GOVERNANCE INITIATIVES TO FIGHT CORRUPTION

COMBATING CORRUPTION IN TANZANIA’S PUBLIC SERVICE: SUCCESSES AND CHALLENGES

Dr. Mujwahuzi Njunwa
Associate Professor of public policy and Administration
Director
Institute of Public Administration
Mzumbe University, Mzumbe, Morogoro, Tanzania.

P.O. BOX 2 Mzumbe
FAX +255 23 2603555
Tel. +255 23 2603556
E-mail: mujwareggie@hotmail.com
kilakala@yahoo.com
COMBATING CORRUPTION IN TANZANIA’S PUBLIC SERVICE:
SUCCESSES AND CHALLENGES

ABSTRACT
Corruption, broadly defined as dishonest or illegal behavior, especially of people in authority, has today grown into a global vice of disturbing proportions. This paper looks at the nature of corruption in Tanzania’s public service, explores the measures that have been put in place to fight the malady. We have argued that corruption does not have an independent existence. It resides in society and thus corruption is a social relation. The point of departure to understanding the nature of corruption is to understand the society in which it (corruption) thrives. We have concluded that it is not enough to declare policy and or legal frameworks for fighting corruption. Such policy and legal frameworks ought to be accompanied by strong enforcement mechanisms. The fight against corruption should be a collective fight in which all stakeholders affected by it are involved.
COMBATING CORRUPTION IN TANZANIA’S PUBLIC SERVICE: SUCCESSES AND CHALLENGES.

Introduction and Purpose of the Paper

Corruption, defined broadly, as dishonest or illegal behavior, especially of people in authority (Hornby, 2000), has today grown into a global vice of disturbing proportions. Individual cases of corruption in both the public and private sectors have been reported in the Americas, several countries in Africa, Asia and Europe. According to Transparency International (2004) a whopping US$400 billion per year is lost through corruption worldwide in government procurement alone. Speaking at the launching of Tanzania’s Construction Sector Transparency Initiative (CoST) sponsored by the United Kingdom through the Department of International Development (DFID) on May 22, 2008 the British High Commissioner to Tanzania, Mr. Philip Parham, revealed that about US$ 400 billion was lost annually to corruption in the construction sector worldwide. He specifically indicated that in Tanzania, 90% of contractors pay 10 to 15 per cent of contract value in bribes (see The Citizen, Tanzania, No. 1163, Friday May 23, 2008, p.3). According to the United Nations (UN) Report (2008) almost all Asian countries were beset by petty corruption. The UN report says that the sort of bribes many Asians pay as a matter of course were worsening child mortality and perpetuating poverty across the region. The fact that several Asian countries have endorsed the Asia-Pacific Anti-Corruption Initiative reflects their genuine acceptance that corruption in these countries was a serious problem that demanded to be addressed.

In some post-communist European countries corruption in the public service involving officials of government was rampant especially in Ukraine, Bulgaria as well as in Czech and Slovak Republics (Miller, 1999). In Africa the situation was equally disturbing. Nigeria, for instance, loses 100,000 barrels of oil through corruption everyday (Wole Soyinka interview with Riz Khan on Aljazeera TV One on One Program, July 22, 2008). In South Africa, the current president of the African National Congress (ANC) Mr. Jacob Zuma is presently (2008) undergoing court trial for allegedly benefiting from a generally corrupt relationship with a businessman, Shabir Shaik to the tune of R1.3 million. Shaik is currently in jail serving a 15-year sentence. It is further
alleged that Mr. Zuma solicited bribes of R500, 000 per annum protection fee from the French arms manufacturer, Thales, whose subsidiaries – Thint Holding (Southern Africa) Pty Ltd and Thint Pty Limited were cited as accused No.2 and 3 respectively. They were bidders in contracts to supply arms to the South African government (Nyanto, 2005). In July 2008 Kenya’s Finance Minister Mr. Amos Kimunya was forced to resign following corruption allegations involving the sale of the Grand Regency Hotel (a public property) to a Libyan investor. It was claimed that Mr Kimuya ignored the parliament’s instructions on the matter and proceeded to dispose of the hotel at a price very much below its market value against official procurement procedures (Tanzania Nipashe Newspaper, No.043856, July 8, 2008, p.2). In Tanzania the prime minister and two cabinet ministers (former minister for minerals and energy and minister for East Africa Cooperation) were forced to resign in February 2008 following serious allegations of corruption leveled against them. The two ministers are presently under investigation following these allegations (Tanzania Mwananchi Newspaper, No. 1365, August 29, 2008, pp.1-2). In June 2008 a third cabinet minister (infrastructure development, but formerly Tanzania’s Attorney General) was also forced to resign following allegations of illegal acquisition of US$2.2 million deposited in a foreign bank account in the United Kingdom.

The examples cited above clearly show that corruption in the public sector was pervasive and a serious stumbling block to the promotion of good governance. In practical terms, corruption is a hindrance to democratic market-oriented reforms, it is exacerbating poverty and inequality, lowering nations’ growth levels, fostering political instability, contributing to high crime rates, increasing costs of doing business as well as fostering misguided and unresponsive polices and regulations (Sullivan and Shkolnikov, 2004). The measures to combat corruption differ from country to country, depending on its entrenchment, government process openness, the strength of the country’s political and moral will to combat it, the existence and aggressiveness of non-governmental organizations in respective countries as well as the existence of democratic freedoms allowed to citizens and organizations.
Tanzania has not been spared of this ever-growing vice. Corruption in Tanzania is on the increase despite the various measures the government has taken so far to fight this malady. This paper is a modest contribution to the debate on the problem of corruption in developing countries, with specific emphasis on Tanzania’s public service. In specific terms, the paper seeks to show how Tanzania has tried to fight corruption, the measures public administration has adopted to combat it as well as the challenges it is facing in fighting this vice. The paper is divided in seven sections: (i) the introduction, where the global pervasiveness of corruption and the purpose of the paper are outlined; (ii) a discussion of key conceptual/theoretical issues related to corruption, the public service, and good governance; (iii) an exploration of factors that have led to the emergence of corruption in Tanzania since 1961 when the country attained its political independence; (iv) a presentation of the measures which have been taken to fight corruption in the public service; (v) a review of the successes attained and the challenges faced; (vi) lessons for reflection; (vii) conclusions.

Conceptual Issues

Corruption and its manifestations

As Pathak and Prasad (2006) have argued, corruption is a complex phenomenon in terms of definition, form and manifestations. Bardham (1997) defines corruption as the use of public office for private gains. Rose - Ackerman (1999) describes corruption as a symptom that something has gone wrong in the management of the state. In fact, Klitgaard (1995a, 1995b) and Rose- Ackerman (1978, 1994a) have formulated a corruption equation which shows that corruption is a product of Monopoly plus Discretion in the absence of Transparency (Corruption = Monopoly +Discretion – Transparency (in governance). A number of observations can be made from these definitions. Firstly, it can be deduced that corruption is a relation whereby two or more persons are engaged in an unauthorized transaction from which the parties involved ultimately enjoy unauthorized benefits. Secondly, in a relation of corruption there is always a strong and secret desire for personal (not community) gain. Thirdly, and in view of the equation above, corruption thrives where decision-making power and authority are
monopolized by a class of elites who function under a non-transparent system of public service in which accountability mechanisms are functionless.

Addressing the aspect of form of corruption Sullivan and Shkolnikov argue that corruption is an institutional problem which should not be viewed as an individual problem. They argue that corruption, as an institutional problem, prospers in countries with weak legal systems, poor enforcement mechanisms, vague and complex laws and regulations, and too much discretionary power with little transparency at various levels of government. In view of this perspective, Sullivan and Shkolnikov suggest that strategies to combat corruption should assume an institutional approach which ought to include reforming government agencies, reducing opportunities by simplifying laws, codes, and regulations, creating sound corporate governance mechanisms, and ensuring fairness and transparency in public-private sector relationships.

Another issue related to form of corruption pertains to the various manifestations that corruption can assume. There is sexual corruption. This is the form of corruption that has often been reported in circles of employment. Employing officials (male and or females) have been reported to have demanded sexual favors in exchange for a job or a service. In some instances jobseekers (especially those with limited qualifications) have themselves been reported to have exhibited apparent willingness to use sex to obtain a job or service. In Tanzania a number of employing officials have been prosecuted and charged under the 1998 Sexual Harassment Act for having engaged in sexual corruption. Corruption can also come as bribes. A bribe is a sum of money or something valuable that you give or offer to somebody to persuade them to help you, especially by doing something dishonest. Bribes have been reported to have flourished in the public service where there was a staggering disproportion between citizen demands for services/goods and the ability of public administration to supply those services/goods in sufficient quantities. In situations where the demand exceeds supply citizens/clients/customers are likely to offer bribes (money, sex and valuables) to obtain the services/goods that are in short supply. This is what happened in Tanzania in the mid-1980s when production capacity fell to below 30% of the installed industrial capacity. Racketeering and bribery thrived. It was
the poor citizens who bore the brunt of this sort of corruption. Moreover, bribes have been reported to have flourished in areas of political struggle. In many countries, especially in the developing world, political positions are a crucial factor to access power, wealth, respect and glory. Contestants struggle hard to acquire these positions. The struggle may take a variety of forms including offers of money, valuables, and sex. As Clapham (1985) has argued, the state in developing countries provides a source of power and wealth entirely disproportionate to that available from any other organized force within society. In these countries, the quest for state power takes on a pathological dimension. The prize of state control is too appealing to be abandoned. Control over the state is a prize which can be fought for, and therefore is. This fight involves political contestants bribing the voters or members of the electoral commission to be able to win the elections. This is exactly what happened in Kenya (President Mwai Kibaki) and Zimbabwe (President Robert Mugabe) during the presidential and parliamentary elections this year (2008). The two presidents manipulated the electoral process in their favor to ensure that they obtained the post of president amidst strong public opposition and outcry. Political bribery was also abundantly observed in Tanzania’s 2005 presidential and parliamentary elections which represented a typical and ugly case of political corruption in which political contestants heavily bribed the electorate in exchange for votes.

There is the question of relativity in relation to what society regards as a bribe or a non-bribe. Let us briefly look at the question of tipping. A tip is a small amount of extra money that you give to somebody who has provided you with a service, such as a person who has served you in a restaurant. In many western countries, especially the United States of America, tipping of waiters, taxi drivers, porters and doormen is regarded as normal and acceptable. However, the law does not allow tips for customs officials and airline personnel. To Americans, tipping works on the theory that by compensating people through tips rather than a straight salary, you encourage good service (Lanier, 1988). However, in other countries such as Tanzania America’s tipping theory is highly debatable. In most of these countries, Tanzania included, any form of tip is officially condemned, regarded as corruption and punishable under established law. In view of the
foregoing, we can conclude that perspectives of what may be regarded as a bribe or not a bribe vary from society to society. However, there are seems to be almost a universal consensus that using public office for personal gains is outright unethical and corrupt behavior.

The Public Service

The Public Service, broadly defined, is a system of governmental departments, agencies and employees in the public sector (Peters, 1989). The public service is, sometimes, referred to as the Civil Service. The Public Service is a critical institution in the processes of managing public affairs. It serves as a critical bridge between the citizens and the state, defined as political entity that possesses people, territory, a government and sovereignty (Levine, 1990). The Public Service has the responsibility of ensuring that all citizens, irrespective of their physical, biological or social differences receive governmental attention, access their human and social needs, receive protection for their life and property, and enjoy their freedom of movement, association and expression.

These are critical and sensitive responsibilities because they touch on critical aspects of the public. Ideally, their execution, therefore, demands competence, commitment, loyalty, creativity, integrity, self-respect, sacrifice, and humility of people in positions of administration. It is therefore expected that employees in the Public Service would be recruited on the basis of merit in terms of academic qualifications and relevant experience. They would also be expected to be adequately compensated to forestall the emergence of corruption temptations. It is also expected public service employees would be sensitized and induced to internalize public service culture pertaining to officially acceptable ethical standards such as financial discipline, respect for the citizens, provision of services without demanding a bribe, and pursuing the attainment of the officially declared public service strategic goals. It is the public service that is charged with the responsibility to hold the state together. A corrupt public service prepares the country towards social and economic anarchy.

Over the last two decades the role the public service has undergone significant changes. Prior to the mid 1980s, it was the public service which monopolized governmental
processes of policy making, implementation, and the provision of public services. With the beginning of the mid-1980s there emerged worldwide demands for the public service to limit its role to steering rather than to roaring. Essentially, these demands advocated a “third way” or a challenge to what was referred to as “old-style big bureaucracy’ and “free-market methods for doing “public business’ (Stillman, 2000). The demands wanted to see the building of the entrepreneurial spirit throughout the public service as the answer to the poor public service performance (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Following this wind of change, we have, since the late 1980s witnessed the emergence of the cooperative mode of public service delivery which involves public-private partnerships in delivering public services such as tax collection and security services (Njunwa, 2007). Due to these changes the demarcation between the public and private sectors has increasingly been blurred. Also, the levels of efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of public services have significantly improved. However, we need to emphasize that despite the apparent diminishing role of the public service, the latter continues to be central and ultimately responsible for the success and or collapse of the nation.

Government, Governance and Good Governance

According to Levine (1990) Government is the social organization that has the authority to rule the state. However, government is different from other social organizations (e.g. a football club, religious group, etc) in that government makes laws that affect all the people within its territory. One of the most important features of government is that it is the only social organization that has the legal authority to use force by way of, for instance, arresting and punishing offenders. Osborne and Gaebler (1992) define government as machinery for executing policy. They therefore see governance as the manner government (machinery) is used to carry out public policy. If this machinery is used in the best interest of the public, good governance ensues. Bad governance happens when this machinery is used to suppress the interests of the public. Finer (1970) see government as a multi-definitional concept. Firstly, he sees government to denote the activity or process of governing, i.e. of exercising a measure of control over others. Secondly, he sees government to mean the state of affairs in which this activity or process is to be found – in a short, a condition of ordered rule. Thirdly, government denotes those
people charged with the duty of governing (compare with Levine above). Finally, government may mean the manner, method, system by which a particular society is governed (e.g. the British or American systems of government).

The United Nations and the American Society for Public Administration (2002) define governance as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social development. Governance, as espoused by these multilateral organs, is leadership under which the regime concerned respects the rule of law, accountability, and transparency and it permits the enjoyment of human and civil rights. In view of the foregoing definitions, we can propose that that government, governance and good governance are interlocked concepts. Government (viewed in some ways as the public service, civil service, or public administration) is the embodiment of structures, processes and procedures which are expected to be put to proper use (governance) by authorized and competent employees for purposes of fulfilling public/community expectations for public accountability and responsiveness, equity, access to resources accessibility, citizen participation in the processes of government, equal and fair treatment before the law (good governance). When these considerations are absent then good governance disappears and bad governance ensues.

**The Emergence of Corruption in Tanzania: 1961 – 2008.**

As earlier mentioned, corruption does not have an independent existence. It exists and thrives in society. The conditions for its emergence and growth are found in society. Corruption is, therefore, a social relation. The point of departure for combating corruption is to understand the way the society in question is organized, the ideological basis for its policies, the resilience of structures for policy implementation and enforcement, the extent of citizen participation in the processes of government as well as the moral and political strength of its leadership. With this theory in mind, we now wish to examine how corruption has continued to unfold since 1961 in Tanzania.

Tanzania became independent on December 9, 1961, inheriting the British model of government. The country had been under German (1884-1918) and British (1919 – 1961) colonial administration for seventy seven years. The colony was administered for purposes of producing raw materials for industrial establishments in the United Kingdom and other European countries. The colonial period did not allow conditions for the emergence of a strong local bureaucratic class. However, a small class of the local intelligentsia, traders and farmers started to emerge in the mid-1954. It is not surprising therefore to note that the nationalist struggle for independence started in July 1954. The nationalist class was not a homogenous class. It was composed of believers in socialism (e.g. Mwalimu Julius Nyerere) and capitalism (e.g. Oscar Kambona). During the independence struggle, the ideological differences were temporarily submerged in order to fight the common enemy, the British colonial administration. However, these ideological differences surfaced between 1961 and 1966.

Between 1961 and 1966 public management was characterized by nationalist desire to build a capitalist economy by depending on foreign aid and grants. However, foreign aid was not as forthcoming as was anticipated. The desire to accumulate wealth/property became increasingly conspicuous. Since almost all nationalist leaders and bureaucrats did not have their own sources from which to accumulate wealth, they targeted public resources for their ambitions. They desired to build imposing houses, buy expensive cars and set up profitable businesses. They wanted to step into the shoes of the departing colonial capitalists. It was during this period that the nascent capitalist acquisitive tendencies (corruption) started to emerge amongst the nationalist leaders and bureaucrats (believers in capitalism), thereby posing a serious threat to the stability and growth of the young nation. Since the power to run government was in the hands of socialists (Mwalimu Julius Nyerere) the struggle for “primitive accumulation” was nipped in the bud. This happened in 1967 when Tanzania declared the adoption of socialism which sought to build a society based on self-reliance and equality for all citizens with equal access to the public resources people.

The declaration of socialism in Tanzania was the beginning of the struggle to build a country where all forms of exploitation were condemned. This included the adoption of several measures to curb tendencies of corruption. Firstly, the government nationalized all private businesses that had managed to emerge, especially in the areas of export-import trade, manufacturing, and commerce (banks). These were turned into parastatal organizations totaling 450. Managers, most of whom inexperienced, were hurriedly appointed to manage these public enterprises. Secondly, the ruling polity party became supreme, meaning it retained the power and authority to direct all public policy. Thirdly, the Leadership Code was announced in 1967, prohibiting public leaders from engaging in capitalist activities including owning houses for rent, holding directorships on private businesses, and receiving more than one salary. Finally, a party directive (Mwongozo) was issued in 1972 to urge public leaders/managers to respect their followers/subordinates, to refrain from authoritarian leadership, and to involve workers in decision-making processes. In general this phase witnessed a significant slowdown of the unfolding of corruption tendencies in Tanzania.


In 1985 Mwalimu Nyerere relinquished the post of president to Mr. Ali Hassan Mwinyi. He, however, continued to serve as Chairman of the ruling party. This period was characterized by features, some of which were externally-based. Firstly, the country was short of foreign exchange to be able to import raw materials for the manufacturing industries. This drastically reduced industrial production of consumer goods for the local market. Commodity scarcity started to emerge and it subsequently led to bribery and racketeering as earlier discussed. Corruption and embezzlement started to emerge in the public enterprises. In view of this shortcoming, public enterprises failed to pay dividends to the Treasury, which in turn, failed to subsidize them (public enterprises).

Secondly, due to limited financial capacity, the Public Service underpaid public servants. This created an environment for the employees to look for ways to augment their meager
salaries. One of the ways was to ask for bribes or embezzlement of public resources. Thirdly, there was an undeclared progressive departure from the principles of citizen equality, absence of exploitation and self-reliance, as outlined in the Arusha//Socialist declaration, the Leadership Code and Mwongozo. Fourthly, the international donor community changed its approach to giving aid to developing countries. The emphasis now was placed on channeling aid through the private sector and the need for the public service to limit its activities to creating a conducive policy environment for policy implementation to take place. Finally, the privatization of public enterprises started, thereby increasing the momentum towards the building of peripheral capitalism. When President Mwinyi completed his term of office in 1990, the public service was already very shaky, the country was in acute debt and corruption was increasingly becoming rampant. In 1995, President Bejamini Mkapa took office. One of the promises he championed during the 1995 election campaigns was to fight and eliminate corruption in the public service. But, as we shall try to show, when President Mkapa completed his term of office in 2005, corruption in this country had reached staggering proportions. The current president, Mr. Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete, was compelled to reshuffle his cabinet of ministers twice in two years following serious cases of corruption involving very senior public officials.

Measures Taken to Combat Corruption in Tanzania’s Public Service

As we have indicated some measures to combat corruption were adopted during the three phases. Measures such as the Leadership Code and Mwongozo came in a form of policy statements which lacked clear methods of enforcement. In addition to these statement-related measures, institutional and legal measures were also tried in the fight against corruption. We shall address these under this section.

The Anti-Corruption Squad

Firstly, in 1975 the Government under Mwalimu Nyerere established the Anti-Corruption Squad under the Ministry of Home Affairs after the Parliament had enacted Act No.16 of 1971, the Prevention of Corruption Act. In 1983 the Parliament, in addressing the
problem of corruption and inequity, enacted a law known as the 1983 Economic Sabotage Act. This law was short-lived and was quickly repealed by the Economic and Organized Crimes Control Act of 1984. This Act incorporated offences under the Prevention of Corruption Act as economic offences. In 1991 during one of his last speeches, Mwalimu described Tanzania as stinking of corruption from Statehouse to the lower levels of government. President Mwinyi continued from where Mwalimu Nyerere has stopped. He shifted the Anti-Corruption Squad into the Prime Ministers Office and finally, in 1991, into the President’s Office. It was in 1991 that the Squad was renamed the Prevention of Corruption Bureau. The role of the Bureau is to investigate, apprehend and take to court individuals who are alleged to have engaged in corruption practices.

*Presidential Commission of Inquiry against Corruption*

When Mr. Benjamin Mkapa first became President in 1995, the parliament enacted Act No. 13 known as the Leadership Code of Ethics. This Law was designed to curb improper conduct of public leaders in the high echelons of government. As we shall show later this legislation lacked an enforcement mechanism. Most importantly, towards the end of 1995 President Mkapa formed the Presidential Commision of Inquiry against Corruption, popularly known as the Warioba Commission. The Commission carried out an assessment study of the areas where corruption was rampant (health, lands, education, judiciary, police, and revenue authorities), causes of corruption and individuals who took part in corruption practices. Also, the Commission made several recommendations on how corruption could be fought. The Report was submitted to President Mkapa on time. By the time he left office in 2000 he had not implemented any of the Commission’s recommendations. Mr. Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete, Tanzania’s fourth President assumed office in 2005. One of the challenges he has had to grapple with has been the increasing involvement/implication of his senior official in corruption practices.

*The Public Procurement Act, 2004*

A year before President Mkapa left office the Parliament enacted the Public Procurement Act. The Act laid down the procedures for public purchase of services, goods and
material. It emphasized the need for competitiveness and transparency in the processes of tendering, especially when private operators are sought to provide public services (contracting).

**Combating Corruption in Tanzania’s Public Service: Successes and Challenges**

As has been shown, several measures have been taken to combat corruption in Tanzania’s public service. How much success has been recorded and what are the challenges still encountered? Some success has been recorded. Firstly, the truth and reality about the existence and the nature of corruption in Tanzania’s public service have been confirmed as a result of investigations conducted by presidential commissions as well as by the Exchequer and Auditor General. Over 250 public employees (non-senior) have, between 2005 and today (2008), been imprisoned for varying corruption offences (mostly financial and sexual corruption). Secondly, the policy and legal framework for dealing with corruption are already in place. Thirdly, following the significant improvement in the freedom of the press, the print media, especially privately-owned newspapers has done an excellent job in flushing out corruption practices through investigative reporting. Through the news media, a section of the citizens (especially those in urban areas), non-governmental and community-based organizations have been very much enlightened on the nature and seriousness of corruption in Tanzania’s public service.

Despite these successes there are a number of challenges which are making the fight against corruption difficult. Firstly, the government has not been brave enough to deal with corrupt senior public service officials. In most cases corrupt senior government officials have only been forced to resign without being prosecuted, despite abundant incriminating evidence. The 2008 financial scandals related to Richmond-TANESCO contracts as well as the External Payment Arrears (EPA) account at the Bank of Tanzania (BoT) are an example about which the government has exhibited limited bravery to act. Secondly, there is a yawning gap between the claimed government commitment to combating corruption and what it is actually doing on the ground. For example, President Mkapa failed or ignored to implement any of the recommendations presented by the
Warioba Commission; a Commission that Mkapa himself formed and approved a big budget for it to conduct the investigations.

Thirdly, the fight against corruption seems to be an exclusive monopoly by government officials. The vast majority of the citizens, especially those living in the rural areas, have yet to understand the nature of corruption in Tanzania and the damage it is inflicting to the economy. This was reflected through resounding welcomes accorded to the members of parliament for Monduli and Bunda constituencies who had been compelled to resign their premiership and ministership respectively due to corruption allegations leveled against them. Fourthly, despite putting in place institutions such as the Prevention of Corruption Bureau (PCB) as well as policy frameworks such the Leadership and Ethics Codes, enforcement is still very weak. These institutions are understaffed and poorly equipped to deal effectively with corruption. Finally, salaries for public employees are very low in view of current commodity price index as well as inflation. Presently, the minimum wage for a public employee is about US$100. The realistic monthly wage ought to be US$300. Unless the government raises employee salaries to reasonable levels employee temptations to look for alternative means (corruption) to augment their meager salaries will not be avoided.

Lessons for Reflection

In view of the foregoing some lessons for reflection may be drawn. Firstly, corruption is not an insurmountable problem. It can be completely eliminated if there is sufficient political will and when all stakeholders are involved in the fight. The fight against corruption should not be the exclusive monopoly of bureaucratic elites. Secondly, the measures to fight corruption ought to be realistic. It is naïve to expect poorly compensated public employees to participate effectively in the fight against corruption. They would naturally look for ways (mostly illegal) to augment their meager salaries. Thirdly, role models are imperative for the fight against corruption to succeed. In a situation where a prime minister and ministers are involved in corruption (example, Tanzania) where would subordinate employees get suitable examples to emulate? Finally, there is a need to organize sensitization seminars/workshops for public
employees as well as ordinary citizens on corruption and its adverse effects on the economy and citizens.

**Conclusion**

Corruption in the public service has become a universal vice that is a threat to good governance. Since the level and nature of corruption differ from country to country it is the primary responsibility of each individual country to craft relevant strategies to combat it. Initiatives to combat corruption should come from governments and civil society groups as well as the private sector. Fighting corruption requires looking at the costs that it imposes on business, governments and society and instituting good governance mechanism within both the public and private sectors. Only then, can the values of transparency and accountability be effectively pursued and maintained.

**REFERENCES**


*The Citizen, Tanzania* No. 1163, Friday May 23, 2008. “Corruption out of Control”, says Minister for Parliamentary Affairs and Policy, Mr.Philip Marmo, p.3