BINDURA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE EDUCATION

FACULTY OF COMMERCE

DEPARTMENT OF INTELLIGENCE AND SECURITY STUDIES

PUBLIC PERSPECTIVES ON THE IMPACT OF CORRUPTION ON NATIONAL SECURITY. A SURVEY OF CHITUNGWIZA

BY

JOSEPH MAKUWERERE

(B201341B)

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE BACHELOR OF COMMERCE (HONOURS) DEGREE IN FINANCIAL INTELLIGENCE AT BINDURA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE EDUCATION.

JUNE 2024

APPROVAL FORM

Title: Public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security. A survey of Chitungwiza

To be completed by the student

I certify that this dissertation meets the preparation guidelines as presented in the Faculty guidelines and instructions for typing dissertations.

J. MAKWERERE   25   9   24

..../........../..........

(Signature of student)   Date

To be completed by the supervisor

This dissertation is suitable for submission to the Faculty.

This dissertation has been checked for conformity with the Faculty guidelines.

                                                     6 June 2024

..../........../..........

(Signature of Supervisor)   Date

To be completed by the department chairperson

I certify to the best of my knowledge that the required procedures have been followed and the preparation criteria has been met for this dissertation.

....25....../.......9.../......24....

(Signature of Supervisor)   Date

RELEASE FORM

STUDENT NAME: JOSEPH MAKUWERERE

DISSERTATION TITLE: Public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national   security. A survey of Chitungwiza

DEGREE TITLE: Bachelor of Commerce (Honours) degree in Financial Intelligence

YEAR GRANTED: 2024

Permission is hereby given to the Bindura University of Science Education Library to produce single copy of this dissertation and to lend or sell such copy for private, scholarly or scientific research purpose. Only the author reserves the other publication rights and; neither the dissertation nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

SIGNED   ....

PERMANENT ADDRESS: Epworth High School

                              P.O.BOX EP7

                              EPWORTH

                              HARARE

TELEPHONE: +263 784 568 461/ +263 714 606 778

EMAIL: josephmmakuwerere@gmail.com

DATE: ..../…………../.............................

DEDICATION FORM

MOM AND DAD

To my beloved father and mother, whose unwavering love and support have shaped me into the person I am today, I dedicate this heartfelt gratitude. Your guidance, sacrifices, and endless encouragement have been the cornerstone of my journey. To my relatives, whose presence has brought joy and warmth to my life, I extend my deepest appreciation for being a part of my story. To my supervisor, Dr. Mugari, your mentorship and wisdom have been invaluable in shaping my professional growth, and I am sincerely grateful for your guidance. And to the Almighty God, whose grace and blessings have illuminated my path, I dedicate my deepest reverence and gratitude for the countless blessings bestowed upon me.

ABSTRACT

Corruption is a persistent problem that has evolved over time, taking on various forms such as bribery, and extortion. These malignant practices are not only increasingly prevalent in the modern world but also have dire consequences that threaten national security. Therefore, the researcher was motivated to undertake this investigation into the blight of corruption. The study focused on public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security, specifically in Chitungwiza. The key objectives of the study were to describe the manifestation of corruption in Chitungwiza, identify the causes of corruption in the area, determine the impacts of corruption on national security, and recommend appropriate measures to mitigate these impacts. The research utilized a descriptive case study with a sample size of 115 respondents, employing questionnaires and interviews as the main data collection instruments. The sampling methods included stratified random sampling and purposive sampling to select respondents. Data analysis was conducted using Microsoft Excel 2013 and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21, with the results presented using tables. The study found that bribery, nepotism, and extortion were major forms of corruption in Chitungwiza, with poverty and inequality, political patronage, and unfair or inadequate salaries identified as major causes. The major impacts of corruption were poor service delivery and eroded trust, and the recommended solutions included strengthening transparency and accountability, as well as increasing public sector salaries. The researcher also recommended strengthening anti-corruption agencies, legal frameworks, promoting citizen participation, electronic government procurement, undercover intelligence for detection, implementing whistle-blower protection, and establishing strong internal control mechanisms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my research supervisor, Dr. Mugari, for his unwavering guidance, patience, and invaluable input throughout the journey of completing this dissertation. I am truly grateful for the support and wisdom you have shared with me.

Additionally, I extend my heartfelt appreciation to my internship workmates and managers, Ms. Chikuni, Mr. Ruramai, and Mr. Dzoro, for their mentorship, encouragement, and the opportunity to learn and grow in a professional setting. I am also immensely thankful to the Chitungwiza residents who participated in the research survey, your contribution has been instrumental in shaping the outcomes of this work.

To the Makuwerere family, as well as my dear friends Brian, Kelvin, and Simba, your unwavering support, understanding, and encouragement have been a source of strength throughout this academic journey. Thank you for being an integral part of this significant accomplishment.

Table of contents

List of tables

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1Background of the study.

Corruption is one of the most serious challenges to sustainable development not only across Africa but the world at large (Ahen, 2022). Corruption hinders economic development and it tends to slow down the democratic process and stability in a country. The money gained from corruption is not used to improve the living standards of the beneficiaries, instead it is used for private gain. Combating corruption is a major concern because corruption is found in all African nations, that is, from the office of the presidents to the smallest administration units of government, hence the need to investigate public perspective on the impact of corruption on national security (Musila,2020). Africa was ranked as one of the continents that have been swimming in the ocean of corruption with local authorities being at the forefront as they are associated with ghost worker syndrome (Bright, 2021).About 43% of Africans are living in poverty while over US$50 billion worth of stolen assets flow out of Africa every year (Abdulai, 2023). The lack of development in Africa stems from extensive corruption schemes which scare off potential investors, hence discouraging development. Embezzled and misappropriated funds account for 25% loss of development resources in Africa (Zinyama, 2021).

Corruption is a very complex global phenomenon that varies from one society to another. Corruption represents a huge problem for developing countries such as Zimbabwe (Chisi, 2020). Corruption thrives in countries that are still lagging behind in terms of development, in this case, Zimbabwe is still facing security challenges in all its facets of national security, poverty, lack of empowerment, and fear stand out as the most notable among them all (Muchena, 2019).. This can be attributed to the fact that national security and all its facets has not been achieved yet in the country.

In developing countries, the capabilities of a nation to achieve human security are diminished and this is because of the continuity of political and security instability and the lagging development indicators (Kelkusa, 2023). Zimbabwe has lagging development indicators because it is still suffering from economic meltdown as a result of the spread of corruption, absence of transparency and human security which are fundamental components for democracy (Mokoena, 2020). Zimbabwe has experienced widespread corruption in all sectors of the economy.In the post 1990 period, there have been many allegations of corruption in areas such as, public procurement, land acquisition, housing for civil servants, public works, social welfare, mining, health and education sectors. Corruption increases poverty and creates exclusion of marginalized communities and this emanates from unfair distribution of public resources. Corruption is fast becoming a way of life as it has become deep-rooted in institutions that people now accept it as their means of survival.

The research aims to analyse the public perspective on the impact of corruption and determine whether or not the public understands the connection between corruption and national security. Corruption practices are prevalent in various aspects of society, including politics, economy, social interactions, culture, and the environment, all of which have implications on national security. By investigating the public's awareness of this relationship, the study will provide insights into the extent of the impact of corruption in the country. The aim of the research was to determine the public perspectives on the impacts of corruption.

1.2 Statement of the problem.

Corruption in Zimbabwe has remained a pressing issue, with recent reports highlighting the alarming extent of corrupt practices across various sectors, exacerbating the economic and social challenges faced by the country (Chisi, 2020). One of the most concerning developments is the proliferation of corruption during the COVID-19 pandemic. Reports emerged of corrupt practices in the procurement and distribution of medical supplies, including personal protective equipment (PPE) and testing kits (Cuadrado, 2022). These corrupt activities not only compromised the effectiveness of the pandemic response but also undermined public trust in the government's ability to prioritize public health and ensure transparency in public procurement (Hope, 2023).Furthermore, corruption allegations have been made against institutions

responsible for law enforcement and public safety. The Vehicle Inspection Department (VID), police, local authorities, and border officials have all come under scrutiny for engaging in corrupt practices. Recent reports have exposed cases of bribery, extortion, and favouritism, compromising road safety, the delivery of public services, and border control mechanisms (Zinyama, 2021). These corrupt activities contribute to a sense of insecurity, erode public confidence in law enforcement agencies, and hinder economic growth by creating an environment conducive to illicit activities.

The prevalence of corruption in these sectors severely impacts the lives of ordinary Zimbabweans. It creates a system where those with connections or resources can bypass regulations and receive preferential treatment, perpetuating inequality and hindering socio-economic progress (Hudson, Gonzalez-Gomez and Claasen, 2022). The diversion of resources and public funds through corrupt practices also deprives the country of vital resources necessary for development, service delivery, and poverty reduction (Basavarajappa, 2020). Given these examples of corruption, it is imperative to address the systemic weaknesses that allow corrupt practices to persist. Strengthening accountability mechanisms, enforcing existing anti-corruption laws, improving transparency in public procurement processes, and promoting a culture of integrity are crucial in combating corruption in the country. It is to the mentioned problem that the researcher aimed to generate evidence on the forms, causes, impacts, and potential solutions to corruption, in order to inform effective policy interventions and strengthen institutional frameworks aimed at promoting transparency, accountability, and good governance.

1.3 Research objectives.

The objective of the study was to understand public perspectives on the impacts of corruption. It also sought to prepare counter measures or solutions to corruption. To accomplish this, the study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To describe the manifestation of corruption in Chitungwiza.

2. To identify the causes of corruption in Chitungwiza.

3. To determine the impacts of corruption on national security in Chitungwiza.

4. To recommend appropriate measures to mitigate the impacts of corruption on national security.

1.4 Research questions.

Theresearcher intended to address the following questions:

1. In what ways does corruption reveal itself in Chitungwiza?

2. What are the causes of corruption in Chitungwiza?

3. To what extent does corruption compromise national security?

4. What appropriate measures can be put in place to mitigate the impacts of corruption on national security?

1.5 Justification of the study.

The study was beneficial to several stakeholders, including the student, the university, the localcommunity, and the nation. These stakeholders were educated on the forms, causes, impacts and measures to curb corruption.

1.5.1. To the student.

For the student who undertook the research, it provided a valuable opportunity to enhance academic and research skills. The student gained practical experience in designing and executing a research project, collecting and analyzing data, and drawing meaningful conclusions. This research endeavor deepened the student's understanding of the complex issue ofcorruption and its impacts on society.

1.5.2. To the university (Bindura University of Science Education).

The study highlighted the institution's commitment to promoting academic excellence and community engagement. By undertaking such research projects, the university demonstrates its dedication to producing graduates who are equipped to tackle real-world challenges. Additionally, the findings of the study and its potential recommendations could serve as valuable input for the university's curriculum development and its engagement with local communities and governmental bodies to address issues of corruption and governance.

1.5.3. To the local community.

Within the local community in Chitungwiza, the study was essential in shedding light on the public's perspectives on corruption and its effects. By examining the community's viewpoints and experiences, the research aimed to expose the negative consequences of corruption on various aspects of their lives, such as service delivery, livelihoods, and trust in institutions. This awareness empowered community members to voice their concerns, demand accountability, and potentially drive change within their local governance structures.

1.5.4. To the nation.

On a broader scale, the study was of significance for the nation of Zimbabwe. Corruption remains a pervasive issue that hinders the country's development and progress. By documenting and analyzing the public's perceptions on the impacts of corruption, the research contributed to a better understanding of the systemic challenges faced by the nation. This knowledge could inform policymakers and stakeholders in formulating evidence-based strategies to combat corruption, strengthen governance, and promote socio-economic development for the benefit of all citizens

1.6 Assumptions.

This study was premised on the following assumptions:

- There is high level of corruption in Zimbabwe.

- Corruption is negatively impacting on national security.

- Corruption undermines democracy and human rights.

1.7 Delimitations of the study.

The study investigated the public perspectives on the impacts of corruption. The study was restricted to Chitungwiza from November 2023 to February 2024. It focused on understanding the forms, causes, effects, and solutions to reduce corruption. The sample size was 115 respondents. Given the residence of the researcher, a sample of the study was taken from Chitungwiza community.

1.8 Limitations of the study.

One limitation was maintaining privacy and confidentiality of participants' information. To address this limitation, strict protocols were followed throughout the research process. Participants' identities were anonymized, and all data collected was stored securely. Only authorized individuals had access to the data, ensuring that participants' privacy and confidentiality were preserved.

Another limitation was the sensitive nature of the study topic, as corruption is a highly sensitive issue. To overcome this limitation, ethical considerations were given priority. Participants were fully informed about the purpose and objectives of the study, and their consent was obtained. The research was conducted in an unbiased and impartial manner, ensuring the dignity and respect of the participants.

1.9 Chapter Summary.

The background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, justification of the study, assumptions of the study, delimitations of the study, and limitations of the study, where all explained in chapterone.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction.

This chapter examined the intricate relationship between corruption and national security. The researcher explored the conceptual framework for studying corruption, examined the different forms and causes of corruption, and analyzed its impact on national security. By understanding the complexities of corruption and its detrimental effects, effective strategies to combat this pervasive problem were developed. Additionally, the researcher gathered and examined past researches available, summarized them and found research gaps available which then were also reasons to facilitate the study

2.1 Conceptual framework.

This section explained the key concepts and variables of the study such as, national security, and its dimensions such as food security, information security, economic security, and military security. It also explained the concepts of corruption, such as causes, impacts and its mitigation.

2.2 The concept of national security.

National security refers to the protection of a state's sovereignty, territorial integrity, and political independence, as well as the promotion of its economic and social well-being (Art et al, 2023). According to Obama, (2010), national security involves the protection and preservation of a nation's core values, interests, and objectives, including its physical and territorial integrity, political stability, economic strength, social cohesion, and environmental sustainability. National security encompasses the capability of a state to defend itself against external threats, maintain its sovereignty and territorial integrity, and safeguard the well-being of its citizens (Paleri, 2022).

National security is also described as the protection and preservation of a nation's vital interests, which may include its physical security, economic stability, political autonomy, and societal values (Alguliyev et al, 2021). It involves assessing and balancing the risks and challenges posed by external and internal threats, and developing appropriate strategies and capabilities to mitigate them. National security encompassed various dimensions such as, military security, political security, food security, societal security, information security, and economic security.

2.3 Conceptualising corruption.

According to Sayeed, (2023), corruption is defined as the abuse of entrusted power for private benefit. This definition highlights the misuse of power and authority for personal gain, focusing on the breach of trust and the negative impact on the public interest. Basavarajappa, (2020), defined corruption as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain, through bribery, embezzlement, and nepotism. This definition includes specific examples of corrupt practices such as bribery, embezzlement, and nepotism, emphasizing the exploitation of power for personal benefit.The United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC), (2023), defined corruption as the abuse of power or position for private gain. This definition captures the misuse of power and authority for personal benefit, highlighting that corruption can occur in various contexts, including public and private sectors. UNCAC emphasizes the importance of preventing, detecting, and combating corruption through international cooperation and the promotion of integrity, accountability, and transparency in public and private institutions. One thing all these definitions have in common is that corruption is the abuse or misuse of power for private gain.

2.3.1 Manifestations of corruption.

The following were the main manifestations of corruption that were discussed in more detail below; bribery, nepotism, corruption in the judicial system, corruption in land allocation, conflict of interest, andcorruption at border entry points.

2.3.1.1 Bribery.

According to Lewis et al, (2023), bribery is the act of giving, receiving, or soliciting something of value, such as money, gifts, favours, or services, with the intention to

influence the actions or decisions of an individual in a position of power or authority. Bribery by police, Vehicle Inspection Department (VID), and other government institutions is a form of corruption that involves these officials receiving bribes to bypass regulations, overlook offenses, or provide preferential treatment (Onyango, 2022). For example, police officers may accept bribes to avoid issuing traffic tickets or to release individuals detained for criminal charges. Similarly, VID officers may accept bribes to pass unfit vehicles during inspections. Such bribery undermines the rule of law, erodes public trust, and leads to widespread impunity (Singh, 2022).

Bribery in local authorities refers to instances where employees or officials who work in local government institutions, such as municipalities or city councils, accept bribes in exchange for providing illegal benefits or preferential treatment (Meza, and Perez-Chiques., 2021). Atikasari et al, (2020) argued that, bribery in businesses occurs when individuals within private companies or industries offer or accept bribes to gain unfair advantages in competition, secure contracts, influence decisions, or bypass regulations. This undermines fair competition, distorts markets, and tarnishes the reputation of the business sector (Button and Knickmeier, 2022).International bribery is referred by Pieth and Soreide, (2023), as to cases where individuals or entities bribe foreign government officials or employees of foreign entities to obtain business opportunities, secure contracts, permits, or gain an advantage in international markets. International bribery violates laws such as the United States Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA) or the UK Bribery Act and undermines fair trade, hampers economic development, and perpetuates corruption across borders (Lady, 2021).

2.3.1.2 Nepotism.

Burhan et al, (2020) highlighted that, nepotism is a common manifestation of corruption that occurs when individuals in positions of power or authority favour their relatives or friends for employment opportunities, promotions, or contracts, based on personal relationships rather than merit or qualifications. For example, a government official appointing their nephew to a lucrative government contract without proper tender processes or qualifications, solely based on their familial connection, is a clear case of nepotism. This practice undermines fairness, and transparency in the recruitment and promotion processes, leading to inefficiency, incompetence, and resentment among qualified candidates who are overlooked because of nepotism (Ashley, 2022).

2.3.1.3 Conflict of interest.

Conflict of interest is another prevalent manifestation of corruption wherein individuals in influential roles have a personal or financial interest that may compromise their objectivity, impartiality, or decision-making. For instance, a public official who is involved in awarding government contracts to a company in which they have a financial interest or ownership can create a conflict of interest (Nourian and Dayarian, 2023). This conflict can lead to biased decision-making, unfair advantages for certain parties, and a distortion of public policy that may not serve the best interests of the public. Such conflicts erode trust in governance, fuel corruption, and undermine the integrity of institutions (David-Barret, 2020).

2.3.1.4 Corruption at border entry points.

Corruption at border entry points is a significant challenge that involves customs officials, immigration officers, and border security personnel engaging in corrupt practices such as soliciting bribes, facilitating smuggling, or providing preferential treatment to certain individuals or companies (Das, 2021). For example, at a border entry point, customs officers may accept bribes to overlook illegal goods being brought into the country without paying necessary tariffs or taxes. This not only results in revenue loss for the government but also enables illicit activities such as drug trafficking or human smuggling to thrive. Corruption at border entry points weakens national security, hampers economic growth, and contributes to a culture of impunity and lawlessness (Kacowicz et al, 2021).

2.3.1.5 Corruption in the judicial system.

According to Someno, (2023), corruption in the judicial system is a grave manifestation of misconduct that undermines the rule of law, erodes public trust in the judiciary, and ultimately hampers access to justice. This type of corruption can take various forms, such as bribery, political interference, nepotism, and favouritism, among others. For instance, judges or court officials accepting bribes to influence court decisions, delay or expedite cases, or manipulate legal proceedings severely distort the administration of justice (Chiltransh, 2021). Furthermore, political influence in judicial appointments or the handling of cases can compromise the independence and impartiality of the

judiciary, resulting in unfair judgments and impunity for powerful individuals or entities (Kemi and Danisi, 2024). Corruption in the judicial system not only violates the rights of individuals seeking justice but also perpetuates a culture of impunity, weakens the credibility of the legal system, and promotes inequality before the law (Caushaj, 2021).

2.3.1.6 Corruption in land allocation.

Agunyai and Amusan, (2023) asserted that, corruption in land allocation poses significant challenges to sustainable development, social cohesion, and equitable access to resources. This form of corruption involves the unlawful or unethical allocation of land for personal gain, often at the expense of public interest and community welfare. This can occur through illegal land grabs, unauthorized land sales, fraudulent documentation, or manipulation of land registries by officials or individuals with vested interests. For example, politicians or public officials may allocate valuable land to themselves or their associates without following proper procedures or compensating rightful owners, leading to land disputes, forced evictions, environmental degradation, and social unrest (Wau et al, 2023). Corruption in land allocation not only deprives communities of their land rights but also fuels inequality, undermines land tenure security, and impedes sustainable land management practices (Mani et al, 2021). To combat corruption in land allocation, it is essential to enforce transparent land policies, strengthen land governance systems, involve local communities in decision-making processes, and hold perpetrators of corrupt practices accountable through legal mechanisms and anti-corruption measures (Azadi,2020). By promoting integrity, accountability, and inclusive land management practices, societies can safeguard public resources, protect vulnerable populations, and ensure equitable access to land for present and future generations (Toumbourou, 2020).

2.3.2 Causes of corruption.

2.3.2.1 Bureaucratic hurdles in obtaining public services.

Mugellini et al, (2021) pointed that, bureaucratic hurdles in obtaining public services can contribute to corruption by creating opportunities for public officials to demand bribes or engage in other corrupt practices. When citizens are faced with complex and time-consuming procedures, arbitrary requirements, delays, or red tape when trying to

access public services, they may be inclined to offer bribes in order to expedite the process (Ang, 2020). This creates a vicious cycle in which corruption becomes normalized as a means to navigate inefficient and cumbersome bureaucratic systems (Ferrarrese, 2021).

2.3.2.2 Economic hardships.

Economic hardships, such as poverty, inequality, and lack of opportunities, can fuel corruption as individuals facing financial struggles may resort to corrupt practices as a means of survival or to improve their economic situation (Adekunle and Olusa, 2021). In environments where basic needs are not met, and there is limited access to livelihood options, some individuals may see corruption as a quick and easy way to gain financial resources or advantages (Devereux, 2021). Economic hardships can also contribute to a culture of tolerance towards corruption, as people may be more willing to turn a blind eye to corrupt activities if they perceive that they stand to benefit personally (Nyandoro, and Hatti, 2023).

2.3.2.3 Political influence.

According to Heywood, (2020), corruption can be fuelled by political influence when politicians or political parties use their power and authority to manipulate or control public resources for their personal gain. This can manifest in the form of bribery, embezzlement, favouritism, or the awarding of contracts and positions based on political connections rather than merit (Nyberg, 2021). When politicians prioritize their own interests over the collective welfare, it undermines the integrity of public institutions and erodes trust in the government (Adam and Fazekas, 2021).

2.3.2.4 Poverty and desperation.

Poverty and desperation can contribute to corruption as individuals who are struggling to meet their basic needs may be more willing to engage in corrupt practices as a means of survival (Usman et al, 2022). When people face extreme poverty, lack of opportunities, or limited access to resources, they may resort to bribery, extortion, or other corrupt acts to gain access to essential services, secure employment, or improve their living conditions (Chiweshe and Mahiya, 2021). Poverty can create a culture of

tolerating corruption, as people may see it as a necessary evil to navigate a system that does not adequately address their needs (Marquette and Peiffer, 2020).

2.3.2.5 Weak or ineffective institutions.

Okafor, Adebisi, and Opara, (2020) argued that corruption thrives in environments where there are weak or ineffective institutions with limited capacity to prevent, detect, and punish corrupt acts. When institutions lack the necessary resources, expertise, and independence to address corruption, perpetrators can act with impunity (Yeh, 2022). Weak institutional capacity can be the result of inadequate legal frameworks, insufficient funding, and lack of transparency, political interference, or limited training and accountability mechanisms. Without strong institutions, corruption becomes deeply entrenched and difficult to eradicate (Okafor et al, 2020).

2.3.2.6 Inadequate rewards and incentives.

When the rewards and incentives for honest and ethical behaviour are inadequate, it can create fertile ground for corruption (Xiaohu et al, 2020). If public officials are not adequately compensated, or they perceive that their lawful activities will not be rewarded or recognized, they may be more prone to engage in corrupt acts to supplement their income or achieve personal gains (Park, Park, and Barry, 2022). Similarly, if there are no clear rewards or positive incentives for honest behaviour, such as promotions, recognition, or career advancements, individuals may feel less motivated to resist corrupt temptations (Park et al, 2022).

2.3.3Impacts of corruption on national security.

2.3.3.1 Compromise the effectiveness and readiness of armed forces.

According to Yasa, (2020), corruption poses a significant threat to military security, as it can compromise the effectiveness and readiness of armed forces. One example is the case of the Nigerian military, where corruption has been rampant for years (Kirk-Green, 2022). Corrupt practices such as the embezzlement of funds meant for equipment procurement and training have severely hampered the military's ability to combat the Boko Haram insurgency effectively (Onuoha eta al, 2023). The lack of proper resources and training due to corruption has resulted in numerous military setbacks and loss of

life, weakening Nigeria's military security and overall defence capabilities (Obiodun et al, 2020).

2.3.3.2 Erode trust in government institutions and undermine the stability of a country.

In terms of political security, corruption can erode trust in government institutions and undermine the stability of a country (Beesley, 2022). A potent example is the corruption scandal involving South Korea's former President Park Geun-hye, who was impeached and sentenced to prison for abusing her power and engaging in corrupt practices (Shin, 2020). The scandal sparked massive protests across the country, highlighting the deep-seated impact of political corruption on a nation's stability and security (Shin,2020). When political leaders prioritize personal gain over the well-being of their citizens, it can lead to social unrest and a breakdown of the political order, threatening political security (Mosler, 2017).

2.3.3.3 Affect food supply.

Corruption in the context of food security can have devastating consequences on a country's ability to ensure a sufficient and stable food supply for its population (Sjah and Zauniri, 2020). For example, in Venezuela, corrupt officials have exploited the country's food distribution system for personal gain, resulting in widespread food shortages and malnutrition among the population (Borras and Mohamed, 2020). The diversion of food aid meant for the needy to the black market or to supporters of the regime has exacerbated the food crisis, leading to social unrest and instability. Corruption in the food sector directly impacts the most vulnerable populations,endangering their food security and overall well-being (Sjah and Zauniri, 2020).

2.3.3.4 Economic losses and inefficiencies.

In the realm of economic security, corruption can undermine fair competition and distort markets, leading to inefficiencies and economic losses (Mazakari and Melnyk, 2023). A prominent example is the federation international football association(FIFA) corruption scandal, where top officials of the international soccer governing body were implicated in bribery schemes and corrupt practices (Philippou, 2022). The widespread

corruption within FIFA not only tarnished the organization's reputation but also had economic consequences, affecting sponsorships, revenue streams, and the integrity of the sport (Junghagen and Aurvandil 2020). Such corruption can deter investment and hinder economic growth in the sports industry, impacting the economic security of countries and regions that depend on the sports sector for Income and employment opportunities (Kihl and Ordway, 2022).

2.3.3.5 Compromise classified information and sensitive data.

Corruption in the domain of information security can jeopardize national security by compromising classified information and sensitive data (Shammugam andSamy, 2021). A pertinent case is the hacking scandal involving the Russian government's interference in the 2016 United States presidential election (McMasters, 2020). Russian operatives used cyber-attacks and disinformation campaigns to influence the election outcome, exploiting vulnerabilities in the information systems of political organizations and individuals (Fowler, 2021). The breach of confidential data and manipulation of information had far-reaching implications, raising concerns about the integrity of democratic processes and the protection of national security interests. Corruption in the form of cyber-attacks and information manipulation can undermine public trust, destabilize governments, and threaten the security of nations in the digital age (Holovkin and Tavozhanskyi, 2021). This impact of corruption and other mentioned in the above were among the factors that led to the study on public perspectives on impacts of corruption.

2.3.4 Dealing with corruption.

2.3.4.1 Enacting independent whistleblowers.

According to Gibbs, (2020), whistle-blower protection laws are crucial in encouraging individuals to come forward and report corruption without fearing retaliation. Independent whistleblower protection agencies or mechanisms can be established to receive and investigate reports of corruption (Onyango, 2021). These agencies should be empowered to protect the identity of whistleblowers, ensure confidentiality, and provide legal and procedural safeguards to prevent victimization. Strict laws against victimizing whistleblowers should also be enacted to further strengthen protection (Saya, 2020).

2.3.4.2 Enhancing International Cooperation.

International cooperation is crucial in combating corruption, as it involves cross-border collaboration and coordination. This includes, sharing best practices and strategies for preventing and detecting corruption, joint investigations and prosecutions of cross-border corruption cases, and recovery of stolen assets and repatriation to affected countries (UNCAC, 2023.

2.3.4 .3Use of technology and innovation.

Mackey and Cuomo, (2020), view that, technology can be leveraged to create transparency and accountability in the fight against corruption. Electronic platforms can be established to automate and streamline government processes, reducing opportunities for corruption. For example, the implementation of e-governance systems can minimize human interaction in administrative processes and provide an auditable trail of transactions, making it difficult to manipulate or bribe officials (Santiso, 2022). Similarly, the use of technology in procurement processes, such as e-procurement systems, can minimize the scope for corruption by ensuring transparency, fairness, and competition (Hochstetter et al, 2023).

2.3.4.4 Empowering Citizens and Civil Society.

Empowering citizens and civil society organizations is vital for promoting transparency and holding governments and businesses accountable. This includes, encouraging active participation in monitoring and reporting corruption, providing platforms for citizens to voice concerns and engage in decision-making, and supporting whistle-blower protection mechanisms (Sayeed, 2023).

2.3.4 .5Monitoring and evaluating anti-corruption efforts.

Robust monitoring and evaluation systems are essential to assess the effectiveness of anti-corruption measures (David-Barrett et al, 2020). According to Vian, (2020), independent oversight bodies or agencies can be established to monitor the implementation of anti-corruption measures, investigate allegations of corruption, and assess their outcomes. Regular audits and evaluations of anti-corruption efforts can help identify gaps, flaws, and areas for improvement. This feedback loop allows for

adjustments to strategies and ensures accountability in the fight against corruption (McDevitt, 2022).

2.3.4.6 Strengthening Governance and Transparency.

Establishing robust legal frameworks, promoting transparency and accountability, and empowering oversight institutions can deter corruption. This involves, implementing anti-corruption laws and regulations, enhancing transparency in public decision-making and financial management, and strengthening oversight bodies such as audit agencies and anti-corruption commissions (Sayeed, 2023).

2.4 Theoretical framework.

According to Kivunja, (2018), theoretical framework is a collection of related concepts, ideas, and theories that are used to understand, analyse, and explain a phenomenon.Theoretical framework help to understand why crime happen and how to stop it, which is crucial for tackling crime in society. The rational choice theory and routine activities theory wereexplored in this chapter.

2.4.1 The Rational Choice Theory.

The Rational Choice Theory is a theoretical framework propounded by Cornish and Clarke (1986), it can be used to understand and explain individuals' decision-making process in the context of corruption. According to this theory, individuals make rational choices based on their expectations of the costs and benefits associated with their actions (Herfeld, 2022).

Rational Choice Theory suggests that individuals engage in corrupt acts if they perceive that the benefits outweigh the potential costs. For example, a public official may accept a bribe if they believe that the monetary gain from the bribe is worth the risk of being caught and facing legal consequences (Modesto and Pilati, 2020).

The theory also acknowledges that individuals have different preferences and goals, and their decisions may vary based on personal circumstances and situational factors. For instance, an individual from a low-income background may be more likely to engage in corruption as a means of survival or improving their financial status whereas, an

individual from high income background engage in corruption to acquire leisure goods such as Rolls Royce cars and private jets (Marquette and Peiffer, 2020).

From different perspectives on the impacts of corruption, the Rational Choice Theory can provide insights regarding the motivations and decision-making processes of both the corrupt individuals and those affected by corruption (Manara et al, 2023). It helps understand why some individuals are more susceptible to engaging in corrupt acts, while others may resist or report corruption.

Overall, the Rational Choice Theory was useful in the study, public perspectives on the impacts of corruption because it help to know set of behaviour that causes corruption and hence this help to device means to prevent or reduce the impacts of corruption

2.4.2 Routine ActivitiesTheory.

Routine Activity Theory is a criminological perspective that can be applied to understand the impacts of corruption. Developed by Cohen and Felson, (1979), this theory asserts that crime occurs when three main elements come together which are, motivated offenders, suitable targets, and absence of capable guardians (Cohen and Felson, 2015). When these elements intersect in a given space and time, criminal acts are more likely to occur.

When applying Routine Activity Theory to the context of corruption, it is seen how the theory helps explain how specific conditions and everyday routines can facilitate corrupt behaviours (Kolthoff, 2020). In this framework, motivated offenders,individuals or organizations seeking personal gain or advantage, engage in corrupt activities when presented with suitable opportunities for instance, lack of oversight and weak enforcement mechanisms, and a lack of capable guardians such as, ineffective regulatory bodies, and complicit authorities (Gottschalk, 2020).

The theory also emphasizes the importance of understanding the daily routines and activities within a society or organization that may create vulnerabilities to corruption. For example, ineffective monitoring mechanisms, hierarchical power structures, or normalization of corrupt practices can contribute to the perpetuation of corruption within an environment (Castro et al, 2020).

In essence, Routine Activity Theory offers a valuable theoretical framework for understanding the impacts of corruption by examining how individual motivations, environmental conditions, and routine activities intersect to create opportunities for corrupt behaviours. By analysing these elements through the lens of Routine Activity Theory, the researcher gained insights into the dynamics of corruption and developed targeted strategies to address its detrimental effects on society.

2.4.3 Social learning theory.

Social learning theory, developed by psychologist Albert Bandura, (1977), posits that people learn behaviours, attitudes, and values through observation, imitation, and modelling of others. The theory suggests that individuals acquire and reproduce behaviours by observing the actions and consequences experienced by others in their social environment (Rumjaun and Narod, 2020). It provide insights into how corrupt practices are perpetuated within societies. According to this theory, individuals can learn corrupt behaviours by observing and imitating the actions of others who engage in corrupt practices (Alonso, Kok, Obrien, & Geneste, 2020). If corrupt behaviour is rewarded or goes unpunished, individuals may perceive it as acceptable or even desirable, leading to its replication (Alonso et al, 2020). The social learning theory highlights the influential role of social interactions, norms, and cultural factors. For instance, if individuals observe influential figures such as political leaders, business executives, or public officials engaging in corrupt activities without facing consequences, it can reinforce the notion that corruption is a viable and lucrative path (Rumjaun and Narod, 2020).

Furthermore, the theory help to minimize corruption and its effects by promoting positive role models. Citizens are encouraged to imitate individuals who act with integrity and ethical behaviour and follow their good deeds, and behaviours (Chuang, 2021).

2.5 Empirical evidence on corruption.

Adeyami, 2017 conducted a survey on the prevalent forms of corruption in the construction industry in Botswana. The aim of the research was to identify the most prevalent forms of corruption in the construction industry in Botswana. The research adopted a quantitative approach, combining a literature review on corruption in the

construction industry with a questionnaire survey. Sixty properly filled questionnaires, out of eighty-one were returned, resulting in a response rate of 74.07%. The research findings indicated that bribery in the form of cash inducements, gifts, favors, and kickbacks was the most prevalent form of corruption in Botswana's construction industry. The study highlighted the substantial impact of corruption on project quality, time, and cost. The findings emphasized the need for anti-corruption measures and strategies to address bribery and other corrupt practices in the construction industry.

Another study was conducted by Usman (2023), assessing the impact of corruption on underdevelopment in Kwara State, Nigeria. The researcher observed that corruption is deeply intertwined with underdevelopment in Africa, with Nigeria consistently ranked high in corrupt practices by organizations such as Transparency International. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the relationship between corruption and economic growth in Kwara State, assess the impact of bribery on underdevelopment, evaluate the impact of protective corruption on underdevelopment, and assess the impact of systemic top-down corruption on underdevelopment. To collect the necessary data for the study, questionnaires and interviews were conducted. Primary data obtained through these means were complemented by secondary data from relevant documents. Descriptive and inferential analysis was conducted on the quantitative data collected through questionnaires using the multiple regression technique with the aid of SPSS version 25.0. The responses from face-to-face interviews were thematically analysed. The findings of the study revealed that bribery, had a significant impact on underdevelopment in Kwara State, Nigeria. Furthermore, the study found that protective corruption significantly contributed to underdevelopment in the state. According to this study, to combat corruption, the government should establish an independent judiciary responsible for penalizing offenders. This would deter those who consider themselves "above the law" from engaging in corrupt practices.

Another study was conducted by Ndlovu and Mutambara, 2023. The study aimed to explore the various forms of corruption within the KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in South Africa and shed light on its negative consequences. The study utilized a mixed-methods approach, employing both quantitative and qualitative research methods. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from 98 employees of the Stellenbosch Municipality. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather more in-depth insights. The questionnaire consisted of predefined questions designed to

gauge employee perceptions of whistle-blowing mechanisms and their awareness of whistle-blowing legislation. The qualitative data was gathered through semi-structured interviews, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of the subject matter. The study revealed that the majority of respondents viewed whistle-blowing negatively, which contributed to their reluctance to report corruption. The study recommended enhancing protection for whistle-blowers to encourage employees to report corruption within the organization. The study highlighted the importance of effective whistle-blowing mechanisms and the creation of a transparent culture to curb corruption in the public sector.

Najih and Wiryani, (2020) conducted a study on learning the social impact of corruption. The researchers aimed to examine the legal basis for anti-corruption measures in Indonesia and Malaysia and assess their impact on corruption prevention. The study employed a methodology that included legal content analysis using a historical, jurisprudence, and comparative approach. The researchers also conducted interviews and used analytical methods to gather relevant data. The primary data collection tools used in this research were legal documents, historical records, and jurisprudence. The findings of the study indicated that the legal basis for preventing corruption plays a strategic role in enforcing anti-corruption legislation. The study identified two approaches for preventing and combating corruption, the legal approach and the non-legal approach. The legal approach focused on developing and enforcing criminal law supported by the criminal justice system, which both Indonesia and Malaysia applied. The non-legal approach involved preventive enforcement policies, such as establishing law enforcement agencies and special courts for corruption, as well as improving public service facilities.

Yap, Lee, and Skitmore, 2020, conducted a study on analysing the causes of corruption in the Malaysian construction industry. The research aimed to identify and analyze the causes of corruption in the construction sector of Malaysia, an emerging economy. The study conducted a detailed literature review to identify 18 causes of corruption in the construction industry. The researchers applied factor analysis to uncover the principal factors involved in corruption. The primary data collection tool used in the study was an opinion survey administered within the Malaysian construction industry. The survey aimed to gather the perspectives of industry professionals on the causes of corruption in the sector. The results of the survey were used to rank and analyze the identified

causes. The study found that all of the considered causes of corruption were perceived to be significant by industry professionals. The most critical causes identified were greed, relationships between parties, lack of ethical standards, an intense competitive nature, and the involvement of a large amount of money. The factor analysis revealed four major causal dimensions underlying these causes. These dimensions include the unique nature of the construction industry and the extensive competition involved, unscrupulous leadership, culture, and corruption perception, a flawed legal system and lack of accountability, and ineffective enforcement and an inefficient official bureaucracy.

Shema (2018) conducted a study in Musanze District, Rwanda, to analyse the effects of corruption on socio-economic security. The study aimed to identify the types of corruption, establish the corruption status, determine the corrupt institutions, examine corruption effects, and propose strategies for combating corruption in the district. The research followed a descriptive design and employed a mixed methods approach to collect and analyse data. The study population consisted of all institutions in Musanze District, with a sample size of 51 respondents selected through purposive, cluster, and convenient sampling techniques. Both secondary and primary data were collected, and the primary data was obtained using a structured and unstructured questionnaire to gather quantitative and qualitative information. The study findings revealed that corruption manifested in various forms, including sex corruption, 17.6%, and the overall corruption status was found to be high, 49%. The majority of corruption cases occurred in public institutions, particularly district authorities, 20%, and were primarily caused by a lack of accountability, 28.6%. The study also identified the adverse effects of corruption, such as poor quality service delivery that was 24.5%. As a recommendation, the study proposes the effective implementation of existing legal measures against corruption.

Khadim, Jaffar, Musarat, and Ilyas, 2021. Conducted a study on the effects of corruption on infrastructure projects in developing countries. They conducted an extensive literature review, expert interviews, and a structured questionnaire survey to collect empirical data from various contractual parties involved in infrastructure projects in Pakistan. The study identified 27 impacts of corruption on infrastructure projects, including the creation of a monopoly, increased procurement and maintenance costs,

and lower quality products. The findings revealed that corruption is widespread in the local construction industry and has harmful effects on projects and society.

Bonga (2014) conducted an empirical investigation of corruption in Zimbabwe. A questionnaire approach was used to collect information. Corruption levels were serious, with a corruption index intensity of 6.8 on a scale of 1-10. The study identified nepotism, favouritism, bribery, kickbacks, and gifts as major forms of corruption in Zimbabwe. The study also highlighted the ineffectiveness of the Anti-Corruption body in addressing corruption issues, as it was not autonomous from politics and focused mainly on petty corruption rather than grand corruption. Causes of corruption included poor remuneration, income inequality, job insecurity, greediness, and economic instability. The study suggested that improving political will, individual solutions, and law enforcement were key ways to combat corruption in Zimbabwe.

Muzurura (2019) conducted a study on the causes, dissemination channels, and consequences of corruption in Zimbabwe from 1998 to 2018. The study used a survey of 100 individuals and 50 small-to-medium-sized private firms, applying a logit model to analyse the data. The findings identified various factors as the main causes of corruption in Zimbabwe, including opportunity perceptions, political instability, weak public institutions, excessive market regulations, red tape, cultural tolerance, competition, poverty, risk capital, business uncertainties, high taxation rates, the existence of a shadow economy, and the level of education. The study recommended the adoption of policies to reduce excessive market regulations, ensure the rule of law, restore macroeconomic stability, enhance regulatory quality and efficiency, develop transparent public institutions, and minimize the discretionary powers of bureaucrats and politicians. To improve accountability, it suggested policies for the forfeiture and repatriation of proceeds of corruption, early detection, and prosecution of perpetrators.

2.6 Summary of previous studies and research gap identification.

The current study conducted in 2024, titled "Public Perspectives on Impacts of Corruption on National Security, A Survey of Chitungwiza" aimed to address several research objectives related to forms of corruption, causes of corruption, impacts of corruption, and measures to address these impacts. This study was built upon previous research conducted on corruption in various contexts, including Botswana, Nigeria, South Africa, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Zimbabwe. While the previous studies

providedvaluable insights into corruption, they had certain limitations that the current study sought to address and improve upon.

The study by Adeyami (2017) was useful to uncover the most prevalent forms of corruption such as bribery. However, the study was limited in scope as it focused on the construction industry. The current study expanded the scope beyond the construction industry to investigate corruption's impacts on national security. By focusing on a different geographical context and broadening the scope to national security, the current study provided a unique perspective on corruption and its implications.

Similarly, the study by Usman (2023) in Nigeria examined the impact of corruption on underdevelopment in Kwara State. While it highlighted the significant role of bribery in underdevelopment, the current study in Chitungwiza, Zimbabwe, delved into the specific perspectives of the public regarding the impacts of corruption on national security. By focusing on national security, the study aimed to uncover potential threats and vulnerabilities resulting from corruption and propose measures to address them.

The study conducted by Ndlovu and Mutambara (2023) explored corruption within KwaZulu-Natal municipalities in South Africa. It highlighted the negative consequences of corruption and emphasized the importance of whistle-blowing mechanisms. However, the current study in Chitungwiza, Zimbabwe, gathered public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security, providing insights into how corruption affects the overall security and stability of the region. Additionally, the current study proposed measures beyond whistle-blowing mechanisms to address the identified impacts.

The study by Yap, Lee, and Skitmore (2020) analyzed the causes of corruption in the Malaysian construction industry. Although it identified various causes and dimensions of corruption, the current study, extended beyond the construction industry to examine corruption's impacts on national security. Also there was still a need to conduct a survey in Zimbabwe to analalyse specific causes, impacts, and forms of corruption in the local context.

Bonga (2014) conducted an empirical investigation of corruption in Zimbabwe, highlighting major forms of corruption and the ineffectiveness of the Anti-Corruption body. However the study might be limited to time and changing in the business or community environment.

Muzurura (2019) conducted a study on the causes, dissemination channels, and consequences of corruption in Zimbabwe. While it identified various causes of corruption, the current study in Chitungwiza, Zimbabwe, explored the public's perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security. By incorporating the public's viewpoints, the study offered a more comprehensive understanding of the implications of corruption for national security and proposed measures to address these impacts.

2.7 Chapter summary.

This chapter outlined the relevant literature available on the area of study. The researcher also made references to global overview of the corruption phenomenon as well as the prevalence of corruption at national level. The study reviewed literature on the causes of corruption, different forms of corruption and the measures that have been put in place to curb the negative impact of corruption. Conceptual and theoretical framework on the impact of corruption on national security were also analysed taking into consideration the empirical literature review and summary of studies that were previously carried out in relation to corruption and its impact on national security.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction.

This chapter presented a detailed outline of the research methodology applied in the study. Central to the research methodology is the research design, sampling procedure, data collection methods, instruments used, methods of data analysis as well as validity and reliability of the data. The chapter examined pilot testing as well as research ethics that were considered during the study.

3.1 Research Design.

According to Kazdin, (2021), a research design refers to the overall strategy that a researcher employs to collect and analyze data in order to answer a research question or test a hypothesis. Research methodology involves the systematic and theoretical analysis of the methods applied during the research process (Pandey and Pandey, 2021). Research approach, on the other hand, refers to the specific method or techniques used to gather data, such as surveys, interviews, or experiments (Mohajan, 2020). In the study "Impacts of corruption on national security," the researcher chose a descriptive research method. This approach was justified as it allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between corruption and national security.

3.1.1 Justification.

The descriptive research method enabled the researcher to systematically collect data from various sources and document specific instances of corruption that impacted national security (Georgiadis and Poels, 2022). By using this approach, the researcher was able to both gather quantitative data, such as statistics and numerical information on corruption cases and their effects, as well as qualitative data, such as interviews and case studies providing detailed insights into the specific mechanisms and consequences of corruption on national security (Lekubu, 2023). This combination of qualitative and

quantitative data was crucial in providing a holistic view of the problem, as it allowed the researcher to examine not only the scale and magnitude of the corruption issue but also its underlying causes, dynamics, and potential solutions (Hall,2020).

Moreover, the descriptive method provided a detailed and nuanced view of the complex relationship between corruption and national security, allowing the researcher to identify key patterns, factors, and implications of corrupt practices on the security landscape. This in-depth exploration was crucial in generating meaningful insights that could inform policy decisions and interventions aimed at mitigating the negative impacts of corruption on national security. Without incorporating both qualitative and quantitative data, the researcher would have risked missing out on important nuances and dimensions of the problem (Hendren et al, 2023).

3.2 Study Population.

The study population refers to the entire group of individuals or subjects that a researcher is interested in studying or drawing conclusions about in a particular research project (Stratton, 2021). It represents the larger group from which a sample is drawn or data is collected for analysis.Chitungwiza, being a populous town located about 30 kilometers southeast of Harare, served as the setting for the study. With an approximate population of over 350,000 residents at the time of the study, Chitungwiza provided a diverse and representative sample for the research (Marumahoko et al, 2023.The study focused on seven suburbs within Chitungwiza, namely Zengeza, St. Mary's, Seke, Unit J, Unit L, Unit M, and Manyame Park. These suburbs were chosen due to their significant population density and varied socioeconomic characteristics, making them suitable for the study's objectives.During the research, several economic activities were observed. These activities included retail businesses, small-scale manufacturing, service industries, healthcare services, education, and transportation services.

3.2.1 Sample Population.

A sample population is a subset of a larger group or population that is selected for purposes of statistical analysis (Stratton, 2021). The sample population for the study on public perspectives regarding the impacts of corruption consisted of 130 individuals. This subset was carefully selected to represent various segments of society and provide diverse viewpoints on the topic. Among the participants interviewed were five police

officers, two upper 6 students from Zengeza High School, and four businessmen. By including individuals from different backgrounds and professions, the study aimed to capture a broad spectrum of perspectives on the effects of corruption within the community.

In addition to conducting interviews, questionnaires were also distributed to individuals as part of the research methodology. These questionnaires were hand-delivered to selected participants within the sample population to gather their perspectives on the impacts of corruption. The use of questionnaires complemented the interview process by allowing for the collection of quantitative data and providing a broader representation of opinions within the sample. By combining both qualitative interviews and quantitative questionnaires, the study aimed to achieve a comprehensive understanding of public perspectives on corruption and its effects (Chalmers and Coldell, 2021). The sample constituency is summarized in table 3.1

Table 3.1 Population sample.

Elements	Total Population	Sample size	% of Sample
Zengeza	30	25	83.8%
St Mary's	25	23	92%
Seke	15	12	80%
Unit J	20	18	90%
Unit L	15	15	100%
Unit M	10	8	80%
Manyame Park	15	14	93.3%
Total	**130**	**115**	**88.5%**

From a total population of 130 individuals of different locations (suburbs) within Chitungwiza, the researcher chose a sample of 115 individuals. These individuals come from different parts of Chitungwiza, as well as perform different socioeconomic activities. The researcher used both probability and non-probability sampling

techniques. Systematic random sampling and purposive sampling was used to select participants from different locations within Chitungwiza.

3.3 Sampling techniques.

To collect reliable information, the researcher applied stratified random sampling, and purposive sampling. Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used to make sure that the whole population of Chitungwiza was represented.

3.3.1 Stratified Random Sampling.

According to Nguyen et al, (2021), stratified random sampling is a method of sampling where the population is divided into distinct subgroups or strata based on certain characteristics, and then random samples are taken from each subgroup. The researcher applied stratified random sampling to select questionnaire respondents. The researcher divided the population into seven groups corresponding to different suburbs within Chitungwiza, that are, Zengeza, St Marys, Seke, Unit J, Unit L, Unit M, and Manyame Park. Each suburb served as a stratum. Random samples were then drawn from each stratum to obtain a diverse and representative illustration of public perspectives on corruption. The following benefits of stratified random sampling were noticed, improved comparison of data, increased precision, reduced sampling error, and increased efficiency (Nguyen et al, 2021). This therefore were factors that were considered by the researcher when choosing the sampling technique.

3.3.2 Purposive Sampling.

Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental or selective sampling, involves selecting individuals based on specific characteristics or criteria relevant to the research question (Etikan et al, 2016). This method allows the researcher to target participants who possess key insights or experiences related to the study topic. In purposive sampling, the researcher intentionally selects participants who can provide valuable and relevant information based on predetermined criteria or expertise. This approach is useful when the researcher seeks in-depth understanding from specific individuals or groups.

For the study on public perspectives on the impacts of corruption, the researcher employed purposive sampling to choose interview respondents. Among the participants were five police officers, two upper six students from Zengeza High School, and four

business owners. By using purposive sampling, the researcher was able to gather detailed and targeted insights from individuals with specific perspectives on corruption in Chitungwiza (Rai and Thapa, 2015).

3.4 Research instruments.

The research used interviews and questionnaires as data collection methods. These were used to obtain primary data. Textbooks and other published materials were consulted as secondary sources of data. They provided in-depth analysis of findings as well as clarity on concerns which may be left out during interviews.

3.4.1 Questionnaire.

According to Aithal and Aithal (2020), a questionnaire is a research instrument that consists of a set of questions or other types of prompts that aims to collect information from respondents. The researcher utilized a questionnaire as a research instrument to collect data from participants. The questionnaire consisted of a set of carefully crafted questions that were designed to address the specific objectives and research questions of the study (Einola, 2021). The questionnaire was structured in a logical and organized manner, starting with introductory questions to establish the participants' demographic information and background. This was followed by sections that focused on the main constructs of interest of the study. For each construct, the researcher used a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions. Closed-ended questions were used to gather quantitative data and obtain responses that could be easily analyzed and compared (Jain, 2021). In addition to closed-ended questions, open-ended questions were used to allow participants to provide more detailed and subjective responses (Baburajan, 2020). These questions provided valuable insights into participants' experiences, opinions, and attitudes, which added depth and richness to the quantitative data collected. During the data collection phase, participants were given clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses.

Below are some of the advantages of questionnaire enjoyed by the researcher. Efficient Data Collection. Questionnaires allowed the researchers to collect data from a large number of participants in a relatively short amount of time. This made it efficient for the large sample size study. The structured format of a questionnaire ensured that all participants receive the same set of questions in the same order. This reduced the

potential for bias and ensured consistency in data collection. Questionnaires provided participants with a sense of anonymity and confidentiality, which encouraged them to provide more honest and accurate responses. Participants felt more comfortable sharing personal or sensitive information through a questionnaire compared to in-personal interviews (Fife-Schaw, 2020)

Some of the problems encountered because of questionnaire use were as follows. Limited response options. Closed-ended questions, while providing ease in analysis, they also limit participants' responses to predetermined options. This probably reduced the quantity and quality of information provided. However to solve this, the researcher also included open ended question to encourage participant opinions. Social desirability bias. Some participants probably provided socially desirable responses instead of their true opinions or behaviours. This bias can be challenging to detect and may impact the validity of the data collected. A solution to this was to use confidentiality and anonymity. Non-response bias. Some participants chose not to respond to certain questions even the entire questionnaire, leading to non-response bias. This affected the representativeness of the sample and introduced potential inaccuracies in the findings. To address this, the researcher did some follow ups to ensure the questions were answered (Hodrien, 2021).

3.4.2 Interviews.

In-depth interviews were used to effectively obtain a deeper understanding of the public perspective on the corruption phenomena. Interviews are best used to capture data on socially sensitive and highly personal topics of one's life experiences (Knott, Rao, Summers and Teeger, 2022). The interviews were conducted by the researcher to the respondents to collect data about public perspectives on effects of corruption. This helped to capture the subjective data and experiences of the respondents thus fulfilling the phenomenal nature of the study (Knott, Summers, and Teeger, 2022). Interviews were therefore important because they gave respondents the platform to fully explain the nature of the impact of corruption on national security (Mugari and Chisuvi, 2021).

3.4.2.1 Interview guide.

The interview guide is a list of interrelated written questions. A set of sequential questions was drafted and these questions were used to extract the relevant information

from the respondents. (Olmos-Vega etal, 2023) The guide consisted of sequential topics and questions that the researcher planned to cover during the interview along with follow-up questions and probes (Olmos-Vega etal, 2023). The guide was designed in a fashion and language that was appropriate for the respondents.

Interviews allowed the researcher to gain comprehensive and detailed information directly from the participants, facilitated the establishment of trust and rapport between the researcher and the participants, which enhanced the quality of data collected.

The researcher was able to ask follow-up questions and seek clarification on responses, which helped in obtaining a clearer understanding of the participants' perspectives.Interviews provided the opportunity for the researcher to connect with the participants on a personal level and understand their emotions and experiences more deeply (Johnson et al, 2021).

However, the interview had some problems such as, interviewer bias could have influenced the data collected, potentially leading to skewed or incomplete information. Conducting interviews required a significant amount of time to schedule, conduct, transcribe, and analyze, which was a time-consuming process.The interpretation of the interview responses could be subjective, as the researcher's own views and biases could impact the analysis. Interviews were typically conducted with a small number of participants, which might have limited the generalizability of the findings. To minimize the above challenges, the researcher scheduled and planned properly prior the interviews.

3.5 Methods of Data Collection.

The researcher sought permission from Chitungwiza residents to conduct the survey. Data collection involved stratified random sampling for questionnaires and purposive sampling for interviews.The researcher adopted a hand delivery method for disseminating questionnaires and interview invitations, ensuring direct communication with participants. This personalized approach facilitated participant engagement and encouraged their active involvement in the study.Hand-delivering questionnaires and interview invitations likely increased response rates by establishing a human connection with participants.Direct delivery ensured that survey instruments reached the intended recipients accurately, minimizing the risk of missing data or incomplete responses.Face-

to-face interactions through hand delivery helped establish trust and rapport with respondents, potentially leading to more candid responses during interviews and questionnaire completion.

In the interview phase, the researcher applied purposive sampling and selectively chose 11 members that is, 5 police officers, 2 upper six students, and 4 businessmen, the results of the interview were recorded on a notepad. This purposive sampling approach targeted individuals with distinct perspectives on corruption, enriching the study with diverse viewpoints and experiences.

The combination of stratified random sampling for questionnaires and purposive sampling for interviews, supported by hand delivery, ensured a comprehensive data collection process that captured varied public perspectives on corruption in Chitungwiza.

3.6 Validity and reliability.

Validity refers to the extent to which a study accurately reflects the specific concept that the researcher intends to measure. On the other hand, reliability, as defined by Aithal and Aithal (2020), pertains to the ability of the measurement instrument to produce consistent and repeatable results. To address any potential issues of invalidity and unreliability in the data, careful design of individual questions was ensured by incorporating feedback from a pilot test. This pilot test not only helped in accurately defining the target population but also provided valuable insights on modifying data collection instruments to align with the research objectives. Both the interview guide and questionnaires underwent a pre-testing phase to assess the time and resources required for the study and to identify any sampling problems. Furthermore, the research instruments underwent thorough scrutiny by supervisors and peers to correct any errors and ensure that they effectively conveyed the necessary information.

3.7 Data presentation and analysis.

The acquired survey data underwent analysis through both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used to analyse data, while Microsoft Excel 2013 was used tocreate tabular and graphical presentations. Moreover, the interview data underwent thematic analysis. After

collecting responses, the researcher thoroughly analysed and examined each response for meaningful insights. The process involved comparing and contrasting the various responses from the respondents to derive meaningful conclusions that could provide helpful information to guide the research.

3.8 Ethical consideration.

According to Kambhampati et al, (2023), ethics are the rules of conduct in research. In the study on public perspectives regarding the impacts of corruption, ethical considerations played a pivotal role throughout the research process. The following were pivotal to the study, before participating in the study, all participants were provided with detailed information about the research objectives, procedures, potential risks, and benefits. They were given the opportunity to ask questions and voluntarily consented to participate.

Participation in the study was entirely voluntary, and participants were assured that they could withdraw from the study at any time without consequences. Measures were implemented to safeguard the confidentiality of participant information.

Personal data and responses were anonymized and stored securely to prevent unauthorized access. Participants' privacy was respected throughout the data collection process. Interviews were conducted in private settings, and survey responses were collected anonymously to ensure that individuals felt comfortable expressing their views without fear of repercussion. All participants were treated with respect, dignity, and fairness throughout the research process. Their contributions were valued, and efforts were made to ensure that their voices were accurately represented in the findings. By adhering to these ethical considerations, the researcher aimed to conduct the study in a responsible and ethical manner, ensuring the welfare and rights of the participants were protected while generating valuable insights into public perspectives on corruption.

3.9 Chapter summary.

This chapter has been focused on the methods which the research used to obtain, present and analyse the findings. It outlined the research methodology and research design, data collection instruments, the sample population and sampling techniques. The research

made use of interviews and questionnaires after selecting the participants through purposive and random sampling techniques. Ethical considerations such as right to privacy, informed consent and voluntary participation were also taken into consideration.

CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction.

This chapter delved into the study's findings and reflections, forming the basis for drawing conclusions and making recommendations. Utilizing Microsoft Excel 2013, and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21, the data underwent analysis, and the outcomes were visually represented through tables. The acquired data directly pertains to the study's objectives and inquiries outlined in this section. These findings facilitated the researcher in gaining a deeper understanding of the context of the impacts of corruption on national security. Additionally, this chapter provided a summary of the findings and engages in further discussion.

4.1.0 Questionnaire response rate.

Table 4.1: Questionnaire response rate.

Elements	Questionnaire issued	Questionnaire returned	Response rate %
Zengeza	25	22	88%
St Mary's	23	21	91.3%
Seke	12	12	100%
Unit J	18	16	88.9%
Unit L	15	14	93.3%
Unit M	8	8	100%
Manyame Park	14	13	92.9%
Total	**115**	**106**	**92.2%**

Source: Primary data

The response rates from the survey conducted in various areas of Chitungwiza provided valuable insights into the level of engagement and participation of respondents in

providing feedback on the impacts of corruption. Areas such as Seke and Unit M demonstrated a perfect response rate of 100%, suggesting a high level of receptiveness and cooperation among residents. Other areas, such as St Mary's, Unit L, and Manyame Park, also exhibited response rates above 90%, indicating a generally positive response from residents in these regions. However, it's worth noting that some areas, such as Zengeza and Unit J, reported slightly lower response rates of around 88-89%. This might be as a result that people in these areas had other work related commitments.Overall, the high response rates of 92.2% obtained across the different areas of Chitungwiza underscore the significance of public engagement in combating corruption.

4.1.1 Interview response rate.

Table 4.2: Interview response rate.

Interviews scheduled for :	Interviews scheduled	Interview done	Interview not done	Response rate (%)
Police officers	5	4	1	80%
Zengeza High School: Upper Six Students	2	2	0	100%
Business owners	4	3	1	75%
Total	**11**	**9**	**2**	**81.8%**

Source: primary data

The police officers exhibited a response rate of 80%, with 4 out of 5 scheduled interviews being conducted. Only one interview was not completed because the officer reported for duty on the scheduled date. Zengeza High School students showed a perfect response rate of 100%, with all scheduled interviews successfully conducted. On the other hand, business owners reported a response rate of 75%, with 3 out of 4 scheduled interviews being completed. While slightly lower than the other groups, this response rate still reflected a significant level of engagement from the business community. Overall, the total interview response rate stands at 81.8%, indicating a generally positive level of cooperation from the interviewees across all categories.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents.

The information gathered include variables such as, gender, age, educational level, employment status, and duration of stay in Chitungwiza. This data was important because the researcher gained knowledge on how different variables affect the study survey. The demographic characteristics is shown in table 4.3 below.

Table 1.3: Demographic characteristics of questionnaire respondents.

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	57	54%
	Female	49	46%
Total		**106**	**100%**
Age range	Below 25 years	63	59.4%
	25-35 years	30	28.3%
	36-45 years	8	7.5%
	Above 45 years	5	5%
Total		**106**	**100%**
Educational level	Post Graduate	5	5%
	Undergraduate	69	65%
	Ordinary and advanced Level	27	25%
	No formal schooling	0	0%
	Other qualification	5	5%
Total		**106**	**100%**
Employment Status	Formal sector	16	15%
	Informal Sector	27	25.5%
	Unemployed	63	59.4%
Total		**106**	**100%**
Duration of stay in Chitungwiza	Less than 2 years	58	54.7%
	2 to 5 years	21	19.8%
	6 to 10 years	5	4.7%
	10 years and above	22	20.8%
Total		**106**	**100%**

Table 4.3 comprised of 106 respondents, with 54% identifying as male and 46% as female. This distribution indicates a relatively balanced representation of both genders within the surveyed population.

The age distribution of respondents showed that the majority, 59.4% of respondents are below 25 years old. Additionally, 28.3% of respondents fall within the 25-35 age range. There are smaller proportions in the older age brackets of 36-45 years, that is 7.5%, and above 45 years that is 5.0% of the surveyed population.

The educational attainment of respondents varies, with the majority holding undergraduate degrees, constituting 65% of the sample. Additionally, 25% of the respondents have completed ordinary and advanced level qualifications. Respondents holding other unspecified qualifications were only 5%. Also post graduate students constituted 5%. Notably, there are no respondents indicating no formal schooling. This therefore implies that a large proportion of the respondents have basic knowledge to understand corruption surveys.

The employment status of respondents revealed that the largest proportion are unemployed, constituting 59.4% of the sample. Furthermore, 25.5% of respondents are engaged in the informal sector, while 15% of respondents are employed in the formal sector.

The duration of residency among respondents varied, with the majority having lived in Chitungwiza for less than 2 years, constituting 54.7% of the sample. Additionally, 19.8% of respondents have resided for 2 to 5 years, while 4.7% of respondents have been residents for 6 to 10 years. Finally, 20.8% of respondents have lived in Chitungwiza for 10 years and above.

4.3 Forms of Corruption.

The respondents were asked to indicate the level of prevalence of the types and or forms of corruption affecting Chitungwiza residents, below is the table showing a summary of results obtained in the survey.

Table 4.4: Forms of corruption.

N=106

Forms of corruption	very low prevalence 1		Low prevalence 2		Prevalent 3		High prevalent 4		Very high prevalence 5		Statistics	
	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Mean	St D
Corrupt allocation of residential stands	5	4.7	11	10.4	48	45.3	26	24.5	16	15	3.35	1.015
Procurement related corruption	12	11.3	18	17	42	39.6	23	21.7	11	10.4	3.03	1.125
Conflict of interest	8	7.5	27	25.5	31	29.2	26	24.5	14	13.2	3.10	1.154
Insider trading	9	8.5	51	48	27	25.5	11	10.4	8	7.5	2.6	1.039
Bribery	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	30	74	70	4.7	0.461
Extortion	0	0	7	6.6	51	48	27	25.5	21	19.8	3.58	0.882
Nepotism	0	0	5	4.7	21	19.8	38	35.8	42	39.6	4.1	0.883
Corrupt allocation of vending space	9	8.5	24	22.6	26	24.5	32	30.2	15	14.2	3.19	1.188

KEY: Fr- Frequency; %- Percentage   St D- Standard deviation

4.3.1 Bribery.

Table 4.4 indicates that bribery is the most prevalent form of corruption in Chitungwiza as shown by 70% in the high prevalence category. The mean of 4.7 and a standard deviation of 0.461 indicate that bribery is most prevalent in Chitungwiza. Bribery is the easiest form of corruption in public institutions because it involves offering another

individual something of value such as money in exchange for something that is beneficial to the briber. 30% of the respondents also showed that bribery is a high frequent form of corruption in Chitungwiza.One of the interview respondents had this to say about bribery,"We have had several reports that bribe is prominent among some police officers who accept money from taxi and kombi drivers so that unregistered vehicles can act as public transport providers."

The research findings revealed that the prominent form of corruption is bribery. The study results concur with Onyango (2022) who indicated that police officers may accept bribes to avoid issuing traffic tickets or to release individuals detained for criminal charges. Bribery by the police and other government institutions is a form of corruption that involves these officials receiving bribes to bypass regulations, overlook offenses, or provide preferential treatment (Onyango, 2022). Onyango (2022) further stated that bribe as an illegal act distorts economic, political and social systems of a country.

4.3.2Nepotism.

Nepotism was also identified as very common form of corruption in Chitungwiza with 39.6% of respondents identifying it as very high prevalent. 35.8% identified nepotism as high prevalent, and 19.8% identified as prevalent. Only 6.6% identified as low prevalent, and no one pointed that it has very low prevalence in Chitungwiza. A mean of 4.1 and standard deviation of 0.883 also shows that nepotism is very common in Chitungwiza. An upper 6 student at Zengeza 1 High School had this to say, "We can't run away from the fact that people in power will give first preference to their close relatives and friends when opportunities arise. This is because relatives and friends will be loyal to them compared to strangers. It's very disturbing the way corruption is becoming our way of life*.*"

Nepotism as a form of corruption is evident in the above citations and the respondents revealed that it manifested when people in power appointed their relatives or friends to have access to job opportunities or wealth. The research findings revealed that nepotism was based on favouritism instead of merit, thus leading to poor performance in the organization. The study results concur with Burhan et al (2020) who stated that nepotism is prominent in public institutions where individuals in position of power appoint their relatives to have access to job opportunities or resources based on favouritism instead of merit. Ashley (2022) further stated that nepotism undermines

41

fairness and transparency in the recruitment processes, ultimately causing inefficiencies as incompetent individuals are given job opportunities.

4.3.3 Extortion.

Extortion was another very prevalent form of corruption represented by 19.8% on the very high prevalence section. 25.5% of the respondents also underscored that extortion has high prevalence in Chitungwiza, and 48% indicated that it is prevalent. It had a mean of 3.58 and standard deviation of 0.882. Only a few respondents (6.6%) indicated that extortion is not prevalent. The research findings revealed that extortion manifests in the form of threats, intimidation or coercion to obtain money, property or services in an unlawful manner.

The study results indicate that extortion is a prevalent form of corruption and it thrives on the imbalance of power dynamics. The research findings indicated that the perpetrators of this form of corruption have power over the control of resources, services that the victims require. Through threats of violence or repercussions, the perpetrators compel targets to pay money under fear or insecurity. This is supported by Singh (2022) who stated that extortion harms the victims and it creates a cycle of corruption that undermines the rule of law.

Corrupt allocation of residential stands, procurement related corruption, and corrupt allocation of vending space were also prevalent forms of corruption in the time of study, with 45.3%, 39.6%, and 24.5% of the respondents highlighting it as common in Chitungwiza. However, conflict of interest, and insider trading were less common forms of corruption.

4.4 Causes of corruption.

Presented below are results showing the causes of corruption that the researcher discovered during the study.

Table 4.5: Causes of corruption.   **N=106**

Possible Cause	Not a Cause 1		A Lesser Cause 2		A Cause 3		A Major Cause 4		Statistics	
	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Mean	St D
Unfair/ Inadequate salaries	0	0	10	9.4	32	30.2	64	60.4	3.51	0.665
Poverty and inequality	0	0	2	1.9	38	35.8	66	62.3	3.59	0.531
Political patronage	0	0	0	0	42	39.6	64	60.4	3.60	0.491
Limited access to information	11	10.4	42	39.6	32	30.2	21	19.8	2.59	0.924
Economic and financial pressures	0	0	2	1.8	51	48.1	53	50	3.48	5.39
Poor internal controls	0	0	0	0	50	48	55	52	3.52	0.502
Lack of citizen engagement	0	0	5	4.7	46	43.4	55	51.8	3.47	0.589

KEY: Fr- Frequency; %- Percentage   St D- Standard deviation

4.4.1 Political patronage.

Table 4.5 shows that political patronage is the leading cause of corruption as shown by 100%, a cause and major cause results combined. A mean of 3.60 and standard deviation of 0.491 shows that political patronage is very common cause of corruption in Chitungwiza. The interviews conducted also revealed that political patronage provides a fertile ground for corruption to take place. One of the police officers interviewed had this to say, "I would say that political patronage and nepotism are the major drivers of corruption not only in Chitungwiza but the whole country.''

Research findings concur with Heywood (2020) who argued that politicians use their access to resources and power to influence and control the public and their loyalty is

rewarded with access to opportunities and resources. Heywood (2020) further stated that politicians end up using public resources to push their interests over the welfare of the citizens, as a result, this erodes the citizen's trust in the government. Therefore, political patronage provides the avenue for corruption to take place.

4.4.2 Poverty and inequality.

Poverty and inequality are the major causes of corruption in Chitungwiza as evidenced by 62.3%, mean of 3.59 and standard deviation of 0.531, as indicated on Table 5. 35.8% of respondents indicated that it is a cause, and only 1.9% pointed that poverty and inequality is a lesser cause of corruption. However, the research findings indicated that the lack of access and the inability to afford basic commodities motivate people to engage in corrupt acts such as bribery. One of the interviewee said, "Widespread poverty, and lack of access to basic goods cause desperation and people end up involving themselves in bribery and nepotism to secure jobs and gain access to better living standards."

From the above narratives it can be noted that corruption emanates from a number of factors which eventually leads to its manifestation. The research findings revealed that corruption is caused by economic hardships, unemployment and poor living standards as workers in public institutions are underpaid, as a result they engage in corrupt practices in order to earn more money. The research findings concur with Johnson (2020) who found out that corruption is caused by economic inequality and poverty, hence individuals end up indulging in corruption in a bid to improve their living conditions. Therefore, poverty and inequality create a fertile ground for corruption to take place.

4.4.3 Unfair/ Inadequate salaries.

Unfair or inadequate salaries are common causes of corruption in Chitungwiza. 60.4% of respondents pointed that it is a major cause, 30.2% showed that it is a cause, however only 9.4% showed that it is a lesser cause, and no one pointed that it is not a cause at all. Overall, unfair or inadequate salaries ranked as number three cause of corruption in Chitungwiza with a mean of 3.51 and standard deviation of 0.665.

The findings are supported by Bonga (2014) who argued that unfair or inadequate salaries or remuneration are factors which lead to corruption, and an increase in public sector salaries will remedy and reduce the effects of corruption.

Economic and financial pressures, poor internal controls, and lack of citizen engagement are amongst the most common causes of corruption in Chitungwiza. From Table 5, it showed that the percentage of people who pointed it as a major cause is around 50%, which is a large population to conclude that they fall in the major cause range. However, limited access to information was ranked to be the least cause of corruption.

4.5 Impacts of corruption.

The respondents were asked to indicate the impacts of corruption in their area, and below is the presentation of their responses or results.

Table 4.6: Impact of corruption.

Factor	Not an impact 1		Very less impact 2		Somewhat an impact 3		An impact 4		A major impact 5		Statistics	
	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Fr	(%)	Mean	St D
Undermines democracy	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	49	54	51	4.51	0.502
Erodes trust	0	0	0	0	9	8.5	46	43.3	51	48	4.28	0.613
Increased expenditure	0	0	0	0	2	1.9	53	50	51	48	4.46	0.538
Poor service delivery	0	0	0	0	0	0	49	46.2	57	53.7	4.54	0.501
Rise of shadow economy	0	0	0	0	1	0.9	50	47.2	55	51.8	4.51	0.521
Damaged reputation	0	0	0	0	2	1.9	51	48	53	50	4.48	0.539
Hinders development	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	49	54	51	4.51	0.502

KEY: Fr- Frequency; %- Percentage

4.5.1 Poor service delivery.

Poor service delivery is topped the list on the impacts of corruption as indicated in Table 4.6 by 53.7% of the respondents pointing it as a major impact. It had a mean of 4.54 and standard deviation of 0.501. 46.2% of the respondents pointed it as an impact, and no one actual highlighted it as a lesser or not an impact. The research findings revealed that corruption is a social vice that creates many problems and threatens people's access to essential services. In an interview, one of the business owner said,"Corruption is hindering our access to essential services such as healthcare, water supply and education. Corruption is widespread in Chitungwiza that there is poor infrastructure, for instance poor road networks, bursting sewer pipes, there is no water from our taps, and this all demonstrates the effect of corruption."

The manifestation of poor service delivery is evident in the existence of dump waste site in the community, poor water supply, burst pipes and flow of raw sewer in residential areas, poor road infrastructure and limited access to healthcare. As argued by Shema (2018) corruption erodes the state's ability to protect citizens from social, economic and political threats leading to poor service delivery and poor living standards. Shema (2018) further states that corruption creates social tensions and erodes the social fabric.

4.5.2 Rise of shadow economy.

51.8% of the respondents indicated that the rise of shadow economy is the second major impact of corruption, as indicated by a mean of 4.51 and standard deviation of 0.521, 47.2% of respondents also indicated that it is an impact. Only 0.9% categorised it as somewhat an impact. This shows that rise of shadow economy (black market) is inevitable in a corrupt economy. Shadow economy manifests when the public institutions fail to deliver services and liv up to their mandate, hence there will be individuals secretly offering those services but asking for a fee.

According to the study results, the failure of the state to protect citizens from internal and external threats makes citizens to rely on themselves and undermine state authority. The research findings concur with Esaku (2021) who revealed that corruption and shadow economy are like twins, they grow together.

Other major impacts include that, it undermines democracy, and hinders development, these ranked 51% on major impact category. 49% of the respondents sowed that these were impacts. No one bet that they are no or less impacts of corruption. The results agree with Carothers, (2020) who noted that corruption undermines democracy.

Erodes trust, increased expenditure, and damaged reputation were least ranked as impacts of corruption. However, though they were least ranked, the statistics show that they are impacts despite the ranking.

4.6 Measures to reduce and manage corruption.

The following results show the measures to reduce and manage corruption discovered in the study.

Table 4.7: Measures to reduce and manage corruption.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Strengthen transparency and accountability	16	15%
Educating and raising awareness	12	11.3%
Promote culture of integrity	8	7.5%
Implementing whistle blower protection	15	14.2%
Promote international cooperation	4	3.7%
Increase public sector salaries	51	48%

The research findings revealed that increasing public sector salaries would be an effective measure to curb corruption as evidenced by 48% on table 4.7above. 15% of the respondents identified the need to strengthen transparency and accountability as a way of addressing corruption. 14.2% of the respondents revealed that implementing whistle blower protection is effective in curbing corruption. Promoting a culture of integrity, and promoting international cooperation were least selected as measures to deal with corruption.

The study results indicate that increasing public workers' salaries will help civil servants to afford basic goods and services, improving their living standards and prevent the need to extort public funds to cater for personal expenses. The research findings

concur with Bonga (2014) who indicated that increasing the salaries of public sector workers can be an effective measure to curb corruption. Bonga (2014) further stated that funding the public sector and the workers improves service delivery and also improves the living standards of the workers, thereby preventing the need to extort money from the members of the public.

Strengthening transparency and accountability was another identified measure to curb corruption. Institutional reforms of public sector will enable responsible management and adoption of a culture that fosters transparency and accountability and ensure that the allocated funds are used to provide essential services to the citizens. The research findings concur with David-Barrett et al (2022) who stated that there is need to monitor and evaluate the systems of governance in public institutions. In this case, David-Barret et al (2022) further stated that strengthening transparency and accountability is a key measure that will effectively address corruption in both the public and private sector.

Protecting whistle blowers from harm help to ensure that most corrupt acts are reported as soon as they are committed. The study results concur with Gibbs (2020) who stated that enacting whistle blower protection laws allow and encourage individuals to come forward and report corruption without fear. These laws ensure that individuals who report are not threatened or under duress, but feel free to report any incidences of corruption under the protection of law. This was also supported by Saya (2020) who found out that the identity of whistle blowers should not be revealed but confidentiality should be ensured to protect the individuals blowing the whistle of corruption.

4.6.1 Other measures to curb corruption.

Below are other measures to curb corruption which were recommended by participants.

4.6.1.2 Enforcement of anti-corruption laws.

Majority of the respondents pointed that enforcement of anti-corruption laws are effective tools to manage corruption. The government of Zimbabwe has enacted different legal instruments that address the issue of corruption in the country, but corruption has been rampant due to lack of enforcement of these laws. Therefore, there is need for enforcement of anti-corruption laws in both the private and public sector through empowering the Zimbabwe Anti-Corruption Commission and the Zimbabwe Republic Police to ensure that perpetrators are brought to book

The research findings agree with Sayeed (2023) who stated that establishing and enforcing robust legal frameworks is very effective to curb the impacts of corruption. The research findings are also supported by the Routine Activities Theory which state that in order for a crime to take place, there should be motivated offenders, suitable targets and absence of capable guardians (Cohen and Felson, 1979). Therefore, the absence of checks and balances in public institutions motivate people to engage in corrupt practices, hence there is need to enforce ant-corruption laws.

4.6.1.3 Citizen and stakeholder participation.

Research findings revealed that in order to address corruption, there should be a multi-disciplinary approach that involves the engagement of different stakeholders such as the civil society, media, ant-corruption agencies, private sector organizations and the general public. The finding that citizen and stakeholder engagement is important promotes accountability, transparency and ensures that everyone is aware of the public sector activities and their voices are represented. This is consistent with Sayeed (2023) who argued that empowering citizens and the civil society organizations is vital for promoting transparency and provides platforms for citizens' voices to be heard. This is also supported by Vian (2022) who stated that engaging independent bodies in the fight against corruption can help in identifying gaps, flaws and areas that need improvement in both the public and private sector.

4.7 Chapter summary.

This chapter presented the research findings obtained from the Chitungwiza survey. The research findings revealed that the major forms of corruption in Chitungwiza include bribery, nepotism, extortion, corrupt allocation of residential stands. From the findings it was revealed that corruption emanates from economic and political pressures, poor salaries, poverty and inequality. There are various impacts of corruption which include poor service delivery, and rise of shadow economy. In order to address the impact of corruption different measures have been put in place such as enforcing legal frameworks, promote citizen and stakeholder engagement, implementing whistle blower protection and strengthening transparency and accountability.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction.

This chapter presented a summary of the study's findings, conclusions, and recommendations. The study aimed to investigate public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security, with a focus on residents of Chitungwiza.

5.1 Summary of the Study.

The opening chapter of the study established the context by highlighting the global and local rise in corruption and its detrimental effects on economic growth. It presented the background of the study, clearly stating the problem of corruption. The research objectives, questions, and significance were outlined, providing a roadmap for the study. Additionally, the chapter discussed the assumptions, delimitations, and limitations of the study, ensuring a structured and focused approach. The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. Todescribe the manifestation of corruption in Chitungwiza.

2. To identify the causes of corruption in Chitungwiza.

3. To determine the impacts of corruption on national security in Chitungwiza.

4. To recommend appropriate measures to mitigate the impacts of corruption on national security.

The second chapter delved into a comprehensive analysis of relevant literature on corruption. It drew upon a wide range of sources, including journals, articles, books, and other publications, to provide a thorough foundation for the study. The chapter articulated and critically evaluated the conceptual framework, theoretical literature, and empirical evidence, establishing a solid understanding of corruption.

Chapter three focused on the research methodology that underpins the study. It outlined the research design, clearly stating the approach adopted. The population, sample size, and sampling techniques were carefully described, ensuring the representativeness and validity of the findings. The chapter also detailed the research instruments used, including questionnaires and interviews, as well as the data collection procedures employed. Finally, it discussed the data presentation and analysis procedures, providing a transparent and systematic approach to handling the collected data. However the data collected was analysed, discussed and presented in chapter four.

5.2 Summary of Findings.

The study revealed the following results to describe the manifestation of corruption. Bribery emerged as the most dominant form, particularly among police officers in the traffic department. Residents highlighted that bribery was pervasive, with officers often allowing unfit vehicles to pass through roadblocks in exchange for money.Nepotism was also common, with residents pointing out that individuals often secured jobs, connections, and other opportunities through family or personal connections. Extortion was another prevalent form of corruption, where individuals were coerced into giving money or resources under threat.

Upon investigating dominant causes of corruption, the study identified political patronage, poverty and inequality, and unfair or inadequate salaries as major causes of corruption in Chitungwiza. Political patronage created an environment where corruption could thrive, while poverty and inequality, and inadequate salaries incentivized individuals to engage in corrupt practices to improve their economic circumstances.Limited access to information was considered a lesser cause of corruption, indicating that citizens generally had some level of awareness about public affairs.

The study revealed significant impacts of corruption in Chitungwiza. Poor service delivery undermined the government's ability to effectively provide essential services to citizens, creating frustration and discontent among the population.Residents also observed the rise of a shadow economy, where illegal activities such as the buying and selling of cannabis and codeine flourished, undermining the legitimate economy and contributing to social instability. Also, corruption eroded public trust in institutions, as

reported by some Chitungwiza residents who highlighted losing trust in public institutions such as the local municipal council due to pervasive corruption.

The study identified the most significant measures to deal with corruption and these included, increasing public sector salaries, and strengthening transparency and accountability. Implementing measures to increase transparency and hold public officials accountable was seen by public as crucial in deterring corruption. Most citizens pointed that increasing public sector salaries would help to reduce corruption in police, and VID departments. Educating and raising awareness was among the effective measure to deal with corruption. Some of the respondents suggested that, Zimbabwe anticorruption commission (ZACC) should regularly hold educational meetings to reduce corruption, police must enact strict penalties to the offenders, and arresting those involved in corruption. Promoting international cooperation and promoting a culture of integrity was seen as least effective in combatting the problem of corruption.

5.3 Conclusion.

The study on public perspectives on the impacts of corruption on national security revealed that corruption is a pervasive problem with significant consequences for national security. The most prevalent forms of corruption were bribery, nepotism, and extortion, while the most prominent causes were poverty and inequality, political patronage, and unfair or inadequate salaries. Corruption undermines national security by eroding trust in public institutions, reducing the effectiveness of service delivery, and creating a thriving shadow economy. The researcher identified several significant measures to address corruption, including strengthening transparency and accountability, increasing public sector salaries, educating and raising awareness, promoting international cooperation, and promoting a culture of integrity. With the above information, the researcher recommends further study and research on the corruption problem. Enough resources should be channelled towards ending the problem of corruption.

5.4 Recommendations.

Given the pervasive effects of corruption, as highlighted in the research, it is crucial for stakeholders to implement effective measures against it before it becomes more severe. Here are some recommendations made by the researcher to mitigateits impact.

5.4.1 Strengthen Anti-Corruption Agencies.

In order to reduce corruption levels, the government should enhance the capacity and independence of anti-corruption agencies to effectively investigate and prosecute corruption cases. Provide them with adequate resources, training, and autonomy to carry out their mandate without fear or favour.

5.4.2 Strengthen Legal Frameworks.

The researcher also recommend strengthening legal frameworks to ensure that they adequately address corruption and provide for effective sanctions against corrupt individuals and entities. Introduce specialized anti-corruption legislation and streamline legal procedures to facilitate the investigation and prosecution of corruption cases.

5.4.3 Promote Citizen Participation.

Encourage active citizen participation in the fight against corruption by providing platforms for reporting corruption and protecting whistle blowers. Implement public awareness campaigns to educate citizens about the harmful effects of corruption and their role in combating it. This may also include the use of police suggestion boxes where cases of corruption are reported.

5.4.4 Electronic Government Procurement.

Implement electronic government procurement systems to increase transparency and reduce opportunities for corruption in public procurement processes. Digitizing procurement procedures and using e-bidding platforms can enhance efficiency, reduce human discretion, and minimize the risk of bid rigging and other corrupt practices.

5.4.5 Undercover Intelligence for Detection.

Establish specialized undercover intelligence units within law enforcement agencies to proactively detect and investigate corruption. These units can use covert operations and advanced surveillance techniques to gather evidence and identify corrupt individuals and networks.

5.4.6 Implementing Whistle-blower Protection.

 Enact and enforce strong whistle blower protection laws to encourage individuals to report corruption without fear of retaliation. Provide legal safeguards, financial assistance, and other support mechanisms to protect whistleblowers from intimidation or harm.

5.4.7 Strong Internal Control Mechanisms.

Implement robust internal control mechanisms within government agencies and public institutions to prevent and detect corruption. This includes establishing clear policies and procedures, conducting regular audits, and implementing risk management systems to identify and mitigate vulnerabilities to corruption.

5.5 Recommendations for further study.

The study was carried out to know the public perspectives on corruption, to know the causes, effects, and solutions to combat corruption. However further study is recommendable, to conduct more cross-country and cross-cultural studies to explore how public perspectives on corruption vary across different contexts. Another recommendation is to study the relationship between corruption and other forms of social injustice.

References

Abdulai, D, N, (2023). Corruption and Economic Growth in Africa. The impact on development

Adam, I., Fazekas, M., (2021). Are emerging technologies helping win the fight against corruption? A review of the state of evidence. Information Economic and policy.

Adeyami, A., 2017. A survey of the prevalent forms of corruption in the construction industry in Botswana. Performance information and value

Agunyai, S,C., and Amusan, L., (2023). Implications of land grabbing and resource curse for sustainable development goal 2 in Africa: Can globalization be blamed

Ahen, F (2022). International mega corruption. The structural violence against sustainable development.

Aithal,A., and Aihal, P.S. (2020) Development and validation of survey questionnaire and experimental data. A systematic review-based statistical approach.

Aithal,A., and Aithal, P,S., 2020. Development and validation of survey questionnaire and experimental data. A systematically review-based statistical approach.

Algarbawi, F., and Barhoumi, W., (2023). Social Capital and Community Security: A

Alguliyev, R, M., Imamverdiyev, Y, N., Mahmudov, R, S., (2021): Similarity and Dissimilarity between Information Security and Information Assuarance. *Information technology Journal.*

Alonso, A, D., Kok, S, K., Obrien, S., Geneste, L., 2020. Understanding entrepreneurial deviance through social learning and entrepreneurial action theory. An empirical study. European business review 32(4), 643-666

Ang, Y.Y. (2020). China's gilded age: the paradox of economic boom and vast corruption

Art, R, J., Crawford, T., Jervis, R. (2023). International politics: Enduring concepts and contemporary issues.

Ashley, L.,(2022). Highly discriminating: why the city isn't fair and diversity doesn't work.

Atikasari, H., Amira, B., and Arifin, R., (2020). Law enforcement in the practice of bribery in the business and trade in Indonesia: Between theory and practice.

Azadi, H., (2020). Monitoring land governance: Understanding roots and shoots. Land use policy.

Baburajan, V., Silva, J, A., Pereira, F, C., (2020). Open ended versus closed-ended responses: A comparison study using topic modeling and factor analysis.

Basavarajappa, B.C, (2020). The effects of political corruption on economic development. *International journal of research and analytical review. 7 (4), 2348-1269.*

Beesley, C., and Hawkins, D., (2022). Corruption, institutional trust and political engagement in Peru. World development.

Bong, W, G., (2014). An empirical investigation of the nature of corruption in Zimbabwe

Bonga, W, G. 2014. An empirical investigation of the nature of corruption in Zimbabwe.

Borras , A.M., and Mohamed, F.A., (2020). Heallth inequalities and the shifting paradigms of food security, food insecurity, and food sovereignty.

Bright, T. (2021). The role of corruption on civil society activism in the Niger delta

Burhan, O.K, Leeuwen, E., Scheepers, D., (2020). On the hiring of kin in organizations: Perceived nepotism and its implications for fairness perceptions and the willingness to join an organization. *Organizational behavior and human decision process.*

Button, M., and Knickmeier., (2022) Economic and industrial Espionage: Characteristics, Techniques and response. *The handbook of security.*

Carothers, C., (2020). The global rise of corruption: driven political change. Taiwan journal of democracy. Volume16 (2), 147-168.

Castro, A., Philips, N., Ansari, S., (2020). Corporate corruption: A review and an agenda for future research. Academy of management Annals. Volume 14 (2) 935-968.

Caushaj, D., (2021). Is the establishment of international anti-corruption court a global answer to the global challenge of corruption? repository.gchumrights.org.

Chalmers, J., and Cowdell., (2021). What are quantitative and qualitative research methods? A brief introduction. Dermatological nursing.

Chiltransh, A, (2021). Challenges of Indian judiciary- A critique of justice delivery system and public interest in contemporary times. *Turkish online journal of qualitative inquiry.*

Chisi, G., (2020). The impact of aspects (level and type) on corruption in Zimbabwe.

Chiweshe, M.K and Mahiya, I., (2021). Corruption and the Morality of everyday life in urban Harare, Zimbabwe. Africa Today.

Chuang,S., 2021. The applications of constructivist learning theory and social learning theory on adult continuous development. Performance improvement. 60(3), 6-14.

Cluriak, D., and Goff, P., (2021). Economic security and changing global economy.

Cohen, L.E., and Felson, M., (2015). Routine activity theory: A routine activity approach.

Cuadrado, D, C., (2022). Corruption during COVID-19. Trends, drivers, and lessons learned for reducing corruption in health emergencies.

Cvetkovic, V, M., and Sisovic, V., (2024). Understanding the Sustainable Development of Community (Social) Disaster Resilience in Serbia: Demographic and Socio-Economic Impacts. Sustainability. 16(7), 2620

Das,P, (2021). Border management and threats to internal security. *Journal of social and strategic studies.*

David-Barret, E, (2020). Regulating conflict of interest in public office. *Ethics and integrity in public administration.*

David-Barrett, E., Murray, A., Polvi, J., Burge, R., (2020). Evaluating anti-corruption agencies: learning from the Caribbean. Journal of development effectiveness. Volume 12 (1) 74-88.

Devereux, S., (2021). Social protection responses to COVID 19 in Africa. Global social policy.

Einola, K., and Alvesson, M. (2021). Behind the numbers: Questioning questionnaires. Journal of management enquiry, Vol 30(1), pp 102-114

Esaku, S., 2021. Does corruption contribute to the rise of shadow economy. Empirical evidence from Uganda. Cogent Economics & Finance. Vol 9(1)

Etikan, I., Musa, S,A., Alkassim,R, S., (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. American Journal of theoretical and applied statistics. Vol 5(1), 1-4.

Ferrarrese, D.,(2021). Ecomomic impact of corruption in the public sector. *Journal of economic behavior and organization.*

Fife-Schaw, C., (2020). Questionnaire design. Research methods in psychology, 343-374

Fowler, E, (2021). Information warfare: The 2016 election, Russian hackers and US democratic precarity.

Georgiadis, G., and Poels,G.,(2022). Towards a privacy impact assessment methodology to support the requirements of the general data protection regulation in a big data analytics context: A systematic literature review.

Gibbs, T., (2020) Whistleblowing: Protection and discouragement. *Journal of money laundering control.*

Gottschalk, P., (2020). The convenience of white-collar crime in business.

Hall, R,P., (2020). Mixing methods in social research: qualitative, quantitative and combined methods.

Hendren, K., Newcomer, K., Pandey, S,K., Smith, M., Sumner, N., (2023). How qualitative research methods can be leveraged to strengthen mixed methods research in public policy and public administration? Public Administration Review. Vol 83(3), 468-485.

Herfeld, C, (2022). Revisiting the criticism of rational choice theories. Philosophy compass.

Heywood, P.M., (2020). A political approach to corruption. A research agenda for studies of corruption.

Hochstetter, J., Vasquez, F., Dieguez, M., Bustamante, A., (2023). Transparency and E-government in electronic public procurement as sustainable development. Sustainability. Volume 15 (5) 4672-2023.

Hodrien, A., and Fernamdo, T.P., (2021). A review of post-study and post task subjective questionnaires to guide assessment of system usability. Journal of usability studies, 16(3)

Holovkin, B.M and Tavolzhanskyi, (2021). Corruption as a cybersecurity threat in conditions of the new world order. Linguistics and culture review. Volume 5 (S3) 499-512.

Hope, K, R., (2023) Corruption, Sustainable development and security challenges in Africa: Prospects and Policy Implications for peace and stability.

Hudson, S., Gonzalez-Gomez, H,V., Claasen., (2022). Societql inequality, corruption and relation-based inequalitybin Organizations.

Jain, N., (2021). Survey versus interviews: Comparing data collection tools for exploratory research. The qualitative report. 26(2), 541-554.

Jewett, R, L., Mah, S,M., Howell, N. Social cohesion and community resilence during COVID-19 and pandemics: A rapid scoping review to inform the United Nations research roadmap for COVID-19 recovery. *International journal of health services.*

Johnson, L. (2022). The causes of corruption in South Africa. A Political Economy of Corruption and Underdevelopment.Faculty Lecture Series, Ibadan: Faculty of Social Sciences, University ofIbadan.

Jones, C., (2020). Qualitative interviewing. Handbook for research students in the social sciences.

Jonhson, D, R., Scheirie, C,P., Ecklund, E,H., (2021). Beyond the in-person interview? How interview quality varies across in-person, telephone, and Skype interview.

Junghagen, S., Aurvandil, M., (2020). Structural susceptibility to corruption in FIFA. A social network analysis.

Kacowicz, A.M., Lacovsky, E.,Sasson, K., Wajner, D.F., (2021). The unintended consequenses of peace:peacefull borders and illicit transitional flows.

Kazdin, E,A.,(2021). Research design in clinical psychology. Cambridge University Press

Kelkusa, M., Hassan, M.,Anurogo,D., Syarif, U, A., (2023). The Phenomenon and Existance of Corruption in the 5.0 Era: Moral and Ethical Perspectives. Solo International Collaboration and Publication of Social Sciences and Humanities. Vol 1(02), 78-87.

Kemi, O., and Danisi, K., (2024). Assesing the implications of Plea Bargaining Under ACJA, 2015 in Nigeria's Anti-corruption Crusade: Lessons from Kenya. *Asian research journal of arts and social sciences.*

Khadim, N., Jaffa, S, T, A., Musarat, M, A., Ilyas, U., 2021. Effects of corruption on infrastructure projects in developing countries.

Khaled, W., and Gond J.P., (2020). How do external regulations shape the design of ethical tools in organizations? An open polity and sociology of compliance perspective.

Kihl, L.A and Ordway, C., (2022). Sport corruption and fraud. *The oxford handbook of sport and society.*

Kirk-Green, A.H.M., (2022). Politics and government in African states. West Africa: Nigeria and Ghana.

Kivunja, C. (2018). Distingiuishing between theory, theoretical framework, and conceptual framework: A systematic review of lessons from the field. International journal of higher education. Vol 7 (6), 44-53.

Knott, E., Rao, A,H., Summers, K., Teeger, C., (2022). Interview in the social sciences. Nature Reviews Methods Primers, 2(1), 73

Kolthoff, E., (2020). Criminological responses to corruption. Handbook on corruption, ethics and integrity in public administration.

Kuwali, D., (2022). Commend and condemn: Combating corruption in Africa. *The Palgrave handbook of sustainable peace and security in Africa.*

Ladan-Baki, Y. B. (2017). Corruption and security challenges in developing countries, a case study of Nigeria. Nigerian Journal of International Affairs. vol.12(3) 107-127.

Lady, M.R., (2021). The United States' global campaign against foreign bribery: Bound to fail. https://hdl.handle.net/2440/134563

Lekubu, A,S., (2023). Forensics as a Tool in Solving Corruption: A Related Cases in Khomas Region Namibia. *Southern African Journal of Security.*

Lewis, E., Crim, A., and Rev, L., (2023). Public corruption. *Heinonline.*

Mackey, T.K., and Cuomo, R.E., (2020). An interdisciplinary review of digital technologies to facilate anti-corruption, transparency and accountability in medicines procurement.

Manara, M.U., Nubold, A., Gils, S., Zijlstra, F.R.H., (2023).Exploring the path to corruption. An informed grounded theory study on the decision-making process underlying corruption.

Mani, S., Osborne, C.P., Cleaver, F. (2021). People and nature. Land degradation in South Africa: Justice and climate change in tension.

Mardhani, D., Runturambi, A, J, S., Hanita, M., (2020). Security and Defence in National Resilence Studies to Realize a National Security System. *Jurnal Pertahanan dan Bela Negara*

Markevych, K., Maistro, S., Koval, V., Paliukh, V., (2022). Mining sustainability and circular economy in the context of economic security in Ukraine.

Marquette, H., and Peiffer, C., (2020). Corruption functionality framework. Washington, DC: Global integrity 2020.

Marumahoko,S., Ngorima, O., Shayawabaya, R., (2023). Engaging retention strategies for nursing professionals at Zimbabwe's Chitungwiza Central Hospital (CCH): A perspectives by outsiders.

Mazakari, A and Melnyk, T., (2023). The impact of corruption on the economic security of the state. Theoretical and practical research in economic fields. Volume 14 (2). 269-282.

McDevitt, A., (2022). Supreme audit institution anti-corruption strategies

McMasters, D.H., (2020). Subversive Influence: Vulnerabilities of the United States and its elections to Russian interference campaigns.

Meza, O and Perez-Chiques., (2021). Corruption consolidation in local governments: Agrounded Analytical framework. *Willey Online Library.*

Modesto, J.G., and Pilati, R., (2020). Why are the corrupt, corrupt? The multilevel analytical model of corruption. The Spanish journal of psychology. Volume 23 (e5) 2020.

Mohajan, H,K., (2020). Quantitative research: A successful investigation in natural and social sciences. *Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People. Vol 9(4), 50-79.*

Mokoena, E. (2020). The role of Southern African Development Community (SADC) in promoting democracy and good governance in Zimbabwe.

Mosler, H.B, (2017). Changing South Korean's politics without taking power? The presidential power trap three years after impeachment.

Muchena, R,I, (2019). An exploration of corruption in the health sector. A case of Zimbabwe.

Mugari, I., and Chisuvi, R., (2021). Social Media and national security in Zimbabwe: Embracing social media for national security and addressing social media threats. African security review. 30(1), pp86-101

Mugellini, G., Della Bella, S., Colagrosssi, M., (2021). Public sector reforms and their impact on the level of corruption. *Campbell systematic reviews*

Musila, JW. (2020). Anticorruption strategies in Sub- Saharan Africa. Lessons from experience and ingredients of a successful strategy.

Muzurura, J. (2019) Causes, dissemination channels, and consequences of corruption in Zimbabwe

Najih, M., & Wiryani. 2020. Learning the social impact of corruption. A study of legal policy and corruption prevention in Indonesia and Malaysia

Ndlovu ,S, L., and Mutambara, E. Mnifestation of corruption within Kwazulu-Natal Municipalities. A thorn in the flesh

Nguyen, T, D., Shih, M., Srikanta, D., Xu, B., (2021). Stratified random sampling from streaming and stored data. Distributed and parallel databases.

Nourian, F, Dayarian, N., (2023).Barriers to public interest in urban development plans. *Iran University of Science and Technology.*

Nyandoro, M., and Hatti, N., (2023). Towards understanding Coruption in Business and Politics. A Conceptual Analysis.

Nyberg, D., (2021). Corruption, Politics, and Democracy: corporate political activities as political corruption.

Obama, B., (2010) National security strategy of the United States. *Diane Publishing, 2010*

Obiodun, T.F., Asaolu, A.A., Ndubuisi, A.I.,(2020). Defence budget and military spending on war against terror and insecurity in Nigeria: Implications for state politics economy and national security. Journal FOI. Volume 6 (7) 344-351.

Odekunle, A., and Alusa, A., (2021). The impact of fraudulent practices on infrastructural development in Nigeria.

Okafor, O.N, Adebisi, F.A., Opara, M., (2020). Deployment of whistle blowing as accountability mechanism to curb corruption and fraud in a developing democracy. Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, Volume 33 (6): 1335-1366.

Olmos-Vega, F, M., Stalmeijer, R,E., Varpio, L., Kahike, R., (2023). A practical guide to reflexivity in qualitative research. Medical teacher, 45(3), 241-251.

Onuoha, F.C., Nwangwu, C., Ugwuezw, M.I., (2023). Counterinsurgency operations of the Nigerian military and Boko Haram insurgency: Expounding the viscid manacle. *Ten years of Boko Haram in Nigeria.*

Onyango, G (2022): The art of bribery! Analysis of police corruption at traffic checkpoints and roadblocks in Kenya. *International review of sociology.*

Onyango, G., (2021). Whistleblower protection in developing countries: Review of challenges and prospects. Business and economics.

Ozekan, D., and Akan, H,D,M.,Climate Change and Food Security.

Paleri, P., (2022). National Security: Definitions and Manifestations. Rivisiting National Security: Prospecting Governance for Human Well-Being.

Pandey, P., and Pandey,M,M., (2021). Research methodology tools and techniques. Bridge center.

Park, T.Y., Park, S., Barry, B., (2022). Incentive effects on ethics. Academy of management annals.

Philippou, C., (2022). Anti-bribery and corruption in sport mega-events: Stakeholder peerspectives.

Pieth, M.., and Soreide, T., (2023). Elgar Concise Encyclopedia of Corruption Law.

Rai, N., and Thapa, B., (2015). A study on purposive sampling method in research. Kathmandu: Kathmandu School of Law. 5(1), 8-15.

Rumjaun, A and Narod, F., 2020. Social learning theory- Albert Bandura. Science education in the theory and practice. An introductory guide to learning theory.

Santiso, C, (2022). Govtech against corruption: What are the integrity dividends of government digitalization?

Saya, C., (2020). The Law on Witness Protection in Kenya: A whistle-blower's refuge or just a pipe dream?

Sayeed, C, M.,(2023). Governance, poverty, and corruption: An overview of the causes and consequences. *The nexus between poverty and corruption.*

Scrutinize the United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC), (2023) *Journal of Ccontemporary Sociological Issues.*

Senu, O., (2020). Development policy review. A critical assessment of anti-corruption strategies for economic development in sub-Saharan Africa.

Shammugam, I and Samy, G.N., (2021). Information security threats encountered by Malaysian public sector data centers. Indonesian journal of electrical engineering and computer science. Volume 21(3) 1820-1829.

Shema, G. (2018). Corruption and its effects on socio-economic security: Case study of Musanze District (2014-2018). Musanze, Rwanda: University of Rwanda.

Shin, S., (2020). The rise and fall of Park Geun-hye: The perils of South Korea's weak party system.

Singh, D (2022): Corruption, Extortion, and Power in Russia and Ukraine. The uneven struggle for impunity.

Sjah, T., and Zauniri.,(2020). Agricultural supply chain and food security. Zero hunger.

Someno, K., (2023). The impact of corruption on the enjoyment of human rights: The case of SNNPRS. Ethics and anti-corruption commission bureau.

Song, C.Q., Chang, C.P., Gong, Q., (2021). Economic growth, corruption, and financial development: Global evidence. Economic modelling.

Srinivas, J., Das, A, K., Kumah, N., (2019). Government regulations in cyber security: Framework standards and recommendations.

Stratton, S, J., (2021). Population research: convenience sampling strategies. Prehospital and disaster medicine. Vol 36(4), 373-374

Toumbourou, T, (2020). Using a Delphi approach to identify the most efficacious interventions to improve Indenesia's forest and land governance. Land use policy.

Usman, K. A. (2023). Assessing the Impact of Corruption on Underdevelopment in Kwara State. PQDT-Global.

Usman, M., Husnain, M., Akhtar, M.W., Ali, Y., Riaz, A., (2022). From the COVID-19 pandemic to corrupt practices: A tale of two evils. *Environmental science and pollution research.*

Vian, T, (2020). Anti-corruption, transparency and accountability in health: concepts, frameworks, and approaches.

Vozza, D., (2022). Exploring voluntary and mandatory compliance programmes in the field of anti-corruption. *Corporate compliance on global scale.*

Wau, H.S.M., Azwar, T.K.D., (2023). Intercept the land mafia.

White, J, T, (2021). After the foundational agreements: An agenda for US-India defence and security cooperation. *Brookings Institution*

World Bank, (2020). Protecting People and Economies: Integrated Policy Responses to COVID-19. Retreived from documents@worldbank.org

Xiaohu, Z., Heydari, M., Lai, K.K., Yuxi, Z., (2020). Analysis and modeling of corruption among entrepreneurs.

Yap, J, B, H., Lee, K, Y., Skitmore, M., 2020. Analysing the causes of corruption in the Malaysian construction industry.

Yasa, A.R., (2020). From Security Sector Reform to Endemic Corruption. Journal of Strategic Security. Volume 13 (3). 99-119

Yeh, S.S., (2022). The end of Corruption and Impunity.

Zinyama, T., (2021). Systematic corruption in Zimbabwe: Is the human factor the missing link? African Journal of Public Affairs, Vol12(1), 132-152.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH ASSISTANCE LETTER

Bindura University of Science Education

P. Bag 1020

Bindura

Zimbabwe

To whom it may concern

RE: REQUEST FOR RESEARCH ASSISTANCE

My name is Joseph Makuwerere, an undergraduate student at Bindura University of science Education, studying towards a Bachelor of Commerce Honors Degree in Financial Intelligence. In partial fulfilment of my degree l am required to carry out a research project hence the reason for this letter. The research l am carrying out is titled PUBLIC PERSPECTIVES ON THE IMPACT OF CORRUPTION ON NATIONAL SECURITY. A SURVEY OF CHITUNGWIZA

I kindly seek for your assistance as participant to the research understudy by filling in the questionnaire. I will be grateful if you could share your knowledge concerning the impact of corruption on National Security. All the information that you are going to share shall be used for academic purposes only. This means that you will remain anonymous and your responses will be kept confidential. I will follow all the research ethics. Your participation in this research is voluntary and kindly note that there is no financial or any other benefit which will accrue to you for participating in the study.

Please fill the attached questionnaire.

Thank you for your help.

Yours Faithfully

Joseph Makuwerere

INSTRUCTIONS

➢ Complete in ink
➢ Do not write your name on any page of the questionnaire
➢ Please tick [√] where necessary and where there is space provided, you can fill in brief.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender of participant

Male   [   ]

Female   [   ]

2. Age of participant

Less than 25 years   [   ]

25-35 years   [   ]

36-45 years   [   ]

Above 46 years   [   ]

3. Highest level of Education

Post Graduate Degree   [   ]

Undergraduate degree   [   ]

Ordinary and Advanced Level   [   ]

No formal schooling   [   ]

Other qualification   [   ]

4. Employment Status

Formal Sector   [   ]

Informal Sector   [   ]

Unemployed   [   ]

5. How long have you been staying in Chitungwiza?

Less than 2 years   [   ]

2 to 5 years   [   ]

6 to 10 years   [   ]

10 years and above   [   ]

SECTION B: FORMS OF CORRUPTION

6. The following are some of the forms of corruption that are prevalent in local authorities across the globe. Please indicate the level of prevalence of the form of corruption in Zimbabwe local authorities on a scale of 1-5, with 1 representing very low prevalence and 5 representing high prevalence:

Form of corruption	1	2	3	4	5
Corrupt allocation of residential stands					
Procurement related corruption					
Conflict of interest					
Insider trading					
Bribery					
Extortion					
Nepotism					
Corrupt allocation of vending space					

KEY

1-Very low prevalence   **2-**Low prevalence   **3** Prevalent

4-High prevalent   **5**Very high prevalence

SECTION C: CAUSES OF CORRUPTION

7. Given below are the factors regarded as the possible causes of corruption. In your opinion to what extent do you consider them as a cause?

Possible Cause	Not a Cause	A lesser Cause	A Cause	A major Cause
Unfair or inadequate salaries				
Poverty and inequality				
Political patronage				
Limited access to information				
Economic and financial pressures				
Poor internal controls				
Lack of citizen engagement				

SECTION D: IMPACTS OF CORRUPTION

8.The following are some of the impacts of corruption in local authorities to national security. Can you indicate the extent of the impact of the factors?

	Factor	Not an impact	Very less impact	Somewhat an impact	An impact	A major impact
a	Undermines democracy					
b	Erodes trust					
c	Increased expenditure					
d	Poor service delivery					
e	Rise of shadow economy					
f	Damaged reputation					
g	Hinders development					

SECTION E

9. The following are some of the measures to reduce and manage corruption, tick at least three factors you consider to be the most significant solutions in fighting corruption:

a. Strengthen transparency and accountability   [   ]
b. Educating and raising awareness   [   ]
c. Promote culture of integrity   [   ]
d. Implementing whistle blower protection   [   ]
e. Promote international cooperation   [   ]
f. Increase public sector salaries   [   ]

10. What other measure(s) can you suggest as solution(s) to counter corruption?

.

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview questions.

1. How familiar are you with the concept of corruption?
2. In your opinion, how prevalent is corruption in Chitungwiza?
3. Can you provide any specific examples or instances of corruption that you are aware of in Chitungwiza?
4. How do you think corruption affects the development and progress of Chitungwiza?
5. Have you personally experienced or witnessed any negative effects of corruption in your community?
6. How does corruption impact access to essential public services in Chitungwiza, such as healthcare and education?
7. Are you aware of any initiatives or measures taken by the government or civil society organizations to address corruption in Chitungwiza?
8. In your opinion, how effective are these efforts in combating corruption?
9. What suggestions do you have for effectively tackling corruption in Chitungwiza?
10. What role do you think citizens should play in fighting against corruption in Chitungwiza?