



ASHESI UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

Petty Corruption in the Ghanaian Police Sector

By

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Business Administration,
Ashesi University College.

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Science Degree in
Business Administration.

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April, 2017

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to Tanzi (1998) corruption has been a part of our societies for many centuries, and this has been an issue that many political regimes have either tried to solve or bury. Some political leaders come into power with the intention to fix the economy and eradicate corruption as their primary goal. However, leaders end up making situations worse for the economy because they lack the understanding of how sensitive corruption is as a problem. Corruption has been in existence for many years, embedded in the roots of our economic development, which is why countries that are highly corrupt are most likely to experience slow development. The issue with fighting corruption is that when a leader comes into power with the aim of building a better nation, the next leader may not necessarily share the same vision. Hence, eradicating corruption in a country could take a longer time than it has been in existence because there are several stages to it.

The popularly known definition of corruption is the misuse or abuse of power to personally gain from it (Transparency International, n.d.). Corruption cuts across the public and private sectors or institutions in the country from the highest levels to the lowest stages. Corruption in any nation starts from the top, as high as in the presidential political parties known as grand and political corruption, down to the lowest levels in government institutions referred to as petty or bureaucratic corruption (Elaine Byrne, 2009). These forms of corruption are fraud, bribery, extortion, embezzlement and nepotism. A clear example of corruption starting at the highest level of an institution was during the Nkrumah regime of Republic of Ghana.

Ghana, once known as the Gold Coast is West African country formerly colonized by British. The country was led to independence by Dr. Kwame Nkrumah on the 6th of March, 1957. Ghana's highest achievement was becoming the first country in the sub-Saharan Africa to achieve independence from colonial rule (About Ghana, 2004). However, with such great achievement came the root of corruption in the county.

Ghana had so much pride in becoming the first African country to escape colonial rule and in obtaining higher living conditions, better educational facilities, and more skilled and experienced workers than most other African countries. Consequently, Ghana was supposed to be the model for the newly independent African states. The country however failed, as Ghanaians were shown to be corrupt and inept (Werlin H. H., 1972).

According to Werlin H. H., (1972) corruption in Ghana started long before the country gained its independence, but worsened during Dr. Kwame Nkrumah's regime. Under Nkrumah's regime, corruption was acted as a requirement to meet certain roles, make a gain or achieve an objective in society, that when not met could result to serious failure on that person's part. Corruption was not only practiced by politicians alone, but by powerful people in the civil service, in commercial corporations, in political parties and so on. The extent of corruption was severe in Ghana under Nkrumah's administration that it was documented by more than 40 committees of enquiry. The National Development Corporation was set up in 1958 as a legitimate insurance business. However, to facilitate the collection and handling of bribes, this same corporation became an avenue through which commissions and other cash could be collected. Those resistant were effectively

disallowed government contracts, thus it became necessary to bribe many levels of the governing body to carry on a business

According to Werlin H. H., (1973) an American political scientist argues that the level of corruption is more extensive and effective in developing countries because of the condition under which the administrations are formed. There are no adequate measures for coordination, criticism and control necessary for meaningful legislation. Thus, legislation tends to be poorly formulated in developing countries. Nkrumah left Ghana with serious balance of payments, starting with a considerable large foreign reserve fund of over \$500 million at the time of independence. By 1966, the country had an external public debt of over \$800 million. Inflation was high between 1964 – 1965 causing a rise in price level to 30 percent, creating serious unemployment. A great deal of Ghana's economic trouble based on corruption is difficult to determine. Ultimately, the effect of corruption in Ghana weakened the legitimacy of the regime.

Corrupt practices have the capacity to affect not just the country but the lives of millions of people in that country. Corruption can be a voluntarily act or it can be imposed on someone when it becomes a norm practiced in that society, as in the case of Nkrumah's regime. Corruption distorts labor markets, discourages investment, leads to misallocation of resources and alters the distribution of income. Corruption does not affect everyone equally in the society but has a larger effect on the underprivileged class. When the poor are asked to pay bribes, it takes away a higher percentage of their incomes as compared to similar payments by the high class. In this case, it acts as a regressive tax, when the low-

income earners carry a relatively larger weight than the high-income earners. Corruption leads to poor delivery of public services such as health care and education. Such deterioration affects the lower class because they may have to pay bribes to receive proper services and because they are more dependent on the public amenities (Gale, 2008).

1.2 Research Problem

The Ghanaian police service is known for its corrupt activities starting from the high-level officials to the low-level officials. Ghanaian citizens experience petty corruption on a day-to-day basis from their encounters with the low-level officials. Police officers on the streets, the highways and the checkpoint barriers are known to be involved in collecting bribes and extorting money from citizens driving through the city. However, the cause of the bribe is not always from the side of the officials, but sometimes citizens offer bribes to avoid being prosecuted for a road traffic offence. The Ghanaian Police Service has been ranked the most corrupt public sector under the Government of Ghana by several studies conducted such as Afrobarometer and Transparency International (Afesorgbor, 2016).

Afrobarometer and Transparency International (TI) released a corruption perception index 2014 for Ghana, which surveyed Ghanaians perception of corruption. Both Afrobarometer and TI reported similar conclusions even though different research approaches were used. Afrobarometer gathered perceptions from ordinary people while TI asked experts (Armah-Attah, 2015). However, both studies failed to look at the problem from the perspective of the police officials to understand or know what their take is on the subject matter.

Afrobarometer concluded that majority of Ghanaians perceived “some”, “most” or “all” police officers, national government officials, parliamentarians, judges and magistrates, tax officials, president and officials in his office to be involved in corruption. The police sector had highest rating with 89 percent of Ghanaians perceiving it as the most corrupt public institution in the country. This was followed by government officials with a rating of 86 percent and tax officials with 85 percent. The perception of corruption has increased drastically over the years, which poses a serious threat in the development of the country (Armah-Atttoh, 2015).

The survey by Transparency International concluded that over 50 percent of the respondents perceived an increase in corruption and 35 percent thought it was extreme. Amongst the different institutions, the police sector was ranked 92 percent, followed by political parties with 76 percent, and the judiciary with 71 percent (Afesorgbor, 2016).

Another survey conducted by the Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA) cited the Ghana Police Service as the most corrupt institution in the country. 23 percent of the respondents interviewed believed that nearly all policemen were corrupt, with only 4.4 percent stating otherwise. Also, 40 percent of the people interviewed said corruption was the major problem of the economy (Kwawukume, 2015).

Focusing on petty corruption which affects majority of the populace, it tends to have a larger effect on the poor populaces in the Ghanaian society. This is because the poor are more dependent on basic government amenities as compared to the high-income

earners. Some of these government facilities are public hospitals, schools, and other institutions for the provision of essential services. Bribes are paid to obtain passports, get treated by nurses in the hospital, at the registrar's office to facilitate the process, lecturers to pass students, to bail ourselves out of a situation and pay bribes unwillingly demanded by police officials (Afesorgbor, 2016). One of the greatest destructive obstacle to the economic and social development in Ghana is corruption. Petty corrupt activities that are ignored by the government also plays a major role in affecting the economy. Corruption takes away resources from the large populace and deprives them from partaking in the piece of the national cake.

International organizations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank (WB) and Transparency International (TI) have researched into various aspects of bribery and corruption in Ghana and the different dimensions to the problem. IMF, WB and TI have looked at how bribery and corruption affects the economy, the welfare and businesses in Ghana. However, this study seeks to focus more on the police officials rather than the country and to understand from their perspective, what influences their decision to demand or accept bribes from civilians, and what they achieve at the end of it. Hence, the study seeks to unravel the daily incentives that leads to bribery between civilians and police officials in Ghana.

1.3 Research Objective

Based on the problem statement, the primary objective of the study was created which intends to unravel the factors that incite bribery between police officials and civilians in Ghana.

The sub objectives of the study are the following:

1. To identify the factors that cause citizens to offer bribes to police officials in Ghana.
2. To understand the benefit that bribery provides to citizens and police officials in Ghana.
3. To understand petty corruption in Ghana and its impact on the welfare of the society.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 Main Question

1. What factors influence police officials to solicit or accept bribes in Ghana?

1.4.2 Sub Questions

2. What are the factors causing citizens to offer bribes to police officials in Ghana?
3. What are the benefits that bribery provides to citizens and police officials in Ghana?
4. What is petty corruption in Ghana and how does it affect the welfare of the society?

1.5 Significance of The Study

This study will contribute to research conducted on corruption specific to Ghana's public sector. It would provide information to those seeking to understand how corruption, bribery to be specific plays a role in the development of the economy. Furthermore, it would have facts and surveys that shows what influences the act of bribery by low level officials in the country. The study will add on to existing literature sources that investigate on corruption

in Ghana and its impact. The relevance of the study is to aid anti-corruption agencies propose possible solutions that could reduce bribery in the Ghanaian police sector.

1.6 Scope and Limitation of The Study

This research is limited to the Republic of Ghana, Accra to be specific. The study would focus on corruption in the country but narrow it down to petty corruption due to the broadness of the context. It would focus on bribery in the low-level sector of the police institution. The study would be focused on the citizens and low level officials of the Police Sector because they are primarily associated with petty corrupt activities.

1.7 Methodology

The methodology used in this work is exploratory because it seeks to study petty or bureaucratic corruption that has not been properly tackled in Ghana. The second is descriptive research because it requires an in-depth description of the views and attitudes of people that have experienced petty corruption in the country. Hence, a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods will be employed for this research. Qualitatively, the study will conduct interviews on a selected number of low-level police officials at checkpoint barriers, the streets and district stations. Observations would be made on officials at various locations in Accra where bribery and extortion are frequently executed. Questionnaires would also be issued out to a random sample selection based on the respondent's experience with police officials, offering bribes and reasons behind it. The questionnaires would be open and closed ended for further reasons. Data collected would be analyzed using charts and multiple regression analysis to explain the relationship between a dependent variable and independent variables.

1.8 Chapter Disposition

This study is structured into five chapters and briefly described below.

Chapter One: Introduces the study by discussing key areas of the research, which include: the background of the research, the research problem, the research objectives, purpose of the study, and research questions. It also outlines the framework of each chapter.

Chapter Two: Focuses on the definitions of petty corruption and key drivers of petty corruption in the police sector. It also explains the theoretical frameworks used and reviews existing literature on the topic. The literature review analyzes previous academic research on the field of this study. Hence, discussing theoretical frameworks and empirical framework to guide the study.

Chapter Three: Describes the methods used in carrying out the research study. Exploratory and Descriptive methods will be used to demystify the topic both empirically and qualitatively. The figures and graphs will help understand the processes of corruption and their impact on the economy and society at large. The qualitative reports, on the other hand, will add more context to give the figures meaning, by explaining how and why police officers are corrupt. The researcher will provide surveys conducted and data analysis techniques in this chapter.

Chapter Four: This section provides an analysis of the research findings and results. The major findings of the study are analyzed in relation to the literature and the theoretical framework.

Chapter Five: This chapter provides the recommendations and conclusions based on the

findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter provides several definitions of corruptions by different authors, explains the different types of corruption, narrows down to petty corruption and relates petty corruption to the Ghanaian police sector. It also examines the different theories used to analyze corruption, the causes and effect of corruption on economic growth. This chapter will also analyze empirical literature of previous studies relating to the research topic. Though there are several existing research on corruption, only a few explored the bureaucratic level of corruption and related it to the police sector. The empirical literature would be based on measures that were taken to reduce bureaucratic corruption but failed. This is because no research was made to understand the motive behind petty corruption amongst the police officials in Ghana.

2.2 What is Corruption?

Corruption has been a major hindrance to economic growth and development, especially in underdeveloped countries. Corruption is widely accepted and generally defined as the misuse of entrusted power for private gain (Transparency International, n.d.)

Begovic (2005), Jain (2001), and Tanzi (1998) defined corruption as the deliberate

non-compliance with the arm's length principle aimed at developing some advantage for oneself or for related individuals from this behavior.

According to European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) (n.d.), a "Corrupt Practice" means the offering, giving, receiving or soliciting, directly or indirectly, of anything of value to influence improperly the actions of another party.

David (2012) in his broad view of corruption defined it as the illegal use of official power or influence by an official of the government either to enrich himself or further his course and any other person at the expense of the public, in violation of his oath of office or contrary to the conventions or laws that are in force.

A scientific definition of corruption from corruptie.org (n.d.), is an improbity or decay in the decision-making process in which a decision maker consents to deviate or demands deviation from the criterion which should rule his or her decision-making, in exchange for a reward or for the promise or expectation of a reward, while these motives influencing his or her decision making cannot be part of the justification of the decision.

The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) defined corruption as the non-violent criminal and illicit activity committed with objectives of earning wealth illegally either individually or in a group or organized manner thereby violating existing legislation governing the economic activities of government and its administration (David, 2012).

A broader definition is that corruption involves abuses by government officials such

as embezzlement and nepotism, as well as abuses involving public and private sectors such as bribery, extortion and fraud. Corruption encompasses the betrayal of public interest in exchange for a narrower benefit, and it also facilitates criminal activities such as drug trafficking and robbery (Azeem, 2009).

2.3 Classification of Corruption

Corruption is classified into four main forms namely: Grand (High level) corruption, Political corruption and Petty (Bureaucratic) corruption. Corruption executed at the “Grand” stage is when policies formulated are distorted, enabling leaders or law enforces to abuse power to attain wealth, and status for their selfish benefits. It does not indicate so much the amount of money involved in the process in which it takes place. However, grand corruption is at the highest level of public domain, where policies are formed (Elaine Byrne, 2009).

“Political” corruption falls in line with the “grand” or high-level corruption because it involves political decision makers. This form of corruption takes place at high levels of the political system, when politicians and state agents responsible for enforcing laws are rather using this authority to gain wealth, status and power. Political corruption leads to the misallocation of resources and distorts the way decisions are made. Transactions made between private and public sectors through collected goods are illegally transformed into private payments of bribes. Additionally, laws and regulations are abused by the rulers and tailored to fit their private interests (Elaine Byrne, 2009).

Bureaucratic, Small scale or Petty corruption is the everyday misuse of power by

street level police officials in their interaction with civilians, demanding or accepting modest sums of money to satisfy the cause. It is the daily corruption that takes place at the implementation end of policies, where the public officials encounter with the public. Petty corruption can be termed bribery in relation to the execution of existing laws, rules and regulations, thus making it different from grand or political corruption. Additionally, it involves modest sums of money at the low and street levels, because of its daily encounter with public administration and services such as police, taxing authorities, local license authorities, hospitals, road safety and so on (Elaine Byrne, 2009).

However, this research seeks to explore Bureaucratic, Petty or Small scale corruption between police officials and civilians in Accra, Ghana. Corruption between police officials and civilians is the most common in Accra, hence must be given significant attention.

2.4 Petty Corruption

According to U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (n.d.), petty corruption also called bureaucratic corruption is the daily corruption that takes place where bureaucrats meet the public directly. It is also described as survival corruption, which is pursued by low-level agents who may be grossly underpaid and who depend on relatively small extra fees to cater for their families. Though petty corruption involves small sums of money as compared to grand or political corruption, the amounts are not petty for the individuals affected. Corruption in the bureaucratic level affects the poorest members of society, who may be solicited for bribes frequently in their encounters with public administration and services such as hospitals, schools, police, local licensing authorities, taxing authorities etc.

Riley (1999) explained petty corruption as the involvement of small funds or favors that benefits junior officials in the public services. Petty corruption is not limited to poor societies but can be particularly damaging to the poorest people. Thus, workers in poorly paid positions may resort to corrupt behavior to fend for themselves. Greed, obligations to family and other cultural factors also contribute to petty corruption.

Yoo (2008) viewed petty corruption from a business point. He defined it as a commonplace where private citizens such as investors and business managers, deal with low-level officials in getting approval for specific privileges or economic activities. However, bribes are involved in completing a certain transaction within a reasonable time frame. In typical examples of petty corruption, citizens are engaged in dealing with low level officials regarding transactions involving the filing of appropriate tax returns, payment of duties, clearance of regulatory or license requirements, application of government benefits (loans from state owned banks, subsidies and jobs) or approval of specific privileges such as driver's license; passport; registration of a new firm as a legal business; worker's safety; environmental hazards and so on (Yoo, 2008).

2.5 The Public Sector

Boselli, Cesarini, & Mezzanica (n.d.) described the public sector as a system with multiple set of public policies that organizations implement or the services that organizations deliver to citizens. The public sector is made up of all organizations providing public services to the society such as health, education, social and cultural services. The public-sector services have several classifications such as the public administration, social security, education, health, social and personal services.

Martin (2004) termed the public service as certain requirements that are imposed by the Government on the public service providers to ensure that certain public interest objectives are met.

The public service is a fundamental aspect of the Government's administrative system that consists of ministries and departments. These include legal authorities and agencies, Government foundations, and companies with majority of their shareholding from the Government. Employees that serve in the public service are known as public officers and Government employees. For instance, a member of the Police Force is called a public officer (publicservice.gov.mt, 2015).

The public service in Ghana is made up of numerous organizations that regulate the services of general economic interest. These include services that pertain to the health, educational, transport, food, criminal, judicial, insurance, revenue sectors and so on. The organizations are limited to the following:

Ghana Education Service; Ghana Health Service, Ghana Highway Authority; Ghana Immigration Service; National Health Insurance Authority; Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority; Ghana Revenue Authority; National Road Safety Commission; Law Reform Commission; Judicial Service; Ghana Railway Development Authority; Public Sector Reform Secretariat; National Insurance Commission; Food and Drugs Authority; Ghana Water Company Limited; Ghana Broadcasting Corporation; Ghana Cocoa Board; Ghana National Petroleum Corporation; National Service Secretariat; Ghana Prisons Service; Ghana Police Service et cetera (Ghana.gov.gh, n.d.).

2.6 Ghana Police Service

The objective of this research is focused on the Ghanaian Police Service (GPS) and its corrupt activities. Policing in Ghana was introduced by the British Colonial Authorities in 1821. Policing was organized by traditional authorities such as chiefs before the British Authorities, to carry out legal functions in their communities. Presently, the GPS has several departments which makes up the force. These departments namely: Medical; Community Policing; Training Institutions; Criminal Investigation Department (CID); Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority (DVLA); Motor Traffic and Transport Directorate (MTTD); Highway Patrol Unit (HPU); Barrier Duty Men; Visibility Patrol Department and Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), each have different focus but all work towards the same goal (Ghana Police Service, n.d.).

The Motor Traffic and Transport Directorate (MTTD) is one of the most important sectors of the Ghana Police Service. It serves an unchallengeable purpose in Road Safety in the country. The traffic police officers are primarily in charge of traffic offences in the police sector. The traffic policemen manage and control traffic, enforce traffic rules and regulations as specified by the Road Traffic Act 2004 (ACT 683), investigate on road accident cases and educate the public on road safety matters. The objective of the traffic police officers is to prevent road accidents and offences, road destruction, free movement of vehicles and arrest motor offenders. Traffic policemen sometimes fill in the role of DVLA officers because they are of higher authority but the same cannot be said for DVLA officers (Ghana Police Service, n.d.).

The Highway Patrol Unit (HPU) are positioned on the highways and other roads in the city mainly to prevent and combat crime. The HPU are the first to respond to motor accidents on the highway, before the arrival of the MTTD. They are sometimes liable for document and vehicle inspect, though it is not their primary function (Obour, 2013).

The Barrier Duty Men oversee rigorous vehicle inspection for certain offences. They perform duties like watching out for and arresting wanted criminals, prison breaks, checking illegal movement of people and goods, seizing stolen vehicles and items, weapons, narcotics and other illegal goods. They also check live threatening practices like overcrowded vehicles by drivers (Obour, 2013).

The Visibility Patrol Department are a unique group of officials who perform diverse roles altogether. The patrol unit are meant to be visible and accessible in communities to prevent crime. The personnel of this department are positioned at road intersections, business districts, shopping malls and other vantage points within the city. They watch and observe the surroundings, and may also receive complaints from the public. Barriers are set up at odd random locations to inspect the movement of vehicles and people. Inspections are carried out day and night and this method of the patrol unit is called the snap check (Obour, 2013).

The Driver and Vehicle Licensing Authority (DVLA) is a sub-sector under the MTTD which overlooks driver and vehicle licensing. DVLA officers are usually responsible for checking the driver and vehicles document for proof of ownership, safety standards and following license protocol. DVLA officers establish standards and methods for the training and testing of driving instructors, drivers of motor vehicles, riders of

motorcycles, and vehicle examiners. They issue driving license, register driving schools, issue vehicle registration and examination certificates and so on (dvla.gov.gh, n.d.).

2.7 Road Traffic Act 2004 (ACT 683)

The road traffic rules and regulations is specified by the Road Traffic Act 2004 (ACT 683).

These are regulations that should be abided by Traffic police officials and civilians in Ghana. The road traffic act has 135 main sections stated below (Ghana Legal, n.d.).

Section - 1 - Dangerous Driving
Section - 2 - Meaning of Dangerous Driving
Section - 3 - Careless, And Inconsiderate Driving
Section - 4 - Driving Under Influence of Alcohol or Drugs
Section - 5 - Driving When Alcohol Concentration Is Above Prescribed Limit
Section - 6 - When Breath Test Is Required
Section - 7 - Failure to Provide Breath for Test
Section - 8 - Protection for Hospital Patients
Section - 9 - Detention of Persons
Section - 10 - Interpretation of Specified Terms in Sections 4 To 9
Section - 11 - Motor Racing
Section - 12 - Regulations of Motoring Events
Section - 13 - Seat Belts and Other Safety Equipment
Section - 14 - Carrying of Children in Motor Vehicles
Section - 15 - Safety Equipment for Children in Motor Vehicles
Section - 16 - Wearing of Protective Crash Helmets
Section - 17 - Regulation of Equipment
Section - 18 - Regulations in Respect of Part I
Section - 19 - Prohibition of Parking of Motor Vehicles on Verges, Central Reservations Footways, Place Reserved for Invalids
Section - 20 - Prohibition of Driving or Parking on Cycle Tracks
Section - 21 - Leaving Vehicles or Trailers in Dangerous Positions
Section - 22 - Causing Danger to Road-users
Section - 23 - Restriction of Carriage of Persons on Motor Cycles
Section - 24 - Restriction of the Carriage of Persons on Bicycles
Section - 25 - Tampering with Motor Vehicles
Section - 26 - Holding or Getting on to a Motor Vehicle While the Motor Vehicle Is in Motion
Section - 27 - Drivers to Comply with Traffic Directions

Section - 28 - Drivers to Comply with Traffic Signs
Section - 29 - Directions to Pedestrians
Section - 30 - Dangerous Cycling
Section - 31 - Careless and Inconsiderate Cycling
Section - 32 - Cycling Under the Influence of Alcohol or Drugs
Section - 33 - Regulation of Cycle Racing on Roads
Section - 34 - Electrically Assisted Pedal Cycles
Section - 35 - Prohibition of Driving Motor Vehicles Anywhere Other Than on Roads
Section - 36 - Highway Code
Section - 37 - Regulations in Respect of Part II
Section - 38 - Registration of Motor Vehicles and Trailers
Section - 39 - Register of Motor Vehicle and Motor Vehicles with Trailers
Section - 40 - Registration Numbers
Section - 41 - Using an Unregistered Motor Vehicle or Trailer
Section - 42 - Failure to Return Registration Document
Section - 43 - Not Fixing Registration Number
Section - 44 - Obscured Registration Number
Section - 45 - Trade Licences
Section - 46 - Surrender of Licence
Section - 47 - Appeal to Minister
Section - 48 - Regulation of Trade Licence
Section - 49 - Use of Vehicles by Holders of Trade Licences
Section - 50 - Misuse of A Trade Licence
Section - 51 - Regulations in Respect of Registration and Trade Licences
Section - 52 - Interpretation
Section - 53 - Driving Licences
Section - 54 - Application for Driving Licence
Section - 55 - Recognition of Driving Licences of Other Countries
Section - 56 - Test of Competence to Drive
Section - 57 - Requirements as To Physical Fitness
Section - 58 - Revocation, Suspension or Cancellation of Licence
Section - 59 - Provision of Information
Section - 60 - Driving After Refusal or Revocation of Licence
Section - 61 - Driving with Uncorrected Defective Eyesight
Section - 62 - Learner's Licence
Section - 63 - A Licence Granted in Error
Section - 64 - Appeals Relating to Licences
Section - 65 - Disqualification of Persons Under Age
Section - 66 - Disqualification to Prevent Duplication of Licences
Section - 67 - Obtaining Licence or Driving While Disqualified
Section - 68 - Driving Schools
Section - 69 - Driving Instructors
Section - 70 - Application for Registration of Driving Instructors

Section - 71 - Display of Registration Certificate
Section - 72 - Duration of Registration
Section - 73 - Refusal to Register a Driving Instructor or A Driving School
Section - 74 - Removal of Names from The Register
Section - 75 - Appeals
Section - 76 - Offences in Respect of The Register
Section - 77 - Surrender of Certificates or Licences
Section - 78 - Production of Certificates and Licences To Police Officers and Authorized Persons
Section - 79 - Service of Notices
Section - 80 - Use of Vehicle in A Dangerous Condition
Section - 81 - Regulation of Construction, Weight, Equipment and Use of Vehicles
Section - 82 - Contravention of Requirement for Brakes, Steering-gear Or Tyres
Section - 83 - Failure to Comply with Requirements for Weights of Commercial Vehicles
Section - 84 - Regulations in Respect of Carrying Hazardous Goods
Section - 85 - Carriage and Labelling of Hazardous Goods
Section - 86 - Rejection and Disposal of Hazardous Goods by Road
Section - 87 - Forfeiture of Hazardous Goods
Section - 88 - Contravention of Other Construction and Use Requirements
Section - 89 - Liability of Owner and Other Persons for Breach of Construction and Use Requirements
Section - 90 - Regulations in Respect of Licensing of Driver of Motor Vehicles, Construction and Weight Requirements of Motor Vehicles
Section - 91 - Interpretation in Respect of Part IV
Section - 92 - Tests of Condition of Motor Vehicles
Section - 93 - Persons to Conduct Examinations of Vehicles
Section - 94 - Road Use Certificate
Section - 95 - Issue of Road Use Certificate/sticker
Section - 96 - Exemption from Requirement for Road Use Certificate
Section - 97 - Using Vehicle with Unauthorized Weights as Well As Authorized Weights Marked on It
Section - 98 - Motor Vehicle Examiners
Section - 99 - Testing of Condition of Motor Vehicles on Roads
Section - 100 - Examination of Commercial Vehicles
Section - 101 - Power to Prohibit Driving of Unfit Motor Vehicles
Section - 102 - Prohibition Conditional on Examination
Section - 103 - Power to Prohibit Driving of Overloaded Cargo Vehicles
Section - 104 - Offence in Respect of Roadworthy and Overloaded Motor Vehicles
Section - 105 - Removal of Prohibitions
Section - 106 - Vehicle Examination Centres
Section - 107 - Fitting and Supply of Defective or Unsuitable Vehicle Parts
Section - 108 - Weighing of Motor Vehicles
Section - 109 - Liability for Driving Overloaded Vehicle or Trailer

Section - 110 - Offences to do with Reflectors, Tail Lamps and Cycles
Section - 111 - Regulations in Respect of Vehicle Test, Road Use Certificates and Weighing of Motor Vehicles
Section - 112 - Licensing of Drivers of Commercial Vehicles
Section - 113 - Grant of Licences; Fitness as Regards Conduct
Section - 114 - Revocation or Suspension of Licences
Section - 115 - Disqualification on Revocation of Licence
Section - 116 - Revoked or Suspended Licences: Surrender, Return and Endorsement
Section - 117 - Appeal to Court
Section - 118 - Spot Fines
Section - 119 - Powers of Police Officers and Other Authorized Persons
Section - 120 - Power of Police Officers and Vehicle Examiners to Require Production of Driving Licences
Section - 121 - Power of Police Officers to Obtain Names and Addresses of Drivers and Others, And to Require Production of Evidence of Insurance and Road Use Certificates
Section - 122 - Power to Arrest for Dangerous or Careless Driving or Cycling
Section - 123 - Failure to Give Particulars
Section - 124 - Duty of A Driver to Stop, Report Accident and Give Information or Documents
Section - 125 - Duty of Owner of Motor Vehicle to Give Information for Verifying Compliance with Requirement of Compulsory Insurance
Section - 126 - False Statements and Withholding Material Information
Section - 127 - Issue or Tender of False Documents
Section - 128 - Power to Seize Articles in Respect of Which Offences May Have Been Committed
Section - 129 - Impersonation of Persons Employed by The Licensing Authority
Section - 130 - Taking Motor Vehicle or Cycle Without Authority
Section - 131 - Forgery of Licence
Section - 132 - General Penalties
Section - 133 - General Regulations
Section - 134 - General Interpretation
Section - 135 - Repeals and Savings

2.8 Theoretical Framework

Researchers have tried to answer several questions in relation to bureaucratic corruption and in doing so, they employed several theories and models to answer the questions.

1) Why is petty corruption more extensive in certain countries than others?

Halim (2008) tested alternative theories of bureaucratic corruption in less developed countries. The author tested informal, formal and cultural control explanations against one another to understand cross-national differences in bureaucratic corruption. Using cross-sectional and longitudinal data, the author tested the hypothesis with models like ordinary least squares (OLS), tobit, ordered probit, and fixed and random effects models.

2.8.1 Three Control Theories

All the three theories stated that corruption exists and expands when there is no proper control in a state. Thus, making it more extensive in the country relative to countries with effective control measures.

1. Informal Control

Peter B. Evans, a primary supporter of the informal control argues that the public sector becomes competent when it realizes Weber's remedies for an ideal bureaucracy. Evans places emphases on the key to bureaucratic corruption as the institutions in that bureaucracy. For instance, the police service in the public sector is known for its petty corrupt activities. Hiring employees based on their skills and not on favoritism or political connections results to corporate coherence among the workers. Since jobs are assigned to bureaucrats based on merit, it results to mutual peer supervision and prevents corruption in

the government. Evans constructed an index of meritocratic recruitment to test Weberian bureaucracy hypothesis. This leads to the first hypothesis of the study.

H₁: Bureaucrats are less likely to engage in corruption if their recruitment is merit based.

2. Formal Control

Peer supervision as stated by the merit based recruitment might appear useless in controlling bureaucratic corruption in less developing countries. Therefore, political institutions exterior to the bureaucracy such as democracy, parliamentary democracy and effective judiciary, are central to disciplining the officials involved in petty corruption. Democracy and balances of power control increases the likelihood of selecting and retaining good politicians in public office. By ensuring that politicians are held liable for their actions and those of bureaucrats. Thus, three sub-hypotheses were formed.

H_{2a}: Democratic countries are better able to control bureaucratic corruption than autocratic countries.

H_{2b}: Parliamentary democracies are better able to control bureaucratic corruption than their representative counterparts.

H_{2c}: Judicial efficacy militates against bureaucratic corruption.

3. Cultural Control

Citizens in a civic community actively debate public issues, cast votes, read newspapers, become involved in socio-cultural associations and trust one another. On the other hand, citizens in an un-civic community do not participate in public decision making and rarely engage in socio-cultural associations. On the demand side, citizens seek better public services while on the supply side, bureaucrats render better services. Thus, bureaucrats in

civic regions are aware of their duties and the disciplinary function of their employed constituents. This discussion leads to the third hypothesis.

H₃: The higher the level of civic engagement in a country, the lower the level of corruption among its bureaucrats.

Conclusion: The empirical evidence showed a strong association between the level of institutionalization of formal control and the level of bureaucratic corruption across developing countries. The test on the three control theories finds that the formal control through electoral accountability and judicial efficacy seems to restrict bureaucratic corruption whereas informal (e.g., merit based recruitment) and cultural (e.g. civic engagement) control do not. The results suggest that democracy, parliamentary democracy and strong judiciaries might impose significant constraints on bureaucratic corruption.

2) What are the causes of corruption?

A study conducted on corruption by Graaf (2007) tries to unravel the causes of corruption from a contextual point of view. The author uses theoretical models as a direction for proposed solutions to problem. Six groups of theories were used in relation to the causes of corruption.

2.8.2 Six Groups of Theories

1. Public Choice Theory

States that there is a rational choice theory, where the causal chain is an individual making a logical decision that leads to a predetermined outcome. Crucial to the theory is the

individual corrupt official who tries maximize his or her utility. The individual decides to become corrupt when its expected advantages outweigh its expected disadvantages (a combination of possible penalty and the chance of being caught). They perceive that the potential benefits of corruption exceed the potential costs. If the benefits of corruption, minus the probability of being caught, times its penalties are greater than the benefits of not being caught, then an individual will rationally choose to be corrupt. In this sort of theory, actions of corrupt officials are caused by a rational, conscious and deliberate weighing process of an individual.

2. Bad Apple Theories

This theory states that corruption can result from an individual's bad character. People with faulty (moral) character are termed 'bad apples'. There is a chain of events from bad character to corrupt acts, the root cause of the act is found in faulty human character and proneness toward criminal activity. Causes are rooted in human weaknesses such as greed. When the focus is on an individual's faulty character, the person is assumed to act based on moral values. Thus, wrong values are the cause of corruption.

3. Organizational Culture Theories

This theory considers the broader context of corruption, not in the background of the corrupt official, but in the culture and structure of the organization which that official works in. The underlying assumption of the theory seems to be that a certain group culture leads to a certain mental state and that leads to corrupt behavior. Failure in the proper system of government, not faulty character, leads public officials to act corruptly. Other related theories of corruption are the 'contagious' theories, which state that once an organizational

culture is corrupt, it affects individuals who come in contact and are likely to be corrupt.

4. Clashing Moral Values Theories

This theory makes a distinction between the public role and private duty of corrupt officials. The causal chain in these theories starts with certain values and norms of society that directly influences the values and norms of individuals. These values and norms influence the behaviors of officials making them corrupt. In many societies, there is no clear distinction between an individual's public and private roles. Thus, because of the clash between values connected to an individual's role in society, choices have to be made and certain values lead to corruption.

The theories of Weber and Habermas speaks of micro morality and macro morality. Micro morality is about values, norms and moral obligations in our daily personal and social lives, that involves connecting with our friends and family. Obligations from micro morality are based on informal norms, but are stronger than our moral obligations towards outsiders. Moral duties in our personal lives are characterized by mutual benefit. We help our friends and family just as we expect them to do the same for us. Conflicts arise in society when people find themselves torn between two social roles with conflicting moral obligations. For instance, the macro morality of public officials requires them to treat people equally, whereas the micro morality requires them to be biased.

5. The Ethos of Public Administration Theories

This theory is closely related to the theory of organizational culture but varies in that major area of concern is the culture within the public management and society at large. This theory looks at corruption from a societal level, the organizational level plays an important

role through macro factors instead of the individual. Thus, in these theories the political and economic structures are studied. The causal chain of societal forces on officials to perform through the level of organizations, without paying attention to integrity issues, leads to a focus on effectiveness making him or her corrupt.

6. Correlation Theories

This theory analyses the causes of corruption at all levels, that is individual, organizational and societal levels. The correlation theories do not start from an implicit or explicit theoretical model but from specific factors. These studies are usually not explicit on the causality of corruption. Noticeable in this regard is the frequent correlation between income and corruption. It seems that the lower the income of a country, the higher the occurrence of corruption.

According to Graaf (2007) the clearest theory on the causes of corruption of the six groups seems to be the public choice related theories. Different causal chains lead to different discourses on corruption prevention and corruption control. However, from my analyses and understanding of the six theory groups, the organizational culture theory seems to make a lot more sense. The Ghanaian police sector as an organization employs new officials into the system. Officials are not all employed with a corrupt mindset but eventually adapt to the norm in the organization. Thus, exposing individuals to the risk of becoming corrupt once employed into the sector.

3) What are the effects of corruption on the growth of an economy?

Adenike (2013) investigates the impact of corruption on economic growth in Nigeria from 1980 – 2009 using regression analysis. The granger causality test and impulse response function was carried out.

2.8.3 The Granger Causality Test and Impulse Response

1. Regression Analysis

In conducting the regression analysis, the study used Barro's growth model because the model permits the inclusion of more policy variables in economic growth equation. The model was specifically modified to include bribery and corruption as one its explanatory variable. This study adopts three channels through which corruption affects economic growth which are public investment, human capital and foreign direct investment. Thus, four equations were formulated and given as:

- $$\ln y_t = c_t + \delta(\ln fpi_t) + \psi(\ln esp_t) + \omega(\ln cor_t) + \alpha(\ln k_t) + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (2)$$

Equation (2) measures the direct impact of corruption on economic output per worker. This results obtained showed that capital, foreign private investment, expenditure on education will bring about an increase in economic output, but corruption is a negative factor for economic output.

- $$\ln y_t = c_t + \delta(\ln fpi_t) + \psi(\ln esp_t) + \omega(\ln cor_t) + \alpha(\ln k_t) + \varphi(\ln k_t \ln cor_t) + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (3)$$

Equation (3) measures the indirect effect of corruption on economic growth via government capital expenditure. The results obtained showed that corruption per worker creates inefficiencies and reduces the potential effect of capital per worker in

the Nigerian economy.

- $iny_t = c_t + \partial(infpi_t) + (infpi_t incor_t) + \dot{v}(inesp_t) + \infty(incor_t) + \alpha(ink_t) + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (4)$

Equation (4) measures the indirect effect of corruption on economic growth via foreign private investment. The results showed that the presence of corruption brings about a negative response of economic output to the effect of foreign private investment per worker over time. Thus, implying corruption per worker reduces the effect of foreign private investment on economic output per worker drastically.

- $iny_t = c_t + \partial(infpi_t) + \dot{v}(inesp_t) + \omega(inesp_t incor_t) + \infty(incor_t) + \alpha(ink_t) + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (5)$

Equation (5) measures the indirect effect of corruption on economic growth via expenditure on education. The results showed that corruption per worker increases the negative impact of expenditure on education per worker on economic output per worker.

Thus, a breakdown of the equations is as follow, where:

- c_t = constant parameter
- ε_{1t} = white noise error term.
- Gross domestic product (GDP) is a proxy for Y_t
- Government Capital Expenditure is a proxy for K_t
- Total labour force (EMP) is a proxy for L_t
- Foreign private investment is a proxy for FPI_t
- Expenditure on education is a proxy for ESP_t
- Incidence of bribery and corruption is a proxy for COR_t

Thus,

- (y_t) = GDP per worker
- (k_t) = capital per worker
- (esp_t) = expenditure on education per worker
- (cor_t) = corruption per worker and lastly

- (fpi_t) = foreign private investment per worker

Conclusion: The empirical results revealed that corruption per worker has a direct negative influence on output per worker and an indirect negative impact on capital per worker, foreign private investment per worker and expenditure on education per worker.

2. Causality Test

The aim of this test is to investigate whether a causal relationship exists between corruption per worker and economic output per worker. The test tries to find out if corruption determines the direction and likely future occurrence of economic growth, or if it is the other way around.

The theory showed a causal relationship between total economic output and corruption per worker. It also stated that the relationship is unilateral and the direction moves from total economic growth to corruption per worker.

2.9 Empirical Literature

The empirical literature looks at the possible solution to the problem of petty or bureaucratic corruption in Ghana. The study seeks to answer the question; how can we lower the incidence of petty corruption in the police sector?

Foltz (2015) studied policy experiments on petty corruption in West Africa. Given the faults and poor performance of institutions in developing countries, a reduction in corruption has been a major concern to economists and policymakers.

A burgeoning literature suggests that raising salaries of government officials could reduce their tendency to solicit and accept bribes. According to Van Rijckenghem and

Weder (2001), countries with higher civil service wages have lower levels of corruption. Study on political corruption by Gagliarducci and Nannicini (2013) and Ferraz and Finan (2009) suggested that an increase in salaries for politicians will reduce their levels of corruption. Other researchers Armantier and Boly (2011) and Van Veldhuizen (2013) have also shown that raising wages or payments to subjects reduces corrupt behavior.

The study by Foltz (2015) exploits the work of civil service policy reforms in Africa to ask whether higher salaries for corrupt officials will improve or worsen petty corruption outcomes in developing countries. On one hand, petty corrupt acts such as bribery may be because of low incomes thus higher incomes would reduce corruption significantly. On the other hand, corrupt acts that occur because of other factors aside low incomes can escalate by a higher appetite that higher incomes would bring.

2.9.1 The Single Spine Salary Structure (SSSS) in Ghana

The term ‘single spine’ was inspired by a biological analogy: as all nerves and organs of the human body are connected to a single spinal cord, so would all public workers be connected to a common salary system (Seniwoliba, 2014).

In July 2010, the Government of Ghana implemented a “single-spine” salary structure for all police officials, individually doubling their incomes, to improve the official’s standard of living. Neighboring countries in the West African region did not employ this policy. However, they left their police salaries unchanged throughout the period, same as other government officials within Ghana.

Results showed that the salary reform worsened petty corruption outcomes rather than reduce them, empirically deviating from the theoretical models of corruption that talked about higher salary leading to improved corruption activities. The results show that raising salaries for Ghanaian police officers caused the police to solicit for more bribes. In other words, the higher salary translates into petty corruption effort becoming more intense.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the processes and techniques that will be implemented in carrying out the research to achieve the objectives of the study. It will provide the framework of the research design and instruments for data collection, data collection procedure and data analysis. The chapter will also provide an estimate of the respondents needed for the survey and sampling techniques used.

3.2 Research Design

The research design is the overall strategy used for collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting the data in the research study. This study would focus on exploratory and descriptive research.

3.2.1 Exploratory Research

Exploratory research is done when there is little or no information about the research topic in that context. New insights or data can cause a change to the direction of the study.

Therefore, research aims to explore the research questions and objectives towards the course of the project, but does not expect to provide final solutions to the research problem. Exploratory research helps readers have a better understanding of the problem (M & Lynn, n.d.).

3.2.2 Descriptive Research

Descriptive research seeks to thoroughly describe a research problem using the what and how questions. Descriptive research is designed to describe the participants studied in an accurate way. It observes the behaviors of behaviors of participants and generates an understanding from it. Descriptive research generates hypotheses and is characterized by specific research questions (M & Lynn, n.d.).

3.3 Research Approach

The approach to conducting the research uses mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach to collect data on the study.

3.3.1 Quantitative Research

This method is used to determine the level of a problem or the existence of a relationship between different independent variables and dependent variable, by quantifying the variation. The method measures the data collected through mathematical, statistical, and numerical analysis (Wyse, 2011). The collection of data would be done through online or electronic delivery of questionnaires to a large sample size. This research method is relevant to the study because it more reliable and objective. It is used to test theories or hypotheses and makes data analysis less complex.

3.3.2 *Qualitative Research*

This research method is used to explore the meanings, thoughts, values, motivations and opinions that people associate with to understand a problem. It goes deeper into the problem and provides insights to help develop ideas or hypothesis for quantitative research (Wyse, 2011). Information would be collected through individual interviews from a small sample size.

3.4 Sources of Data

The data needed for the research would be obtained through primary and secondary data.

3.4.1 Primary Data

Information collected for the first time specifically for the research project is your primary data. For this research, the primary data would be collected through questionnaires, interviews and observations.

Questionnaires

This survey approach of collecting data is used for the quantitative method. It is a list of questions given to respondents with the options to select an answer or give feedback. The questionnaires are open and closed ended but for this research it would be closed ended. This means that the response to the questions would be limited with a yes or no reply. The questions would be clear and straight forward to the point. Respondents would easily provide answers because the questionnaires would be simple and easy to follow.

Interviews

This survey approach is used for the qualitative method. Interviews are face-to-face discussions with the individual respondent, asking direct questions on the subject matter. This interview would be focused on the low-level police officials in Ghana, and the questions would be open ended to broaden the scope of response. The questions asked would be the same but depending on the respondent, it would be asked in diverse ways. The interviews would be timed to give room for more respondents to be interviewed and prevent spending so much time on one respondent.

3.4.2 Secondary Data

The information that already exists and has been collected on the research topic or problem is secondary data. Thus, the secondary data would be sourced from already existing literature. These are books, academic research papers, journals, websites and so on.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Selection

The process of selecting a sub-population from a larger group or population to test the research on is a sample. The sampling selection would be a convenient and random selection process. The sampling would be a small percentage of population and from people that are conveniently available for the research. The sample size for the questionnaires would be issued out to about 100 respondents to get a more accurate data for the analysis. The sample size for the interviews and observations would be about 20 police officials for the analysis. The selection of the small sample size is due to time and resource constraints.

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