagement of public funds and corruption at the Council. In addition to the Auditor General's reports, the Anti-Corruption Bureau (ACB)'s Procurement Review Report of 2017he also indicated the existence of corruption. Presence of corruption at Mchinji District Council was also shown by the ACB's annual report of 2018 which indicated that the ACB registered 15 corruption related cases for Mchinji District Council which was the highest number of all the district councils in the country. In addition to this, the Malawian media has also been awash with reports of alleged corruption at the council. For instance, the Nation Newspaper of November 11, 2017 had an article entitled "*Mchinji council told to refund money*". Another article was also reported by Nyasatimes, an online Newspaper, on

May 10, 2018 entitled “*Officials fleece district councils in cashgate style: Malawi Police arrest three in Mchinji.*” In this article, it was reported that the police arrested two district officials and a business person for fleecing council’s funds in procurement of goods which were never delivered.

From the reports from the ACB and the media, it shows that there is prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council. It is important, therefore, to assess how the public participate in the corruption fight at the council.

1.4. Research questions

The study tries to answer the main research question for the study which is “does the public participate in fighting public sector corruption at Mchinji District Council.?” For a better assessment of the main question, the study answers the following questions:

- How does staff and clients (the public) of Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption?
- To what extent does the public participate in the fight against corruption at the council?
- How does Mchinji District Council promote public participation in combating corruption?
- What challenges do people face in fighting corruption at the council?

1.5. Research objectives

The main objective of this study is to assess the use of public participation as a tool in the fight against corruption.

1.5.1. Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- i. Investigate whether the public at Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption.
- ii. Establish how the public participate in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council.
- iii. Analyse initiatives put in place by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in combating corruption.
- iv. Analyse challenges that the public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1.6. Significance of the study

The incidence of corruption has been on the rise in Malawi in recent times. Corruption issues involving politicians, public servants, and the general public have dominated headlines in both local and international media. Corruption has therefore generated national discussion and debate especially on how to deal with the problem. Several experts have pointed that engaging public in the fight against corruption can help to fight the vice. For instance, at the 2012 National Anti-Corruption Day, the President of the Republic of Malawi urged Malawians to take part in the fight against corruption. The National Anti-Corruption Strategy also realises the importance of public participation in fighting corruption and one of its objectives is to promote public participation in fighting corruption.

The significance of the study lies in the fact that it will reveal the underlying issues on how the public can effectively participate in the fight against corruption. The NACS which promotes public participation, however, does not explicitly explain how the public should participate. Most son corruption focus on the causes of corruption, effects of corruption and degree of corruption in various countries and not much on public participation in fighting corruption (Lambsdorf, 1999, 1). The study will cover the existing knowledge gap on public participation in combating corruption in Malawi. and will be of great help in the process of developing the new NACS which is currently under review. The study will also help Mchinji District Council and other councils to revisit their corruption prevention strategies especially on how to engage the public in order to reverse the current trend of corruption in district councils.

1.7. Structure of the thesis

The thesis comprises five chapters. Chapter one introduces the study. It explains the background, objectives and the rationale for this study. Chapter two outlines a review of some of the relevant literature on the subject. It specifically reviews the definitions of corruption, types and forms, corruption in Africa and in Malawi. It further reviews literature on public participation, role of the public in fighting corruption and discusses the theoretical frameworks which anchor the study. Chapter three gives an overview of the methodology and research design. It also explains the sampling techniques, data collection instruments, and the analysis of data that the study employs. Chapter four presents and discusses the findings of this study. Finally, chapter five summarises the

findings of the study and relates them to the theoretical framework outlined in chapter two.

1.8. Chapter summary

This chapter has introduced the study and provided some background information relevant to the study of public participation in the fight against corruption. The chapter has also presented the research problem, the significance of the study, research questions, research objectives and the structure that shapes the rest of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

Corruption has proved to be one of the major factors suffocating development in many parts of the world (Anwar Shar and Mark Schacter, 2004, 1). Corruption affects development in many ways. It drains public resources, provides poor- and low-quality projects, undermines trust from the general public and development partners and frustrates the adequate availability of government revenues (ibid) Widespread corruption deters investment, weakens economic growth and undermines the rule of law (Justesen et al., 2014). It is therefore important to study corruption in order to understand how it occurs, how it affects development and how to mitigate it. This chapter reviews literature on corruption and public participation in fighting against it. It further discusses selected theoretical approaches to help answer the research questions and objectives of the study. The chapter is basically concerned with clarifying the basic concepts of corruption and public participation that are employed throughout the study.

2.2. Definitions of corruption

For proper assessment of public participation in combating corruption in the public sector, it is necessary to understand the concept of corruption and what it constitutes. Corruption is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes and effects as it takes on various forms and functions in different context (Amundsen et al., 2000). Scholars have shown that there is no single universally accepted definition of corruption. For example, Banik (2010, 53) argues that corruption is very broad and arriving at a single definition that accurately identifies all possible cases is very difficult. Klitgaard (1991) also points out that it is difficult to define corruption because what is corrupt in one society may not be corruption in another, and what is lawful and what is unlawful depends on the country and the culture in question. This means that defining what constitutes a corrupt act will vary from society to society and from

situation to situation depending on who is making the accusation and who is being accused (Banik, 2010, 52). However, the most common and widely used definition of corruption is “the abuse of entrusted power for private gain” (World Bank, 2006). Similar to the definition of the World Bank is the definition by Johnson (cited in Banik 2010, 54) who defines corruption as “the abuse of public roles or resources for private benefit.” Colombatto (2003, cited in Dulani et al., 2019, 3) states that corruption is a term that “generally identifies a transaction where an individual, bound by a formal principal-agent contract, takes advantage of his or her discretionary power in order to sell to a third party, property rights that do not belong to him”. Myint (2000) describes corruption as the use of official position, rank or status by an office bearer for his own personal benefit.

In the context of Malawi, corruption is defined by the Corrupt Practices Act (1995) from two scenarios: from the perspectives of a “corruptee” or receiver (section 24 (1)) and “corrupter” or giver (section 24 (2)). From a “corruptee” perspective, corruption is said to have taken place where “Any public officer who by himself, or by or in conjunction with any other person, corruptly solicits, accepts or obtains, or agrees to accept or attempts to receive or obtain, from any person for himself or for any other person, any advantage as an inducement or reward for doing or forbearing to do, or for having done or forborne to do, anything in relation to any matter or transaction, actual or proposed, with which any public body is or may be concerned.” From a “corrupter” perspective, corruption also happens when “Any person who by himself, or by or in conjunction with any other person, corruptly gives, promises or offers any advantage to any public officer, whether for the benefit of that public officer or of any other public officer, as an inducement or reward for doing or forbearing to do anything in relation to any matter or transaction, actual or proposed, with which any public body is or may be concerned.” Thus corruption, according to these definitions, is almost always a two-way activity between the “corrupter” and the “corruptee”.

What is common in these definitions is that corruption is generally the abuse of public office. According to the World Bank (1997), abuse of public office happens when an official accepts, solicits, or extorts a bribe. Such abuse also happens when private agents actively offer bribes to circumvent public policies and processes for competitive advantage and profit. The public office can also be abused through patronage and

nepotism, theft of state assets or the diversion of state revenues. The definitions mainly focus on the misbehaviour of individuals especially public officials who are regarded to have acted corruptly when they misuse their power or authority for their own benefit.

Additionally, the definitions leave an understanding that corruption takes place only in public or government transactions. This school of thought leave many with the impression that it is only public servants who are corrupt. However, some scholars have criticised this thinking as being too narrow (Marquette and Pieffer, 2015). Rose-Ackerman (cited in Banik, 2010, 55) argues that corruption exists at the interface of public and private sectors. This statement shows that as business takes place between government (mostly service seeker) and private firms (mostly are service providers) there is possibility of both of them getting involved in corrupt practices in order to obtain favours or benefits.

As such, these critics advocate for a more extensive conceptualisation of corruption that goes beyond the public sector. For instance, Carl Friedrich (cited in Heidenheimer, 2002, 9) states that

“corruption is whenever a power holder who is charged with doing certain things i.e. who is responsible functionary or officeholder, is by monetary or other rewards not legally provided for, induced to take actions which favour whoever provides the rewards and thereby does damage to the public and its interest.”

In his definition of corruption, Carl Friedrich is showing how corruption can improperly influence an action or decision of an officer without considering the consequences of his/her action or decision to the general public.

Considering the voluminous and similarities of definitions of corruption, Heidenheimer et al. (2002) categorise the definitions of corruption into three, namely, public office centred, public-interest centred and market-centred definitions.

2.2.1. Public-office centred definitions

These are definitions of corruption that mostly relate to the duties of public office and deviations from norms and regulations that bind office holders (Heidenheimer et al, 2002). For the Public- office centred definitions, the main emphasis is on the misbehaviour of an individual. The assumption in this definition is that a public officer

has prescribed duties to perform and certain behaviours that are expected from him/her in the course of performing the work. So, any behaviour or act against the prescribed duties may be regarded as corruption

2.2.2. Public-interest centred definitions

These are definitions that address both the nature and consequences of corruption together with an entire set of societal norms. The definitions in this category assert that an act that is contrary to the public interest is “corrupt” regardless of its legal interpretation. Likewise, if the behaviour is beneficial for the public, then it cannot be taken as corruption even if it violates established laws and regulations (Gardiner, 2001).

2.2.3. Market-centred definitions

These are definitions of corruption that were developed in terms of the theory of the market. They are concerned with economic concepts of demand, supply and exchange. Corruption in this category is defined as “private rent-seeking by public officers in contravention of their official duties as established by set regulations” (Heidenheimer, 2002, 8). The definitions in this category assume that the office bearers regard the office as a business through which they maximise their income (Van Klaveren, 1989 cited in Heidenheimer, 2002, 9).

2.3. Forms of corruption

Corruption can occur in different forms, in different types of organisations and at different levels within the organisation. Scholars usually categorise corruption into grand or political, bureaucratic, corporate and state capture or influence peddling.

2.3.1. Grand corruption

Grand corruption is defined as corruption that involves heads of state, ministers or other senior government officials and serves the interests of a narrow group of business people and politicians or criminal elements (Bhargara, 2005). It is theft or misuse of vast amounts of public resources by state officials (Shar et al., 2004, 2). Grand corruption takes place at the highest levels of political authority. For example, these highly placed people exploit their positions to extract large bribes from contract scams or embezzling large sums of money from the public treasury into private bank accounts (Sissener et al., 2000). The looting of public money from government coffers by senior

public officials commonly known as “Cashgate”⁴ in Malawi is a typical example of grand corruption.

2.3.2. Political corruption

This is corruption that takes place at the highest level of political authority. It is when the politicians and political decision-makers (heads of state, ministers and top officials) who are entitled to formulate, establish and implement laws in the name of the people are themselves corrupt (Amundsen et al. 2000, 18). Political corruption not only leads to the misallocation of resources, but it also perverts the manner in which decisions are made especially when the laws and regulations are abused by rulers, ignored or sometimes even tailored to fit their interests (Byrne, 2009, 3).

2.3.3. Bureaucratic corruption

This is the form of corruption that takes place in the public administration especially at the implementation of policies. This is generally “low level” or “street level” corruption which citizens experience daily in their encounter with public administration (Sissener et al., 2000, 20). This may include, for example, bribes that drivers pay to road traffic officers or bribes that citizens pay to health personnel in order to access services, diverting public funds, or awarding favours in return for personal considerations (Shar et al., 2004, 2). The amount of money that is involved is rather modest and as such bureaucratic corruption is frequently referred to as “routine” or “petty” corruption (DFID, 2015).

There is a relationship between political and bureaucratic corruption. These two tend to be mutually reinforcing each other. Political corruption is usually supported by widespread bureaucratic or petty corruption (Sissener et al., 2000). Corruption in high places is contagious to lower-level officials as these follow the predatory examples or even take instructions from their superiors. This means corruption at the top of a bureaucracy increases corruption at lower levels (DFID, 2015)

⁴ This was the systematic looting of public funds in Malawi in 2013 by public officials. Millions of dollars were looted through many ways from public coffers. This led the development partners to suspend budget support to the country.

2.3.4. Corporate corruption

This form of corruption occurs in the relationships between private business corporations and their suppliers or clients. It also occurs within corporations when corporate officials use the corporation's resources for private benefit (Bhargara, 2005).

2.3.5. State capture or influence peddling

This is a form of corruption that involves collusion by private actors with public officials or politicians for their mutual or private benefit. Through this form of corruption, the private sector captures the state legislative, executive and judicial apparatus for its own purposes (Shar et al., 2004)

2.4. Types of corruption

There are different types of corruption. Some common types of corruption in literature include the following:

Bribery: This is the explicit exchange of money, gifts in kind or favours for rule breaking or as payment for benefits that should legally be costless or be allocated on terms other than willingness to pay. It includes both bribery of public officials and commercial bribery of private firms. This is the most widespread form of corruption mainly driven by lucrative profits (Rose-Ackerman, 2016, 8; Klitgaard, 1991).

Extortion: This is the demand of a bribe or favour by an official as a condition for doing his/her job or duty or for breaking the rule (Rose-Ackerman, 2016, 8). It is money or other resources extracted by the use of coercion, violence or threats to use force.

Fraud: DFID (2015,15) defines fraud as “the act of intentionally and dishonestly deceiving someone in order to gain an unfair or illegal advantage (financial, political or otherwise).” The term includes trickery, swindle or deceit (Banik, 2010, 51; Amundsen et al., 2000,15). It also consists of the use of misleading information to induce someone to turn over the property voluntarily, such as the case of misrepresenting a number of people in need of a particular service.

Embezzlement: This is theft of resources by disloyal employees who steal from their employers, including private firms, government offices, Non-Governmental Organisations (Rose-Ackerman et al. 2016, 8).

Nepotism: This is the hiring a family member or one with close social ties rather than a more qualified but unrelated applicant. It is where an office holder with the right to make appointments, prefers to nominate to prominent positions his proper family members or people of personal interest (Banik, 2010, 51).

Cronyism: This is the preference of members of one's group (racial, ethnic, religious, political or social) over members of other groups in job related decisions (Rose-Ackerman, 2016, 8).

Influence peddling: The entails using one's power of decision in government to extract bribes or favours from interested partners (ibid).

Abuse of conflict of interest: This means having a personal stake in the effects of the policies one decides (ibid)

Kleptocracy: This entails an autocratic state that is managed to maximise the personal wealth of the top leaders.

2.5. Approaches toward corruption

Corruption is often believed to take place in three main levels, namely, institutional, individual and systemic levels.

2.5.1. Institutional approach

This is the corruption that pervades particular institutions or sectors (Robinson, 1998, cited in Banik, 2010, 49). Institutional approach views that corruption exists or emanate from weaknesses within institutions of government that create opportunities for exploitation (World Bank, 2012). This approach therefore views corruption as a consequence of inefficiencies within institutions that provide opportunities for rent-seeking. In most cases, weaknesses arise if there are weak internal controls within an institution. It is therefore due to this absence of internal controls that creates a conducive

environment or opportunity for corruption to occur. In this case, opportunity is defined as the ability to act corruptly without being caught.

In 1950s, Donald R. Casey developed a theory now known as the Fraud/Corruption Triangle (see figure 2). The fraud triangle recognises opportunity as one of the elements for corruption to occur, among other elements such as pressure and rationalisation (Byars cited in Dorminey et al., 2010, 17). Pressure is the first element in the fraud triangle to be satisfied for corruption to take place. Pressure as defined by Byars is the desire to act corruptly because one is in need of finances to meet his/her needs. When a person is under financial pressure, he/she start now looking if there is any possibility at a workplace that he/she can get the extra finances through corrupt means- thus opportunity.



Figure 2: Fraud/Corruption Triangle

The institutional approach advocates for mechanisms of control to reduce the opportunity such as restructuring of organisational processes and procedures that facilitate corruption, restructuring of legal frameworks that are outdated among other processes. This means that the reduction of the opportunities can further reduce the chances for occurrence of corruption.

2.5.2. Individual or personalistic or incidental

This is corruption that occur at an individual level. It is sometimes referred to as personalistic or incidental corruption. The assumption of this approach is that an individual will conduct her/ himself in a formal and professional manner in accordance with established standards (World Bank, 2012). The desire to act corruptly is therefore

a rational calculation that the individual makes when he/she concludes that the benefits of being corrupt outweighs the punishment or consequences (ibid).

2.5.3. Systemic

Johnson (cited in Banik, 2010, 49) defines systemic corruption as a “situation in which major institutions and processes of the state are routinely dominated and used by corrupt individuals and groups and in which many people have few practical alternatives of dealing with corrupt officials.”

2.6. Corruption in Africa

In Africa, corruption remains an important obstacle to political, social and economic development (Basheka, 2009). Although most Africa's nation states have been independent for at least four decades, many of them have made very minimal progress or have stagnated in terms of socioeconomic growth and development due to corruption (Okori, 2010). There is a growing concern that corruption in Africa tends to increase over the years. Hope et al. (2000) point out that corruption in Africa has reached cancerous proportions such that it is so pervasive that it has been labelled the “AIDS of democracy” which is destroying the future of many societies in the region. Achebe (cited in Lawal, 2007, 4) also noted the increasing levels of corruption in Africa and argued that “corruption has permeated the African society and anyone who can say that corruption in Africa has not yet become alarming is either a fool, a crook or else does not live in the continent”. The results of the 2015 African Survey on corruption also indicate that corruption seems to be on the rise. The continent ranks lowest amongst global regions on the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) scores as six out of the bottom ten extreme corrupt countries are African countries (Transparency International, 2018). The Transparency International data further shows that 35 African countries are considered to be “very corrupt”, and only Botswana emerges as a member of the “slightly corrupt” group of countries while no African country is among the “least corrupt” countries (Warf, 2017).

Corruption has ravaged the entire African system, causing the continent to be the most corrupt in the world (Lawal, 2007). According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) (2018), Africa loses \$148 billion to corruption annually. This happens while roughly 43 percent of Africans are living in abject poverty

(TI, 2018). This amount exceeds what comes into Africa as foreign aid. For instance, in 2017, developed countries gave \$146.6 billion in aid to Africa (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2018). This has led some scholars and economists to argue that African governments need to fight corruption instead of relying on foreign aid (Hanson, 2009, 1).

There are several areas or sectors which are regarded as corrupt in most African countries. The Transparency International's 2015 African Survey on Corruption found that the police are seen as the most corrupt group across the region. According to the survey, almost half of respondents (47 percent) say that they think that either most or all police officers are corrupt. Next to police are business executives, who are seen as the second most corrupt group (42 percent say that most or all business executives are corrupt). Government officials and tax officials are ranked as third and fourth most corrupt groups (38 percent and 37 percent) respectively. Judges and magistrates, members of parliament, local government councilors and the office of the presidency all score similarly, with around a third of people saying they are affected by high levels of corruption (between 31 and 34 percent). Traditional leaders and religious leaders are seen to be the least corrupt in the region, although 21 per cent and 15 per cent, respectively, say that most or all of these leaders are corrupt. Looking at the statistics above, one can conclude that corruption is rife in the public sector in Africa.

In an African society many people are judged and respected by the material things which they possess (Kambaku, 2015, 1). Unfortunately, this is one reason why people who steal public resources live comfortably and are glorified and envied instead of being despised and rejected or reported to law enforcement authorities (ibid, 1). For example, it is common to find individuals who corruptly acquire pieces of land and boast around in the community on how "well connected" they are. Instead of repudiating them, companions contact the individual to inquire on how they can also engage in illegal practices for personal benefits.

2.7. Causes of corruption in Africa

The root causes of corruption vary from place to place depending on the political, social, economic and cultural circumstances. In Africa, corruption is widespread not because its people are different from people elsewhere but because conditions are ripe

for it (Mashal,2011, 73). There are a number of factors which cause corruption in Africa. Some of them include the following:

2.7.1. Soft state

One of the causes of corruption is what is regarded as “soft state” which according to scholars, is characterised by citizens who have a weak or diffuse sense of national interest and who do not have a commitment to public service (Mbaku, 2010). Mbaku (2010) further argues that the inability or failure of many African countries to secure efficient, professional and modern bureaucracies with competent, well trained, honest and highly skilled civil servants has been advanced as an explanation for the pervasiveness of corruption in these countries. Most civil servants in Africa and other parts of the developing world view public service as an opportunity to enrich themselves and their immediate and extended family members or cronies. A typical example in this scenario is the so-called “Cashgate” scandal in Malawi.

2.7.2. Absence of the rule of law

The absence of the rule of law has been identified as a determinant of corruption (Forson, 2016). The Executive Director of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) argued that “where corruption exists, the rule of law cannot flourish” (Fedotov, cited in Forson, 2016). In support of this point, Sumah (2018,68) also argued that lack of professional ethics and deficient laws regulating corruption as a criminal offense are also an important cause for the emergence and spread of corruption. He observed that a great influence emanates from the ineffective sanctioning of corruption. The ineffectiveness of the sanctioning of corruption encourages corrupt individuals to continue indulging into corrupt practises, and further encourages others to join or imitate the corrupt individuals. This implies that the rule of law and corruption are inversely related.

2.7.3. Excessive bureaucratic red tape and weak legislative and judicial systems

Bhargava (no date) argues that corruption in Africa takes place due to excessive bureaucratic red tape and weak legislative and judicial systems. In this case, the excessive red tape makes a person or firm to have monopoly on critical information, for example, information about government’s practices or plans. Lack of clear rules and

regulations to govern the public sector and its officials creates loopholes for persons or firms to receive a benefit which they might not otherwise be entitled.

2.7.4. Opportunity to abuse power

Absence of accountability especially on the part of politicians and bureaucrats creates opportunities for corruption to thrive (Forson, 2016). Corruption in Africa is caused by “opportunity to abuse power” (Bhargava, no date). All governments have the power to impose regulations, enforce the law and impose sanctions on wrongdoers. Public officials may choose to abuse these powers by harassing the businesses or individuals subject to their regulation, or law enforcement or they may treat citizens unfairly. The “opportunity to abuse power” is presented by Klitgaard (1991) in a form of a formula:

Corruption = Monopoly + Discretion-Accountability.

According to Klitgaard (1991, 24), corruption occurs “if someone has a monopoly over the provision of certain services, has the discretionary power to decide whether people get a certain service or not, and if there is no public control over the process of making such decision, the chances for corruption to occur increases, regardless of whether it occurs in the public or private sector.”

2.7.5. Greed of public officials

Robertson (2013 cited in D’souza, 2015, 1) defines greed as “the selfish desire to possess wealth, substances, objects, people, power, status, appreciation or attention far beyond what is required for basic human comfort.” Khan (2006) argues that corruption is largely caused by greed of public officials. Greedy public officials accumulate huge amounts of wealth for themselves while the majority of citizens are in abject poverty. In support of Khan’s point, the former President of Tanzania, Benjamin Mkapa during the 7th Zik Lecture held at Nnandi Azikiwe University said “greed for power and selfishness were the major cause of corruption which is the bane hampering development in Africa.” Greed of public officials is evidenced by Ayttey, 2002 (cited in Lawal, 2007, 4) who presented the wealth of some African heads of state which were accumulated through corrupt means (see table 2).

Table 2: Loot of some African Heads of State

Name of President/Head of State	Amount looted in United States Dollars
General Sani Abacha of Nigeria	20 billion
President H. Boigny of Ivory Coast	6 billion
General Ibrahim Babangida of Nigeria	5 billion
President Mobutu of Zaire	4 billion
President Mouza Traore of Mali	2 billion
President Henri Bedie of Ivory Coast	300 million
President Denis N'gnesso of Congo	200 million
President Omar Bongo of Gabon	80 million
President Paul Biya of Cameroon	70 million
President Haite Mariam of Ethiopia	30 million
President Hissene Habre of Chad	3 million

Source: Lawal (2007, 4)

2.7.6. Motivation to earn income.

Other causes of corruption include a strong motivation to earn income due to poverty, low salaries and high risks of all kinds (illness, unemployment etc), poor law and principles of ethics, high population in relation to natural resources, political instability and weak political will (Mashal, 2011).

2.7.7. Poverty and personalisation of public office

Poverty and personalization of public office are other causes of corruption in Africa (Lawal,2007,4) This is exacerbated by the political culture and the inability of leaders to overcome their colonial mentality in respect of their perception of public office (ibid).

2.8. Efforts to address corruption in Africa

In response to the challenges of corruption, African governments have made a number of initiatives to combat and prevent corruption both at global and regional levels. Most African countries signed several treaties aimed at ensuring democracy, rule of law and good governance (Transparency International, 2018). These treaties include the United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC), African Union Convention on

Preventing and Combating Corruption (AUCPCC) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol against Corruption (Jere 2018, 2). The African Union has also promoted the establishment of anti-corruption bodies by individual states to curb the malpractice (ibid). These bodies or agencies have the legal mandate to lead in the fight against corruption in their respective countries and in collaboration with other internal and external agencies.

2.8.1. The United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC)

UNCAC is the global anti-corruption instrument adopted by many African countries. The Convention introduces a comprehensive set of standards, measures and rules that all countries can apply in order to strengthen their legal and regulatory regimes to fight corruption. Article 5 of the convention requires every member state to develop and implement effective, coordinated anti-corruption policies that promote the participation of society and reflect the principles of the rule of law, proper management of public affairs, integrity, transparency and accountability. The Convention also urges countries to adopt procedures or regulations that allow the general public to obtain information from organizations including their functions and decision-making processes (article 10). The Convention further encourages participation of the public and groups outside the public sector such as civil society, non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations, in the prevention and the fight against corruption (article 13).

2.8.2. African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption (AUCPCC)

This is an anti-corruption instrument particular to the African continent, which was adopted in 2003 (Schroth, 2005, 1). The AUCPCC was developed, among other tasks, to establish the necessary conditions to foster transparency and accountability in the management of public affairs and promote and strengthen the development of mechanisms to prevent, detect, and eradicate corruption and related offences in the public and private sectors (AUCPCC, article 1). Article 5 of the convention requires members states to adopt measures that ensure that citizens report instances of corruption without fear of reprisals. This article recognizes the importance of protecting the whistle blower in the fight against corruption. The assumption is that people report corrupt acts if they feel that they are protected from any form of reprisal.

2.8.3. Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol against Corruption

The SADC Protocol against corruption is an instrument developed for countries in the SADC region (Jere, 2018, 2). It urges SADC member states to put in place systems and mechanisms to protect individuals who report acts of corruption (whistle-blowers). Whistle-blowers need to be protected because most anti-corruption agencies rely on reports or tips from the public. The SADC Protocol against Corruption also urges its member states to develop mechanisms to encourage different stakeholders including the public at large to take part in the prevention of corruption (ibid).

2.8.4. Establishment of Anti-Corruption Agencies

Article 6 (2) of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption requires the establishment of institutions to prevent corruption in various countries. Following this requirement, most African countries have established anti-corruption bodies to lead in the fight against corruption (Jere, 2018, 2). For Instance, Malawi has the Anti-Corruption Bureau, Zambia has the Anti- Corruption Commission (ACC) and Botswana has the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC), just to mention a few. Although countries have established anti-corruption agencies, it has been argued that in many cases countries are incited by international donors pushing for transparency and good governance as well as domestic pressure to fulfil promises of reform made on the campaign trail (Hanson, 2009, 2). Considering this, one wonders whether there is indeed political will for the anti-corruption measures or perhaps they are forced upon governments by donors. For instance, Malawi's Anti-Corruption Bureau was hurriedly set up under donor pressure to do something quick on the corruption issue, using a Hong Kong model which did not transplant well into the African context (Booth, David et al., 2006, 33). This scenario has contributed, for instance, countries like Nigeria, Kenya, South Africa and others to make meagre progress on the fight against corruption (Hanson, 2009, 2).

However, some countries like Botswana, Liberia, Rwanda, and Tanzania have made substantive progress on reducing corruption (Hanson, 2009, 2). The Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index, for example, has consistently ranked Botswana as the least corrupt country in Africa (Mphendu, U. and Holtzhausen, N, 2016, 238). This is mainly attributed to the effectiveness of the DCEC (Larson, 2018),

creation of other institutions which promote democratic accountability, political will of Botswana's leaders to stamp out corruption (Sebudubudu, 2003, 125), active citizen participation against corruption and reduction of red tapes and bureaucratic procedures that affect business (Jones, D. 2017,1).

2.9. Corruption in Malawi: An overview

Malawi suffers from various types of corruption ranging from high level political corruption to petty corruption that impedes service delivery and patronage (Nawaz, 2012). Corruption is seen to be particularly severe in the Police, Customs, Permit Services, Judiciary, Public health and education facilities and registry, amongst other sectors (Martinez, 2014). Currently, there are also reports of widespread corruption by public officials in procurement (Nawaz,2012). Corruption in the procurement process is regarded to be the most serious corruption-prone area. Some of the examples of the high levels of corruption in Malawi include Cash gate, Maize gate⁵ and the jet gate⁶ corruption scandals (Jere, 2018). These corruption scandals have led several donors such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank (WB), the United States and the European Union to withdraw 40 per cent annual budgetary support to Malawi (Ibid).

2.9.1. Efforts to address corruption in Malawi

Efforts to combat corruption in Malawi took centre-stage after the advent of multiparty democracy in 1994 following 31 years of autocratic rule (Hussein, 2005). The responses include the development of legal frameworks, establishment of institutional frameworks to address issues relating to corruption (Jere, 2018) and the development of the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (Martinez, 2014).

2.9.1.1. Legal framework

The country has over the past years passed several laws that are aimed at promoting accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity. Some of the laws include the Corrupt Practices Act (1995), the Public Procurement Act (2003), the

⁵ This was the alleged dubious buying of maize by the Agricultural Development and Marketing Corporation (ADMARC) reportedly at \$34.5 million from a Zambian vendor company instead of buying directly from the Zambian government at \$21.5 million.

⁶ This involved the sale (in a form of barter trade) of the only Malawi's Presidential jet during Joyce Banda's administration to Bonox Company. Instead of the Malawi government receiving the payment from Bonox Company, the payment was made to another company, the Paramount Group of the United Kingdom to partly settle a military equipment when actually the Malawi Defence Force had already planned and budgeted for the purchase of the equipment mentioned.

Money Laundering, Proceeds of Serious Crime and Terrorist Financing Act (2006) and the Public Officer's Declaration of Assets, Liabilities and Business Interests Bill (2013). These laws were developed to deal with corruption. For instance, the Corrupt Practices Act criminalises attempted corruption, extortion, active and passive bribery and abuse of office. The Public Procurement Act requires procurement regulations to provide thresholds for the use of procurement methods, bid evaluation procedures and contract management. The Money Laundering, Proceeds of Serious Crime and Terrorist Financing Act criminalises money laundering (Nawaz, 2012). The Public Officer's Declaration of Assets, Liabilities and Business Interests Act provides a transparent platform for public and elected officials to declare their assets before and after going into office (Malawi Government, 2016)

2.9.1.2. Institutional framework

There are a number of institutions that have been established to promote accountability and investigate malpractices including corruption. The institutions include ACB, Office of the Ombudsman, National Audit Office, Office of the Directorate of Public Officers' Declaration (ODPOD) and Office of Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets (PPDA) (Martinez, 2014).

The ACB, for instance, was established in 1995 to make comprehensive provisions for the prevention of corruption. According to the Corrupt Practices Act (2004), the ACB was established to perform the following three functions:

- a. Take necessary measures for the prevention of corruption in private and public bodies.
- b. Educate the people and enlist public support in the fight against corruption.
- c. Investigate and prosecute offenders.

2.9.1.3. The National Anti-Corruption Strategy

The National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS) was developed to guide the fight against corruption. The NACS was developed upon realisation that corruption affects all sectors of society and hence the need to involve all stakeholders in the fight. The strategy, therefore, promotes public participation in the fight against corruption. It encourages the public, through awareness campaigns, to report corrupt practices and to demand accountability from service providers (Malawi Government, 2008). It

identified areas and activities through which the Executive, Judiciary, Legislature, Media, Faith Based Organisations, Civil Society Organisations, Private Sector and Traditional Leaders can play a role in fighting corruption. In particular, the strategy aims at promoting integrity, transparency and improve service delivery in all sectors, promoting public involvement in the fight against corruption and intensifying prevention of corruption. (Malawi Government, 2008, Nawaz, 2012).

The Malawi government also adopted a declaration of “zero tolerance” on corruption in 2007(Nawaz,2012). This was a stance and commitment that the government promised to fulfil that it will not tolerate corruption. This commitment to combat corruption has been seen in some president’s speeches during several occasions. For example, the former President the late Bingu wa Mutharika said “I will not relent until the roots of corruption have been pulled out from our nation. I will not relent until those who plundered our economy with impunity have been brought to book”.⁷ These types of speeches are somehow important in fight against corruption because they show how willingly a leader is to deal with corruption.

The other effort to combat corruption is also manifested in the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) which include “good governance” as one of the five themes instrumental to Malawi’s economic growth (Nawaz, 2012, 1).

The quest to fight corruption in the country is further manifested by the ratification of both the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) and the African Union Convention on Prevention and Combating Corruption (ibid).

Although the Malawi Government has made such efforts to control corruption, it seems the efforts have not yielded the expected results. This is evidenced by reports from various institutions such as the Transparency International that show increasing levels of corruption.

⁷ Speech by former President of Malawi, the late Bingu wa Mutharika at the 2005 National Anti-Corruption Day, quoted in the Nation Newspaper of 8th February, 2005.

2.10. Definitions of public participation

The term public or citizen participation has been defined in numerous ways by different scholars. Creighton (cited in Leornado et al., 2012, 11), for example, defines public participation as the “process by which public concerns, needs and values are incorporated into governmental and corporate decision making.”

André et al. (2012, 1) also define public participation as a “process in which ordinary people take part – whether on a voluntary or obligatory basis and whether acting alone or as part of a group – with the goal of influencing a decision involving significant choices that will affect their community.” They further state that “public participation may or may not take place within an institutional framework, and it may be organized either by members of civil society [for example, through class action, demonstrations citizens’ committees, etc.] or by decision makers [for example, through referendums, parliamentary commissions and mediation, etc.]” (ibid). The definition introduces a dimension in which people can take part in addressing issues that affect them, that is, by participating out of their own will or sometimes by being forced by law to do so.

Public participation has also been defined as “a community- based process, where citizens organize themselves and their goals at the grassroots level and work together through non-governmental community organizations to influence the decision - making process” (Holdar et al., 2002, 7).

Putnam et al (1993 cited in Mtapuri, 2016, 9) offer another dimension of the definition of public participation as “trust, norms and networks which can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions”. From this definition it can be argued that public participation is about sacrificing individual values for the common good.

From the definitions above, one aspect which is common in the definitions is that, public participation is there to address issues that directly relate or affect people. Specifically, it is about community, social cohesion, individual and collective decision making, individual and collective action for the betterment of all people who live in a particular community.

The study adopts the definition by André et al. (2012, 1) because it is more detailed and covers some issues mentioned in other definitions which are relevant to this study.

Currently, public participation has become a central issue of good governance. It is a key cornerstone of good governance as it provides an opportunity for people to be empowered to demand and shape better policies, express grievances, seek justice and hold government to account (Meenu, 2015). Several scholars have argued that in order to make a better democracy, public participation is crucial. For instance, Leornado et al. (2012) point out that public participation beyond the ballot is nowadays a prerequisite for any democracy. This is the case because the more people participate, the healthier the democracy and the more effective the means of social regulation (Marineto, 2003).

Public participation can manifest itself through different forms. Plostajner et al. (2005) outline a number of forms which include voting, demanding accountability, referendums, community assembly, public presentations, public exhibitions and public discussions.

2.11. Factors that promote public participation.

There are a number of factors that motivate people to actively participate in an issue. The following are some of the factors.

2.11.1. Knowledge of public participation methods

For people to participate actively in any issue they need to be aware of the public participation methods. People should know what they are supposed to do, how they are supposed to take part and what can and cannot be done in certain areas (Holdar, 2012). Tanzler (2010) also argues that people participate actively for example, in the fight against corruption when they have been provided with simple, credible and viable public participation mechanisms to do so. It can be argued therefore that when people have the appropriate skills and resources, they are also able to participate. These skills may, for instance, be the ability and confidence to speak in public, capacity to organise events and encourage other people to support participation initiatives (ECLRD, 2008, 14)

2.11.2. Public awareness/education

The public need to be educated about their rights and responsibilities in relation to governance and the decision-making process. As argued by Leonardo (2012) people need information in order to participate effectively on an issue. Therefore, public awareness is critical as it equips the public with the necessary information.

2.11.3. Initiative and desire to make a difference

This entails that there must be need for people to participate in order to make changes. This is mainly spurred by closeness of the issue that affect citizens' lives. The argument is that if people feel that they are part of something then they are more willing to participate. This is evidenced from many studies that confirm that where people feel a sense of togetherness or shared commitment, they are more willing to participate in social activities (ECLRD, 2008, 16).

2.11.4. Dedication to the issue

Holdar (2012) argued that for people to actively participate in any activity they must be dedicated to deal with the issue at hand. Dedication to the issue at hand means that the public has to be persistent and committed to finding solutions to any social problem. They do not give up when they face resistance in the course of dealing with a social problem.

2.11.5. Access to information

Public information is an essential component of an effective public participation. Holdar et al. (2002) and Leonardo (2012) observe that for effective citizen participation, valuable information relating to government activities or projects has to be disseminated to public. This point is supported by Creighton (cited in Leonard, 2012) who argued that people cannot participate effectively in various activities unless they receive complete and objective information on which to base their judgements. When citizens are informed about government performance, they are in a better position to put pressure on public officials to perform their duties in the public interest (Shar et al., 2004, 7). Access to information empowers citizens to follow up, for example, on the amount of money involved and whether or not such sums are going towards the right direction. Availability of information to the public equips them so that they can play a role in preventing corruption in different sectors of the economy.

2.11.6. Feeling that public voice counts

Plostajner et al. (2005) argue that the public has to get a feeling that their voice counts, and that they can influence the situation and the course of action. They must also be provided with an opportunity to speak freely about everything that bothers them, and their opinions have to be treated with due attention. The point raised by Plostajner only the importance of involving the public to be part of the solution to a problem by listening to their views.

2.11.7. Mobilisation strategy

Mobilisation strategy matters if people are to actively participate. People tend to participate more often and regularly when they are asked to engage (ECLRD, 2008, 20). People's readiness to participate often depends upon whether or not they are approached and how they are approached (ibid). There are many strategies of mobilising people to participate but the most powerful strategy is when those responsible for a decision ask others to engage with them in making the decision (ibid).

2.12. Factors that hinder public participation in fighting corruption.

There are a number of factors that prevent public participation in the fight against corruption. The following are some of the factors:

2.12.1. Fear of reprisals.

People tend to shun away from taking part in the fight against corruption especially on reporting corrupt cases for fear of being harassed by the offenders (Mtapuri, 2016, 10). The harassment can be physical or psychological and sometimes can be direct or indirect. Indirect in the sense that the offenders can harass the relatives of the whistleblower and not the whistle-blower her/himself.

2.12.2. Loss of trust to authorities.

People sometimes are not interested in the fight against corruption when they lose trust in their authorities especially when they see that they are failing to deal with the corrupt behaviour (Mtapuri, 2016, 10). This is the case especially when people feel that no one cares. For instance, the 2015 Transparency International's African Survey called "*People and Corruption*" found that most governments are failing to meet citizen's expectations in the fight against corruption. There is no government which was rated

positively on its anti-corruption efforts by a clear majority of its citizens. 18 out of 28 African governments were seen as fully failing to address corruption by a large majority. This failure of governments negatively affected public participation in the fight against corruption (Transparency International, 2015).

2.12.3. Weak anti-corruption institutions

Some countries have no lead institution responsible for fighting corruption and in other countries where the institutions are available, they are weak and not performing according to their mandate (United Nations, 2011). In such countries there is a challenge to involve and win support of the public in controlling or fighting corruption (ibid). Countries which have strong anti-corruption agencies like Hong Kong, Malaysia and Botswana receive public support and be able to control corruption (OECD, 2008: 14, Mphendu et al. 2016, 238).

2.12.4. Acceptance of corruption as norm of the society

Mtapuri (2016, 10) argues that the chronic prevalence of corruption in a country conditions citizen to accept corruption as normal and this leads to its perpetuation. Normally some people do not see the reason to fight corruption when most people regard corruption as part of their life. In some societies especially in Africa, many people are judged and respected by the material things, which they possess, whether they acquire through corruption or not.

2.12.5. Lack of knowledge on people's rights and entitlements.

Public participation is also affected when people do not see the benefits of participating in the fight against corruption. This is the case when people are not aware of their rights and entitlements (ECLRD,2008). In such cases, people cannot demand accountability from their authorities.

2.13. Models of public participation

According to King et al (1998), public participation processes have four major components. These components are the issue or situation, the administrative structures, systems, and processes within which participation takes place, the administrators and the citizens. The components are arranged in such a way that they are placed around the issue. There are two models of participation namely: Conventional and Authentic.

In the context of conventional participation, the public is placed at the furthest distance from the issue, while the administrative structures and processes are placed next to the issues. The administrator acts as an agent linking up between the structures and the public as shown in figure 3 below.

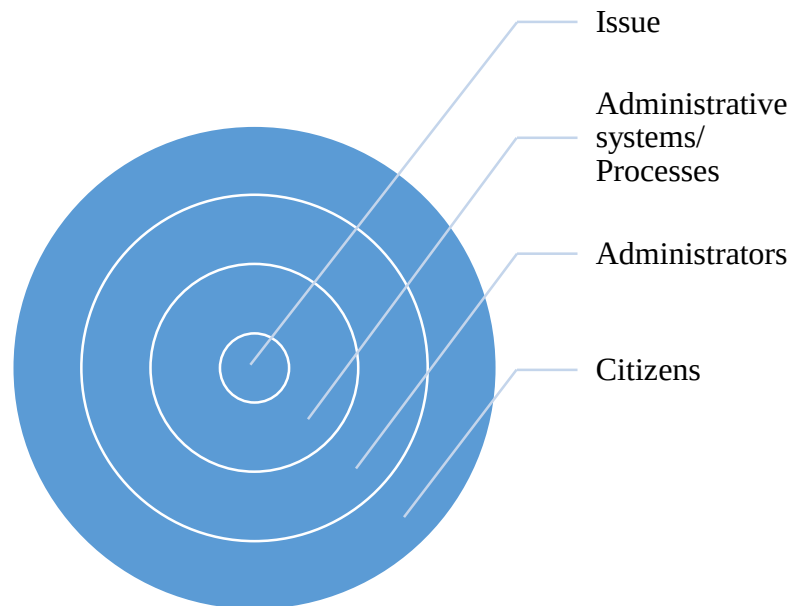


Figure 3: *Conventional model of participation*

The administrative structures and processes in this case are the politically and socially constructed frameworks within which the administrator must operate. In this model of participation, the administrator controls the ability of the citizens to influence the situation or process of dealing with the issue that is affecting the public. The picture which one can conclude from this model is that citizens or the general public are not considered as important when authorities make decision. They are regarded as end receivers. Critically looking at the model it can be equated to non-participation level of Arnstein's theory of citizen participation where citizens are not allowed by power holders to genuinely participate in activities or decision -making. This model of participation is regarded as ineffective and conflictual as citizens are not closely involved in dealing with the issue of their concern or interest.

The authentic model is very different from the conventional model of participation. Authentic participation model places the citizens close to the issue and the administrative systems and processes are placed at furthest end. The administrator still acts as a bridge between the two as depicted in figure 4 below.

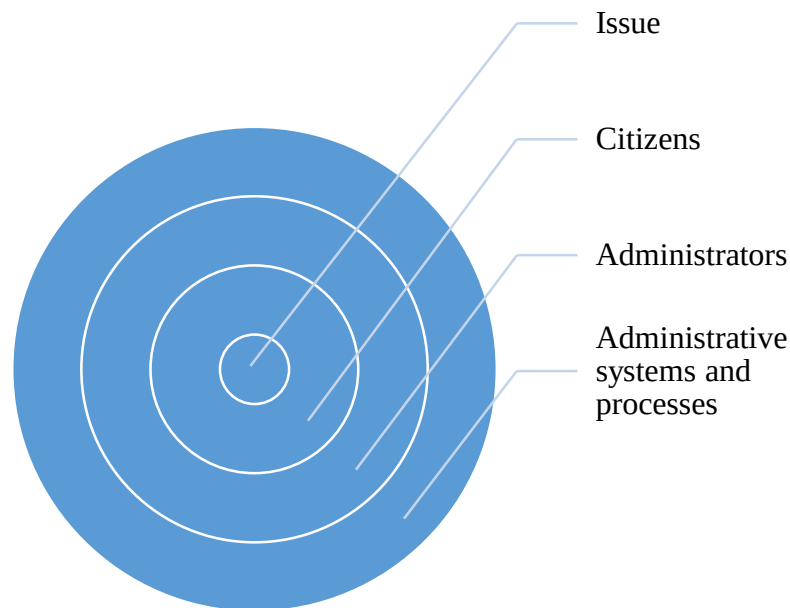


Figure 4: Authentic model of participation

In this model citizens are central and are directly related to the issue that affect them and as such they have an immediate and equal opportunity to influence the process of dealing with the issue that concern them instead of just being told what to do. This means the authentic form of public participation is more likely to increase participation as the public is given an opportunity to deal directly with issues that concern them. André et al. (2012)’s definition of public participation which is a “process in which ordinary people take part – whether on a voluntary or obligatory basis and whether acting alone or as part of a group – with the goal of influencing a decision involving significant choices that will affect their community.” seems to be in agreement with the authentic model of participation. The model also is in agreement with citizen power level of Arnstein’s theory where citizens are given the actual control of the process or programme.

2.14. Public participation in the fight against corruption

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in developing interventions aimed at mobilising the public against corruption, and involving beneficiaries in the design, implementation and monitoring of governance and anti-corruption initiatives (King Cheryl, Simrell et al., 1998, 319). For example, article 13 of UNCAC emphasises on participation of the society in the fight against corruption. Specifically, the article

requires each member state to take appropriate measures within its means and in accordance with fundamental principles of its domestic law, to protect the active participation of individuals and groups outside the public sector, such as civil society, non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations in the prevention and the fight against corruption. It further encourages raising public awareness regarding the existence, causes and gravity of and the threat posed by corruption. Transparency International (2015) states that public can participate in the fight against corruption either through reporting corrupt acts when the public sees it, refusing to pay bribes or forcing governments to take actions against corrupt people. Corruption does not happen in a vacuum. To a large extent, it is the public that lubricates the spread of corruption through transactions and service seeking at different facilities. In supporting this point, Alkayed et al. (2011) states that the fight against corruption should start with the citizen who is the biggest stakeholder and has the biggest contribution to make. They further point that citizens must be part of the solution, rather than contributing to the problem. Mtapuri (2016) also pointed that the fight against corruption cannot be won without public participation, support and vigilance. He points out that the fight against corruption should therefore be waged by citizens. Kaufman and Sachs (cited in Huther et al., 2000) also argue that citizen participation leads to reduced corruption.

2.15. Role of the public in the fight against corruption

Citizens can play an important role in the fight against corruption. Corruption cannot be removed from a country except by the active participation of the people against corruption (Singh, 2016). Singh (2016) further argues that as long as people are willing to be exploited by the corrupt officials or willing to exploit the corrupt system for their advantage, corruption cannot be eliminated. Citizens can therefore perform the following tasks to fight corruption.

2.15.1. Bring suspected corruption to light

Citizens can play a role in fighting corruption by reporting suspected corruption when they see it happening or suspect that it is taking place. Citizens who report suspected corruption to relevant authorities or anti-corruption agencies provide tips that can facilitate the investigation of the matter. Very often it is when people speak up that potential corrupt practices are uncovered (Transparency International, 2015).

2.15.2. Resist and reject corrupt practices

Corruption takes place within societies. If people can refrain from corrupt practices, corruption cannot thrive. People can therefore fight corruption by upholding integrity, thus resisting and rejecting corrupt practices. Singh (2016) points out that corruption cease to thrive when people refuse to pay bribes.

2.15.3. Teach good life values to society

Dahl (2016) noted that the world is now becoming a dangerous place to live in because of loss of shared values. Many people engage in corrupt acts due to lack of good moral values (Bhutan Anti-Corruption Commission, 2016). If individuals uphold good moral values and are aware of the consequences of their actions, they are likely to refrain from indulging in corrupt practices. Corruption can be prevented if individuals have strong moral values of integrity, honesty, leadership, accountability, transparency, fairness, equity and trust (ibid). The public can therefore prevent corruption by inculcating moral values and preaching against the evils of corruption.

2.15.4. Vote for non- corrupt politicians in elections

In democratic societies, one of the roles of the public in promoting good governance is to cast votes during elections informed by the actions and pledges of political leaders (TI, 2015). The public has a role to prevent corruption by not voting for corrupt politicians into power (Singh, 2016).

2.15.5. Seek accountability and transparency from government or leaders

Citizens need to voice their concerns, act collectively and hold public officials accountable. Demanding accountability and transparency from duty bearers enable governments to work for the public good and act responsibly (National Democratic Institute, 2019). Demanding accountability from public institutions helps to reduce the space for corruption (Transparency International, 2016).

2.16. Public participation in fighting corruption in selected countries

2.16.1. Public participation in fighting corruption in India

In India, citizens have been vigilant enough to demand accountability and corruption free services (Viney et al., 2013). For example, citizen groups gather data on corruption

problems and work with the media to increase pressure on authorities to improve service delivery responsiveness and hold corrupt officials accountable (Viney et al., 2013). India's citizens also fight corruption through the formation of Citizens Against Corruption (CAC) groups. These groups have helped in one way or another to reduce corruption in several projects. For instance, the groups reported and initiated the recovery of more than \$250,000 in wages from corrupt officials. The groups also helped to ensure that the right amount (25kg) of rice was distributed to beneficiaries as compared to 4.5 kg that was initially being distributed. The Citizens Against Corruption groups also helped four slums to access water taps in a corruption free manner (ibid).

To address corruption and governance problems in India, the Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) play a very important role in mobilising citizens against corruption in their communities (ibid). The CSOs empower communities through awareness campaigns about their rights and entitlements including the use of the right to information to help them obtain better services. The CSOs also mobilise citizens to be vigilant in demanding accountability and corruption free services.

2.16.2. Public participation in fighting corruption in Brazil

In Brazil citizens are also recognised as critical in the fight against corruption. Basically, citizens play a role of reporting corrupt acts to relevant authorities. When citizens discover corruption or fraud in government systems, their basic choice is to present a complaint to the responsible agency (Leonardo, 2012). Statistically, a great part of complaints come from citizens, while public agencies respond for 12% and civil organisations like NGOs respond for 2%. Private firms contribute with a small number of complaints equivalent to 0.04% of the total (ibid).

2.16.3. Public participation in fighting corruption in Malawi

The Government of Malawi has put in place different measures to prevent corruption. The measures range from development of various legal and institutional frameworks and development of policies such as the National Anti-Corruption Strategy. Despite having these instruments, the government also realises the need to involve the public in the fight against corruption as another important strategy. The public take part in fighting corruption mainly through reporting of corrupt acts. (ACB Annual report, 2018).

2.17. Theoretical framework

There are a number of theories that can be used to understand and explain corruption and the concept of public participation. Some of the key theories include the principal-agent theory and theory of citizen participation.

2.17.1 The Principal-agent approach

The principal-agent theory has for many years been the predominant theory for understanding and tackling corruption (Marquette et al., 2015, 5). The theory argues that corruption is a problem that involves different actors such as individuals or organisations termed as “agents who are entrusted with powers to act on behalf of other people termed as “principals” (ibid, 5). Its origins are found in the theory of the firm, where a principal delegate a task to an agent. Within the context of a public sector, a principal could be a high- ranking official who assigns tasks to an official of lower rank. Similarly, the principal-agent concept can be thought of in the context of the general public (principal) who delegate responsibility a particular politician (agent) through voting (Booth, cited in DFID, 2015). In the case of this study, the agents are council staff who have the responsibility as civil servants to assist the general public and the principal are the general public who seek services to the council.

The theory further states that corruption exists in a society as a result of a problem that occurs between the principal and agent. It states that the principal -agent problem stems from two assumptions. The first assumption is that the principal and the agent have diverging interests. The second assumption is that the agent has more information than the principal (information asymmetry). Due to the information asymmetry, the principal is unable to perfectly monitor the actions of the agent, and so the agent has some discretion to pursue his/her own interest. This means that the interests of the principal and the agent are not aligned, and the agent pursues his/her own interest at the expense of the interests of the principal (Marquette et al., 2015, Booth, cited in DFID, 2015). The information asymmetry that arises because the agent has more or better information than the principal creates a power imbalance between the two, making it difficult for the principal to ensure agent’s compliance to the requirements of his/her job. According to this view, corruption happens when an agent receives an inducement and ignore the interest of the principal and favour those giving an inducement. The principal-agent theory also assumes individual rationality (DFID, 2015). This means that people will

engage in corrupt acts only when it is in their individual self-interests. In this case, the principal-agent theory relates appropriately to the widely used definition of corruption as provided by the Transparency International, which is the abuse of entrusted power for private gain (Transparency International, 2009). The principal-agent theory will help to answer the first objective of my study which is *“to investigate whether public and staff of Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption”*. The principal-agent theory is therefore relevant to this study as it provides some insights on what triggers corruption to take place with regards to public officials and the general public whom they are supposed to serve. The theory also provides some insight on how corruption can be tackled or prevented.

Although the principal-agent theory is an important analytical framework for understanding corruption, it has some limitations. The first limitation is its dependency on principled principal (Marquette et al., 2015). The theory mistakenly assumes that there will be “principled principals” in positions of power to actively oppose corruption and enforce reforms (ibid). Instead, systemic corruption persists because corruption is widely perceived to be the norm in such scenarios, and individuals gain little from abstaining from corruption when they cannot trust that others will do the same.

Another limitation of the principal-agent theory is that it portrays that corruption is initiated by the agents who take advantage of the information they have to act in their interest at the expense of the citizens. However, this is not always the case in real world situation. There are cases where corruption is initiated or fueled by the public themselves (principals). This implies that if corruption is to be combated there is also need for the public to take an active role or governments must devise interventions targeting the public. These weaknesses of the principal-agent theory demand another theory to support the principal-agent theory in this study.

2.17.2. Theory of citizen participation

Many theories have been developed on citizen participation. One of the most commonly used is the Arnstein’s theory of ladder of citizen participation developed in 1969. The theory presents the typology of citizen participation arranged as rungs on a ladder. The ladder has eight rungs divided into three main levels of non-participation, tokenism and citizen power according to the degree of citizen participation (see figure 5). From

bottom to top, each rung represents a different level of participation or citizen control within a process of determining a program. It explains the extent of citizen participation and how much power citizens have to influence an action or activity at each level.

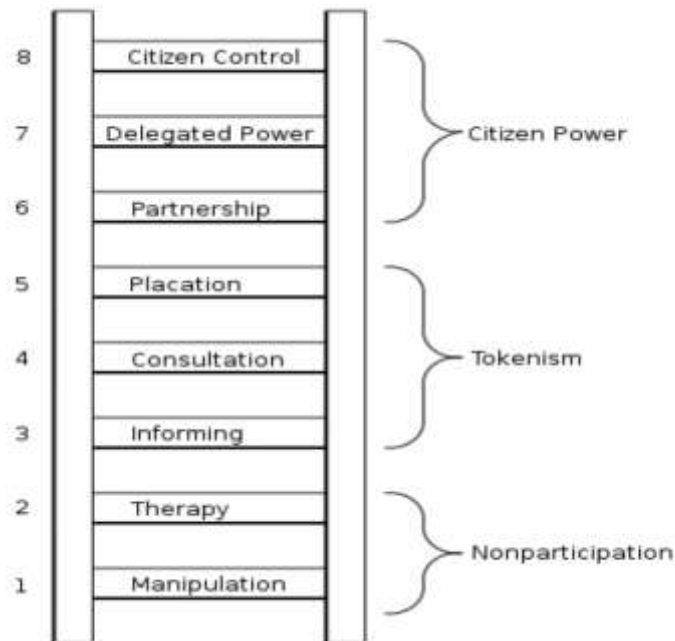


Figure 5: Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation.

Source: Arnstein (1969), page 217

2.17.2.1. Non-participation level

Generally, at non-participation level citizens are not allowed by power holders to genuinely participate in activities or decision making. The power holders use people to impose their agendas. This level has two steps (rungs) of manipulation and therapy.

Manipulation- rung 1

This step explains citizen participation through creation of community committees or associations. These groups however, are not given any powers to make decision or control activities taking place in their community, instead are used by those in authority to endorse their plans.

Therapy- rung 2

This step is almost similar to manipulation level. The only difference, however, is that at this step, experts or power holders often focus on adjusting the values and attitudes of community members so that they become in line with those of the broader society.

2.17.2.2. Tokenism Level

Arnstein explains citizen participation as tokenism which occurs when citizens hear about interventions and may say something about them which power holders may denote it as input. But these contributions are not taken into account by the power holders and as such their participation does not bring any change and has no effect at all. Tokenism level has three steps of informing, consultation and placation.

Informing- Rung 3

Informing is a step that takes citizen participation as a matter of just informing them about what is happening or will happen in future regarding a particular issue or programme. Arnstein (1969) argues that informing citizens of their rights and responsibilities is an important step towards legitimate citizen participation. Leonardo (2012) also observes the same that citizens require information about an issue for them to actively take part. Although this step recognizes the importance of access to information, but normally what happens at this stage is that the power holders give the information at a very late stage of the process where changes can no longer take place. At this stage, questions are discouraged and the information is superficial, irrelevant and incomplete. For example, people can be called to a meeting just to be informed about a project or programme but without allowing them to say their views on the said project/programme. The power holders may just use the people's signatures of attendance at the meeting as approval of the government's plan. This means that the emphasis is placed on a one-way flow of information-from power holders to citizens-with no channel provided for feedback and no room for negotiation.

Consultation-Rung 4

This is a step where citizens are regarded to have participated in an issue when they are asked about their ideas over the issue through either surveys or questionnaires. It is in the common interest of people to be consulted on any activity that will affect them.

However, if people do not see the effects or results of being consulted, then it creates distrust between the public and those in power. This may affect participation in future activities.

Placation-Rung 5

This is the highest level of tokenism where the public is allowed to participate in an issue by advising the authorities but right to make a final decision remain with the power holders. Basically, the power holders make people feel their voice is heard but in true sense it is not taken into account.

2.17.2.3. Citizen Power Level

This is the topmost level of participation where citizens are given the actual control of the process or programme. This level as argued by Arnstein requires that citizens be well organized, active and involved in the daily life of the community. This level has three steps, namely partnership, delegated power and citizen control.

Partnership-Rung 6

At this step of the ladder, power is being shared equally between citizens or citizen groups and policy makers. At this step some level of control and power is given to people. What it means in partnership is that efforts to solve a conflict or a social problem are employed jointly by citizens and authorities.

Delegated Power- Rung 7

Arnstein argues that at this stage citizen are given more power in decision making than the powerholders. This level of participation gives the citizens a sense of ownership since they make most of the decisions for themselves.

Citizen Control- Rung 8

This is the top last rung of the ladder of participation. At this level, citizens are in full control over their community. Citizens make decisions of an issue themselves and are allowed to use resources in the way they see fit. This makes citizens to fully participate in activities taking place within their community.

According to Arnstein (1969), the theory assumes that the degree of citizen participation increases from the bottom to the top of the ladder. The theory indicates that there is no participation and relatively low levels of participation at the lower and middle levels of the ladder respectively. The lower levels of the ladder show that citizen do not participate due to, among other factors, lack of knowledge, skills and resources to enable them make informed decision. The public at these levels are not given the power to make decisions they are just used by authorities to endorse their plans as opposed to the higher level.

Although the theory has been commonly used when discussing citizen participation, it has also been criticized in a number of ways. Collins and Ison (cited in Theyyan, 2018, 245) criticize Arnstein ladder's for focusing on power which is insufficient for making sense of participation at a conceptual or practice level. They also criticize the assumption that participation is hierarchical in nature. Citizen control is held as the goal of participation yet it does not always align with people's own reasons for engaging in decision-making process.

The theory has also been criticized for providing few insights into how participation might progress as a collective action between all stakeholders involved especially in situations where the nature of the issue is highly contested or undefined.

Another criticism is that the theory is over simplified. Instead of eight rungs, the real world of people and programmes might require as many rungs to cover the range of actual citizen participation levels (Arnstein ,1969, 217)

From the foregoing discussion, it has been observed that corruption cannot take place without the influence of people. There are some causes of corruption which are people related and others which are due to system failure in an institution. In any case, the human element is critical because even if the system is perfect, people may manipulate and expose it to corruption.

Further, from the literature review, it has been pointed out that public participation is critical in the fight against corruption. Arnstein's theory of ladder of citizen participation will therefore help to answer the last three objectives of the study as it

gives insights to what enables public participation regarding an issue within their community.

2.18. Chapter Summary

As highlighted in the chapter, corruption poses a serious challenge in the socio-economic development of a country. With adverse effects of corruption, countries are employing various interventions to curb it. Since corruption involves people, Lawal (2007) argued that it will not be possible to combat corruption without active participation of the population at large. For this reason, public participation has been regarded as one of the most effective strategies for combating corruption (Mittal,2016,2).

Against that background, this chapter has analysed the concept of corruption in terms of its definition, causes, forms, types and interventions. The chapter has also reviewed the concept of public participation and the participation models. The chapter has further reviewed how people participate in the fight against corruption in different countries. Finally, the chapter has presented theoretical frameworks which will guide the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The study uses a qualitative method approach. This chapter highlights the population and sample of the study, data collection and analysis methods. The chapter also highlights ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

3.2. Rationale for qualitative research approach.

Qualitative research is a method for exploring and understanding the meaning that individuals or groups ascribe to a social problem or human problem (Creswell, 2014, 32). It is a method that draws inferences for the assessment of a social phenomenon by interpreting real issues as they occur. Qualitative methods are useful when a researcher is conducting an analysis, for instance, of a certain human behavior towards a social issue, which requires an in-depth exploration and understanding of different social aspects surrounding an individual and other external issues. Marshall and Rossman (1995) stated that the purpose of a qualitative approach is exploratory, explanatory or descriptive. A qualitative approach was therefore selected in this study because it is open to changes and refinement of research ideas as the study progresses.

3.3. Research population

Research Population is the total number of all individuals who have certain characteristics and are of interest to a researcher (Creswell, 1994). The population for this study included the Mchinji District Council staff, Members of Parliament (MPs) in Mchinji, Councillors, Area Development Committees (ADCs), Village Development Committees (VDCs), Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) especially those that promote good governance, government officials at Ministry of Local Government Head Office, ACB officials and an officer of the National Initiative for Civic Education (NICE), a public trust that strengthens democratic, social and economic processes.

3.3.1. Population sample

Sampling is a process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (population) to become a basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group (Kumar, 2011,177). A sample is a subgroup of the population a researcher is interested in (ibid). The study employed a non-probability sampling technique of purposive sampling to determine the sample of the study. According to MacMillan and Schumacher (2006), in purposive sampling, the researcher selects from the population particular individuals who are well informed about the topic of the researcher's interest. Based on the researcher's knowledge of the population, a judgment was made, about the subjects who would provide the best information to address the purpose of the research.

The population sample comprised of people that are responsible for the administrative functions of the council (Council staff), special-interest groups (CSOs), political decision-making body at the district (Members of Parliament and Local Councilors), representatives of local people (ADCs and VDCs), experts from ACB and government officials and general public. A total of thirteen (13) people were interviewed individually and fourteen (14) engaged in a Focus Group Discussion.

3.4. Data collection method

The research used a number of methods to collect data which include literature review, semi-structured interviews, key informant interviews and Focus Group Discussions, interviews (see Appendix 1, 2, 3 and 4). An interview is a verbal interchange in which an interviewer tries to elicit information, beliefs or opinions from another person (Kumar,2011, 137). Interview is the most appropriate approach for studying complex and sensitive areas as the interviewer has the opportunity to prepare a respondent before asking sensitive questions and to explain complex ones to respondents in person (ibid, 146). This is the reason why interview was used as a method for collecting information considering the sensitivity of the topic under study. The information collected through interviews and discussions form the primary data of the study. Secondary data was collected from the reports and other documents.

3.4.1. Literature Review

The study began with a review of various documents on corruption, public participation in promoting good governance and, in particular, public participation in fighting corruption. These documents included, among others, Governance and Corruption Surveys in Malawi, the National Anti-Corruption strategy, governments official documents, legislations related to the fight against corruption such as the Corrupt Practices Act and reports from various organisations. In addition, the Auditor General's Reports on district councils, journal articles and text books were also analysed. The review of documents was meant to provide a thorough understanding of some key issues surrounding the area of study and extract the required data.

3.4.2. Semi-structured interviews

The researcher used semi-structured interviews to gather primary data from the respondents. Semi-structured interviews are a set of guiding questions which are general (Bryman, 2004) and stands between structured and unstructured interviews. The semi-structured interview allows flexibility and helps to provide the direction for the in-depth responses from the informants' perceptions of reality, a condition which corresponds with the qualitative approach of the study (Silverman, 2005). The interviews were carried out using an interview guide which had open-ended questions designed to provoke debate so as to unearth more valuable information about the topic under study. The interview guide was developed in relation to the principal-agent and citizen participation theories.

3.4.3. Interview with key informants

Key informant interviews involve interviewing a selected group of individuals who are likely to provide needed information, ideas, and insights on a particular subject. Because information comes directly from knowledgeable people, key informant interviews often provide data and insight that cannot be obtained with other methods. Key informants may offer confidential information that would not be found or revealed in other settings. They may tell of incidents, local happenings, or conditions that explain implementation problems of a programme (Kumar, 1989, 3).

The researcher conducted thirteen (13) key informant interviews which involved the District Commissioner, officials from the ACB, senior council staff, Member of

Parliament in Mchinji District, Area Development Committee Chairpersons, Local councilors, government official in the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and an officer from the National Initiative for Civic Education (NICE).

3.4.4. Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussions are considered as one of the best qualitative data collection methods used to obtain rich information and generate social construction (Patton, 1990). Social construction is achieved when interviewees in a group recall and discuss issues that they could not remember if they were interviewed individually. The study conducted two (2) Focus Group Discussions involving general public in selected villages. Each had seven (7) participants.

3.5. Data analysis

After collecting data through the review of documents, KIIs and FGDs, the study conducted data analysis. Zikmund et al. (2010) refers to data analysis as the application of logic and reasoning to refine the collected data. The study used content analysis as a tool for analysing the data. Content Analysis basically refers to the study of all forms of recorded human communication by among other tasks focusing on who said what, to whom, how and why (Babbie, 2007: 320). It attempts to summarize comments into meaningful categories (Cummings and Worley, 2009). Content analysis often entails turning a large set of data into useable information. Thus, the data collected required reduction, categorisation and interpretation in order to make sense out of it; hence, the use of content analysis was appropriate to achieve all this.

3.6. Ethical considerations

Before conducting the study, arrangements were made to ensure that ethical matters were considered in order to uphold respect and rights of each respondent. The researcher obtained an identification letter from the University of Malawi (see appendix 5) which was presented to the head of institutions targeted to seek consent before conducting interviews with participants. The researcher also obtained permission from Mchinji District Council (see appendix 6) to interview other key people in the district. Before the interviews, respondents were told the purpose of the study and were asked for their consent before the interview. Participants were assured of confidentiality, privacy and voluntary participation.

3.7. Limitations of the study

The researcher faced a number of limitations in the process of conducting the study. The first limitation was difficulties to secure appointments to interview the Member of Parliament and the District Commissioner due to their busy schedules. This made the researcher to follow and interview the Member of Parliament and the District Commissioner out of their offices.

The post elections violence that was taking place in most parts of the country was another challenge. It was difficult to travel to Mchinji to meet respondents on the agreed dates due to persistent protests. This made the researcher to keep on changing the interviews dates which affected the research schedule.

The other challenge was posed by the nature of the topic under study. The concept of corruption is sensitive in nature and as such some respondents were not free to give information on corruption related issues. This development had the potential of leading to the provision of wrong information that may affect the quality of the study. In some cases, also some targeted respondents refused to be interviewed for their own personal reasons. In such cases, efforts were made to identify other respondents in the same category. In some cases, the identified respondents were assured of confidentiality and convinced that the study would be purely for academic purposes and not for other ill intentions.

The other limitation of the study was time and financial constraint which made it difficult for the researcher to reach out to more key informants and the general public. This made the researcher to reduce the sample number. As such the results of the study may not necessarily be a general representation of the whole population of Malawi. However, the insights from the few samples can be useful when conducting a further study on the same at a larger scale or scope.

3.8. Chapter summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology that this study employed. It has highlighted and justified the research data collection methods, population and sample, sampling techniques, research instruments, as well as data analysis. The chapter has also presented ethical considerations for research participants. Finally, the chapter has presented the limitations of the study and their respective remedies.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The chapter presents the findings and analyses of public participation in combating corruption in public sector in Malawi particularly at the Mchinji District Council. The chapter discusses the concept of corruption mainly its definition, forms and causes, public participation in fighting corruption, importance of public participation in fighting corruption and challenges that public face in combating corruption at Mchinji District Council. The findings are based on the responses provided by participants who were purposively selected to give the required information through the use of semi-structured questionnaires. The chapter has been organised in a way that the findings of each objective are presented separately followed by an analysis and explanations justifying the findings in line with relevant literature and the principal- agent and Public Participation theory that inform the study.

4.2. Understanding the concept of corruption.

One of the objectives of the study was to analyse if the public understands the concept of corruption. This was based on the belief that understanding corruption is the first step to prevent it. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to define the term “corruption” in their own words or understanding. They were also asked to give the forms and causes of corruption that are common at Mchinji District Council. The responses from the respondents on the definitions and forms of corruption were compared to those given by different scholars to see if they are related.

4.2.1. Definition of corruption

The study involved asking respondents to provide their definitions of corruption. A number of definitions were given as presented in table 3 below.

Table 3: Selected definitions of corruption from respondents

No	Definition of corruption	Type of Respondent
1	Dishonesty or fraudulent behaviour by any person	Council staff
2	<i>Mchitidwe wakuba ndalama za boma ndi anthu ogwira ntchito m'boma-</i> Theft of public funds by people in government	Focus group discussion 1
3	Misuse of entrusted power or position for personal gain	Key informants
4	Getting money in a wrong way at the expense of the public	Council staff
5	Doing things in a wrong way in favour of one's needs or interests.	Council staff
6	An act whereby an employee or anyone in authority performs or carries out his duties out of being enticed by a party which has interest in an issue.	Council staff
7	<i>Kupanga zinthu mosatsata ndondomeko chifukwa cha udindo pofuna kupindulapo chinthu china chake-</i> Doing things without following procedures because of authority in order to benefit something.	Focus group discussion 2
8	<i>Kukondera kwa anthu ogwira ntchito m'boma, mafumu kaya wina aliyense polembana ntchito</i> Favouratism by public officers, chiefs or any other person in authority in offering jobs or contracts.	Focus group discussion 2
9	Misuse of public resources by government officials or people in authority for their own advantage.	Council staff
10	Act of twisting information for a person to benefit from the public resources.	NICE staff

From the definitions above, it is clear that most respondents understood corruption from a perspective of public officials although a few perceive it from the dimension that includes ordinary citizens. The results from the above definition gives an indication that the respondents have knowledge, and understand the meaning, of corruption. This is evidenced by the fact that the definitions that respondents gave from group discussions and semi-structured questionnaires were almost similar to the definitions that were given by the key informants and those that are commonly used in literature. For instance, a respondent from Mchinji District Council defined corruption as “*Misuse of public resources by government officials or people in authority for their own advantage.*” Respondents from focus group discussion 2 also defined corruption as “*Doing things without following procedures because of authority in order to benefit something.*” These definitions are similar to the definitions of corruption that were given by key informants from ACB and Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. The definitions are also similar to those by Myint (2000) and World Bank (2006). Myint (2000) defined corruption as “the use of official position, rank or status by an office bearer for his own personal benefit” while World Bank (2006) defined it as “the abuse of entrusted power for private gain”.

The definitions of corruption from the respondents have an element of abuse of positions which is common in all the definitions. Also looking at the definitions from respondents it can be noted that they are defined within the parameters of Heidenheimer et al (2002)’s broad corruption definition categories of public-office centred (emphasises on the behaviour of an individual), public interest centred (emphasises on an act which is contrary to the public interest) and market centred (emphasises that officers use public positions or offices to maximise their profits).

4.2.2. Forms of corruption

The forms of corruption at Mchinji District Council include bribery, extortion, fraud, influence peddling, embezzlement, abuse of conflict of interest and favouritism. Respondents, especially key informants were asked to mention forms of corruption that exist at the council. Figure 6 below presents the forms of corruption based on how often each form was mentioned.

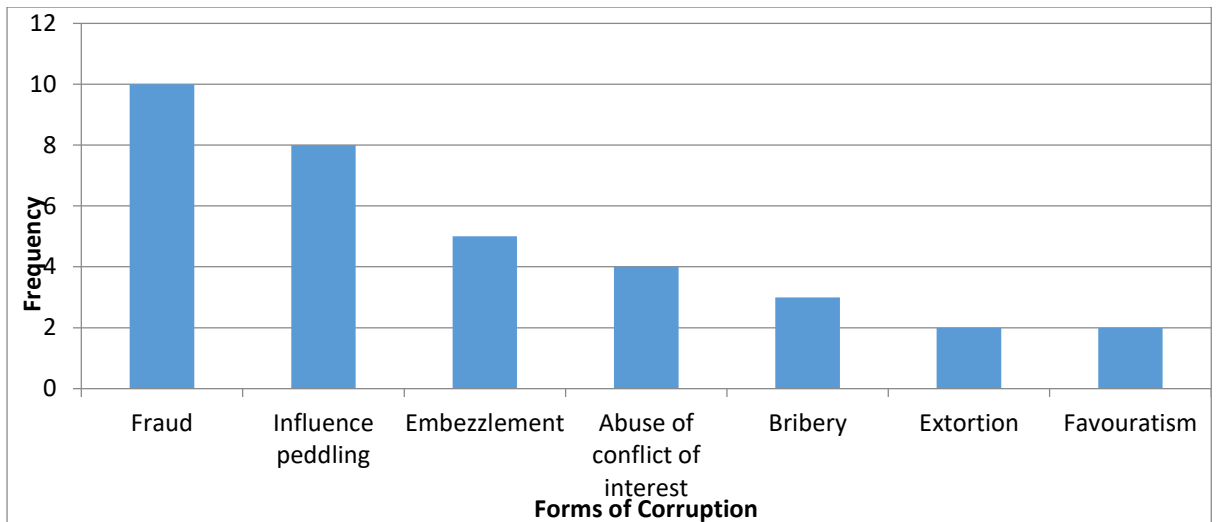


Figure 6: Frequency of forms of corruption from respondents: Interviews conducted on 25th July, 2019, 20th August, 2019 and 5th September, 2019.

The results showed that fraud is the most common form of corruption followed by influence peddling. The forms of corruption such as bribery, extortion and favouritism exist but not on a large scale. This is contrary to many institutions where bribery is very common to an extent that most people equate corruption with bribery. This could be possibly because the services that the Council offers are not highly demanded by the public to attract bribes.

4.2.2.1. Fraud

The key informant from ACB defined fraud as “misrepresentation of facts intentionally in order to benefit something out of it”. The definition is similar to that of DFID (2011) which defines fraud as “the act of intentionally and dishonestly deceiving someone in order to gain unfair or illegal advantage”. Banik (2010,15) and Amundsen et al. (2000,15) stated that fraud includes acts such as trickery, swindle or deceit as well as manipulation of information. In line with these definitions, the key informant from Mchinji District Council indicated that fraud at the Council manifests itself in many ways such as creation of ghost workers in Public Works Programmes and inflation of prices in procurement.

On creation of ghost workers, one respondent said:

Ogwira ntchito ku khonsolo amaika anthu ambiri pa mndandanda wa anthu ogwira ntchito za zachitukuko cha mmudzi monga kukonza

misewu pomwe anthu amene akugwira ntchitoyo ndi ochepa ndipo amatenga ndalama za anthu owonjezerawo kukhala zawo (Council officials put more workers on a pay roll on public works programme yet the actual number of people working on the ground are few and take the money for the extra people for their own use).

From this response, it shows that council officials intentionally present false information with an aim of gaining or benefiting something out the act.

4.2.2.2. Influence peddling

Rose-Ackerman (2016, 8) defined influence peddling as “using one’s power or decision in government to extract bribes and favours from interested partners.” This definition agrees with sentiments of one respondent who indicated that government officials and politicians put much pressure on council staff in the course of discharging duties, for instance, demanding to favour certain people in awarding contracts or defraud the council. The respondent gave a practical example of influence peddling where a top government official threatened to halt a project to renovate a community ground unless he/she was given MK5 million from MK15 million which the council was given for the project. When asked why council staff succumb to the demands from top government officials or politicians rather than exercising professionalism, the most common response given by respondents was that they fear to be transferred. The politicians have connections that can influence transfers of officers who seem to do contrary to their needs and interests.

Although the response needs to be respected and the fear of council staff appreciated that indeed such transfers may cause disruption to the target person (s), however, this reason may not be convincing enough in the sense that there is no any public officer who is employed or trained to work at Mchinji District Council only for his/her entire life. A public officer can work anywhere where his/her services are needed. The fear of being transferred from Mchinji District Council is a “red flag” that shows staff are benefiting something within the system or the fear to be transferred can be attributed to business opportunities that exist in Mchinji being it a boarder district.

4.2.2.3. *Embezzlement*

Fjeldstad et al. (2000, 15) defined embezzlement as “theft of resources by people who are put to administer them.” A key informant from ACB also defined it in a similar way as “misappropriation of cash or property by an officer entrusted with control over it.” This basically means that public officials use public resources for themselves which they are supposed to administer on behalf of the public.

Specifically, embezzlement of public resources, both in terms of money and physical assets, qualifies as theft. Amundsen 1999 cited in Banik (2010, 51) argued that “embezzlement is typically not considered to be a corrupt act from a legalistic aspect as it involves theft of public resources by public officials and constitutes the misappropriation of public or private funds.” However, because public officials unduly use their positions to embezzle public resources, this is now regarded as corruption. This shows that there is very thin line between embezzlement and theft.

A respondent acknowledged that council staff at times embezzle public resources. He said that *“there is a tendency by some officers embezzling council resources, for instance, in 2017 about K68 Million went missing through dubious means.”* The fact that such a huge sum of money went missing in just a year illustrates how public officials are comfortably abusing public funds due to weak internal controls in the system.

4.3. Causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council

The study establishes that there are several causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council. This agrees with Hussein (2009) and Sumah (2018) who argued that there is never only one phenomenon that is responsible for the occurrence of corruption and the development of it. A reason for the multiple causes may originate from the fact that corruption happens in different shapes. Figure 7 presents causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council.

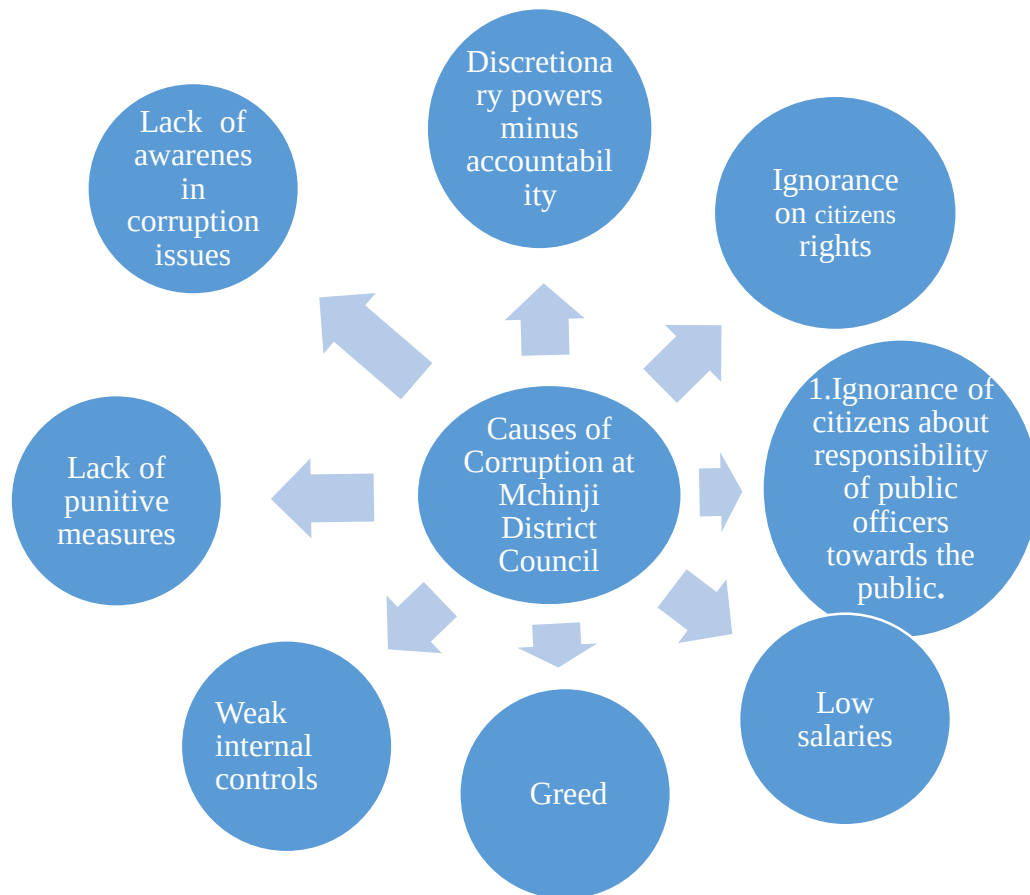


Figure 7: Causes of corruption at Mchinji District council from respondents

Based on the figure, the causes of corruption can be categorised into two main categories, namely, people-related and system related. People-related causes are those that are to do with human behaviour, for example, greed and need. On the other hand, system related are those that focussing on system failure, for instance, weak internal controls.

4.3.1. Discretionary powers minus accountability

Klitgaard (1991) argued that corruption can take place if someone has the discretionary power to decide whether people get a certain service or not, and when there is no public control of the process of making such decision. The study has found that council officials sometimes use their power to make decisions for their own benefit or for the benefit of a certain group of people. In this scenario, the public is not allowed to question or seek clarification from officers about an issue or decision which has been made. For example, a respondent from focus group discussion 1 said that:

Ku khonsolo yathu ziphuphu zimachitika chifukwa ma ofesala amagwiritsa ntchito mphamvu zawo popanga zinthu mobisa zokomera iwo okha (corruption takes place at our council because council staff use their own powers to make decisions which are not accountable for the benefit of themselves).

This response is in agreement with the principal-agent theory which claims that corruption happens because the agent (in this case, the council officials) has more information regarding an issue than the principal (in this case, general public) and this information gap makes the agent to exercise some discretion to pursue his/her own interest.

4.3.2. Ignorance on citizens' rights

As a principle in good governance, citizens have a right to demand accountability and transparency from duty bearers. This is essential for the prevention on occurrence of corruption (Transparency International, 2016). The study has found that the public at Mchinji District Council does not hold council staff accountable for their actions even when they see that public funds are being abused. This development is due to lack of knowledge that the public has the right to demand accountability and transparency from their leaders or public officials.

4.3.3. Ignorance of citizens about responsibility of public officers towards the public.

The Malawi Public Service Code of Conduct and Ethics demands public officers to “uphold the public interest by among other things helping the public to understand their rights and obligations and serving every customer in a professional manner in accordance with set standards.”

In this regard, the study has found that council officials do not inform the public that they are holding those official positions to serve them. Lack of this knowledge has created a gap between the public and council officials to an extent that the public believe that they cannot get a service without giving a bribe. The council officials have taken advantage of the citizen's ignorance to abuse their positions. One of the key informants said that “council officials sometimes find it easy to abuse public resources for a

particular project because people do not know the guidelines for that particular project.” The observation by the key informant agrees with the principal-agent theory which propagates that corruption happens in a society because of the knowledge gap that exists between the principal (general public) and agent (public officers). The agent has more information on the operation of an organisation than the principal. This knowledge gap puts the principal to a disadvantage in the sense that he is unable to perfectly monitor the actions of the agent. On the other hand, the gap is an opportunity to the agent to abuse his/her position in pursuit for his/her own interests. This response is also somehow in agreement with one of the findings of the 2014 Corruption and Governance Survey that was conducted by the Centre for Social Studies of the University of Malawi which found that corruption in Malawi is initiated by public officials.

4.3.4. Low salaries

Low salaries are also a cause of corruption at Mchinji District Council. Several literatures suggest that raising the salaries of government officials could reduce their propensity to solicit and accept bribes. World Bank (2006) and Ferraz et al. (2009) pointed out that low salaries for public officials are central to public sector corruption. In agreement with the World Bank (2006) and Ferraz et al. (2009), a respondent from the council stated that:

vuto lenileni ndi loti anthu ogwira ntchito m'boma ngati ife malipiro athu ndi ochepa. Sitingathe kupita ku shopu kukagula zinthu zofunika pamoyo wathu. Sitingathe kulipira ana athu malipiro a sukulu, kulipira malo okhalapo, kaya kugula zovala ndiye pakapezeka mwayi ochita ziphuphu timapanga kuti tipeze ndalama yowonjezera kuti tigule zofuna zathu (The real cause of corruption is that civil servants like ourselves receive low salaries that we cannot afford to buy basic things, pay school fees for our children, pay rent or buy clothes. So, when chances arise, we do not have the choice but to indulge in corruption to get the extra money to meet our needs).

The above response confirms Donald Casey's Fraud/Corruption Triangle Theory (figure 2) which mentioned “pressure” as one of the elements for the occurrence of corruption. Pressure in this regard is the feeling by an individual to do something corrupt because of financial problems.

Although low salaries can be a cause of corruption at the council, however, there are cases where even officers who are highly paid also indulge in corruption and their corrupt behaviour is not attributable to low pay or necessity to meet the living expenses of their families. For example, the Malawi “cash gate” scandal which took place in 2013 involved some senior public officers who were highly paid. This scenario then shows that the payment of high salaries must also be accompanied by other strong monitoring and enforcement mechanism to guard the behaviour of the officers. It can also be argued that public officers do not engage in corruption because of low salaries but may be the environment they are operating in is conducive or due to other personal behaviours.

4.3.5. Greed

Greed was also mentioned as one of the causes of corruption at the council. Greed is an intense and selfish desire for something, especially wealth, power, or food. In most cases, people indulge in corrupt acts not because they are poor but because they want to have more for themselves on top of what they earn from their employers. One of the respondents who mentioned greed as a cause of corruption said:

Koma pali anthu ena amene amapanga ziphuphu osati ndi ovutika kapena ndalama zawo ndi zochepa, koma amangofuna kuzikundikira chuma basi, dyera la ndalama (There are some officers who indulge in corruption not because they are poor or they receive low salary but because they want to have more for themselves).

The response indicated that people involved in corruption because of greed do not necessarily receive less money or that they do not have money. This implies that some people involved in corruption hold high positions and they have the responsibility and entrusted power to serve the public. Many public officials, thus, regard public service as an opportunity for enriching themselves, their immediate and extended families and their friends. This is a true reflection of the principal –agent theory in which an agent abuses his/her powers at the expense of the public, the principal.

The point raised by the respondent agrees with Tumwesigye (2000) and Khan (2006) who also pointed out that apart from economic pressure that people face, greed is another dominant cause of corruption in most institutions. They argue that mostly people, despite having enough resources, they still want to have more for themselves at the expense of the poor.

4.3.6. Weak internal controls

Internal controls are the mechanisms, rules and procedures implemented by an organization to prevent or detect any malpractice such as corruption, fraud and theft (Kenton, 2019). Specifically, internal controls are put in place to prevent employees from stealing organizational assets or indulging themselves into fraud. McCuskey (2006) argues that lack of internal controls or weak controls such as supervision, rules and procedures are responsible for existence of corruption.

The study found that there was no mechanism for checks and balances. In this regard, for instance, the Council has been operating for a good number of years without an internal auditor who could advise the council on internal controls. One of respondents said:

Pa khonsolo pano nthawi zina timapanga zinthu molakwika chifukwa tilibe ndondomeko zotiongolera, mwachitsanzo takhala opanda “inteno odita kwa zaka zambiri ndiye anthu amangosakaza chuma cha council mopanda mantha. (At this council, we have been doing things without following procedures because we do not have mechanisms to guide the council, for example, absence of internal auditor for a number of years has contributed to abuse of council resources).

Another respondent mentioned “lack of segregation of duties” and “use of non-professional or untrained staff” as factors contributing to weak internal controls. The respondent stated, for example, that the council has no qualified procurement officer and the officer handling procurement processes has no expertise in the field. This increases chances for abuse of council funds.

4.3.7. Lack of punitive measures

Most people may engage in corrupt practices if they believe that they will not be caught or if caught, they will not be severely punished. In such a case, the benefit of corruption to an individual out-weighs the potential risk of being caught. One of the representatives from VDC agreed to this sentiment. He said that:

Pali anthu ena ku khonsolo kuja tidamva kuti adaononga ndalama zathu zachitukuko koma palibe chilango chomwe adalandira. Zikatero anthu ena amati tikuputsa nafenso tibe ndalama. Izi zikufanana ndi anthu anaba ndalama za boma zankhaninkhani ‘cash gate’ koma anangomangidwa zaka zochepe mwina ziwiri. Ngakhale nditakhala ine ndita kulolera kuba ndalama zaboma chifukwa sindikakhala zaka

zambiri ku ndende (there are some officers at the council who embezzled public funds which was meant for rural development programmes but they were not punished. In so doing other officers feel that it is better for them to indulge in corruption as well. This scenario at our council is the same as what happened with ‘Cashgate’ convicts who stole millions of government money but were sentenced to a jail term of only two years. Even if it was me, I cannot fear to steal the money because I know that I would not spend much time in jail).

4.3.8. Lack of awareness in corruption issues

The public need to be educated or sensitised on corruption issues for them to be aware of any corrupt act. Lack of awareness on corruption issues has significantly contributed to the prevalence of corruption at the council. A respondent from focus group discussion 2 said:

Kusowa kwa maphunziro otidziwitsa za ziphuphu kukulimbikitsa mchitidwe waziphuphu kwa atsogoleri anthu ku khonsolo komanso ngakhale mmudzi mwathu muno. Anthu nthawi zina timauzidwa kuti tipereke ndalama ya fanta, kapena ya mayunitsi, kapena ya fuwelo kuti tithandizidwe mu njira ina yake. Anthu sitimadziwa kuti maina onsewa kuseli kwake kuli ziphuphu koma ife timapereka mosadziwa (I feel lack of awareness in corruption issues promote corruption at the council because sometimes we have been asked to give ‘fanta or airtime money’ after a service. People do not know that there is corruption behind that money but they are terms aimed at hiding the vice).

4.4. Prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council

After assessing how respondents understood the concept of corruption, the research also attempted to establish the level of corruption at the Council. However, it should be pointed out that, corruption is hard to measure with accuracy due to its complexity and that there is hardly any objective instrument to measure its levels other than using “Corruption Perception Index” (Transparency International, 2017). Corruption Perception Index is a method of measuring levels of corruption by asking people on how they perceive corruption in a country or organisation. The same approach was used to measure levels of corruption at Mchinji District Council. Figure 8 shows the responses regarding the level of corruption prevalence at the council.

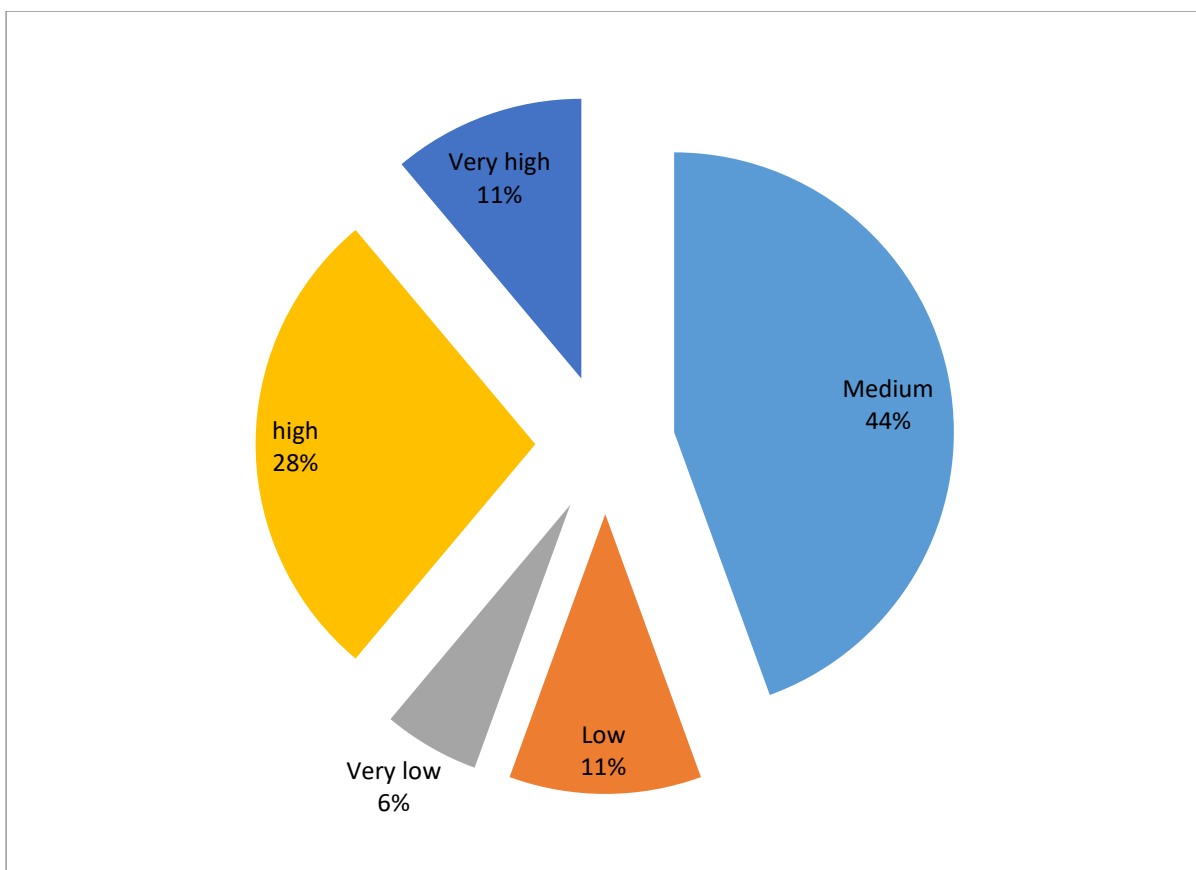


Figure 8: Corruption level at Mchinji District Council

The results show that 44% of the respondents indicated that the level of corruption is medium, 28% high, 11% very high 11% low and 6% very low. The results contradict with reports that indicate that there is serious prevalence of corruption at Mchinji District Council. The media, for example, has published a number of corruption articles for the Council. For instance, the Nation Newspaper of November 11, 2017 had an article titled “Mchinji council told to refund money”. Another article was also reported by Nyasatimes, an online Newspaper, on May 10, 2018 titled “*Officials fleece district councils in cashgate style: Malawi Police arrest three in Mchinji*”. The ACB also indicated that it registered 15 corruption related cases for Mchinji District Council in 2018 which was the highest number of all the District Councils in the country and possibly an indication of prevalence of high level of corruption. The contradiction can be attributed to the fact that corruption is a sensitive issue and there is a tendency by people or organisations not to admit the prevalence of corruption even when it is the case.

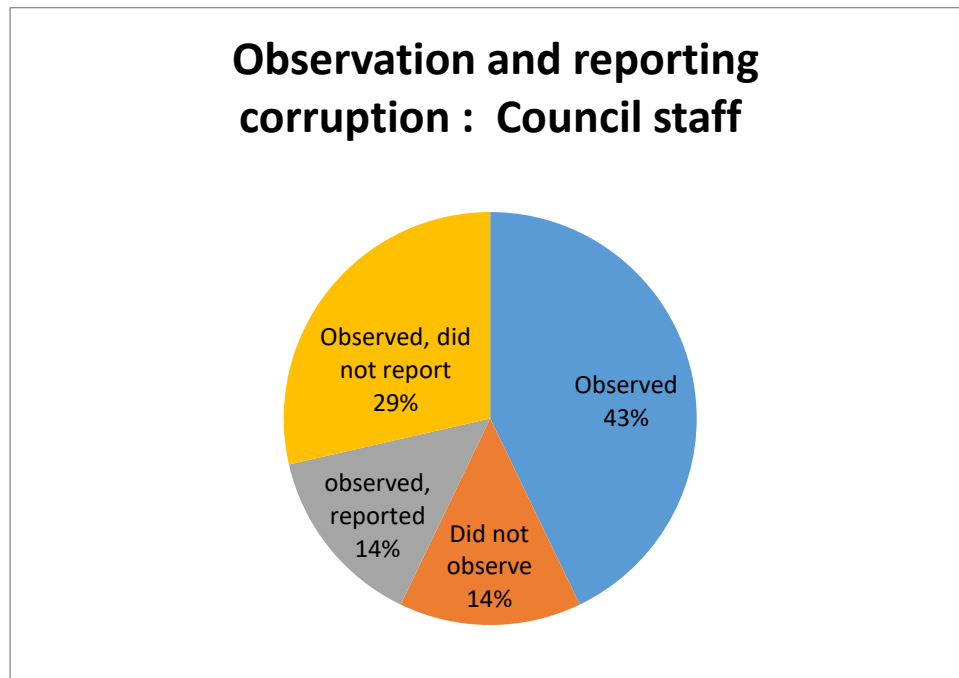
4.5. How the public participates in the fight against corruption at Mchinji

District Council

The study also aimed at assessing anti-corruption activities that are conducted by the public and how they are conducted. The study also assesses the extent of public participation in the fight against corruption. The study focussed on finding out if people report corruption when they see it, if people can reject corruption when offered and if people are able to demand accountability and transparency from public office holders. The study went further to establish whether the council had initiatives to promote public participation in the fight against corruption.

4.5.1. Reporting corruption

Council staff and representatives of VDCs were asked whether they observed corrupt acts in the activities involving the council for the past 4 years. Further, for those who indicated that they observed corrupt practices, they were asked if at all they reported it to any relevant authority at the council or ACB. Figure 9 presents results of observing and reporting of corruption at the council.



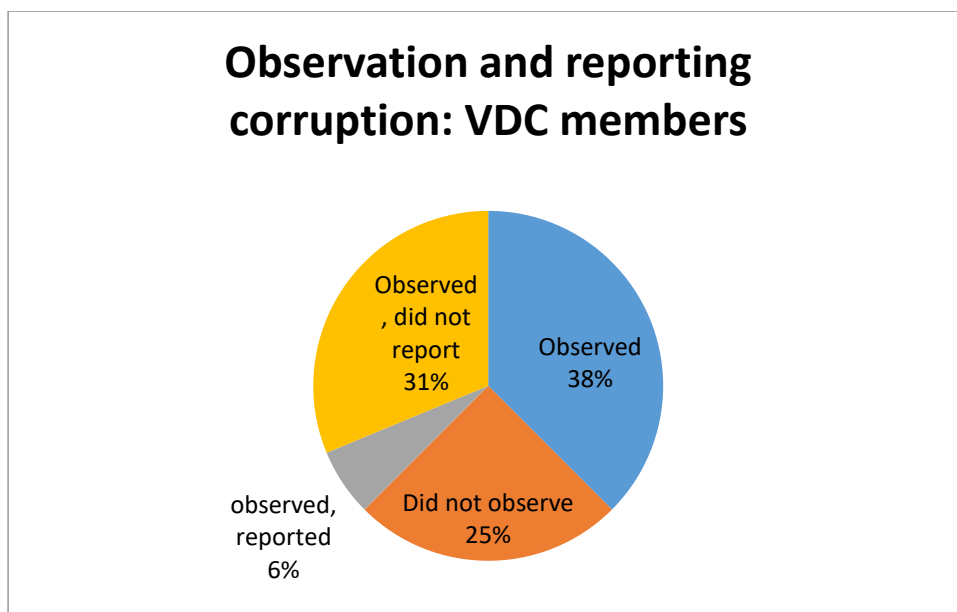


Figure 9: Observation and reporting of corruption for Council staff and VDC members

The results indicate that 43% of council staff interviewed and 38% of VDC members interviewed observed corruption. Out of those staff who observed corruption, 29% did not report and 14% reported. For the VDC members, out of those who observed 31% did not report and 6% reported.

From the results it shows that the majority of the respondents (43% and 38% for staff and VDC members respectively) observed corruption taking place involving council's activities. The results also indicate that a large proportion of respondents (29% and 31% of staff and VDC members, respectively) did not report the acts of corruption to relevant authorities against 14% and 6% who reported. Further analysis indicates that failure to report corruption is due to lack of proper reporting mechanism, fear of being harassed by offenders and failure by authorities to deal with reported corruption. Generally, people are not fully aware of the processes of reporting corruption at the council.

4.5.2. Demand for accountability and transparency

The success of fighting corruption largely depends on the support from the public which should be made aware of their rights, duties and obligations. In turn, the public is supposed to demand accountability from people in position of power and influence. The demand for accountability allows citizens to hold institutions accountable for their policies and performance and result in less corruption (Bellver et al, 2005). The demand

for accountability and transparency has contributed to the detection of corruption, reduced leakages of funds and improved quantity and quality of public services. It has also been argued that strengthening citizens' demand for anti-corruption and empowering them to hold government accountable is a sustainable approach to prevention of corruption (Transparency International, 2016).

On holding public officials accountable, the study found that there is little which is being done by the public in demanding accountability from office bearers mainly due to fear and ignorance about their rights. A respondent from the council said:

People from the villages or even we officers do not ask how certain things or projects are been done, even if there is an indication that things are not right and as such public officers are not shaken up. I think may be people are afraid or they do not know that they have the right to demand accountability from their leaders.

The picture painted by the respondent is that the public is not aware of their rights and as such they are not fully participating in providing checks and balances to public officers thereby creating a conducive environment for corrupt acts. The response also relates well with the principal -agent theory which points the "knowledge gap" between the agent (people in authority) and the principal (general public) as a determinant factor for corruption to happen.

4.6. Level of participation

Mtapuri (2016) argued that corruption cannot be won without public participation, support and vigilance. People lubricate the spread of corruption through transactions and service seeking at different facilities. It is therefore important that the fight against corruption should start with the citizens who are the biggest stakeholders (Alkayed et al., 2011).

In terms of establishing the extent to which public take part in the fight against corruption, the study found that the level of public participation in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council is low. The majority of respondents indicated that people do not actively participate in the fight against corruption. The following reasons were mentioned to have contributed to low participation: lack of knowledge on corruption issues, frustrations, loss of trust for authorities, lack of corruption reporting

mechanisms, fear of reprisals and lack of interest to fight corruption. One respondent commented that *“I cannot waste my time fighting corruption. Why should I worry as if people are stealing money from my pocket? It is not my money. It is government money”*. This comment shows that people somehow are not well sensitised especially on the effects of corruption to an extent that they do not see the importance of taking part in the fight against corruption because they do not know that government money is public money and needs to be protected. The sentiments raised by the respondent also confirms the point that lack of information is a hindrance to public participation. This supports Creighton (cited in Leonard, 2012) who argued that people cannot participate effectively in various activities unless they receive complete and objective information on which to base their judgements.

The point raised by the respondent was also found by the Local Governance Performance Index of 2016 in Malawi to be one of the reasons why people do not report corruption as one way of participating.

4.7. Public desire to fight corruption

In attempt to assess public participation in the fight against corruption, the study also sought to find out if the public have the desire to fight corruption. The study has established that the public has the desire to contribute to the fight against corruption despite frustrations that are due to increasing levels of corruption at the council. One of the respondents from a focus group discussion emotionally responded by saying that:

ifeyo mtima olimbana ndi ziphuphu tili nawo chifukwa timazunzika ndife anthu akumudzi. Koma nthawi zina zimatiwawa mtima ndi kutifowoketsa kuti atsogoleri anthu saonetsa chidwi chofuna kuthetsa mchitidwe wa ziphuphu, mwina iwonso amapindula ndi mchitidwe umenewu. Makamaka zimandipweteka kuona kuti palibe chomwe chikuchitika kwa munthu amene pali umboni kuti waononga ndalama za chitukuko cha mmudzi (we have the desire to fight corruption but sometimes we become frustrated to see that our leaders are not committed to fight corruption. Maybe they are beneficiaries of the act. It pains me most to see that there is no action taken against an officer who has abused public funds meant for development in our communities).

The point raised by the respondent agrees with Holdar's (2012) argument that people can participate actively to bring changes if they are willing to do so especially on issues

that directly affect them. The realisation by the respondent that corruption is an issue that is affecting the lives of people and their willingness to fight it, supports the authentic model of citizen participation which argues that citizens are more willing to influence a process of dealing with the issue that concerns them.

The desire demonstrated by the respondents gives an opportunity in the fight against corruption in the sense that it can be easy to win support of the people and engage them in implementing anti-corruption activities. In order to make the best of such a desire, there is need for authorities to demonstrate impartiality and seriousness when fighting corruption. All suspected cases of corruption must be dealt with decisively and fairly so that others are encouraged to take part in the fight.

4.8. Initiatives implemented by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in the fight against corruption

The study also sought to investigate initiatives being implemented at Mchinji District Council that are aimed at engaging the public to take part in the fight against corruption. The key respondents from the council and the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development were asked to mention initiatives that are implemented to promote public participation and whether these initiatives are yielding the intended results. The study has revealed a number of initiatives which Mchinji District Council is implementing to promote public involvement in the fight against corruption as outline below.

4.8.1. Establishment of an integrity committee

The key informants from the council mentioned the establishment of an integrity committee as one of the initiatives that the council has put in place to promote public involvement in the fight against corruption. The committee which comprised of representatives from sectors at the district, traditional leaders, NGOs and religious bodies was established to champion anti-corruption efforts at the council. Specifically, the committee is responsible for receiving corruption related reports from staff at the council and the general public, among other roles. It is believed that the integrity committee promotes public participation in the fight against corruption because people feel more comfortable to report corruption to officers than managers.

When asked to explain about the effectiveness of the committee, the respondent expressed dissatisfaction on the contribution of the committee towards the fight against corruption and promotion of public participation. Although the respondent acknowledged the importance of the committee, he however faulted the strategy which was used to appoint the committee. The committee was appointed without consulting staff to such an extent that it was seen as an imposition on them. The respondent said:

We were just told that the council has an integrity committee to look into issues of corruption. We were not told in details what the committee is supposed to be doing, so we are suspicious about the move and thought that the committee was put in place by the ACB to spy on staff. We have not yet seen the work of the committee so far. But I personally feel that the idea to form the committee would help to engage us and the community at large in fighting corruption at the council and in the district.

The point raised by the respondent is in line with Arnstein's theory of citizen participation. The theory argues that authorities believe that citizens can participate in an issue through creation of community committees or associations. These groups, however, are not given any powers to make decision or control activities taking place in their community. Instead, they are used by those in authority to endorse their plans or fulfill certain requirements. The establishment of the integrity committee at the council can be viewed in the same lens that it was established to fulfill government instructions that every government ministry, department and agency should have an integrity committee to spearhead the fight against corruption within the institutions.

The tokenism level of the theory also pointed out that people resist taking part in issues which they do not know and understand. From the respondent it was clear that people had no full knowledge about the initiatives of the integrity committee and as such there was no support from the public towards the initiative. The respondent's point is supported by Holdar et al. (2002) who argues that effective citizen participation depends on valuable information that is given to people about the issue under consideration. Creighton (cited in Leonardo et al., 2012) also shares the same sentiments that public information is an essential component of an effective public participation in any issue. He hints that people cannot participate unless they receive complete and objective information on which to base their judgements. Moreover, in support of the respondent's point is the European Committee on Local and Regional

Democracy (2008) which points out that people participate effectively in any issue when they have capacity- resources, skills and knowledge necessary to do so and when they are directly asked about their opinion. Lack of knowledge on the existence of the integrity committee, therefore, supports the earlier findings which respondents indicated that the council has no corruption reporting mechanisms or channels and people do not know where to report corruption issues.

4.8.2. Open meetings with public representatives

One of the initiatives aimed at promoting public participation in the fight against corruption was through meetings. Findings indicate that the council has been conducting meetings with VDCs, ADCs, councillors and council staff to discuss strategies of combating corruption at the council. The VDCs and ADCs are structures that were created by government to represent people at local levels.

4.8.3. Engagement of stakeholders

The council has been engaging other stakeholders such as NICE, Action Aid and Malawi Economic and Justice Network (MEJN) to include anti-corruption programmes in their activities specifically those that aim at sensitising people about corruption. One of the councillors said:

I first learnt how people can contribute in the fight against corruption through a programme called 'Bwalo la nzika (citizen forum)'. The programme was conducted by NICE in selected areas where they were sensitising the communities on their roles in fighting corruption. The unfortunate thing was that the programme did not last long and the message did not reach many people.

The point raised by the respondent indicates that engagement of different stakeholders to disseminate anti-corruption messages would raise more awareness and encourage people take part in the fight against corruption.

4.9. Challenges facing the public in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council

This section discusses the challenges that the public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council. Figure 10 below shows the common challenges mentioned and the frequency they were mentioned.

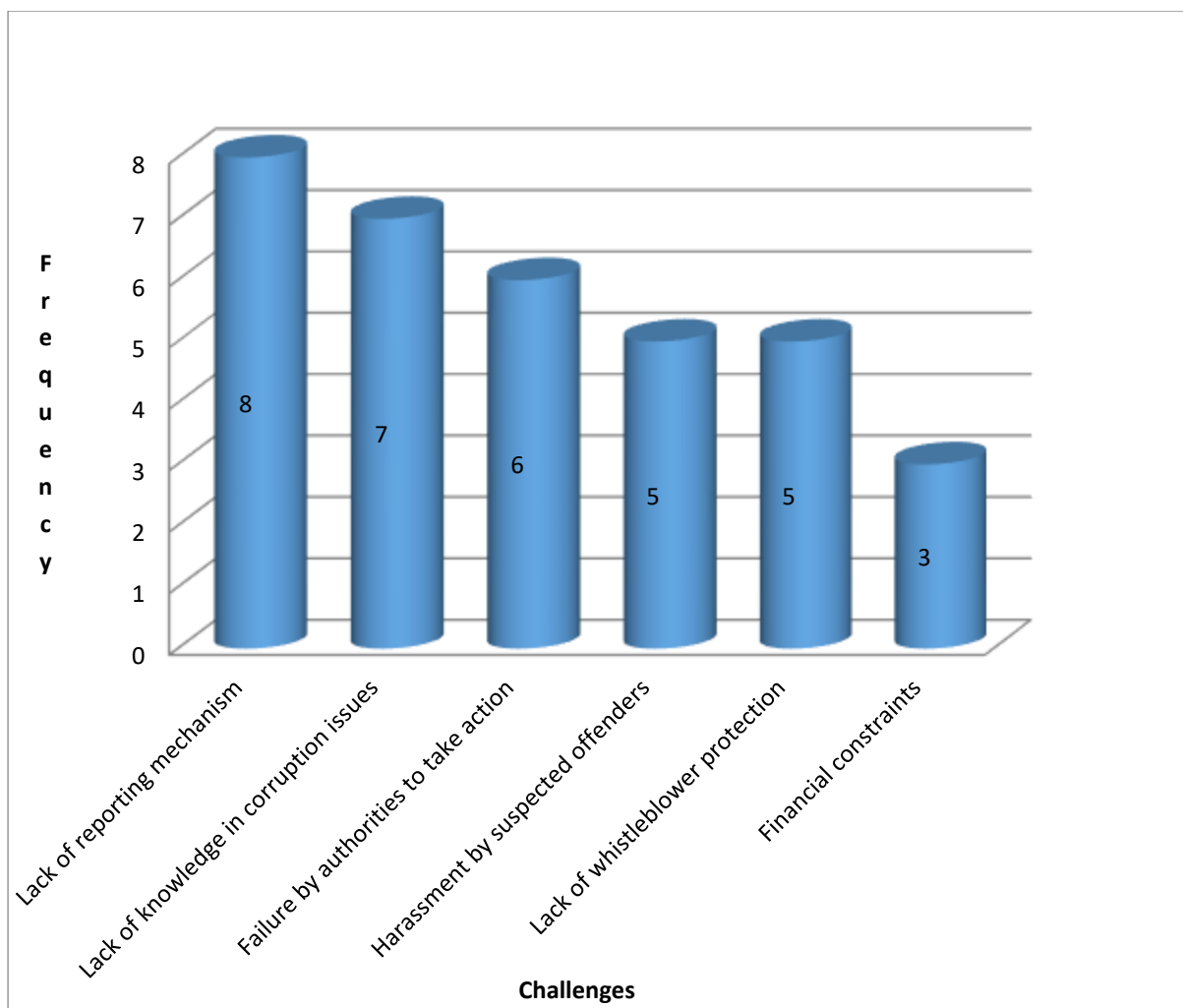


Figure 10: Challenges facing the public in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council.

Of the total responses elicited, the most mentioned challenges are lack of corruption reporting mechanisms, harassment by suspected offenders, lack of knowledge in corruption issues, failure by the council authorities to take action, lack of trust in council authorities and financial resource constraint. Figure10 shows that lack of corruption reporting mechanisms was mentioned 8 times, lack of information in corruption issues 7 times, failure by authorities to deal with reported cases of corruption 6 times, harassment by suspected offenders 5 times, lack of whistle blower protection 5 times and financial resource constraint 3 times.

4.9.1. Lack of corruption reporting mechanisms

Reporting corruption is one of the ways that people can participate in the fight against corruption. But for the public to report corruption there is need to have reporting mechanisms which are secure and easy to access. However, clear reporting channels should not only be put in place, but also publicized (OECD, 2017). Respondents cited lack of corruption reporting mechanisms as a challenge in fighting corruption at the council. One of the respondents observed:

ziphuphu ku khonsolo kuno zilipodi, koma vuto ndi loti palibe njira zodziwika zoti anthu titha kugwiritsa ntchito pokatula madandaulo okhuza ziphuphu monga ofesi yolandira madandaulo kapena mabokosi oponyamo madandaulo (the problem is that the council has no corruption reporting mechanism such as complaint office or complaint boxes).

The finding reveal that the public is generally aware that they are supposed to report corruption but are not provided with reporting mechanisms. The finding agrees with Chinsinga et al. (2014) that reporting of corruption cases in Malawi is a serious problem because of poor reporting mechanisms among other factors. Similarly, the 2006 World Bank survey revealed that lack of reporting systems is one of the challenges that the public face and is the factor responsible for public sector corruption in Malawi (World Bank, 2006). When the respondents were further asked why they could not report their corruption cases to ACB, the response was that it is costly to report to ACB because a person has to use his/her resources to make a phone call or to travel to Lilongwe where the ACB offices are located. Even at times when a person has sacrificed to travel to ACB offices, he/she may not know where the offices are.

4.9.2. Harassment by suspected offenders

Mtapuri (2016) argues that people tend to shun away from taking part in the fight against corruption especially from reporting corrupt cases for fear of being harassed by the offenders. Harassment is a form of discrimination that includes any unwanted physical or verbal behaviour that offends or humiliates a person. Harassment has a negative impact on the overall whistle blower morale.

Respondents indicated that harassment by suspected corruption offenders prevent people to take part in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council. One key informant pointed out that:

people's morale to fight corruption at the council has recently gone down. This is due to the fact that whistle blowers are subjected to insults and sometimes even physical harassment. Some officers have been threatened by political leaders, chiefs and people in authority in the district to face serious consequences because of trying to expose a corrupt act.

Harassment of a whistle blower in any form is against the laws of Malawi. Section 51 A (5) of the Corrupt Practices Act states that:

Any person who, having knowledge that any person referred to in this section as a whistle-blower or an informer, has informed the Bureau or the police of an alleged or a suspected corrupt practice, or other offence connected therewith, takes, by himself or through another person, an action of any kind to punish or victimize such whistle-blower or informer in any way shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine of K50,000 and to imprisonment for two years.

The continued harassment of whistle blowers indicates that this section in the Act is not fully utilised.

4.9.3. Lack of information in corruption issues

There is a common saying that 'knowledge is power.' What this means is that when people have knowledge on a certain issue, they have the power to take part in that issue because they know it. Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala, former Managing Director of World Bank argued that to fight corruption, people must first have information to understand it. In support of Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala's point, Leonardo (2012) stated that the availability of information to the public equips them so that they better play their role of preventing corruption in different sectors of the economy. This means when people have information, they are empowered to participate in the fight against corruption by either reporting or rejecting it.

Lack of information in corruption issues was also mentioned as a challenge that impedes participation in the fight against corruption. A key informant pointed out: "*the public is lacking information on corruption to enable them identify it or report it or*

reject it. The experts who have the information do not sensitise the people to equip them with knowledge.”

The point raised by the key informant is in agreement with Holdar et al. (2002), who argues that limited information on corruption, the little knowledge about rights and responsibilities, lack of trust, lack of cooperation between the stakeholders, lack of self – confidence, lack of skills, culture of participation and experience in this field, lack of resources (e.g. experience, time, funds, skills) are some of the challenges that hinder public participation in the fight against corruption.

The fight against corruption requires participation of every person. When people lack information to enable them effectively participate in the fight, then combating corruption remains a challenge.

4.9.4. Failure by authorities to deal with reported cases of corruption

Generally, people are not interested to fight corruption when they have a feeling that there will be no enforcement or no action by relevant authorities if the matter is reported to them. The study finds that failure by authorities to deal with cases of corruption is also a challenge that the public face. A local councillor pointed out that:

I recall in 2017 there was a project to construct girls’ hostel at a community secondary school in my ward. The project was marred with a lot of corrupt activities that involved a foreman, council staff and chiefs. I personally went to report the issue to council officials with all the necessary evidence and was promised that the matter will be dealt with immediately. I was very angry to see that the act of corruption and theft was continuing and no action was taken. This resulted in constructing poor quality structure that did not take long before it developed cracks which put the lives of students at danger. From that time, I do not have any interest to alert authorities of any corrupt act because I feel it is just a waste of my time.

The sentiments by the respondent indicated that he was frustrated by the behaviour of the authorities for not reacting on the reported problem. In this case, the respondent felt that his effort was useless and did not yield anything. This scenario is a setback in the fight against corruption because it prevents people from reporting corruption cases. This is also against the provisions of the NACS whose main objective is to promote public participation in fighting corruption.

4.9.5. Failure to protect whistle blowers

A whistle blower is a person who exposes any kind of information or activity that is deemed illegal or unethical in a society or organisation. Whistle blowers need to be protected at all cost to from retaliation by offenders. Protection should be afforded to whistleblowers regardless of their motives in making the disclosure and regardless of whether they report directly to law enforcement, or report internally – first within the company, or to the media, an elected government official or to civil society (OECD, 2017). Whistleblowers must know where, how, and when to report so that their identity as whistleblowers is kept confidential. Hiding details of whistle blowers is one of the ways to protect them.

Respondents cited lack of whistle blower protection as another challenge that people face when they want to take part in the fight against corruption at the council. A staff from the council explained that sometimes they fail to alert council authorities about wrongdoings that other officers are doing because they fear that their identities will be revealed. He angrily said: *“I will never report any corrupt act to anybody because I was nearly beaten by a fellow workmate because someone revealed that I reported him. It is better to keep quiet and see things happening.”*

4.9.6. Financial constraints

Financial constraint was also mentioned by respondents in the focus group discussion as a challenge that prevent them from active participation in the fight against corruption especially when they have an issue to report. The challenge is that people are supposed to use their own money to buy airtime to make calls or to travel to meet council authorities. In most cases people fail to report due to financial challenges. One respondent stated: *“we fail to report corruption cases due to lack of money either to buy airtime or to use it as transport. For instance, we failed to raise money for transport for one person to go to the council to report a corruption act that involved an agricultural officer at the council and our traditional leader.”* The point is also supported by key informant from ACB who pointed out that generally, the majority of Malawians fail to report cases of corruption to the ACB through phone calls, which is probably the simplest method, because they fail to pay for the phone calls. The key informant said: *“Lack of ‘toll free line’ – a phone line that whistle blowers can call without being charged- at ACB has created a burden to people who are willing to report*

corruption and they fail to do so because of financial challenges.”

The point by the ACB key informant is supported by the decrease of reports made through telephone calls from the time the toll-free line stopped working in 2014 as shown in the table 4 below.

Table 4: Number of complaints received through telephone by ACB

Year	Number of complaints received through telephone
2012/2013	364
2014/2015	-
2015/2016	209
2016/2017	117
2017/2018	99

Source: ACB Annual Reports

4.10. Suggestions to promote public participation in fighting corruption

When asked to suggest solutions on the challenges facing the public in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council, respondents gave various suggestions and table 5 below presents a summary of the suggestions.

Table 5: Suggestions to improve public participation

Suggestions from respondents	Frequency
Creation of corruption reporting mechanisms	10
Increased awareness on corruption issues	8
Increased awareness on people's rights	6
Creation of whistleblower protection mechanisms	5
Involvement of public when designing anti-corruption initiatives	4
Authorities should be seen to act against wrong doers	3
No political interference	2

High on the list was the need for the council to establish corruption reporting mechanisms which are user friendly, secure and cost effective. Following this were increased awareness on corruption issues and increased awareness on people's rights. Most of these suggestions are in line with earlier findings that lack of reporting mechanisms, failure by authorities to take action and failure to protect whistle-blowers are some of the challenges that hinder the public from actively taking part in the fight against corruption at the council. Respondents have suggested that the council should

come up programmes or activities that aim at increasing people's awareness on their rights. This is in tandem with the observation by Arnstein (1969) that informing citizens of their rights and responsibilities is an important step towards legitimate citizen participation. Leonardo (2012) also observed that citizens require information about an issue for them to actively take part.

4.11. Chapter summary

The chapter has presented the research findings and discussion of findings. It has presented definitions of the term corruption based on the respondents' view and discussed the causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council. The chapter has also presented factors that contribute to low participation of public in the fight against corruption. The factors include lack of proper reporting mechanisms, absence of whistleblower protection mechanisms and failure by authorities to take action on suspected corrupt officials, among other factors. Finally, the chapter has presented suggestions from respondents that can improve public participation in the fight against corruption.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of findings and the conclusion of the study. It also highlights some limitations of the study, suggestions on how to promote public participation in the fight against corruption and possible areas for further research.

The study has analysed public participation in combating public sector corruption in Malawi with focus at Mchinji District Council. The study used qualitative method of collecting and analysing data and two theories of Principal-Agent and Arnstein Citizen Participation guided the study.

5.2. Summary of research findings

The study has established that corruption is increasing in Malawi in both public and private sectors. This is evidenced by numerous Transparency International and Afrobarometer reports. The local reports on governance and corruption surveys also paint a similar picture.

Local councils are among the public institutions with high prevalence rate of corruption. Numerous strategies have been initiated and implemented in the country to fight the vice, including public participation in anti-corruption efforts. The study has assessed people's understanding of the concept corruption. It has established several factors that prevent people from effectively participating in the fight against corruption.

5.2.1. Participants' understanding of corruption

The study has established that the respondents have a good understanding of the general meaning of corruption. This is borne out from the definitions given by respondents which are almost the same as those commonly used in literature and those given by the key informant from the ACB. However, the study found that the majority of people

understand corruption as an offence committed by public officers and not others. Such an understanding of corruption has an important implication as anti-corruption efforts may tend to focus exclusively on public officers alone and exclude other actors, including those in the private sector. The study has also found that corruption that takes place at Mchinji District Council ranges from petty to grand corruption, and that fraud is the most common form of corruption.

5.2.2. Causes of corruption

The study has found that the causes of corruption fall into two main categories, namely, people-related and system-related causes. One of the causes of corruption at the council is ignorance of citizen's rights to demand accountability from public officers. The failure to hold public officers accountable creates an opportunity for corrupt officials to operate with impunity. Greed is another cause of corruption. There is a tendency among public officers to accumulate wealth for themselves using resources meant for public service. The study has also found weak internal controls, in particular absence of an internal audit section, to be another cause of corruption. Other causes of corruption include the lack of punitive measures, lack of awareness in corruption issues, discretionary powers without accountability, and low salaries.

These causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council are similar to the ones that cause corruption in most African countries, which include absence of accountability, low salaries, professional ethics and legislation and opportunity to abuse power.

5.2.3. Prevalence of corruption

The study used perception index approach to measure the prevalence level of corruption. People perceived corruption as low to very high. Overall the study has found that the prevalence level of corruption is medium.

5.2.4. Observation and reporting of corruption

In terms of observing corruption taking place, the study has found that the majority of the respondents have observed corruption in the past four years. This indicates the existence of corruption at the council. Although the majority of people indicate having observed corruption, the majority did not report corruption to relevant authorities after observing it.

Failure to report corruption is attributed mainly to the lack of proper reporting mechanisms. This has an implication in the fight against corruption. The anti-corruption agencies cannot be provided with tips to facilitate investigation of corrupt acts. Most potential corrupt practices are uncovered when people speak up (Transparency International, 2015).

5.2.5. Demand for accountability and transparency from public officers

On demanding accountability from public officers, the study has found that people do not hold public officers or people in positions of influence accountable for their actions. The study has established that ignorance on people's rights to demand accountability and fear to confront public officers are the reasons for the public's failure to demand accountability from their leaders. Citizens feel that demanding accountability and transparency from public officers is a crime and against the law. However, respondents also indicated that there are some people who knew that they have a right to demand accountability from public officers but they choose to remain silent just because of fear of consequences from their senior officers.

5.2.6. Public desire to fight corruption

Findings indicate that people have a desire to fight corruption although they are somehow frustrated by the manner in which corruption issues are being handled, particularly the failure by authorities to take action on people suspected to have acted corruptly. The public desire to fight corruption is an opportunity for authorities and anti-corruption agencies to engage the public and lobby for their support in the fight against corruption. As a matter of tapping such support, authorities must demonstrate impartiality when dealing with corruption so that people are able to report corruption in return. This can help to achieve the objective of NACS, which is to promote public participation in combating corruption. The frustration and dissatisfaction which the respondents indicated, therefore, is a signal to authorities and anti-corruption agencies that they need to create a conducive environment that will enable the public to take part in the fight against corruption.

5.2.7. Initiatives to promote public participation

On initiatives to promote participation, the study has found that the council has structures that promote public participation. These structures include the integrity committee, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and partnership with VDCs and ADCs.

The study has further revealed that people welcomed the integrity committee initiative but had reservations on the appointment of committee members, which was done without consulting staff. This raised the suspicion that members were appointed to protect the interests of authorities rather than to spearhead the fight against corruption at the council. This, therefore, shows that lack of consultations on appointment of integrity committee members lead to ineffective implementation of anti-corruption initiatives in public institutions.

5.2.8. Challenges facing the public to participate in the fight against corruption

The study also aimed at analysing challenges that the public face in their participation in the fight against corruption. The study has found that lack of reporting mechanisms, lack of knowledge in corruption issues and failure by authorities to take action are the most common challenges. The other challenges include harassment by suspected offenders, lack of whistle-blower protection mechanisms and financial constraints.

5.2.9. Level of participation

The study has revealed that the level of public participation in the fight against corruption is low. The low level of public participation is due to a number of factors which include financial constraints, loss of trust to authorities and institutional failures such as failure by the council to put in place mechanisms to create a conducive environment for public participation.

5.2.10. Suggestion to improve public participation

The study has found that the creation of corruption reporting mechanisms, increased awareness on corruption issues, increased awareness on people's rights and creation of whistle-blower protection mechanisms can help to improve public participation in the fight against corruption.

Specifically, creation of corruption reporting mechanisms would create an avenue where people can alert authorities about any suspected corrupt act. Increased awareness on corruption issues can help people to easily identify a corrupt act and eventually report. Lastly, increased awareness on people's rights can make people become aware of their rights and understand their roles in the fight against corruption such as demanding accountability from public officers.

5.3. Conclusion

From the findings, the study concludes that public participation in the fight against corruption is low. This is due to financial constraints, and system and people related factors. The low participation of the public is a challenge which will make the war against corruption difficult. There is need, therefore, for institutions to create a conducive environment to enable people participate effectively in the fight against corruption.

5.4. Areas for further research

The study focused on analyzing public participation in the fight against corruption in the public sector. However, corruption does not take place in the public sector alone. Corruption also takes place in the private sector. One of the findings in this study is the low participation of the general public in fight against corruption in the public sector. One of the reasons is that people do not care about safeguarding public money from being abused.

Further research needs to be done to analyse participation of the public in the fight against corruption in the private sector to determine if the findings will be similar with those found in the public sector particularly at Mchinji District Council. This will help to come up with a complete picture of public participation in the fight against corruption in both public and private sectors.

REFERENCES

- Ackerman, S.R and Palifka, B.J. (2016). *Corruption and government. Causes, consequences and reform* (2nd edition). Cambridge University Press.
- African Union (2003). African Union Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption.
- Alkayed, Z and Jordan, A. (2011). *Engaging citizens to counter corruption for better public service delivery and achievement of the Millenium Development Goals*. Morocco.
- André, P., Martin, P and Lanmafankpotin, G. (2012). Citizen Participation. In L. Côté and J.F. Savard (eds.), *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Public Administration*, [online], www.dictionnaire.enap.ca
- Anker, M. (2016). Public participation in promoting integrity and eradicating corruption. Retrieved from <https://dhr.gov.in/publiv-participation-promoting-integrity-and-eradicating-corruption> on 12/10/2019.
- Arnstein, S.R. (1969). A Ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 35(4), 216-224.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *Conducting qualitative field research*. In *The practice of social research* (11th ed.). U.S.A.: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Barney, W. (2017). Geographies of African Corruption. *PSU Research Review*, 1 (1), 20-38. [Doi.org/10.1108/PRR-12-2016-00R](https://doi.org/10.1108/PRR-12-2016-00R)
- Basheka, B. C. (2009). Public Procurement Corruption and its Implications on Effective Service Delivery in Uganda: An Empirical Study. *International Journal of Procurement Management*. 2 (4), 415-440.

- Bhargava, V. (2005). The Cancer of corruption. World Bank global issues seminar series. Retrieved from www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance/pubs/govmatters3.htm on 5/9/2019.
- Bhargava, V., Sandilya, I., Varghese, A., and Poovaiah, H. (2013). India Country Report: *Citizens Fighting corruption*: Public Affairs Centre.
- Bhutan Anti-Corruption Commission (2016). *Minimising corruption through inculcating moral values*. Retrieved from <https://www.acc.org.bt?q=mode/392>. on 30/05/2019.
- Booth, D., Cammack, D., Harrigan, J., Kanyongolo, E., and Ngwira, N (2006). Drivers of Change and Development in Malawi. Working Paper, 261.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byrne, E. (2009). Definitions and types of corruption. Retrieved from <http://elaine.iw/2009/07/31/definitions-and-types-of-corruption/> on 02/06/2019.
- Chinsinga, B., Dulani, B., Mvula, P. and Chunga, J. (2014). *Governance and Corruption Survey Report*. Zomba. University of Malawi.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. 4th edition. SAGE Publication Inc. USA
- Cummings, T.G. and Worley, C.G. (2009). *Organization Development & Change*. 9th edition. South-Western Cengage Learning, USA.
- D'souza, J. (2015). Greed: Crises, Causes, and Solutions. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*. 5, (7), 1. Retrieved from http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_5_No_7_July_2015/1.pdf

- Dahl, A. (2016). Corruption, morality and religion. *International Environmental Forum*, 22; 43.
- DFID (2015). *Why Corruption Matters: Understanding causes, effects and how to address them. Evidence Paper on Corruption*. United Kingdom. DFID
- Doig, A. and Riley, S. (1998). *Corruption and anti-corruption strategies: Issues and case studies from developing countries*. United Nations Development Programme.
- Dorminey, J., Fleming, A., Kranacher, M and Riley, R. (2010). *The CPA Journal*, 80(7),17
- Dulani, B., Jamu, E.,Tengatenga, J and Chunga, M. (2019). *The state of corruption in Malawi,2013-2018*. Unpublished paper.
- European Committee on Local and Regional Democracy (2008)
- Fjeldstad, O. Andvig, J., Amundsen, I., Sissener, T. and Søreide, T (2000). *Research on Corruption. A Policy oriented Survey*. Chr. Michelsen Institute & Norwegian Institute of International Affairs.
- Forson, J (2016). Causes of corruption: Evidence from sub-Saharan Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*. 19(4), 17. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v19i4.1530>
- Government of Malawi (2009). *The National Anti-Corruption Strategy*. Zomba. Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs.
- Hanson, S. (2009). Corruption in Sub-Sahara Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.cfr.org/backgrounders/corruption-sub-saharan-africa> on 30/05/2019.
- Holdar, G and Zakharchenko, O. (2002). *Citizen participation handbook: People's Voice Project International Centre for Policy Studies*.

- Hope, K. (2000). Corruption and Development in Africa. In Hope K.R, Chikulo, B.C. (eds). *Corruption and Development in Africa*. Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Malawi National Anti-Corruption Day (2012). *Malawi National Anti-Corruption Day Speeches*, 9th December, 2012, Malawi. Retrieved from <http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/presscenter/speeches/2012/12/09/helen-clark-international-anti-corruption-day-.html> on 18/01/2019.
- Hussein, M. (2005). Combating Corruption in Malawi: An assessment of the enforcing mechanisms. *African Security Review*, 14(4), 91-101, DOI: 10.1080/10246029.2005.9627593.
- Huther, J and Shar, A (2000). *Anti-Corruption Policies and Programmes. Policy Research Working Paper No. 2501*. World Bank, Washington DC. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/19753> License: CC BY 3.0 IGO
- Jones, D (2017). Combating Corruption in Botswana: Lessons for Policy makers. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, (6)(3). Doi:10.1108/AEDS-03-2017-0029.
- Khan, M. H. (2006). Governance and Anti-Corruption Reforms in Developing Countries: Policies, Evidence and Ways Forward, United Nations. New York & Geneva: G-24
- King, C. S., Feltey, K. M. and Susel, B.O. (1998). The question of participation: Toward Authentic Public Participation in Public Administration. *Public Administration Review*, (58), (4), 317-326.
- Klitgaard, R. (1991). *Controlling Corruption*, USA: University of California Press Ltd, London

- Kumar, K. (1989). *Conducting key informant interviews in Developing countries*. Aid Programme Design & Evaluation Methodology Report no. 13. Retrieved from https://www.participatorymethods.org/sites/participatorymethods.org/files/conducting%20key%20informant%20interviews_kumar.pdf on 10/7/2019
- Kumar, R (2011). *Research Methodology. A step-by-step guide for learners*. 3rd edition. SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Kyambalesa, H (2006). Corruption: Causes, effects and deterrents. *African Insight*, (36)(2), 102-122.
- Larson, L. (2018). Fighting Corruption in Botswana. Centre for Public impact. Retrieved from www.centreforpublicimpact.org on 20/11/20
- Lawal, G. (2007). Corruption and Development in Africa: Challenges for political and economic change. *Humanity & Social Sciences Journal*, (2)(1), 1 – 7.
- Leonardo, J. and Nascimento, R. (2012). The contribution of the public participation to avoid the misuse of public funds: A comparison of Brazil and the United States cases. Retrieved from https://www2.gwu.edu/~ibi/minerva/Spring2012/Jose_Leonardo.pdf
- Li, X. and Liu, Q.(2018). *The role of public participation in the fight against corruption: Experimental evidence on the effects of citizen report on the perception of anti-corruption performance*. Paper presented at XXII IRSPM Annual Conference
- MacMillan, J.H. and Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*.(6th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc : Boston.
- Malawi Government (2004). *Corrupt Practices Act*, Government Print: Zomba
- Malawi Government: Citizen Participation: Malawi National Action Plan 2016-2018.

- Marinetto, M (2003). Who Wants to be an Active Citizen? The Politics and Practice of Community Involvement. *Sociology*, (37) (1),102-120, Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1177/00380038503037001390> on 12/12/2019.
- Marquette, H & Peiffer, C (eds). (2015). Collective Action & Systematic Corruption: A Paper presented at the ECPR Joint Sessions of Workshops, University of Warsaw 29 March -02 April 2015.
- Marshall, C and Rossman, G (1995). *Designing qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Martinez, R. (2014). Overview of corruption in Malawi. Transparency International
- Mashal, A. M. (2011). Corruption and resource allocation distortion for “ESCWA” countries. *International Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, (1)(4), 71-83
- Mauro, P. (2007). *World Bank Researchers and the Study of Corruption*, Spring/Summer, (8)(2), 67-7
- Mbaku, J. M. (2010). *Corruption in Africa: Cause, consequences and clean-ups*. Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Meenu, P. (2015). Importance of people’s participation in good governance. *Internet.J.Appl.Soc. Scie*, (2) (7&8): 236-240.
- Mphendu, U and Holtzhausen, N. (2016). Successful anti-corruption initiatives in Botswana, Singapore and Georgia. *Administratio Publica*, (24)(2), 237-238
- Mtapuri, O. (2016). Corruption and citizen participation: A critical analysis. *Bangladesh e-journal of Sociology*, (13) (1),1-16.
- Myint, U. (2000). Corruption: Causes, consequences and cures. *Asia-Pacific Development Journal*, (7)(2), 120-35.

National Democratic Institute Report (2019)

OECD/DAC (2008). Donor Approaches to Governance Assessment. Paris: OECD

OECD (2010). Active Involvement in the Fight Against Corruption. Retrieved from www.oecd.org/policyanalysis/35144038.pdf on 11/12/20

OECD (2017). The Detection of foreign bribery. The Role of Whistleblowers and Whistleblower Protection. Retrieved from www.oecd.org/corruption/the-detection-of-foreign-bribery.htm on 7/8/2019

Okori, U. (2010). Corruption in Africa south of the sahara: Bureaucratic facilitator or handicap to development. *Journal of Pan African Studies*, (3) (6), 111-128.

Peiffer, C and Marquette, H (2015). Theoretical (mis)understanding? Applying Principal-Agent and Collective Action Theories to the problem of corruption in systematically corrupt countries. Retrieved on www.semantics.org/paper. Doi:10.4324/9781315856865-7 on 12/18/20

Plostajner, Z and Mendes, I (2005). Citizens' participation: How to improve development on local level. Retrieved from <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/kroatien/50250/06.pdf> on 30/05/2019.

Quash, J.S.T. (2015). Different paths to combating corruption: Lessons from Denmark, Finland, Hong Kong, New Zealand and Singapore. *Asian Journal of Political Sciences*. (23) (1)102-110.

Rostam, N., Ansari, M. and Vinejad, M. (2018). Research Centre in Public Administration and Public Services.

Schroth, P. W. (2005). The African Union Convention on Prevention and Combating Corruption. *Journal of African Law*, (49) (1) 24-38

- Sebudubudu, D. (2003). Corruption and its control in Botswana. Botswana notes and records (35), 125-139. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40980345>.
- Shar, A. and Schacter, M. (2004). *Combating corruption: Look before you leap*. Retrieved from www.academia.edu/combating-corruption.
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications
- Singh, A. (2016). How can people play a role in the fight against corruption? Retrieved from <https://www.quora.com/how-can-people-play-a-role-in-the-fight-against-corruption> on 2/4/20
- Sissener, T. and Soreide, T. (2000). Chr. Michelsen Institute & Norwegian Institute of International Affairs.
- Štefan S. (2018). Corruption, Causes and Consequences, Trade and Global Market, Vito Bobek, IntechOpen, DOI: 10.5772/intechopen.72953. Available from: <https://www.intechopen.com/books/trade-and-global-market/corruption-causes-and-consequences>.
- Tanzler, D., Elders, B. and Giannakopoulos, A (2010). Citizen's participation and anti-corruption: The advocacy and legal advice centres of Transparency International and European Union.
- Theyyan, B. M. (2018). Ladder of citizen participation: A critical discussion. *Asian Academic Research Journal of Multidisciplinary*, (2)(7),1-7
- Transparency International (2012). Impact of community monitoring on corruption
- Transparency International (2015). *Empowering citizens against corruption*
- Transparency International (2015). *People and Corruption African Survey*.

Transparency International (2016). *Evidence of citizen engagement impact in promoting good governance and anti-corruption efforts.*

Transparency International (2017). People and Corruption: Citizen's voices from around the World. Global corruption Barometer.

Transparency International (2018). *How to win the fight against corruption in Africa?*

Tumwesigye, M. (2000). Fighting corruption in Uganda: The role of Inspector General of Government. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

UNCAC (2011). *Engaging citizens to counter corruption for better public service delivery and achievement of the Millenium Development Goals.* Fourth Session, Morocco.

UNDP Global Anti-Corruption Initiative (2014-2017), New York, USA.

United Nations (2011). *Engaging citizens to counter corruption for better public service delivery and achievement of the Millenium Development Goals.*

World Bank (2014). *Citizens are key in the fight against corruption.* Retrieved from on 12/06/2018

Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., and Griffin, M. (2010). *Business research methods* (8th ed.). Mason, HO: Cengage Learning.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Guide for key informant interviews

Name and Position: _____

Objective 1: Investigate whether the public at Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption.

1. Explain to me your understanding of a term corruption.
2. How the clientele perceives the concept of corruption?
3. What are the common forms or types of corruption at Mchinji District Council?
4. In your view what could be the causes of corruption at the council?
5. In your own assessment do you think people understand the concept of corruption?
6. In your assessment, how can you rate the level of corruption at the council? (Very high, high, medium, low, very low)

Objective 2: Establish how the public participate in fighting corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1. Does the public take part in activities or programs aimed at fighting corruption at the council?
2. How do the public participate in fighting corruption at the council?
3. How do you engage the public in the fight against corruption at the district council?
4. How can you rate the level of public participation in combating corruption at the council?
(1) Low (2) very low (3) medium (4) high (5) Very high

Objective 3: Analyse initiatives put in place by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in combating corruption.

1. What initiatives does the district council have to enable public take part in combating corruption?
2. In your own assessment, do you think the public is aware of these initiatives?

Objective 4: Investigate challenges that public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1. What issues do you think can prevent people from active participation in fighting corruption in the district?
2. What do you think can be the solutions to the challenges?

Appendix 2: Interview guide questions for Member of Parliaments, Local Councillors, and Chairpersons for ADC and VDC.

Objective 1: Investigate whether the public at Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption.

1. Explain to me your understanding of a term corruption.
2. What common forms or types of corruption are prevalent at the council?
3. What do you think can be the causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council?
4. How can you rate the level of corruption at Mchinji District Council?
(1) Low (2) very low (3) medium (4) high (5) Very high

Objective 2: Establish how the public participate in fighting corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1. Does the public take part in activities or programs aimed at fighting corruption at the council?
2. How do the public participate in fighting corruption at the council?
3. How do you engage the public in the fight against corruption at the district council?
4. Have you ever received any corruption report from the public?
5. In your own assessment, do you think people are aware of their roles in the fight against corruption?
6. How can you rate the level of public participation in combating corruption at the council?
(1) Low (2) very low (3) medium (4) high (5) Very high

Objective 3: Analyse initiatives put in place by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in combating corruption.

1. What initiatives does the district council have to enable public take part in combating corruption?
2. How effective are the initiatives?
3. Are the people aware about these initiatives?

Objective 4: Analyse challenges that public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council

1. What issues do you think can prevent people from active participation in fighting corruption in the district?
2. What do you think can be the solutions to the challenges?

Appendix 3: Interview guide for Council Staff

Present position _____

Number of years in the position _____ How long have you been working with Mchinji District Council?

Objective 1: Investigate whether the public at Mchinji District Council understand the concept of corruption.

1. Explain to me your understanding of a term corruption.
2. What common forms or types of corruption are prevalent at the council?
3. What do you think can be the causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council?
4. How can you rate the level of corruption at Mchinji District Council?
(1) Low (2) very low (3) medium (4) high (5) Very high

Objective 2: Establish how the public participation in fighting corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1. Does staff take part in activities or programs aimed at fighting corruption at the council?
2. How does staff participate in fighting corruption at the council?
3. How can you rate the level of public participation in combating corruption at the council?
(1) Low (2) very low (3) medium (4) high (5) Very high

Objective 3: Analyse initiatives put in place by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in combating corruption.

1. What initiatives does the district council have to enable staff take part in fighting corruption?
2. Are the initiatives effective?

Objective 4: Analyse challenges that public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council

1. What issues do you think can prevent people from active participation in fighting corruption at the council?
2. What do you think can be the solutions to the challenges?

Appendix 4: Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussion.

Name of Village-----

Number of people-----

Objective 1: Investigate whether people understand the concept of corruption

1. How can you define corruption in your own words?
2. Can you give examples of acts that you think are corruption?
3. What do you think can be the causes of corruption at Mchinji District Council?

Objective 2: Establish how the public participate in fighting corruption at Mchinji District Council.

1. Have you ever participated in any anti-corruption activity within the district before? 1(b) If yes, what activity (ies) were you involved in? 1(c) How did you participate? 1(d) If no, why?
- 2(a). Have you ever joined any anti-corruption group/club if any exists in your area or at your workplace?
- 2 (b) Suppose there is no anti-corruption group/club in your area / workplace and there are plans to establish one, can you join that group or support it?
- 2(c) Have you ever reported any form of corruption which you witnessed or involved in?
- 2 (d) If yes, where did you report and how?
- 2 (e) If no, why didn't you report?
3. Does the council promote public participation in combating corruption? If yes what activities does the council do to promote participation?

Objective 3: Analyse initiatives put in place by Mchinji District Council to promote public participation in combating corruption.

1. Do you know any initiative that the council has put in place to promote public participation in fighting corruption?

Objective 4: Analyse challenges that public face in the fight against corruption at Mchinji District Council

1. What issues do you think can prevent people from active participation in fighting corruption in the district?
2. What do you think can be the solutions to the challenges?

Appendix 5: Letter of introduction from College



Principal
Prof. Richard Tumbulali, BA (Pub Admin), BPA (Hons), MPA, Ph.D
Univ Ref: PA/17/1
Your Ref:

CHANCELLOR COLLEGE
P.O. Box 186, Zomba, Malawi
Telephone: (08) 254 222
Fax: (08) 254 222
Email: principal@cc.mw

Department of Political and Administrative Studies

10th June 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: MR. GEORGE MAKANDE (MA/PAM/17/17)

The bearer of this letter is **Mr. George Makande**. He is a student in Master of Public Administration and Management programme in the Department of Political and Administrative Studies at Chancellor College.

Our students are required to write a dissertation in order to complete their master's programme. Therefore, Mr. George Makande intends to carry out a data gathering exercise for this purpose in your office.

Any assistance rendered to him in the course of this exercise will be highly appreciated. Let me also point out that the information gathered will be treated as confidential and purely for academic purposes.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'M. Chasukwa'.

M. Chasukwa, PhD
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

MCh



Appendix 6: Letter of introduction from Mchinji District Commissioner

Tel: 01 242 200
Fax:
E-Mail mchinjdc@gmail.com



Mchinji District council
Private Bag 1
Mchinji
MALAWI

*All correspondence should be made to
The District Commissioner*

17th July, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN MCHINJI

The bearer of this letter is George Makande a student pursuing MA in Public Administration and Management with the University of Malawi- Chancellor College.

As part of his studies he is required to conduct a research on a particular issue of interest. In view of this, he is assessing public participation in combating corruption in Public sector and Mchinji District Council is his case study. As a matter of collecting information, he will be interviewing some people on the same.

The information he is looking for is purely for academic purpose. Please assist him.

Yours Faithfully,


ROSEMARY NAWASHA
DISTRICT COMMISSIONER