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# Strengthening Jamaica's Anticorruption Policy with an Independent Agency

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# Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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2018

Abstract

Strengthening Jamaica's Anticorruption Policy With an Independent

Anticorruption Agency

by

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MS, University College of the Caribbean/Commonwealth of Learning, 2013

BS, University College of the Caribbean, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Policy and Administration

Walden University

May 2018

## Abstract

Corruption is a kind of behavior that undermines good governance. Current research has suggested that Jamaica's present anticorruption policy is ineffective, and needs strengthening. A civic organization in Jamaica has advocated for an independent anticorruption agency, with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Little is known about the perspectives from the Jamaican business community on this concept. The purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on this concept. A framework included in this study is the principal-agent theory, which provides an understanding of the essence and relevance of perspectives from the Jamaican business community. Phenomenological research was used to gain a deep understanding of these perspectives. Data were collected through in-depth interviews with 5 business owners and a focus group comprising of 6 business owners. The data were analyzed thematically. Two perspectives were that an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica could result in an improvement in some social benefits for its people, but the agency itself could experience challenges. Participants also thought that a collaboration among societal actors in Jamaica could bring increased success in terms of corruption control. An implication for positive social change is that societal actors in Jamaica can use collaboration to achieve effective public policies for Jamaica.

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## Dedication

This research work is dedicated to the people of Jamaica, especially those who have an interest in the development of that country. There are various groups in Jamaica who continuously advocate for effective policies that will lead to a better life for everyone who either lives or intends to live in that country. The current vision for Jamaica is to become a place that people want to live, work, raise families, and do business. Consequently, it is hoped that this research work will contribute to fulfilling this vision.

## Acknowledgments

I must first thank our Lord for enabling me to complete this research. Next, I must express gratitude to my family members for their understanding and support during my entire dissertation journey. Third, I wish to express gratitude to all faculty members and other personnel at Walden University who have provided guidance in relation to this dissertation.. Walden University has valuable resources, which contributed to my ability to complete this research project. Special thanks to my dissertation committee members for their decision to serve as reviewers for my dissertation work. Finally, thanks to my friends and coworkers who offered support as well as words of encouragement and advice during my dissertation journey.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

### **Introduction**

Corruption is a worldwide phenomenon, which some organizations defined as the inappropriate use of public office or entrusted power for one's own interest (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2013a; Transparency International, 2016c; World Bank, 1997). Some authors described corruption as a transaction with two sides--a demand side and a supply side (Stapenhurst, Karakas, Sarigollu, Jo, & Draman, 2016). Because of corruption, governments in various jurisdictions design and implement anticorruption policies (regulatory policies), with the aim being to deter individuals from engaging in corrupt practices (Akbank, 2014; Khan, 2008; Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, 2011; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2013b).

Researchers have revealed that despite their existence, individuals from within all strata of societies disregard anticorruption policies (McClean, 2011; Pathak, 2013; Roman, 2014). When individuals disregard anticorruption policies, policymakers (governments) must promptly respond by taking action to review and strengthen them (Batory, 2012; Tarkett Group, 2015). The strengthening of anticorruption corruption policies might be interpreted as the primary responsibility of government, but in the context of the principal-agent model, other societal actors (business community and civil society) should have a voice (Forgues-Puccio, 2013; Parnini, 2013, Phillips, 2012; Singh, 2016).

As a country, Jamaica has a record for a prevalence of systemic corruption (Christie, 2012; Johnson & Soeters, 2015). Located in the Caribbean, the country has an anticorruption policy that encompasses three anticorruption institutions: the Office of the Contractor General, the Parliamentary Integrity of Members Commission, and the Commission for the Prevention of Corruption. In 2012, the Jamaican government proposed the creation of a new anticorruption institutions with no independence (Christie, 2012; Henry, 2017; Rhooms, 2017). The proposed institution will have full authority to investigate corruption but limited powers in terms of prosecution for corrupt practices (Christie, 2017; Rhooms, 2017).

Regardless of these anticorruption institutions' existence, since 1995, Jamaica continues to receive low scores for corruption control from a global organization that monitors corrupt practices in countries (National Integrity Action, 2016; Transparency International 2016a; Trading Economics 2016). In tandem with recommendations from researchers, these low scores suggest an urgent need for reviewing and strengthening Jamaica's existing anticorruption policy (Transparency International 2016a; Waller, Bourne, Minto, & Rapley). To strengthen the country's existing anticorruption policy, one civil society group (a societal actor) in Jamaica, the National Integrity Action, advocated for the implementation of an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers (Christie, 2012; National Integrity Action, 2016). My review of the literature has not indicated perspectives from the Jamaican business community (another societal actor) on the concept. In this study, the goal was to discover and understand these perspectives. Discovering and understanding these perspectives



may contribute significantly to future anticorruption initiatives undertaken by the Jamaican government.

A theoretical foundation that may justify the relevance and importance of the Jamaican business community's perspectives on the concept to be studied is described briefly in this chapter, but additional details are in Chapter 2. Other sections of this chapter include an explanation of the study's purpose, a thorough description of the research problem, and information highlighting the study's significance.

### **Background of the Problem**

Since the 1960s, researchers in the field of public policy and other related disciplines have been examining the challenges experienced by anticorruption policies that make them ineffective (Kramer, 1977; Olowu, 1983; Singh, 2016). Individuals may understand these challenges as factors that contribute to their ineffectiveness (De Lauri, 2013; Roman, 2014). Researchers have documented that examples of factors that have contributed to the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies are a lack of political will and cultural beliefs among individuals from different strata within societies (Pillay, 2004; Roman, 2014; Ugoani, 2016). In some instances and in a general sense, when governments introduce anticorruption policies, other societal actors (business community and civil society) have expectations that they will be effective (Langseth, 1999; Rwanda Public Procurement Authority, 2012). The ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies sometimes results in expression of societal concern, thus alerting governments or stimulating advocacy from other societal actors for action to strengthen them (Maghraoui, 2012; Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011; Quah, 1994, 2014).

Previous studies have been successful in terms of providing an understanding about how governments in different countries strengthened their respective anticorruption policies (Batory, 2012; Berlie, 2012; Johannsen & Pederssen, 2011; Maghraoui, 2012; McAllister, 2014). These studies indicated that a number of alternatives are available to governments, such as (a) improving public services, (b) enhancing transparency within government, (c) establishing public education programs, (d) legislating stiffer penalties, (e) implementing anticorruption courts, (f) strengthening existing anticorruption institutions, and (g) introducing independent anticorruption agencies (Batory, 2012; Berlie, 2012; Johannsen & Pederssen, 2011; Maghraoui, 2012; McAllister, 2014). Researchers also revealed that the use of some of these alternatives yielded successes, especially the establishment of independent anticorruption agencies (Batory, 2012; Gong & Wong, 2013, Holmes, 2015; Johannsen & Pedersen, 2011; Quah, 2014).

Research findings have revealed that corruption caused undesirable effects on societies such as improved poverty, hindrance of socioeconomic development, and negative consequences for businesses (Okeke & Ugwuanyi, 2014; Owoye & Bissessar, 2013). Further, researchers argued that the emergence of action taken by governments to strengthen anticorruption policies occurs because of their own failure to curb (control) corruption, which leads to undesirable effects (Batory, 2012; Hanna, Bishop, Nadel, Scheffer, & Durlacher, 2011). Additionally, some researchers have emphasized that corruption happens primarily because of particular forces that influence human behavior, known better as drivers of corruption (Khan, 2006, Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation, 2011; Roman & Miller, 2013).

Since the 1960s, corruption has plagued Jamaica (Boxhill et al., 2007). Research literature has indicated that corruption in Jamaica deeply infiltrated the country's political system and public institutions, and affected businesses negatively (Bogicevic, 2012; Boxhill et al., 2007; Nugent & Schmid, 2014). In Nugent and Schmid's (2014) business survey, 8 Jamaican based firms viewed corruption as a major constraint on their operations.

To control corruption in Jamaica, successive Jamaican governments have implemented measures in reforming its anticorruption policy, but an unacceptable level of corruption trends within the country persists (Bogicevic, 2012; National Integrity Action, 2016; Transparency International, 2016a, Transparency International, 2017). Although there are three existing anticorruption institutions and laws to support this policy (National Integrity Action, 2014), these trends suggest that the policy itself needs to be strengthened (National Integrity Action, 2014; Transparency International, 2017). In fact, earlier research conducted by Hylton and Young (2007) indicated weaknesses associated with Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Therefore, there is a need to further research ways in which Jamaica's anticorruption policy could be strengthened.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Corruption is a kind of behavior that undermines good governance and hinders national development (Okeke & Ugwuanyi, 2014). In its annual report for the year 2015, the global corruption watchdog named Transparency International gave Jamaica a Corruption Perception Index score of 0.41 (Transparency International, 2016a). According to Transparency International (2016b), its Corruption Perception Index, which

functions like a scale, uses scores ranging from 0 to 100. Countries with scores close to 100 are perceived to be not corrupt, but those close to 0 are perceived to be very corrupt (Transparency International, 2016b). Data from the surveys determine the scores given to the respective countries (Transparency International, 2016c). This data relates to people's perceived levels of corruption and actual occurrences of corruption (Transparency International, 2016c). From 1995 when Transparency International began using its Corruption Perception Index, until the year 2015, Jamaica has never received a score greater than 0.41 (National Integrity Action, 2016). Furthermore, for the year 2016, Jamaica received a score of 0.39 (Transparency International, 2017). In a statement, the National Integrity Action (a Jamaican-based corruption watchdog) highlighted the need for more efforts to control corruption in Jamaica successfully (National Integrity Action, 2016).

The National Integrity Action, also a Jamaican based nonprofit organization, advocated in 2011 for the implementation of a single independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica (Christie, 2012). Although researchers have investigated sources and perceived levels of corruption in Jamaica, Waller, Bourne, Minto, and Rapley (2007) recommended further research to identify ways to strengthen the country's anticorruption policy. The effectiveness of anticorruption policies requires the input and support from government, business community, and civil society (Batory, 2012; Parnini, 2013; Phillips, 2012; Singh, 2016).

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to discover and understand perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. To address this gap in knowledge, the study included interviewing (a qualitative data collection method) to gather data for analysis. Assumptions included that interviewing could provide adequate information and an in-depth understanding in relation to this group's perspectives on the concept.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions provided guidance for this study:

1. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on a single independent anticorruption agency with prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
2. Other than a single independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers, what alternatives does the Jamaican business community perceive that could strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
3. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on collaborating with other local societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica?

### **Theoretical Frameworks**

Two theoretical bases (theoretical frameworks) guided this study. These are Weible and Sabatier's (1982) advocacy coalition framework and Jensen and Meckling's

(1976) principal-agent theory. Researchers use the advocacy coalition framework in the field of policy research to provide an explanation for the policy process (Elgin & Weible, 2013). The advocacy coalition framework assumes that when different policy actors share similar, core policy beliefs, they consequently form sustained coalitions (Dela Santa, 2013).

Since the 1980s, researchers have used the principal-agent theory as a guide for investigating anticorruption initiatives in a variety of contexts (Katz, 2014; Russell, Turnpenny, & Rayner, 2013). One assumption of this theory is that an elected government becomes an agent for its constituents who are the principal (Forgues-Puccio, 2013). The theory purports that governments must always act in the best interest of its constituents (Forgues-Puccio, 2013; Katz, 2014; Russell, Turnpenny, & Rayner, 2013). The principal-agent theory also assumes that an agent decides to engage in corrupt practices because of the principal's inability to monitor him or her effectively (Forgues-Puccio, 2013). Chapter 2 will provide further details on the principal-agent theory and the advocacy coalition framework.

### **Nature of the Study**

The qualitative approach to research guided this study. Qualitative research provides an opportunity to understand the Jamaican business community's perspectives on a particular concept, which was the primary focus of this study. Placing the focus on the Jamaican business community's perspectives highlights the relevance of Jensen and Meckling's (1976) principal-agent theory, in the context that the Jamaican business community as principal must have an input in policy matters. Furthermore, placing the

focus on the Jamaican business community conveys the notion that all societal actors have a role to play in terms of attaining effective policies for their respective societies (Parnini, 2013).

In the context of this study, the advocacy coalition framework is relevant to the idea of societal actors collaborating for achieving an effective anticorruption policy (Dela Santa, 2013). A qualitative investigation can provide an understanding of the Jamaican business community's perspectives on collaborating with other societal actors for achieving an effective anticorruption policy for their country. The data sources for this study were owners of Jamaican-based businesses. These businesses comprised of various sizes: micro, small, and medium. I used thematic analysis to analyze the data collected from these sources. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a commonly used qualitative method for the identification, analysis, and reporting of themes within qualitative data. Furthermore, thematic analysis is a flexible method for analyzing a qualitative data set and provides researchers the opportunity to understand potential outcomes of any issue explored extensively (Alhojailan, 2012; Braun & Clarke, 2006).

### **Definition of Key Concepts**

In a study, key concepts used must be defined to provide increased understanding for readers (Bratt, 2011; National Foundation for Educational Research, 2016). The following are definitions for the key concepts used in this study.

*Anticorruption policy:* An anticorruption policy (a kind of regulatory policy) is a course of action taken by a government to prevent, detect, or penalize persons from committing any corrupt act (Akbank, 2014; Brata, 2009; Uribe, 2012).

*Business community:* A common term that refers to a group of individuals who either own or manage businesses in a particular region (Parnini, 2013).

*Collaborating:* A common term that refers to a group or groups of individuals working together for achieving a common purpose (Parnini, 2013).

*Independent anticorruption agency:* An independent anticorruption agency is an institution established by a government, is free from political interference, and has the responsibility to prevent or detect acts of corruption (Lewis & Stenning, 2016).

*Investigative and prosecutorial powers:* Common language referring to full authority to investigate and prosecute that the state in a specific territory gives to individuals or organizations (Batory, 2012).

*Principal-agent:* An arrangement between two or more individuals where one plays the role as agent and the other as principal. Fragment An agent expects the principal to act at all times in his or her own best interest (Forgues-Puccio, 2013).

*Societal actor:* A general term that describes groups performing the three main functions of society, such as government, business, and civil society (Parnini, 2013).

*Strengthening an anticorruption policy:* Strengthening an anticorruption policy is an action taken by a government to make an existing anticorruption policy more effective (Bertok, Beth, Konvitz, Rodrigo, & Vergez, 2006; Omoteso & Mobolaji, 2014).



### **Assumptions**

In this study, assumptions included that participants' personal connections to other societal actors did not influence their responses given during the data collection process. Assumptions also included that during the data collection process, participants gave truthful responses.

### **Scope and Delimitations**

The focus of this study was on members of the Jamaican business community. Members of the Jamaican government or civil society (other societal actors) were not eligible for participation. In the study, I focused on Jamaica's anticorruption policy and not on other policies belonging to the country. The principal-agent theory and the advocacy coalition framework as theoretical frameworks provided guidance during the research process. Some researchers have explored issues relating to anticorruption with the aid of the principal-agent theory for guiding their understanding (Bauhr & Nasiritousi, 2011; Forgues-Puccio, 2013; Persson, Rothstein, & Teorell, 2010). Furthermore, some researchers have suggested that the advocacy coalition framework is an appropriate theoretical framework that can aid researchers in understanding the perspectives of one societal actor in terms of collaborating with others on policy matters (Elgin & Weible 2013; Henry, Ingold, Nohrstedt, & Weible, 2014; Stich & Miller, 2008).

### **Limitations**

Limitations of a study are weaknesses associated with its methodology or design that influence the interpretation of its results (McCarroll, 2016; Simon & Goes, 2013). Limitations determine the extent to which conclusions can be drawn from a study (Simon

& Goes, 2013). According to Simon and Goes (2013), all studies incur limitations, but these limitations can be addressed by further research. This study incurred the following limitations.

First, at the time of data collection, the organization of interest, which was the study's population, had no member of the Jamaican business community owning large-sized businesses. The intention was to gather data from owners of Jamaican based businesses on the basis of four business sizes: micro-sized, small-sized, medium-sized, and large-sized. Second, the data collected for this study were coded only by myself as the researcher. The scheduling of the interviews for data collection did not provide sufficient time for intercoding because of two reasons. As an activity, intercoding occurs when a researcher codes obtained qualitative data with one or more individuals (Johnson, 2006; Van den Hoonaard, 2008). I collected and analyzed the data for this study concurrently. In addition, the times between most of the interviews were short based on the availability of some of the participants.

### **Significance of the Study**

This research filled a gap in the research literature in terms of discovering and understanding perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on the concept of an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. This research was vital because of the need to curb corruption in Jamaica effectively (National Integrity Action, 2016). As indicated by Batory (2012) and Parnini (2013), government, the business community, and civil society must collaborate to guarantee the success of

anticorruption policies. Hence, it was worthwhile for the Jamaican business community to contribute perspectives on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

The findings of this study may provide valuable information to other societal actors such as the Jamaican government and the Jamaican civil society for consideration and further discussion on the issue. In addition, the findings may present an opportunity for all societal actors in Jamaica to engage, collaborate, and find a workable solution for curbing corruption in the country. Insights gained from the study may entice the Jamaican government to recognize and appreciate the value of other societal actors' input on different policy matters. Furthermore, the findings of the study may contribute to further social change where people in Jamaica reject corrupt practices and embrace values that are consistent with ethical behavior.

Doing this study was essential for other reasons. As stated by some authors, research contributes to the body of existing literature (Baker, 2011; Joseph, 2013). The literature on ineffective anticorruption policies in some countries suggests a lack of interest on the part of their governments to control corruption (Hope, 2016; Nwankwo, 2014; Omoteso & Mobolaji, 2014; Owoye & Bissessar, 2013). The results of this study might inspire business communities in these countries to spearhead advocacy for new anticorruption measures. Furthermore, the existing body of literature pinpoints that strengthening anticorruption policies in some countries in many instances involves government and civil society groups (Maghraoui, 2012; Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011). The findings and recommendations from this study may encourage business communities

in these and additional jurisdictions to support other societal actors in anticorruption initiatives.

### **Summary of Chapter 1**

In this chapter, I introduced the study, which has a focus on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. An anticorruption policy is an action taken by governments to deter persons within societies from engaging in corrupt practices (Akbank, 2014; Khan, 2008; Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, 2011; OECD, 2013b). Researchers have indicated that in some instances when a government introduces an anticorruption policy, other societal actors expect them to be effective (Parnini, 2013). On numerous occasions, persons within societies disregard anticorruption policies, consequently requiring governmental action to strengthen them (Parnini, 2013). Researchers have revealed that between 2008 and 2015, some governments in different countries strengthened their respective anticorruption policies (Batory, 2012; Berlie, 2012; Johannsen & Pederssen, 2011; Maghraoui, 2012; McAllister, 2014). As a country, Jamaica has an anticorruption policy encompassing three anticorruption institutions, but for the past 22 years, anticorruption watchdogs and researchers consistently pointed out that Jamaica's anticorruption policy appears to be ineffective (National Integrity Action, 2016; Transparency International, 2016c; Waller et al., 2007). Some of these researchers recommended additional research to identify ways for strengthening the country's anticorruption policy (Waller et al., 2007). To strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy, the National Integrity Action, a Jamaican based anticorruption watchdog, suggested that the Jamaican government implements a single independent anticorruption agency having

both prosecutorial and investigative powers (Christie, 2012). Researchers also argued that attaining effective anticorruption policies is a responsibility for all societal actors, including government, the business community, and civil society (Maghraoui, 2012; Parnini, 2013). In this study, I discovered perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Included in Chapter 2 is a thorough review of pertinent related research literature.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### **Introduction**

In the previous chapter, I gave an introduction to this study. The purpose of the study was to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on an independent agency with prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Current research suggested that Jamaica's anticorruption policy needs to be strengthened (Transparency International 2016a, 2017). This chapter contains relevant and related research literature on this study's area of focus and research questions. In the field of research, a literature review is a report that consists of information on what is known and unknown about a study's topic and its research questions (Maggio, Sewell, & Artino, 2016; Randolph, 2009). The report should provide a description and summary of studies relating to the topic (Maggio et al., 2016; Randolph, 2009). Furthermore, Maggio et al. contended that a literature review establishes the context for a study and indicates gaps in knowledge that the study will fill.

To begin, I present information on the research strategy used to locate articles consisting of relevant and related research literature. These articles may be used for future reference. The articles contributed to different portions of the literature review. In this chapter, there is a section with a description of a theoretical framework that may provide an understanding of research issue. Other sections have information from studies, which have revealed some undesirable effects of corruption, countries with effective anticorruption policies, and countries with ineffective anticorruption policies. In one specific section, there is information from studies on strengthening anticorruption

policies in different countries by means of implementing independent anticorruption agencies. Also in this chapter, there is information from studies that revealed different policy alternatives pursued by governments in different countries, as a means of strengthening their respective anticorruption policies. Finally, there is information from the current literature on the role of civil society and business community in various countries, when they both collaborated with their governments to strengthen anticorruption policies for those countries.

### **Literature Search Strategy**

My search for current and relevant literature was executed using various sources of information. Current and relevant research literature on undesirable effects of corruption, anticorruption collaboration, anticorruption policies, and independent anticorruption agency was discovered by using general search terms. The terms were *agency, anticorruption, collaboration, effects, policy, and independent*. To narrow the search for this information, the terms were placed in search boxes belonging to different databases. These databases were ProQuest, SAGE, and EBSCO. The search led to the identification and retrieval of many peer-reviewed articles. Based on the articles found through this search strategy, I conducted a thorough review in relation to the authors and references to locate and retrieve more articles. These articles were not found during the general or initial search.

The Walden online library provided access to the previously mentioned databases used to locate peer-reviewed articles for writing this literature review. Websites and books provided additional information. Simon (2016) suggested that the minimum

number of studies used for writing a dissertation's literature review be 80; most of these studies be peer-reviewed. I used more than 80 studies to write this literature review and at least 80% of them were peer-reviewed. Table 1 provides a summary of the sources used to generate information for the literature review.

Table 1

*Sources Used for the Literature Review and Their Year of Publication*

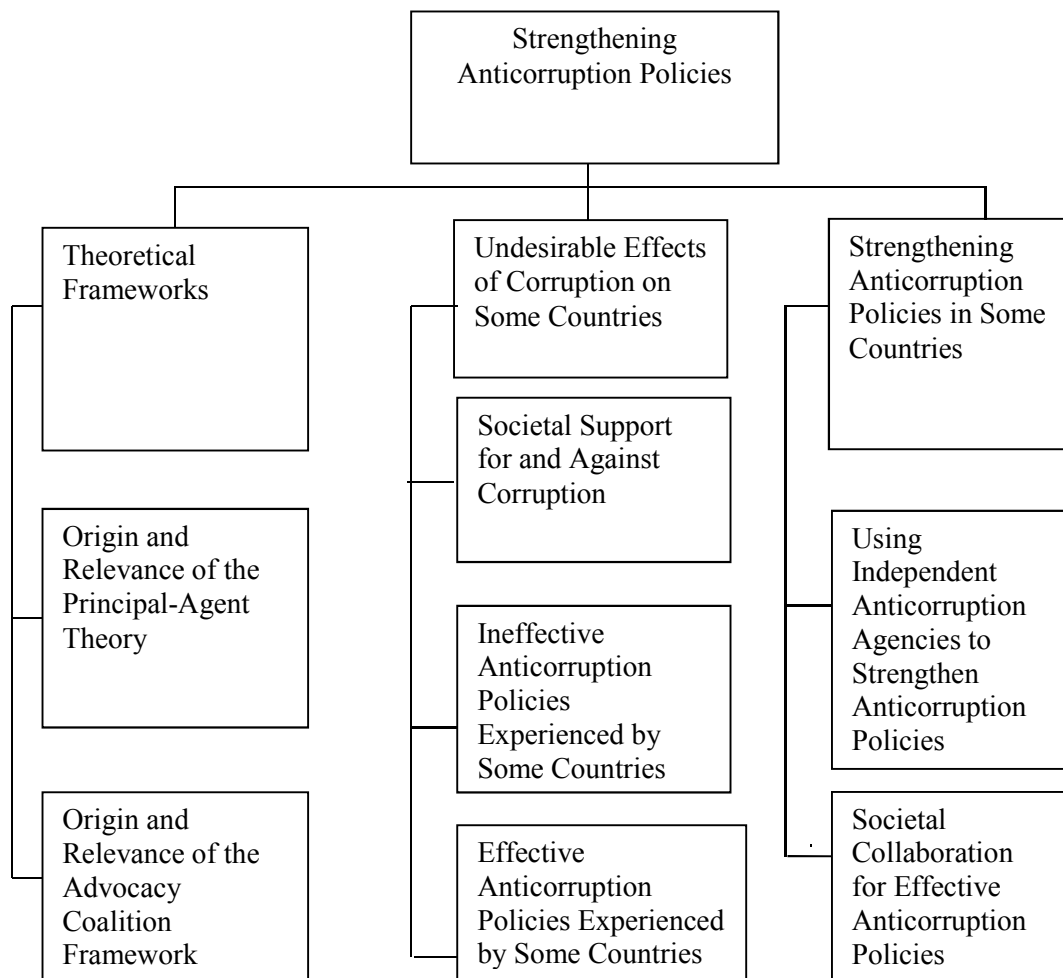
Types of sources	1996 - 2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Peer-reviewed articles	4	10	17	24	12	9
Books			2			
Other websites	6	4	1	3	4	2

**Limitations of the search strategy.** My search strategy for locating relevant and related literature incurred some limitations. One limitation was that I did not find research literature on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy; hence, there is no discussion on this area in the review of the literature. Additionally, very little research literature was found on the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's anticorruption policy and no study on the concept of an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers in Jamaica. A search for literature on the Jamaican business community collaborating with Jamaica's civil society to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica was also unsuccessful.



## Structure of Literature Review

The structure of the literature review for this study comprises of themes that relate to its topic and research questions. A critical analysis and synthesis of research literature that I read from the articles used for the literature review are presented under these themes. Figure 1 shows a flowchart depicting the structure of the literature review.



*Figure 1.* A flowchart depicting the structure of the literature review.

## **Theoretical Frameworks**

The purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. As indicated in Chapter 1, I chose the principal-agent theory and the advocacy coalition framework as frameworks to provide a better understanding of my focus in this study. The focus of this study was on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy, with an emphasis on perspectives from the Jamaican business community.

The principal-agent theory and the advocacy coalition framework have been used in various studies (Prianto, 2014; Roman, 2014; Soot, 2012; Yang, 2015; Yeganeh, 2014). Roman (2014) used the principal-agent theory to study corruption in Moldova, while Soot (2012) used it when he examined anticorruption initiatives within Estonia's law enforcement agencies. In a qualitative study, Yang (2015) used the advocacy coalition framework in conjunction with document analysis to understand the policy formulation process of Japan's National University Corporation, while Prianto (2014) examined the roles of some coalitions when they contributed to the formulation of a spatial plan policy in Makassar, Indonesia.

### **Origin and Relevance of the Principal-Agent Theory**

Some authors have credited the origin of the principal-agent theory to the works of Jensen and Meckling during the 1970s (Bendickson, Muldoon, Liguori, & Davis, 2016a; Delves, & Patrick, 2011). Others have claimed that the principal-agent theory has its roots in two other theories, which were created within the field of economics

(Bendickson et al., 2016b; Namazi, 2013; Shaw, 2014). Both created during the 1960s, the two other theories are the economic theory of agency derived by Ross and the institutional theory of agency generated by Mitnick (Bendickson et al., 2016b).

During the 1970s, Jensen and Meckling developed a theory in the field of business management that shows how a relationship between owners of a business (principal) and its management (agent) exists (as cited in Bendickson et al., 2016a). The result of their work was developing the economic theory of agency and the institutional theory of agency, forming the principal-agent theory (Bendickson et al., 2016a, Mitnick, 2013). According to Bendickson et al. (2016a), Jensen and Meckling created the principal-agent theory through observing people and events in business organizations. A common theme associated with the principal-agent theory is that principals appoint agents to act on their behalf (Bendickson et al., 2016a; Marquette & Peiffer, 2015). Likewise, the principal-agent theory can be applied to a system of governance in a two-folded context. First, constituents represent the principal and government plays the role as their agent (Forgues-Puccio, 2013). Second, a government is seen as a principal, but bureaucrats act as its agents (Forgues-Puccio, 2013).

In this study, I focused on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. As indicated in Chapter 1, strengthening an anticorruption policy sometimes occurs because of the failure of an existing anticorruption policy (World Bank, 2012). Some scholars have referred to the failure of an anticorruption policy as a principal-agent problem (Marquette & Peiffer, 2015), although Persson, Rothstein, and Theorell (2013) argued that when systemic corruption persists, this is not the case, as there are no "principled

principals.” However, Marquette and Peiffer assert that through the principal-agent theory, people can understand anticorruption initiatives better. They further commented that context drives anticorruption initiatives and not theory. Since Marquette and Peiffer contended that the principal-agent theory is ideal for studying anticorruption initiatives, I chose it as one of two theoretical frameworks in this study.

Researchers have investigated the idea of strengthening anticorruption policies with the aid of the principal-agent theory. For example, Ayoola (2013) used the principal-agent theory to understand perspectives from societal actors (government, civil society, and government) in Nigeria on cashless transactions for governmental services as an anticorruption initiative. In a qualitative study, Umar (2013) applied the principal-agent theory when he assessed the idea of improved financial management from Indonesia’s government as a means of strengthening that country’s anticorruption policy.

### **Origin and Relevance of the Advocacy Coalition Framework**

The advocacy coalition framework is a commonly used theory in the field of public policy (Sotirov & Memmler, 2012; Weible & Sabatier, 2010). Through their works, Christopher Weible and Hanks Jenkins-Smith originated the advocacy coalition framework during 1988 (Weible & Sabatier, 2010). The advocacy coalition framework serves as a lens for comprehending belief and change associated with a policy, as well as when multiple policy actors disagree on goals and technical issues arise amongst them (Markard, Suter, & Ingold, 2014; Sabatier & Weible, 2012). Examples of these policy actors include (a) non-governmental organizations, (b) private sectors, (c) media, (d)

research institutions, and (e) persons at different levels of government (Weible & Sabatier, 2010; Sabatier & Weible, 2012).

Researchers have included the advocacy coalition framework in more than 80 studies when they studied public policy issues in many countries (Cairney, 2014; Weible & Sabatier, 2010). Researchers have used the advocacy coalition framework in policy areas such as energy, environmental, domestic violence, public health, and illegal drug (Weible & Sabatier, 2010). As a theory, the advocacy coalition framework is associated with a belief system. An assumption of this belief system is that when policy actors share similar beliefs on policy issues, they are likely to form sustainable coalitions (Weible & Sabatier, 2010; Sabatier & Weible, 2012). As a phenomenon, shared beliefs amongst policy actors that lead to sustainable coalitions occur within a policy subsystem-- a geographically bounded policy area (Sabatier & Weible, 2012).

The advocacy coalition framework has been revised on few occasions, based on the results of six case studies and questions asked by researchers about its pluralist assumptions (Sabatier & Weible, 2012). It appears as if on a few occasion, researchers used the advocacy coalition framework as a theoretical lens when they studied the strengthening of anticorruption policies. However, in a qualitative study, Dressel (2012) examined how civil society actors influenced anticorruption reforms in the Philippines with the aid of the advocacy coalition framework. The aim of these anticorruption reforms was to improve transparency and accountability within the context of public finance (Dressel, 2012).

In another qualitative study, Silva-Leander (2015) used the advocacy coalition framework to analyze its obtained data. The focus of Silva-Leander's study was on Indonesia's civil society role and influence on strengthening its own anticorruption policy. The inclusion of the advocacy coalition framework by Dressel (2012) and Silva-Leander (2015) in their studies, suggests that it may help to understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on collaborating with other societal actors, to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. I sought to gain an understanding of these perspectives, which was a part of this study's focus.

### **Undesirable Effects of Corruption on Some Countries**

When researchers conduct studies on corruption and anticorruption initiatives, Transparency International (2016b) suggests that they discuss the undesirable effects of corruption on countries. Furthermore, from their respective studies, Al-Sheikh and Hamadah (2014), and Bayramov and Aliyeva (2011) concluded that the undesirable effects of corruption on countries might lead to either the implementation of a new anticorruption policy or at least the strengthening of an existing anticorruption policy. In this section, I review current research literature on the undesirable effects of corruption on some countries.

Research has revealed that corruption has been a common practice in different countries, which yielded a variety of undesirable effects (Hope, 2016; Obala & Mattingly, 2014; Simelane, 2012). Simelane in a qualitative study examined the effects of corruption in Swaziland, a small country located Southern Africa. Simelane discovered that effects of corruption were a shortage of government revenues, increased poverty, and

huge inequalities amongst residents because of a lack of adequate economic development. These research findings suggest that corruption in Swaziland at that time had a negative effect on the socioeconomic status of its people.

In another study, Hope (2016) also examined the effects of corruption in Swaziland. He discovered that the effects from corruption in Swaziland were (a) a reduced collection of government revenue, (b) an undermining of the country's justice system, (c) a wide gap between the poor and the rich, (d) a gradual increase in serious crimes, and (e) a few persons enjoying their standard of living. The findings from this study do not only suggest that corruption declined the socioeconomic status of people in Swaziland, but posed a threat to that country's social stability. Researchers could have conducted a quantitative study to determine the extent to which corruption declined the socioeconomic status of people in Swaziland.

Research has revealed that acts of corruption have contributed to other undesirable effects such as intimidation and violent conflicts. In a field study, Obala and Mattingly (2014) examined patterns of land distribution in lower-income settlements in Kenya, another African country. A part of their study's focus was on lower-income settlements located in Nairobi, the country's capital. They used interviewing and field observation to collect data. To make their study very rigorous, they used both primary and secondary sources of data. They discovered that specific middle-income groups based on their ethnicity and connections to public officials got unlawful ownership of lands within these settlements. Obala and Mattingly revealed that these middle-income groups bribed the public officials to get fraudulent documentation that showed they were

the lawful owners of the lands. They further reported that after getting fraudulent documentation, these middle-income groups organized for the eviction of lawful landowners by means of intimidation and coercion, which led to violent conflict. These findings suggest that because of corruption, Kenya experienced a level of social instability.

As another African country, Nigeria experienced corruption, which caused undesirable effects on its economic growth (Bakare, 2011; Nwankwo, 2014). In a quantitative study, Bakare investigated the effects of corruption on Nigeria's economic development. He used an experimental approach to conduct this investigation. Secondary data that highlighted aspects of Nigeria's macroeconomic performance between the years 1986 and 2010, as well as Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index scores awarded to Nigeria from the year 1996 to the year 2010 were used for data analysis. Bakare used t-statistic and a correlational test to analyze the data. The data analysis indicated that there was a negative relationship between corruption and economic growth. He concluded that corruption in Nigeria hindered economic growth than corruption in other African countries. Since his study only included data referring to Nigeria's economic performance, further research using data on the other African countries may support this conclusion.

In a follow-up study, Nwankwo (2014) also assessed the effects of corruption on Nigeria's economic growth. Similar to Bakare (2011), he applied a quantitative approach to make his assessment. The variables of interest were Nigeria's annual gross domestic product rate and Corruption Perception Index scores given by Transparency International.



In his study, he used a variety of statistical tests to analyze the data. The findings from his study indicated that a negative relationship existed between corruption and economic growth. Based on this finding, he recommended that the Nigerian government strengthen the country's anticorruption policy to ensure attainable economic growth.

In an ethnographic study, Dela Rama (2012) examined the undesirable effects of corruption on businesses in an Asian country. The focus of her study was the effects of corruption on family-owned businesses in the Philippines. She employed a variety of qualitative data collection strategies to obtain data: interviews, participant observation, and document analysis. She used thematic analysis to analyze the obtained data. She discovered that corruption in the Philippines resulted in increased operational costs for some family-owned businesses and discouraged business investors. She also discovered that corruption drove owners of family businesses to engage in corrupt practices. Dela Rama reported that in a number of instances, owners of family-businesses bribed public officials to benefit from government services. Some of the findings from Dela Rama's study suggest that the owners of the family businesses engaged in corruption so that their businesses could survive.

Studies have revealed that amongst the undesirable effects of corruption is the lack of trust in political institutions based in some European countries (Babos, 2014; Budak & Rahj; 2012). In a correlational study, Babos sought to discover whether a relationship exists between perceived levels of corruption and the lack of trust in political institutions in Europe. He focused on 26 European countries. Babos used data generated by the European Social Survey, the Eurostat, the Economist Intelligence Unit, the World

Bank, and Transparency International Corruption Perception Index to derive findings. Babos found that a strong association existed between perceived levels corruption and the lack of trust in political institutions. Although the nature of Babos's study was correlational, researchers could have investigated the extent to which perceived levels of corruption influence the lack of trust in political institutions by residents in these countries.

Budak and Rahj (2012) conducted a study to identify factors that contributed to the underreporting of corruption in Croatia. They used a survey approach to conduct their investigation. In their study, they included residents of Croatia as participants. Using face-to-face interviews and 3005 questionnaires, they discovered that more than half of the participants did not trust some of Croatia's political institutions and viewed the reporting corruption as useless. To eradicate their views, Budak and Rahj recommended that the government of Croatia execute constant and far-reaching communication to its media and residents, about the seriousness and efforts of its anticorruption institutions. This research finding suggests that some of Croatia's residents were not supportive of the country's anticorruption policy. A limitation of their study was their inability to empirically analyzed obtained microdata (Budak & Rahj, 2012). At the time of their study, an empirical analysis of the microdata might have yielded additional results.

Kato and Sato (2014) reported that an undesirable effect of corruption is lowering of a country's economic performance. In a quantitative study, Kato and Sato sought to determine whether corruption had an effect on total factor productivity within small manufacturing entities located in 17 states in India. To acquire information for their

data analysis, they carried out surveys on corruption occurrences. They also used secondary data from the Indian government records collected between the 1980's and 1990's. Data for their study were analyzed by means of regression analysis (Kato & Sato, 2014). Kato and Sato found that corruption lowered total factor productivity, thus minimizing operational efficiency. A weakness of their study was the age of the secondary data used. If their study had more recent data, they could have derived different results.

Luiz and Stewart (2014) investigated the undesirable effects of corruption on South African Multinational Enterprises, located in different African countries. They used a qualitative approach to conduct their investigation. They found that the undesirable effects of corruption were an uncertainty of the business environment, incurrence of additional transactional costs, and the frequent implementation of strategic actions for sustenance of businesses. Luiz and Stewart reported that regardless of the host country, it required South African South African Multinational Enterprises to formulate strategies carefully and effectively to ensure their sustenance. Based on their findings, Luiz and Stewart concluded that the South African Multinational Enterprises faced extreme high risks in the context of operating within their respective business environments. These findings from Luiz and Stewart's study suggest that corruption posed a threat to economic development in these countries. Luiz and Stewart recommended further research to identify the effects of corruption on other kinds of business entities located in African countries. Researchers could have conducted a

quantitative study to determine the extent to which the uncertainty in the business environment affected the South African Multinational Enterprises.

It is interesting to note that one common undesirable effect of corruption on countries is the wastage of public resources. In a quantitative study, Castro, Guccio, and Rizzo (2014) examined the effects of corruption in the context of delays and cost overruns associated with the provision of public physical infrastructure in Italy. To conduct this examination they used Data Envelopment Analysis, a technique applied by Decision Making Units for measuring efficiency in conjunction with data relating to the execution of Italian public works (Castro et al., 2014). Castro et al. reported that the use of contracts by Italian public institutions executed these public works. Castro et al. used both parametric and nonparametric test to perform their data analysis. Their data analysis indicated that there was an association between greater corruption in areas where physical public infrastructure was provided and low-efficiency rates in the execution of public works. The results of their study suggest that this kind of corruption contributed to the inefficiency of public service in Italy.

Abotsi (2015) conducted a qualitative study to identify the effects of corruption in relation to African-based firms owned by foreign investors. He discovered that some foreign-based firms paid a portion of their annual revenues (informal payments) to bribe public officials, thus affecting their profitability negatively. He also found that this undesirable effect led to other foreign investors showing an unwillingness to invest in Africa. The results of Abotsi's study suggest that corruption was a hindrance to economic development in Africa where these foreign-based firms were located.

Vorley and Williams (2015) conducted a qualitative inquiry on the effects of corruption on entrepreneurial activity in Romania and Bulgaria. To be specific, their aim was to discover how entrepreneurs in both countries survive in environments influenced by political corruption. They used entrepreneurs as participants and in-depth interviews to obtain data. From their data analysis, Vorley and Williams found that corruption placed a constraint on entrepreneurial growth. According to Vorley and Williams, the constraint on entrepreneurial growth undermined the aspirations of some entrepreneurs. Vorley and Williams also discovered that some entrepreneurs supported or complied with corrupt practices. In addition, they found that corrupt practices led to unfair, intense competition amongst entrepreneurs. They suggested that researchers study the undesirable effects of corruption on economies in other European territories. The results of Vorley and Williams' study suggests that as an undesirable effect, corruption created an unfriendly business environment for these entrepreneurs.

According to some researchers, corruption has contributed an undesirable effect on Jamaica such as a decline in economic growth (Stanfill, Villarreal, Medina, Esquivel, de la Rosa, & Duncan, 2016). Stanfill, Villarreal, Medina, Esquivel, de la Rosa and Duncan conducted a correlational study to examine the relationship between actual occurrences of corruption and economic development within some Latin American countries, which included Jamaica. They used publicly available datasets provided by Transparency International and the World Bank. In relation to Jamaica, they discovered that on an annual basis, whenever actual occurrences of corruption increase, economic growth declines. In an earlier study, Tennant (2015) discovered something similar. The

next section in this chapter has information from studies on the existence of societal support for and against corruption.

### **Societal Support for and Against Corruption**

In the literature on anticorruption policies, Disch, Vigeland, Sandet, and Gibson (2009) and Hanna et al. (2011) all argued that an overwhelming culture of corruption within a society undermines the existence of an anticorruption policy. An overwhelming culture of corruption within a society implies possible broad societal support for corruption (Hanna et al., 2011). In this section, I detail findings from some studies that have revealed the existence of societal support for and against corruption.

Research has revealed that societal support for corruption existed in some countries. In a quantitative study, Weschle (2016) discovered perspectives from voters in India on two issues. First, the treatment corrupt politicians should receive in the context of those who steal public funds and second, persons who take financial donations to buy votes to gain political office. Weschle used random sampling to select voters as participants to provide data. His study included 993 interviews and the use of a statistical test to analyze the data. Weschle found that most of the participants were tolerant of politicians who accept financial donations from private individuals and subsequently use these monies to buy votes for political office. In addition, he found that some of the participants saw the receipt of these monies as a means of preserving their welfare. A qualitative inquiry might have provided an understanding in terms of why Indian voters were sympathetic towards the corrupt politicians who buy votes in India.

Researchers have discovered public support for corruption in European and African countries during recent years (Anduiza, Gallego, & Munoz, 2013; Harrington & Manji, 2012). In their respective studies, these researchers found that some members of the public in these countries were sympathetic towards corrupt persons (Anduiza, Gallego, & Munoz, 2013; Harrington and Manji, 2012). These corrupt persons either held public office, or worked in the public sector based on connections and personal gains (Anduiza, Gallego, & Munoz, 2013; Harrington and Manji, 2012).

However, not all societal members in India are tolerant of corruption. Researchers have documented that there are people in India and Israel who resist acts of corruption (Beyerle, 2014; Navot & Cohen, 2015). In her qualitative study, Beyerle examined passive resistance towards corruption displayed by people in 14 countries, which included India. She used comparative analysis to analyze data that was gathered for her study. She discovered that in India, a social movement “fifth pillar” existed, whose mission was to form societal coalitions against corruption. Similarly, in a quantitative study, Navot and Cohen (2015) found that there was a group of civil society actors in Israel, who were against corruption in that country.

In their quantitative study, Winters and Weitz-Shapiro (2016) found that a significant number of voters residing a Brazilian municipality, displayed a lack of support for corruption. The voters displayed this lack by indicating their desire to inflict greater electoral punishment on elected public officials for direct corruption involvement when compared to unelected public officials (Winters & Weitz- Shapiro, 2016). Winters and Weitz- Shapiro, collected data from their participants for analysis with the use of

questionnaires. They performed data analysis with t-tests. They found that most of the participants were against corruption, This finding from Winter and Weitz-Shapiro's study suggests that the participants as citizens, held elected public officials to high levels of accountability (Winters & Weitz-Shapiro, 2016). A limitation of their study was its small sample size. A similar research with the inclusion of a larger sample might have yielded contrasting results (Winters & Weitz-Shapiro, 2016). Interestingly, additional research might have helped to understand why these voters in Brazil thought elected public officials should be held to higher levels of accountability, than those that are unelected.

Transparency International (2012) found that there was a lack of support for corruption amongst young people in South Korea. In a survey, Transparency International assessed public support for corruption from people living in South Korea. The participants ranged in age from 15 to more than 61 years. The survey's results showed that young people were far less tolerant of corruption than elderly people (Transparency International, 2012). Transparency International recommended that the South Korean government implement programs to maintain the young people in South Korea against corruption. A qualitative study could have provided an in-depth understanding of the young people in Korea lack of support for corruption.

### **Ineffective Anticorruption Policies Experienced by Some Countries**

Findings from past research suggest that Jamaica's anticorruption policy appears to be ineffective (Bogicevic, 2012; Hylton and Young, 2007; Phillips, 2012). In their quantitative study, Hylton and Young focused on the combatting of corruption in 10 Caribbean countries. To perform data analysis, they used Transparency International's



Corruption Perception Index and Inter-American Convention against Corruption Follow-up Mechanism reports. They argued that Jamaica had taken steps in the past to strengthen its anticorruption policy, but the policy itself had areas of weakness. The findings from Hylton and Young's study suggests that Jamaica's anticorruption policy needed strengthening. A limitation of their study was the partial use of secondary data to derive findings. The use of primary data in their study might have yielded more reliable findings.

Researchers have investigated the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies, which belong to other countries, and found a variety of factors that contribute to this phenomenon (De Larui, 2013; Heeks & Mathisen, 2012; Ivanov & Bogun, 2014; McClean, 2011; Mietzner, 2015; Persson, et al., 2013; Roman, 2014; Sakyi, Azunu & Mensah, 2011; Singh, 2016; Ugoani, 2016). In their qualitative study, Sakyi et al. investigated factors that contributed to the ineffectiveness of a new anticorruption policy implemented in Ghana between the years 2001 to 2008. They found that an inadequate number of resources and a lack of institutional capacity were the main contributory factors. Another interesting finding from their study was that the new policy resulted in the implementation of five anticorruption agencies. These findings from their study suggest a lack of seriousness on the part of Ghana's government to make the new policy workable during that period (Sakyi, et al. 2011).

In the recent years, some researchers studied the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies, which belonged to some specific developing countries (Heeks & Mathisen, 2012). Heeks and Mathisen assessed the performance of anticorruption policies for some

developing countries in Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America with the use of secondary quantitative data. They concluded that poor design and ineffective implementation contributed to these policies' own failures. In an earlier and similar study, Perrson, Rothstein, and Teorell (2010) drew the same conclusion when they examined anticorruption policies that belonged to Kenya and Uganda.

Phillips (2012) studied the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's anticorruption policy. She found some factors, which contributed to the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's anticorruption policy. These factors were its own political model, lack of political will, constant undermining of the policy itself by Jamaican public officials, and weaknesses associated with Jamaica's judicial system. She argued that to make Jamaica' anticorruption policy effective, active participation from all societal actors to monitor the policy was necessary.

In an earlier and similar study, Osei (2007) also investigated the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's anticorruption policy. He reported that since the 1990's Jamaica had undertaken a range of initiatives to strengthen its anticorruption policy. However, he found that there was an increasing perception that Jamaica's anticorruption policy was ineffective. Osei recommended a demonstration of political will to make the country's anticorruption policy effective.

Researchers have found that mistrust and lack of confidence in anticorruption institutions amongst citizens are other factors that contribute to the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies. In a qualitative study, Persson et al. (2013) re-examined anticorruption policies that belong to Kenya and Uganda. They conducted interviews with citizens from the two countries to gather data for analysis. They discovered that the

reporting of corruption to anticorruption institutions was sometimes unsafe. An implication of this discovery is that it was risky for citizens to report corruption (Persson et al., 2013). Their discovery suggests that the anticorruption policies for the two countries were not yielding their desired effects (Persson et al., 2013).

There are other factors that contribute to the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies. In his qualitative inquiry on Moldova's anticorruption policy, Roman (2014) found that the ineffectiveness of the country's anticorruption policy was associated with the deep cultural beliefs of its people, and the presence of abundant organized corruption networks. Roman's qualitative inquiry sought to understand the prevalence of systemic corruption in Moldova. Roman used semi-structured interviews to gather data, and he recruited participants in his study by means of purposive sampling. The participants in Roman's inquiry were business owners, public sector employees and former anticorruption agents in Moldova. Roman found that none of the participants saw anything wrong with corruption. This finding from Romans' inquiry suggests that there was support for corruption amongst these groups of people in Moldova (Roman, 2014).

It seems as if the abundance of power held by political elites is another factor that contributes to the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies. In his study on the ineffectiveness of Indonesia's anticorruption policy, Mietzner (2015) reported that corrupt practices by powerful political elites prevailed, caused by the amount of political power they enjoyed. He discovered that these powerful political elites engage in political corruption, such as soliciting bribes from private investors in spite of state-sponsored provisions for political parties and campaign financing. Mietzner reported that

Indonesia's Anticorruption Commission (Indonesia's anticorruption agency) had reaped some success; however, corrupt practices by powerful elites continued at alarming levels. He recommended further action to strengthen the country's anticorruption efforts.

In a mixed-method exploratory study, Ugoani (2016) investigated the extent to which a lack of political will in Nigeria contributed to the ineffectiveness of that country's anticorruption efforts. He reported that Nigeria had anticorruption institutions, but the country experienced high intolerable levels of perceived corruption. He collected data from both primary and secondary data sources. Ugoani gathered primary data from questionnaires with seven-point Likert scale items. An alpha value of 82% determined the questionnaire's reliability and he used Chi-square and descriptive statistical methods to analyze the data (Ugoani, 2016). Ugoani found that a lack of political will contributed significantly to the ineffectiveness of Nigeria's anticorruption institutions. In an earlier study on the ineffectiveness of South Africa's anticorruption institutions, Pillay (2004) obtained a similar finding. Ugoani argued that Nigeria's anticorruption institutions needed protection and more resources to fulfill its mandate. According to Ugoani, a limitation of his study was a lack of statistics on cases of corruption, The availability, and an analysis of this data could have strengthened his finding.

Researchers have revealed that Afghanistan experienced an ineffective anticorruption policy (Dharmavarapu, 2015; Singh, 2016). In a qualitative investigation, Singh examined Afghanistan anticorruption policy and concluded that it was ineffective. Singh collected data for the investigation by means of 70 semi-structured interviews. He recruited the actual participants from the three groups of societal actors in Afghanistan.

He discovered that the ineffectiveness of Afghanistan's anticorruption policy was attributable to political interference from Afghanistan's elites. In another qualitative study on the effectiveness of Afghanistan's anticorruption policy, Dharmavarapu made a similar discovery.

### **Effective Anticorruption Policies Experienced by Some Countries**

The literature reviewed in the previous section relates to ineffective anticorruption policies experienced by some countries. This section has a review of the literature on effective anticorruption policies experienced by some countries. In the past, countries such as Finland, Denmark, Hong Kong, New Zealand, and Singapore experienced effective anticorruption policies (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2014).

The results of some studies have suggested that strong political will is a key ingredient for the effectiveness of a country's anticorruption policy (Brewer, Leung & Scott 2014; Gong & Wang, 2013). In a quantitative survey, Gong and Wang investigated the effects of Hong Kong's zero-tolerance approach to attain corruption prevention within its own society. They surveyed 1,049 university students as actual participants. Gong and Wang found that the zero-tolerance approach initiated by Hong Kong's government resulted in the development of a strong culture against corruption. They also found that both formal and informal anticorruption institutions (social norms) shaped this culture. Gong and Wang reported that Hong Kong's Independent Commission against Corruption (the country's formal anticorruption institution) used social interventions in the form of training and public education initiatives to condition people's mindset against corruption. They concluded that Hong Kong's Independent Commission Against

Corruption created a social environment where the people in Hong Kong embrace and practice prevailing ethical norms. In another study on the effectiveness Hong Kong's anticorruption policy, Brewer, Leung, and Scott (2014) drew the same conclusion.

Mungiu-Pippidi (2013a) investigated the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of Denmark's anticorruption policy. Mungiu-Pippidi found that a major factor was the political modernization in Denmark, which occurred between the years 1950 and 2000. The country's political modernization comprised of reasonable salaries paid to bureaucrats, thorough screening of prospective public sector workers and elimination of privileges given to political elites (Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013a).

Salminen (2013) studied factors attributable to the effectiveness of Finland's anticorruption policy. He found that an existent control system associated with a penal code, sound administrative and legal procedures, the application of the rule of law, and the promotion of integrity among public servants were to be credited. Salminen also found that there was a strong political will to curb corruption in Finland. However, he recommended that the Finnish government consider reforming Finland's control system since few cases of corruption existed in the country. A weakness associated with his study was the inadequacy of data for analysis. The inclusion of adequate and relevant data in his study would have eliminated this weakness (Salminen, 2013).

In a qualitative study on factors that contributed to the effectiveness of Singapore's anticorruption policy, Quah (2014) found that the drastic curbing of police corruption was a major factor. He used data on corruption control provided by three international institutions: World Bank, Transparency International, and Political and

Economic Risk Consultancy, and a collection of reported cases of police corruption that occurred in Singapore between the years 1965 and 2012 for analysis (Quah, 2014). He performed a comparative analysis of the data gathered for his study, Quah discovered a number of factors that played a crucial role in making Singapore's anticorruption policy effective, in the context of curbing police corruption. These factors included a strong political will, stringent penalties for corrupt practices, constant public exposure of police personnel convicted for corruption involvement, ongoing social intervention programs, and radical administrative measures aimed at preventing and detecting corruption within Singapore's police force (Quah, 2014). The next section of this chapter has information on countries that took action in previous years to strengthen their respective anticorruption policies.

### **Strengthening Anticorruption Policies in Some Countries**

In the previous sections in this chapter, I provided insights into the undesirable effects of corruption on countries, as well as some factors, which have contributed to the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies in different countries. Although some countries had either successes or failures of their respective anticorruption policies, researchers have made recommendations for strengthening them (Mietzner, 2015; Salimen, 2013). It appears as if researchers have mostly focused on the strengthening of anticorruption policies in countries outside the Caribbean. Jamaica is located in the Caribbean. This section has information on the strengthening of anticorruption policies.

In a qualitative study, Maghraoui (2012) reported steps taken by the government of Morocco to strengthen Morocco's anticorruption policy. According to Maghraoui, Morocco experienced two eras of anticorruption reforms: from 1964-1971 and 1998-1999. He discovered that since 1998, all societal actors (government, civil society, and business community) have been involved in the design of anticorruption reforms in Morocco. Maghraoui further revealed that Morocco's government took steps such as (a) improving human rights, (b) overhauling Morocco's judicial system, (c) facilitating transparency of its procurement procedures, (d) empowering Morocco's anticorruption institutions, and (e) applying stiffer penalties to persons convicted for corruption. The results of his study suggest that the government of Morocco demonstrated willingness to curb corruption,

In a mixed-method investigation, Guo and Songfeng (2015) studied the implementation of anticorruption measures in the Peoples Republic of China, to strengthen its anticorruption policy. They discovered that the Chinese government implemented a variety of measures during the period 2002 to 2015. According to Guo and Songfeng, some of these measures were (a) systems to detect corruption, (b) harsh punishment for corrupt practices, (c) improved working conditions for public officials and public sector employees, and (d) their deprivation of special privileges. Other measures included the reformation of the country's formal anticorruption institutions and economic system (Guo & Songfeng, 2015). Guo and Songfeng reported that despite the measures implemented by the Chinese government to control corruption, there were challenges. They recommended that the Chinese government ensure proper coordination



amongst China's formal anticorruption institutions and judicial system to overcome these challenges.

In contrast to political, administrative, and legal reforms implemented by the governments of China and Morocco to strengthen their countries' anticorruption policies (Guo & Songfeng, 2015; Maghraoui, 2012), Berlie (2012) reported that the government of East Timor enacted social reforms as a preferred option for strengthening its anticorruption policy. In a qualitative study on the anticorruption reforms in East Timor, Berlie (2012) found that its government provided residents with published materials to encourage them to reject corrupt practices. According to Berlie, this reform was an addition to the country's own anticorruption agency, the Anticorruption Commission. Berlie also reported that the government of East Timor adopted this idea from Hong Kong's anticorruption model.

The Rose Revolution in Georgia during the year 2003 resulted in a new Georgian government, which introduced anticorruption reforms (Charkviani, 2013). According to studies done by Cieslik and Goczek (2015), and Kupatadze (2012), political will and commitment from Georgia's government made Georgia's anticorruption policy effective since the year 2007. Both domestic and international pressure drove this political will and commitment (Charkviani, 2013; Cieslik & Goczek, 2015; Kupatadze, 2012). However, some researchers have argued that strengthening anticorruption policies may not be sufficient to curb corruption (Batabyal & Chowdhury, 2015; Graycar & Sidebottom, 2012; Omoteso & Mobolaji, 2014). They recommended that governments consider the implementation of a complement of policies to curb corruption (Batabyal & Chowdhury,

2015; Graycar & Sidebottom, 2012; Omoteso & Mobolaji, 2014). The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2013a) also made this recommendation after studying the effectiveness of anticorruption policies for some European countries.

The establishment of anticorruption courts is another option for strengthening anticorruption policies. In a case study on new anticorruption reforms in Indonesia, Chan (2014) found that since 1999, the Indonesian government implemented anticorruption courts and additional legislation as reforms, to prevent and eradicate corrupt behaviors. These anticorruption courts had powers to impose harsh penalties on convicted individuals (Chan, 2014).

In his mixed-method study on the strengthening of Japan's anticorruption policy, Oyamada (2015) found that Japan's government implemented new measures to control corruption. The measures were (a) the reformation of Japan's bidding and contracting arrangements, (b) accessibility to public information, (c) a law which protected whistleblowers, and (d) stricter penalties for breaches of anticorruption laws. He reported that the new anticorruption measures appear to be working. but some residents in Japan had the view that the government of Japan was not serious about curbing corruption. Interestingly, a qualitative study could have revealed the reasons why some Japanese had this view (Oyamada, 2015).

### **Using Independent Anticorruption Agencies to Strengthen Anticorruption Policies**

There are countries with independent anticorruption agencies, for example, Hong Kong, Singapore, Indonesia, and Nigeria (Appiah, Ametepe, & Dapaah, 2014; Dada, 2014; Mao, Wong & Peng, 2013; Partohap & Pradiptyo, 2015; Quah, 1994). Although

governments in these countries implemented independent anticorruption agencies to strengthen their respective anticorruption policies, this initiative has yielded mixed results such as successes, challenges, and failures (Appiah, Ametepe, & Dapaah, 2014; Dada, 2014; Mao, Wong & Peng, 2013; Partohap & Pradiptyo, 2015; Quah, 1994). In spite of these mixed results, researchers have continued to recommend the establishment of independent anticorruption agencies for corruption prevention, rather than for corruption detection and law enforcement (David 2013; Hussain & Riaz, 2012: Organization for Economic Development, 2013b).

I highlighted earlier in this chapter, that independent anticorruption agencies face challenges (Appiah, Ametepe, & Dapaah, 2014; Dada, 2014). In his quantitative study on the effectiveness of Nigeria's anticorruption policy, Dada found that Nigeria's legal framework challenged the works of the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission -- one of the country's independent anticorruption institutions. This finding suggests that Nigeria's legal framework was not supportive of the the works of the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission. According to Dada, a strong legal framework remains necessary when a country establishes an independent anticorruption institution to strengthen its anticorruption policy.

Research has revealed that inadequate governmental support is a major factor that contributes to the failure of independent anticorruption institutions. In a quantitative inquiry, Appiah et al. (2014) discovered challenges experienced by independent anticorruption agencies in Ghana. They used simple random sampling to select nine independent anticorruption institutions (Appiah et al., 2014). They collected data from

persons in leadership positions within these institutions with questionnaires (Appiah et al., 2014). Their inquiry's participants indicated that the major challenge experienced by their institutions was inadequate budgetary support from the Ghanaian government (Appiah et al., 2014). This finding suggests that at that time, Ghana's government had no political will to support the work of these independent anticorruption institutions.

During the year 2005, Indonesia established an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers, Indonesia's Corruption Eradication Committee (Partohap & Pradiptyo, 2015). In their study on the effectiveness of this agency, Partohap and Pradiptyo found that its works caused faster completion of court trials in Indonesia's corruption courts. Partohap and Pradiptyo (2015) measured and compared two scenarios. First, the duration of court trials for corruption involvement when initiated by Indonesia's Corruption Eradication Committee. Second, the duration of court trials for corruption involvement when initiated by police and prosecutor. The results of their study showed that Indonesian courts handed down verdicts within shorter durations when the Corruption Eradication Committee initiated corruption trials, in comparison to the police and public prosecutor. In his study on effectiveness of Indonesia's independent anticorruption agency, Chan (2014) found that there were attempts by Indonesia's legislators, police, and public prosecutor to hinder its anticorruption efforts. This finding from Chan's study suggests that the independent anticorruption agency in Indonesia faced challenges.

It appears as if continuous support from government is a critical requirement, for the success of independent anticorruption agencies (Mao, Wong & Peng, 2013). In their

study on the works of Hong Kong's independent anticorruption agency, the Independent Commission Against Corruption, Mao et al. discovered that the successes it enjoyed were attributable to support from Hong Kong's government. Mao et al. reported that the successes experienced by the ICAC enhanced public confidence in the independent anticorruption institution. They also reported that internal audits were done regularly to monitor the works of the agency. This finding suggests that an arrangement existed to ensure the agency display professionalism and due process whenever it exercises its powers (Mao et al., 2013). In an earlier study, on the success of Singapore's anticorruption policy, Quah (1994) found that Singapore's independent anticorruption agency also enjoyed governmental support.

Current research literature has revealed the establishment of independent anticorruption agencies in countries such as Lithuania, Latvia, and Australia (Johanssen & Pederssen, 2011; McAllister, 2014). In a study on the characteristics of independent anticorruption agencies in Lithuania and Latvia, Johanssen and Pedersen found that the governments in these countries established independent anticorruption agencies in response to the need for strengthening their respective anticorruption policies. Additionally, they reported that independence of these agencies was deliberate for guaranteeing them insulation from political interference. In fact, Johanssen and Pederssen disclosed that they were parliamentary committees in these countries, which monitored the conduct of political actors. This finding suggests that these two countries avoided the sole reliance on their independent anticorruption agencies to control corruption.

### **Societal Collaboration for Effective Anticorruption Policies**

As argued by Phillips (2012) and Parnini (2013), curbing corruption significantly requires joint action from all societal actors in a society. These societal actors are government, civil society, and business community. This joint action (collective action) may be achieved through collaboration; that is if all the societal actors form coalitions (Poocharoen, 2014). Furthermore, a few researchers have recommended from their studies the establishment and continuation of societal coalitions against corruption to hold public officials to high standards of accountability, and to deter corrupt behavior in societies (Johnston, & Kpundeh, 2005; Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013a; Poocharoen, 2014).

Researchers have conducted inquiries into the role of societal coalitions against corruption in some countries (Johnston & Kpundeh, 2005; Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013a; Poocharoen, 2014). Research has revealed that societal coalitions can contribute to the curbing of corruption in different ways (Johnston, & Kpundeh, 2005; Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011).

In a qualitative inquiry, Mungiu-Pippidi and Dusu (2011) studied the role of the Coalition for Clean Universities, a societal coalition in Romania, which benchmarked and monitored ethical practices within the operations of Romanian based universities. They discovered that Coalition for Clean Universities played an essential role in promoting ethical standards within the universities' operations; something that was never the norm prior to the group's intervention as there were widespread practices of corruption in these institutions. According to Mungiu-Pippidi and Dusu, the Coalition for Clean Universities began ranking the institutions on the basis of ethical practices and then made this

information public. An outcome was competition amongst the universities for high ranks, which meant that they wanted to be perceived as clean institutions (Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011).

It appears as if an increased number of groups within a societal coalition against corruption could lead to the curbing of corruption within a society. In a quantitative study, Mungiu-Pippidi (2013b) found that a positive relationship existed between an increased number of groups within civil society coalitions and corruption control in some countries. She used data provided by the World Bank on corruption control for countries and a regression analysis. She reported that when the number of groups within a civil society coalition increased, there was an increase in scores given for corruption control to the respective countries (Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013b).

In a qualitative study, Poocharoen (2014) examined the role of societal coalitions against corruption in Finland and Japan. While the study revealed that both countries did not have anticorruption agencies, Poocharoen reported that in Finland a coalition called the Anticorruption Coordination Group existed, which comprised of all its societal actors. Poocharoen also found that the group's main aim was to plan and coordinate jointly the provision of guidelines to public servants and private sector, support law enforcement against corruption, and spearhead the execution of international agreements against corruption. In contrast to the kind of societal coalition against corruption that existed in Finland, he reported that civil society groups in Japan collaborated through a network to influence the Japanese government to be more transparent in its functions.

In the recent past, researchers have argued that societal actors such as civil society and business community are likely to form anticorruption coalitions when they think that their governments are serious about curbing corruption (Pieffer & Alvarez, 2015). In their quantitative study, Pieffer and Alvarez examined the relationship between governmental efforts to curb corruption and other societal actors' willingness to support this initiative through coalitions. They tested their hypothesis across 71 countries. They discovered that there was a positive association between the two variables.

### **Conclusion**

In this chapter, I described the theoretical frameworks, which provide an understanding of this study's focus. The theoretical frameworks are the principal-agent theory and the advocacy coalition framework. Researchers have used the principal-agent theory in their studies to understand the role of societal actors within the context of strengthening an existing anticorruption policy (Ayoola, 2013; Umar, 2013). A common theme associated with the principal-agent theory is principals appoint agents to act on their behalf (Bendickson et al., 2016a; Marquette & Peiffer, 2015).

Researchers have argued that the need for strengthening an anticorruption policy is a principal-agent problem (Ayoola, 2013; Marquette & Peiffer, 2015; Umar, 2013). All societies have three societal actors: the government, the business community, and the civil society (Parnini, 2013). Government plays the role of principal while business community and civil society are viewed as principal (Forgues-Puccio, 2013). In this study, I sought perspectives from Jamaica's business community (principal) on a single independent anticorruption agency that has both investigative and prosecutorial powers to



strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Hence, it was ideal for me to use the principal-agent theory as a theoretical foundation to study this concept.

I mentioned earlier in this chapter, that in the past, corruption has derived various undesirable effects on a number of countries (Dela Rama, 2012; Hope, 2016; Nwanko, 2016; Simelane, 2012). Examples of these undesirable effects are extreme transactional costs associated with business ventures, the discouragement of business investments, the encouragement of business communities to engage in corrupt practices and a hindrance to economic development and decline of economic growth (Dela Rama, 2012; Hope, 2016; Nwanko, 2016; Simelane, 2012). Researchers have revealed that undesirable effects of corruption in some cases led to the implementation of an anticorruption policy or the action taken to strengthen one that is existent (Al-Sheikh & Hamadah, 2014; Bayramov & Aliyeva, 2011).

Research literature has revealed that there was societal support for corruption in the past (Weschle, 2016). Contrastingly, it was documented in the research literature that there was societal support against corruption in the past as well (Anduiza, Gallego, & Munoz, 2013; Harrington & Manji, 2012). Researchers have argued that overwhelming active support for corruption in societies may lead to possible failure of an existing anticorruption policy (Disch, Vigeland, Sandet, & Gibson, 2009; Hanna et al., 2011).

Researchers have reported that in past years, some anticorruption policies have been ineffective (Dharmavarapu, 2015; Singh, 2016; Ugoani, 2016). Furthermore, research has revealed that a number of factors have contributed to the ineffectiveness of anticorruption policies belonging to different countries (Dharmavarapu, 2015; Singh,

2016; Ugoani; 2016). Examples of these factors are a lack of political will from a government and an abundance of power entrusted in the hands of political elites (Dharmavarapu, 2015; Singh, 2016; Ugoani; 2016). It has been documented in the research literature that between the years 2001 and 2008, Ghana implemented five independent anticorruption agencies as a means of strengthening its anticorruption policy, but its anticorruption policy experienced ineffectiveness (Appiah et al., 2014).

Despite the implementation of a variety of anticorruption initiatives in past years to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy, some researchers have argued that the policy itself appears to be ineffective (Philips, 2016; Stanfill et al., 2016). One of these researchers recommended a societal coalition in Jamaica to monitor the performance of its anticorruption policy (Philips, 2016). Based on my literature search, it appears as if adequate research has been done on the effects of corruption in Jamaica and the ineffectiveness of Jamaica's anticorruption policy, but inadequate research has been done on strengthening its anticorruption policy.

Contrastingly, countries such as Hong Kong and Singapore have enjoyed effective anticorruption policies (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2012; Quah, 2014). In fact, some researchers have discovered that strong political will was a crucial factor that contributed to the effectiveness of the anticorruption policies that belonged to the two countries (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2012; Quah, 2014).

In recent years, a number of countries have taken steps to strengthen their respective anticorruption policies (Berlie, 2012; Maghraoui, 2012; Oyamada, 2015). Examples of these countries are China, East Timor, Georgia, Morocco, and Japan (Berlie,

2012; Maghraoui, 2012; Oyamada, 2015). Researchers have reported that some of the steps taken are political reforms, social reforms, administrative reforms, legal reforms, and the establishment of anticorruption courts (Berlie, 2012; Maghraoui, 2012; Oyamada, 2015). Furthermore, research has shown that all societal actors in Morocco contributed to the formulation and implementation of that country's anticorruption reforms (Maghraoui, 2012). Current research literature suggests that Jamaica's anticorruption policy needs strengthening (Philips, 2016; Stanfill et al., 2016). A gap in the research literature that this study filled was perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on Jamaica having an independent agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its own anticorruption policy. Based on my literature search, it appears as if most studies on the strengthening of anticorruption policies are qualitative in nature. Hence, I used a qualitative approach to fill this gap in the research literature.

In recent decades, an emerging trend is the implementation of independent anticorruption agencies by government in some countries to strengthen their respective anticorruption policies (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2012; Quah, 2014). Although current research has revealed that the independent anticorruption agencies in Hong Kong and Singapore have experienced tremendous success, those in Nigeria and Ghana have experienced grave challenges (Appiah et al., 2014; Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2012; Quah, 2014; Ugoani, 2016).

Finally, research has shown that in recent years, societal actors in some countries have contributed to the effectiveness of their respective anticorruption policies (Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011; Poocharoen, 2014). Research findings have indicated that some

societal coalitions have gained success in curbing corruption (Mungiu-Pippidi & Dusu, 2011). Furthermore, at least one researcher recommended societal coalitions as a means of strengthening Afghanistan's anticorruption policy (Singh, 2016). This chapter has provided a review of research literature relating to this study's area of focus. The next chapter provides in-depth details about its chosen methodology and design

## Chapter 3: Research Method

### **Introduction**

In the first chapter of this manuscript, I detailed the research problem in this study. The problem relates to the need for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy, which appears to be ineffective. To be specific, although Jamaica's anticorruption policy encompasses three anticorruption agencies, current research has suggested that the policy itself has weaknesses. The purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on a single independent agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen that policy. In this chapter, there is a description of the research tradition, research design, and methodology, as well as ethical considerations that aided in discovering these perspectives.

### **Qualitative Research**

As a tradition, researchers in the field of sociology and anthropology started to use qualitative research as a method of inquiry during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Al Busaidi; 2008; Allwood, 2011). Prior to this period, some researchers in the field of sociology and anthropology examined cultures and groups (a goal of qualitative research), but in an unsystematic way (Al Busaidi, 2008). Since the 1960s, qualitative research has become very common (Al Busaidi, 2008). In contrast to quantitative research (another research tradition), qualitative research is a method of inquiry (research approach), which seeks to understand the meaning persons attribute to a social issue of interest (Tuck & Mckenzie, 2015; Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, through qualitative research, researchers attempt to gain a deeper understanding (insight) of a phenomenon

or issue of interest (Al Busaidi, 2008; Campbell et al., 2011). Using the qualitative approach to conduct this study was ideal, as I attempted to understand perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on a particular issue. This issue was considering the concept of a single independent agency to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

### **Research Design**

A research design represents the overall strategy for ensuring that evidence gathered will answer all questions for a research (Labaree, 2009b; Van Wyk, 2016). Research designs are characterized by the following components: research question, theoretical perspective, philosophical stance, methodology, and validation of findings (Malagon-Maldonado, 2014; Creswell, 2003). Research designs are also determined by a study's purpose (Van Wyk, 2016) and are associated with the three common approaches to research: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Creswell, 2003, 2009, 2013). I selected a qualitative approach to achieve the purpose of this study.

Three common kinds of research design for conducting studies are exploratory design, descriptive design, and explanatory design (Van Wyk, 2016). A qualitative exploratory design was chosen for this study. According to Van Wyk (2016), many studies with qualitative exploratory designs have research questions that begin with the word "what." The research questions for this study are given below:

1. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on a single independent anticorruption agency with prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?

2. Other than a single independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers, what other alternatives does the Jamaican business community perceive that could strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
3. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on collaborating with other local societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica?

For a study, a fit should exist between its design and research questions (Draper, 2004), which was illustrated by beginning the research questions with the word "what." In addition, research questions are the key component of a research design that is connected to its other components (Creswell 2003, 2009; Maxwell, 2009).

### **Exploratory Design**

Exploratory designs are used to conduct research when little or nothing is known about an issue (Labaree, 2009b; Sainsbury & Weston, 2010; Sparks, 2013). Exploratory designs aim not to provide conclusive answers to research questions but to explore a particular research topic, an issue deeply for gaining insights, or a deeper understanding (Labaree, 2009b; Sparks, 2013). Exploratory designs also provide researchers an opportunity to explore and understand alternative options as a solution for an existing problem (Labaree, 2009b). Findings derived from studies with exploratory designs often establish a need for further research to yield conclusive evidence as well as provide variables that researchers can study using quantitative methods (Labaree, 2009b; Ozgen, 2012).

Using an exploratory design was justified for this study, as my purpose was to explore perspectives from the Jamaican business community on a concept (an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy). For this study, other research designs such as descriptive and explanatory designs were not appropriate. Descriptive designs are used in studies when the purpose is to describe a phenomenon in an accurate manner, whilst explanatory designs are used when the purpose is to explain the nature of a specific relationship (Sparks, 2013; Van Wyk, 2016).

Most studies that use exploratory designs to investigate a concept are qualitative in nature; that is, they use qualitative data collection techniques and yield qualitative data (Sparks, 2013). As indicated earlier in this chapter, qualitative research is a means for exploring a new concept or a topic of interest (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2004), which is synonymous with the purpose of this study. Researchers have used the qualitative approach to research (using qualitative methods to generate qualitative data) for exploring different concepts on a number of occasions. For example, Lee, Low, and Ng (2013) used a qualitative approach in tandem with an exploratory design to explore the concept of patient values in the context of medical decision-making. Another occasion was when Sainsbury and Weston (2010) explored the concept of a new employee benefit in the United Kingdom. Also, Rangel, Ilha, and Backes (2015) used a qualitative exploratory design to understand perspectives from some nursing students and nursing teachers in Brazil on the concept of full care in the field of healthcare.



## **Research Methodology**

In the context of research, authors such as Bogdan and Taylor (1975), as cited in Sloan and Bowe (2014), and Labaree (2009a) described methodology as a set of procedures and principles that researchers use to ensure answering their research questions or addressing research problems. The phenomenological methodology (phenomenology) was chosen to achieve the purpose of this study and to answer all of its research questions. The phenomenological methodology is regarded as both a qualitative research approach and a qualitative research methodology (Creswell, 2009; Knecht & Fischer, 2015; Lin, 2013; Sloan & Bowe, 2014). The phenomenological methodology allows researchers to explore, discover, and understand individuals' perspectives on a specific concept or topic of interest (Lin, 2013; Priest, 2003; Thomas & Pollio, 2002). Authors such as McClelland (1995) and Cohen, Kahn, and Steeves (2000) argued that the phenomenological methodology provides research participants an opportunity to give meanings to a specific concept and for researchers the chance to understand those meanings (as cited in Priest, 2003). In fact, Cohen et al. (2000) and Heinrich (1995) contended that the phenomenological methodology is effective when a study's purpose is to explore a specific concept encompassed with both social and cultural meanings, and its topic cannot be explored with the aid of quantitative methods (as cited in Priest, 2003). Based on these reasons, I selected the phenomenological methodology to answer the research questions for this study.

Historically, the origin of the phenomenological methodology (Groenewald, 2004) can be traced back to two German philosophers: Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) and

Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831), but Vandenberg (1997) viewed another German philosopher, Edmund Husserl as the fountainhead of the phenomenological methodology during the 1900s (as cited in Groenewald, 2004). According to Stewart and Mickunas (1974), Husserl thought that knowledge could be gained only through the lived experiences of individuals (as cited in Priest, 2003). Husserl (1970) emphasized that pure phenomenology attempts to understand the lived experiences of people in relation to a phenomenon, or their interpretation of a concept through description rather than explanation (as cited in Lester, 1999).

There are different approaches to the phenomenological methodology, but in the context of epistemology, researchers apply a paradigm of personal knowledge and subjectivity to determine, which phenomenological approaches are appropriate (Lester, 1999). The paradigm also stresses the significance of personal view and interpretation (Lester, 1999). The phenomenological methodology is more aligned with the qualitative paradigm than the quantitative paradigm, and is characterized by the following steps: bracketing, intuiting (sensing), analyzing, and describing (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013; Lester 1999). When applying the phenomenological methodology, researchers use small sample sizes and common qualitative data collection methods: interviewing, observation and document analysis (Englander, 2012; Lester, 1999; Sloan & Bowe, 2014).

I chose a qualitative exploratory design in conjunction with the phenomenological methodology to fulfill the purpose of this study. Four other common methodologies used by researchers to conduct qualitative studies are narrative, case study, grounded theory and ethnography (Creswell, 2009). These 4 common

methodologies were not considered appropriate for this study because of the following reasons. Researchers use the case study methodology to describe a process, whilst they use the ethnographic methodology to understand interactions and shared beliefs amongst a cultural group (Creswell, 2009). Researchers use the grounded theory methodology to develop a theory, and the narrative methodology to gain stories about people's lives (Creswell, 2009).

### **Role of Researcher**

When conducting a quantitative study, the role of the researcher is apparently non-existent (Simon, 2011c). To clarify, participants are somewhat detached from the researcher (Simon, 2011c). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003), when conducting a qualitative study, the researcher's role is dissimilar as humans perceive the researcher as an instrument of data gathering (as cited in Simon, 2011c). This perception occurs because the mediation of data gathered and analyzed is accomplished through the researcher (Simon, 2011c). Greenbank (2003) contended that researchers conducting qualitative studies must demonstrate transparency and credibility by informing consumers of their works about their expectations, assumptions, biases, and experiences that make them eligible to conduct their respective studies (as cited in Simon, 2011c). At the time of this study, I was a member of the National Integrity Action (a Jamaican anticorruption watchdog) and had no influence on any member of the Jamaican business community, which was the study's target population. My role in this study was to use ethical means to discover perspectives from the Jamaican business community on a single

concept. The concept was an independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

### **Bracketing**

When conducting qualitative studies, some researchers use bracketing to mitigate potential undesirable outcomes from their preconceptions, which can discredit the research process (Tufford & Newman, 2010). These preconceptions relate to the phenomenon or issue under investigation (Chan et al., 2013). Mitigating any potential undesirable outcomes requires qualitative researchers to put aside their own experiences, beliefs, and personal repository of knowledge (Chan et al., 2013). According to Ahern (1999), as cited in Chan et al. (2013), in phenomenological studies the application of bracketing demonstrates that the process of gathering and analyzing data is valid. Hence, Chan et al. suggested that qualitative researchers execute bracketing throughout the research process when they conduct phenomenological studies.

To execute bracketing successfully, Chan et al. (2013) proposed four consecutive strategies for qualitative researchers to use. First, qualitative researchers must determine whether they can conduct the investigation impartially, by putting aside their own preconceptions that could influence the research process negatively. This requires qualitative researchers to use the concept of reflexivity to examine their consciousness and thoughts, and question their humility to conduct the investigation honestly (Chan et al., 2013). If their reflexive actions make them think they can honestly do this, they should proceed with the investigation (Chan et al., 2013).

Second, qualitative researchers should decide on an appropriate scope for their review of relevant and related literature (Chan et al., 2013). To be specific, qualitative researchers must review literature to a point where they have an adequate understanding of the research topic, and then suspend their review until they analyze obtained data (Chan et al., 2013). The reason for this is to avoid any preconceptions that could arise from an in-depth review of the relevant and related literature (Chan et al., 2013). Next, they must ask focusing questions through semi-structured interviewing and not leading questions (Chan et al., 2013). Last, they should use member checking (informant feedback) to ensure trustworthiness of data analysis. Member checking is vital since it can identify errors caused by data misinterpretation (Chan et al., 2013). In this study, I applied these four strategies suggested by Chan et al. (2013) to accomplish bracketing.

### **Reflexivity**

Reflexivity is an ethical practice that aids qualitative researchers to recognize areas of potential bias and alerts them to take action to lessen their influence on the research process (Bishop, & Shepherd, 2011; Chan et al., 2013). Reflexivity enables qualitative researchers to conduct a re-examination of their positions when issues emerge that might influence the research process negatively (Chan et al., 2013). Further in this chapter, there is information on how I used reflexivity.

### **Population**

In the context of research, a population is a set of individuals that share at least a common characteristic and are of interest to the researcher (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010; Creswell, 2013; Hanlon & Larget, 2011). As Augustine (2016) pointed out, similar

characteristics shared amongst these individuals represent a criterion that makes them eligible for participation in a study. Examples of these characteristics are shared cultural beliefs and belonging to the same social group. In general, the focus of a study is usually on a population (Creswell, 2013; Hanlon & Larget, 2011). As indicated in Chapter 1, the population of focus for this study consisted of members of the Jamaican business community. These individuals shared at least one common characteristic (own Jamaican based business), that made them eligible for participation in this study.

In relation to research, there are two types of population: target population and accessible population (Adam, 2017; Porter, 1999; Vonk, 2016). A target population refers to the entire group of elements (humans or objects) to which a researcher seeks to apply findings from a study (Adam, 2017; Vonk, 2016). In contrast, an accessible population also known as the study's population, refers to those elements in the target population that are accessible to the researcher, and is a subset of the target population (Adam, 2017; Falk & Guenther, 2009; Vonk, 2016). When researchers study large target populations, they draw their samples with the aid of sampling methods from an accessible population (Porter, 1999; Vonk, 2016).

According to the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (2017), at the end of the year 2016, there were approximately 70,000 owners of Jamaican based businesses living in Jamaica. The target population for this study comprised of members of the Jamaican business community, but the accessible population was an organization that represented some of these members based in one Jamaican parish (a geographic territory). At the time of this study, this organization had approximately 150 members.

## **Sampling Method**

In the context of research, a sample is a subset of the population of interest from which researchers collect data, and this subset represents the entire population (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Fridah, 2002). Sampling is the process of recruiting a sample from the population of interest for a study, which includes the use of one or more sampling methods (Augustine, 2016; Ndibalema, 2017; Polit & Beck, 2008a). On many occasions, researchers use a variety of sampling methods in qualitative studies to recruit prospective participants for their samples (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006a). In fact, Polit and Beck purported that on some occasions, researchers use either the convenience sampling method or the snowball sampling method (a purposive sampling method) to begin the recruitment of prospective participants for their qualitative studies. On other occasions, researchers use both the convenience sampling method and the snowballing sampling method sequentially to recruit potential participants for their qualitative studies (Polit & Beck, 2008a).

**Purposive sampling.** Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016) described purposive sampling as a subjective nonprobability sampling technique. Nonprobability sampling implies that participants for a study are chosen or recruited in a nonrandom manner because the aim is not to generalize results to the population being studied or draw a sample that is representative of the population statistically (Etikan et al, 2016; Suri, 2011; Wilmot, 2005). Qualitative researchers choose participants in a nonrandom manner because they are only interested in “information rich” cases that can provide adequate information relevant to the issue under investigation (Etikan 2016). When qualitative

researchers conduct studies that include phenomenological methodology, they most times use purposive sampling methods (Groenewald, 2004). When qualitative researchers use purposive sampling methods, they both apply and rely on their judgments to select prospective participants for their studies based on some purpose (Etikan et al., 2016). In addition, these prospective participants shared at least a common characteristic (Etikan et al, 2016; Palinkas et al. 2015). In this study, I used the phenomenological methodology and employed purposive sampling techniques to select and recruit its sample.

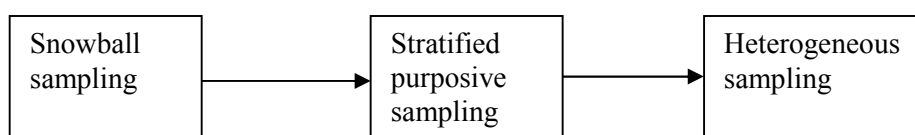
Purposive sampling is a commonly used qualitative sampling technique and enables researchers who pursue qualitative studies to enhance their understanding of participants' perspectives on a particular concept (Devers & Frankel, 2000; Etikan et al., 2016). Qualitative researchers achieve this understanding when they use "information rich" cases that contribute adequate insights on the concept being explored (Devers & Frankel, 2000; Etikan et al., 2016; Patton 1990).

As with other sampling techniques, purposive sampling has its advantages and disadvantages. Some advantages of using purposive sampling are that it is both cost effective and time effective (Polit & Beck, 2008b; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Furthermore, purposive sampling enables qualitative researchers to identify individuals from an accessible population with specific characteristics, who can best answer a qualitative study's research questions (Polit & Beck, 2008b; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Because purposive sampling is associated with the subjectivity of a researcher, it has some disadvantages. One of its disadvantages is that it is vulnerable to researcher bias. Another disadvantage is when used by a researcher in a qualitative study, findings derived from



that investigation cannot be generalized to the entire population (Groger & Mayberry, 1999 as cited in Oppong, 2013; Palinkas et al., 2015). However, in this study, I used purposive sampling since it enables researchers to identify eligible participants for a qualitative study (Polit & Beck, 2008b; Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

Polit and Beck (2008a) pointed out that it is a common practice for researchers to use a combination of sampling methods to draw samples for their respective studies. Researchers execute this practice to ensure that such samples are representative of the population (Polit & Beck, 2008b). In this study, I chose a combination of purposive sampling methods to recruit prospective participants. This combination comprised of snowball sampling method, stratified purposive sampling method, and heterogeneous sampling method (maximum variation sampling method). The following figure indicates the sequence of sampling methods, which was used to select and recruit participants for this study.



*Figure 2.* A figure illustrating the sequence of sampling methods.

***Snowball sampling.*** Snowball sampling also called referral sampling and chain sampling, is a kind of purposive sampling method (Atkinson & Flint, 2001; Johnson, 2014). As a purposive sampling method, researchers use it in qualitative studies for different reasons such as when it is difficult and costly to find adequate prospective participants or when the researcher is unknown to the study's population (Atkinson &

Flint, 2001; Browne, 2005; Goodman, 2011). During the process of snowball sampling, researchers identify, approach, and recruit one or two participants initially, who subsequently recruit other persons they are acquainted with (Atkinson & Flint; 2001; Johnson, 2014). Snowball sampling is commonly used in qualitative exploratory studies, especially when interviewing is the sole data collection method (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). As mentioned in Chapter 1, I used interviewing in this study as the sole data collection method. Based on the reason given by Atkinson, Flint, Browne, and Goodman, for the use of snowball sampling in a qualitative study, I used it in this study to recruit participants from its population.

To accomplish snowball sampling in this study, first, I approached the leader of the organization, which represented the accessible population for participation. Secondly, I asked the leader of the organization to help identify and refer prospective participants for inclusion in the study. However, Katz (2006) cautioned that snowball sampling is subject to sample bias; hence, researchers should consider using a sample frame to support the recruitment of future participants other than those who are recruited initially. Dusek, Yurova, and Ruppel (2015), and Polit and Beck (2008b) all suggest that researchers use unstructured interviewing to ensure that future participants are eligible for participation in qualitative studies in order to avoid sample bias.

The leader of the organization although eligible, indicated his unavailability for participation but assisted with the identification of persons who actually became participants in this study. I used verbal means to request a sample frame which comprised of the entire membership of the organization (the study's population) but my request was

granted. Instead, I was given a list of names of prospective participants. Receiving this list of names enabled me to attain a research sample for this study. I then used unstructured interviews to ensure that the research sample for this study was not associated with sample bias.

***Stratified purposive sampling.*** Stratified purposive sampling is also known as quota sampling (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). It is a type of purposive sampling that researchers use to create subgroups within a study's population (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006d; Guetterman, 2015; Patton, 1990). Drawing sampling units from all subgroups enable researchers to gain a sample that is more representative of the population to be studied (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006d; Guetterman, 2015). According to Patton, researchers create these subgroups on the basis of a particular characteristic. I indicated earlier in this chapter, that the target population in this study comprised of only members from the Jamaica business community (owners of Jamaican based businesses), but the accessible population was an organization that represented and comprised of owners of Jamaican based businesses. The criterion for creating subgroups from the accessible population (the particular organization) was business size.

Four common business sizes are micro-sized, small-sized, medium-sized and large-sized. According to Gasiorowski-Denis (2015), there are no internationally agreed standards to classify businesses in terms of their sizes. Towergate Insurance (2016) pointed out that classification varies from country to country. My review of the literature at the time of this study did not indicate how Jamaican businesses are classified in terms of their sizes. Although average annual revenue and headcount are means of classifying

businesses in terms of their sizes, the most common approach is the use of headcount (European Commission, 2016; United States Small Business Administration, 2016).

According to the European Commission, a micro-sized business comprises of less than 10 employees, a small-sized business has 10 to 49 employees, a medium-sized business consists of 50 to 249 employees, whereas a large-sized business employs more than 249 employees. I applied this concept to this study's population.

***Heterogeneous sampling.*** Heterogeneous sampling is also known as maximum variation sampling (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006c). As a type of purposive sampling, researchers commonly used it in conjunction with other purposive sampling methods to attain a diverse sample (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006c; Palinkas et al., 2015). In the context of qualitative exploratory studies, researchers use heterogeneous sampling to gain varied perspectives from participants on a concept under investigation (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006c). Simply, researchers employ heterogeneous sampling when they want to know how different participants see and understand a concept being studied (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006c).

To attain a research sample that was diverse and could provide varied perspectives, the leader of the organization through his assistant, arranged for the creation of the four subgroups from the study's population. The leader informed me that the organization had no members that owned large-sized businesses, which meant the organization had members from the other three subgroups. I verbally requested that six of the participants be chosen on the basis of years of experience owning a business in Jamaica. My request to apply years of experience owning businesses in Jamaica as a

criterion was granted by the leader. I used two criteria for recruiting a diverse research sample: persons who owned businesses in Jamaica for less than 5 years and persons who owned businesses in Jamaica for more than 5 years.

**Sample frame.** Other than determining the sampling methods to draw a sample from a study's population, two other aspects of a sampling strategy are securing a sampling frame and determining a sample size (Wilmot, 2005). When conducting studies, researchers use sample frames, which are sources that comprise of personal details (Katz, 2006; Wilmot, 2005). These personal details relate to all individuals within the accessible populations (Katz, 2006; Wilmot, 2005). A sample frame enables qualitative researchers to use these details to identify, select, and recruit participants who can answer their research questions (Wilmot, 2005).

To attain a diverse sample for this study, first, I sent a letter to the leader of the selected organization. Through this letter, cooperation was sought from the organization to attain participants for this study. Subsequently, I made a telephone call to the leader to ensure his receipt of the letter, to receive a timely response and to have a face-to-face meeting with him. Next, I had a telephone conversation and a face-to-to face meeting with the leader of the organization. During the face-to-face meeting, a request was made by me for a sample frame. This sample frame was the source of information from which I wanted to draw this study's sample.

The selected organization had 150 members at the time of this study. My letter seeking cooperation from the organization requested specific information such as names and contact details for its members (see Appendix A for a copy of the letter). While

having a face-to-face meeting, with the leader, I was told that my request for a sample frame will not be granted, but that the organization would assist me to identify and recruit their members who met this study's eligibility criteria. Subsequently, the leader's assistant gave me a list of interested members who met this study's eligibility criteria. This list of members enabled me to attain a diverse sample for this study.

**Sample size.** Researchers conducting qualitative studies most times use small sample sizes (Marshall, 1996; Mason, 2010). Although the literature has varied information on how to select an appropriate size for phenomenological studies, the following are recommendations from some authors. First, Creswell (1998) recommended that researchers consider 3 to 10 participants, and second, Morse (1994) recommended that researchers consider no less than 6 participants as a starting point (all cited in Guetterman, 2015). Furthermore, researchers have indicated that many phenomenological studies use an average of 20 participants (Guetterman, 2015).

Simon and Goes (2012) argued that data saturation is an ideal concept to determine the final sample size for a qualitative study, a point supported by Malterud, Siersma, and Guassora (2015). According to Simon and Goes, saturation is the point where no new information emerges during data collection and no new meanings from data analysis. When researchers reach the point of data saturation, it is not necessary for to collect data from additional participants (Sargeant, 2012). Furthermore, Hennink, Kaiser, and Marconi (2016) purported that the point of data saturation is where additional collected data has no new meaning. Sargeant (2012) and Thorne (2000)

suggested that qualitative researchers collect and analyze data concurrently to reach a point of data saturation, in a timely manner.

I first collected data from 10 participants from the accessible population. I then applied the concept of data saturation as a guide to determine the final sample size for this study. Eventually, the point of data saturation was reached after I collected and analyzed data concurrently from 11 participants. The next section of this chapter provides details about the data collection instrument, which I used to answer all research questions for this study.

### **Data Collection Instrument**

In qualitative research, data collection is the process of collecting data from a study's participants to answer its research questions (Chaleunvong, 2009; Murgan, 2015). To collect data from a study's participants, researchers use data collection instruments (Bastos, Duquia, González-Chica, Mesa, & Bonamigo, 2014; Thomas, 2003). In phenomenological studies, the most frequently used data collection instrument by researchers is interviewing (qualitative interview), especially with a semi-structured format (Englander, 2012; Groenewald, 2004; Marshall, Kitson, & Zeitz, 2012). Based on this practice, I executed semi-structured interviews to collect data for this study.

A qualitative interview is a two-way conversation between two persons (interviewer and interviewee), from which the interviewer attempts to understand the meanings the interviewee ascribed to particular topic, concept, or issue (Creswell, 2009; Driscoll, 2011; Gill, Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008). As an approach to interviewing, qualitative researchers use semi-structured interviewing most times to

obtain data for analysis (Bloor & Wood, 2006; Wilson, 2014). Other approaches to interviewing by researchers are structured interviewing and unstructured interviewing (Wethington, & McDarby, 2015). However, in qualitative research, structured interviewing yields closed-ended data, whilst unstructured interviews are used mainly to screen individuals (Gill et al., 2008).

There are different techniques to conduct an interview (Opdenakker, 2006), but according to Englander (2012), the face-to-face technique is the most appropriate when researchers intend to use the phenomenological methodology. In the past, researchers such as Cullen (2012), Marshall et al. (2012), and Odemba (2012) used face-to-face interviews to answer their research questions, when they conducted studies inclusive of the phenomenological methodology. Two common formats (ways) for conducting face-to-face interviews when researchers use the phenomenological methodology are an in-depth interview and a focus group interview (Groenewald, 2004; Lester, 1999; Webb & Kevern, 2001). In this study, I used both in-depth interviews and a focus group interview to collect its data.

### **In-Depth Interview and Focus Group Interview**

An in-depth interview also known as a one-to-one interview is a conversation between an interviewer and a respondent, which attempts to gain an in-depth understanding of people's perspectives on an issue (Gill et al., 2008; Brounéus, 2016; Ryan, Coughlan, & Cronin, 2009). Likewise, a focus group interview also known as a focus group discussion is an interview conducted for the same purpose, but a group of respondents converses with the interviewer (Dilshad & Latif, 2013; Leung & Savithiri,



2009; Masadeh, 2012). In this study, I conducted 1 focus group interview and 5 in-depth interviews to answer all of its research questions.

In terms of what constitutes an appropriate size for a focus group, the literature has mixed information (Krueger & Casey, 2012; Millward, 2012; Brown, 1999 as cited in Sagoe, 2012). However, for homogenous groups, a size that ranges from 4 to 12 respondents is appropriate, but for heterogeneous groups a size that ranges from 6 to 12 is ideal (Brown, 1999 as cited in Sagoe, 2012). In this study, I conducted a focus group interview with six respondents (research participants).

I indicated earlier in this chapter that I created four subgroups from the study's population with the use of stratified purposive sampling. These four subgroups were created on the basis of the four business sizes. Actually, I recruited participants in this study from all subgroups, except large-sized to conduct five in-depth interviews and 1 focus group interview. At the time of this study, the study's population did not have a member that owned a large-sized business.

I divided the three subgroups with the use of two criteria to create six subgroups for the composition of respondents (participants) in the focus group interview. One criterion was persons owning businesses in Jamaica for five years or less. The other criterion was persons owning businesses in Jamaica for more than five years, I recruited a participant from each of the six subgroups to participate in the focus group interview. The table below indicates the composition of the focus group interview. The rows indicate the number of years the participants own businesses in Jamaica, and the columns indicate the number of persons employed to their businesses.

Table 2.

*Composition of Participants in Focus Group*

Criteria	0-9	10-49	50-249	More than 249
Owning business for 5 or fewer years	1	1	1	0
Owning business for more than 5 years	1	1	1	0

**Semi-Structured Interview**

A semi-structured interview is a non-standardized type of interview used frequently by researchers in qualitative investigations (Brinkmann, 2014; Harrell & Bradley, 2009; Kajornboon, 2005), especially those that include the phenomenological methodology (Englander, 2012; Groenewald, 2004). Based on this practice, I selected semi-structuring interviewing to collect data for this study. Prior to conducting a semi-structured interview, the interviewer has a series of key open-ended questions, topics, or issues to be explored with at least one intended respondent (Crow, 2013; Harrell & Bradley, 2009; Kajornboon, 2005). While conducting a semi-structured interview, the interviewer may alter the order in which these key open-ended questions, topics or issues are explored, and the manner in which the open-ended questions are worded (Crow, 2013; Gill et al., 2008; Kajornboon, 2005). In relation to the respondent, the interviewer can provide explanations, request clarification for vague answers, and prompt for the expounding on responses if necessary (Alsaawi, 2014; Kajornboon, 2005). The interviewer uses either tape recording or note taking to document the interview (Gill et al., 2008; Kajornboon, 2005).

Similar to other data collection instruments, semi-structured interviewing has its own advantages and disadvantages (Newton, 2010; Van Teijlingen, 2014). Two main

advantages of semi-structured interviewing are that it enables an interviewer to gain rich information from respondents, and probe them to explore new and relevant issues in a deep manner; something not anticipated prior to the start of the interview (Harrell & Bradley, 2009; Kajornboon, 2005). The main disadvantage when using semi-structured interviews is that inexperienced interviewers may not have the capability to probe respondents on issues in a deep and extensive manner (Harrell & Bradley, 2009; Kajornboon, 2005).

During the conducting of semi-structured interviews, interviewers use an interview schedule with two main sections: a set of instructions for the interviewer and a list of questions or topics, which the interviewer wants the respondents to address (Gill, 2013; Harvey, 2017; Lewis-Beck, Bryman & Futing Liao, 2004). These list of questions or topics are known as an interview guide (Kajornboon, 2005). An interview guide is usually prepared before an interviewer conducts a semi-structured interview (Hamilton, 2015; Wood, 2012). It should have clarity and be unambiguous in nature (Kajornboon, 2005; Wood, 2012). Further, an interview guide helps an interviewer to direct the conversation (interview) held with a respondent (Kajornboon, 2005; Wood, 2012). Consequently, I designed an interview guide. I used this interview guide to direct and guide me when I conducted the semi-structured interviews in this study. See Appendix B for interview guide.

The World Health Organization (n.d.) recommended a six-step procedure for qualitative researchers to use when they intend to prepare an interview guide (as cited in

Kajornboon, 2005). I applied this six-step procedure when I designed the interview guide.

Given below are the six steps:

- The researcher identifies topics and questions that are both appropriate.
- The researcher makes a decision in terms of detail level.
- The researcher prepares a draft of the questions.
- The researcher places questions in an order.
- The researcher lists probes and prompts.
- The researcher pilots questions with an informant for identification of errors.

As previously mentioned in this chapter, there are two other types of interview used by researchers: structured interview, and unstructured interview. I chose neither of these for actual data collection in this study for the following reasons. Researchers use structured interviews to gain closed-ended answers, whereas unstructured interviews can go in unpredictable and undesirable directions, thus yielding huge irrelevant data (Alsaawi, 2014; Dana, Dawes, & Peterson, 2012; Jamshed, 2014; Kajornboon, 2005). In the next section, I describe the steps that I took to establish content validity for the interview guide. I designed this interview guide to direct and guide me as the interviewer, during the semi-structured interviews in this study.

**Establishing content validity for interview guide.** This section outlines steps that I used to establish content validity for the interview guide. In the literature, there are multiple definitions for content validity (Haynes, Richard & Kubany, 1995; Patrick et. al, 2011; Polit & Beck, 2006; Sackett, 2012; Thanasegaran, 2012); however, some authors defined it as the extent to which all components of a data collection instrument are

relevant and represent the concept or construct under study (Haynes, Richard & Kubany, 1995; Patrick et. al, 2011). In the context of semi-structured interviewing, this definition implies that all questions in an interview guide should be relevant to and represent the concept or issue the interviewer seeks to study (Haynes, Richard & Kubany, 1995; Patrick et. al, 2011).

As it relates to an interview guide, it is important that qualitative researchers attain content validity for a number of reasons. First, content validity indicates participants' understanding of the interview questions in the same way, and second, content validity pinpoints the extent to which respondents are comfortable with the interview questions (Haynes, Richard, & Kubany, 1995; Patrick et al., 2011). A common method that qualitative researchers use to attain content validity for a semi-structured interview is pilot testing (Center for Evaluation and Research, 2011; Dikko, 2016; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). In qualitative studies, pilot testing an interview guide involves conducting interviews with some members of the study's population prior to actual data collection (Dikko, 2016; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). A benefit associated with the pilot testing a semi-structured interview is an indication of duration for actual data collection (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The Center for Evaluation and Research (2011) provided some guidelines to pilot test an interview guide. I applied these guidelines in this study. The guidelines are outlined below: Conduct the interview under similar conditions as intended for actual data collection.

- Record instances when respondents display difficulties to understand questions or give unclear responses.

- Solicit feedback from respondents to determine whether interview questions are clear.
- Ask respondents to comment on relevance, sequence, and sensitivity of interview questions.
- If feedback suggests a need to revise the interview questions, proceed with this task and retest the interview guide.

### **Pilot Testing the Interview Guide**

Prior to the actual collection of data using a semi-structured interview, an interview guide designed for this task must be pilot tested (Boyce & Neale, 2006). Qualitative researchers pilot test their interview guides to ensure the alignment of interview questions with the research issue they want to explore, and that respondents for actual data collection understand all the interview questions in a similar manner (Center for Evaluation and Research, 2011; Dikko, 2016; Gill et al., 2008). I also indicated that an interview guide was designed to answer all research questions for this study and that a sample of 11 individuals from the study's population provided information as actual data collection.

To pilot-test the interview guide, prior to actual data collection, I recruited three members of the study's population to have a group interview with them. These individuals confirmed their participation and the interview was conducted at a location agreed by these individuals and myself as the researcher. The interview was held under similar conditions as if it was actual data collection. According to Simon (2011b), when researchers pilot-test an interview guide, they must not add gathered data to that obtained

from actual data collection. Based on this recommendation, data provided during the pilot test were not included in this study.

I pilot-tested the interview guide at the headquarters for the organization that was used as the study's population. The pilot-test lasted for approximately 34 minutes. Prior to the start of the pilot test, I greeted the members who volunteered and held a discussion with them. During the discussion, I gave them details about the purpose of and procedures for the pilot-test. During the pilot-test, I asked the volunteers each question in the interview guide. They all gave responses to each question, which then brought an end to the interview. After the interview, I asked them if the questions asked were clear. Their responses suggested that the questions from the interview guide were clear. Their responses indicated that the interview guide was appropriate for actual data collection and had achieved content validity.

### **Interview Protocol**

Boyce and Neale (2006) recommended that qualitative researchers design and use an interview protocol before they conduct a semi-structured interview in a qualitative study. An interview protocol is a written plan of rules that researchers (or interviewers) use to ensure the following: the participation of respondents, as well as adequacy and relevance of data collected during the interview (Boyce & Neale 2006; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). Simply, the plan of rules indicates a number of steps that researchers must take before they conduct the interview and before they analyze the data (Boyce & Neale 2006; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). These steps are securing informed consent from targeted respondents and guaranteeing their confidentiality, seeking confirmed respondents'

permission to audio-tape the interview, preparing the interview guide, pilot-testing the interview guide, conducting and documenting the interview, scrutinizing the audio-tapes for clarity, and transcribing the interview for analysis (Boyce & Neale, 2006). Based on the recommendation and steps provided by Boyce and Neale (2006), I prepared an interview protocol and an interview guide to collect data for this study (see Appendix C for interview protocol). In the next section, there is description of the data collection process for this study.

### **Data Collection**

As a reminder, the purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from members of Jamaican business community on a single independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. In an attempt to discover and understand these perspectives, I collected data for analysis through five consecutive phases of interviewing. Data collection began during October 2017 and ended during December 2017.

During the first of the five phases of interviewing, I got information from the first 10 actual participants, which indicated that they met the eligibility criteria to be in this study. To be specific, I also used this phase to ensure that a diverse sample was attained for the focus group interview in this study. This diverse sample was attained based on the criteria established for participation in this focus group. I executed the first phase of interviewing with an unstructured format and established a rapport with the participants.



During the first phase of interviewing and the rapport with actual participants, I told them the study's purpose and nature to develop a level of trust amongst them. I also screened the participants for their knowledge of the following: (a) anticorruption policies (b) the purpose of anticorruption policies, and (c) corrupt practices. In a general sense, the information I gave them and the responses they gave me during the first phase of interviewing, indicated their eligibility to be in this study based on its purpose. I shared my personal knowledge of existing anticorruption policies with the actual participants and listened to their responses in an objective manner. None of the research questions were answered during the first phase of interviewing.

The second phase of interviewing included in-depth interviews (individual interviewing) with four actual participants, but the third phase involved a focus group interview with six actual participants. As pointed out earlier in this chapter, both in-depth interviews and focus group interviews are semi-structured interviews. During the fourth phase of interviewing, I conducted an unstructured interview to confirm the eligibility of the 11<sup>th</sup> participant in this study. I accomplished this by screening the participant as I did during the first phase of interviewing. During the fifth and final phase of interviewing, I conducted an in-depth interview with the 11<sup>th</sup> actual participant, for additional data to that collected from the first 10 participants. This additional data indicated that the point of data saturation was reached.

During the in-depth interviews and the focus group interview, I directed all focus questions from the interview guide to the participants for their responses. These focus questions originated from the research questions in this study. The focus questions from

the interview guide are listed in Appendix B. Prior to actual data collection, I had a plan to address incomplete interviews during data collection. If the interviews were incomplete, I would then conduct follow-up interviews. Follow-up interviews enable qualitative researchers to complete phases of interviewing, as well as to get clearer responses from participants (Taylor-Powell & Camino, 2006).

To answer the first research question, participants were asked to respond to the first two focus questions (interview questions) in the interview guide. The first two focus questions relate to their perspectives on an independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. The participants were prompted to give their perceived advantages and disadvantages in terms of Jamaica having this kind of agency.

The participants also provided responses, which answered the second research question in this study. To get these responses, I asked the participants the third focus question in the interview guide. This focus question asked them what alternatives did they perceive, that could be used to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy, instead of an independent agency having both investigative powers and prosecutorial powers. The third and final research question was answered by asking participants as one of Jamaica's societal actors, their thoughts on collaborating with other Jamaican societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. The information they gave flowed from the fourth focus question in the interview guide. I used the interview questions to validate the broad meaning of participants' responses uncovered during data analysis.

Jacobs and Furgerson (2012) contend that interviews in qualitative studies should be conducted within a space that is quiet and private. Consequently, I executed the interviews (in-depth interviews and focus group interview) in this study at a place chosen by participants, which they had considered private and distraction free. To be specific, I executed all the in-depth interviews in this study, at the business offices for the participants in these interviews. The focus group interview was held at the headquarters for the organization, which was the study's population. As it relates to all the interviews in this study, I wrote a few field notes to record some points made during the collection of data as suggested by Phillippi and Lauderdale (2017). I audio-taped the interviews to transcribe the data for analysis as recommended by (Boyce & Neale, 2006). I transcribed the data provided by the participants during the semi-structured interviews.

Subsequently, I organized the data collected from interviews through the creation of files. Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003), and Simon (2016) suggested that qualitative researchers create and organize their files prior to the start of the data analysis. The files and recordings with data are placed and kept in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher's home, as recommended by Campbell et al. (2015). After preparing interview transcripts (transcribing the data), I analyzed the data to derive the meanings of participants' responses.

### **Procedure for Collecting Data**

I collected data for this study with assistance from two colleagues. Semi-structured interviewing was chosen to answer all research questions. This section outlines clearly, how data was collected.

1. I contacted by telephone, the office for the particular organization (study's population), which comprised of members from the Jamaican business community to give details about this study. I held a dialogue with its leader and his assistant to inform them of my intention to send a letter to the organization.
2. I then sent the letter with an explanation of the purpose and nature of the study to the organization's leader, to solicit support for the recruitment of prospective participants from the study's population. This letter included a request for the recommendation of the organization's members for participation. The letter also stated clearly, the eligibility criteria and how many participants were required for the study. Subsequently, I received a letter from the organization, which indicated their willingness to cooperate. See Appendix D for letter of cooperation.
3. The leader of the organization agreed to assist with the identification and recruitment of prospective participants. I arranged and had informative meetings with persons recommended by the organization with support from the leader's assistant. The leader's assistant pointed out that the organization had no member owning a large-sized business. I received a list with persons' names and contact details. The list contained the names of 13 members from the organization. During the meetings with these persons, I introduced the study by handing them copies of an invitation letter. The invitation letter gave the following: an explanation of the study's purpose and the ethical principles that I eventually applied to its participants. The letter had my contact details. Subsequently, I used

unstructured interviews to verify the eligibility of the business owners recommended for participation in the study and for familiarity.

4. During the unstructured interviews (informative meetings), I discovered that the persons recommended by the organization were eligible for participation. These persons agreed to participate after hearing my explanation of the ethical guidelines that I intended to apply to this study and their reading of the invitation letters. These ethical guidelines were based on Walden University's requirements to conduct research.
5. I subsequently arranged for a series of interviews with the 13 persons who agreed to contribute to the study (both pilot-test and actual data collection).
6. Prior to actual data collection, an interview was conducted with 3 persons from the list of 13 provided by the organization. The purpose of this interview was to pilot test the interview guide, which was used to collect data for this study. The data provided by these 3 persons during the pilot-test were not used for this study. I pilot-tested the interview guide at the organization's headquarters as agreed by the 3 persons and myself. After the pilot-test, these persons took no further part in this study.
7. As highlighted earlier in this chapter, pilot-testing the interview guide was successful. The success indicated that I achieved content validity for the interview guide, which I used to execute the semi-structured interviews for data collection.
8. After completing the pilot test, I arranged for interviews with the first ten actual participants for in study. I conducted four in-depth interviews. I used the face-to-

face technique to conduct these interviews. These interviews were conducted at the business offices for these participants. The interviews lasted approximately for 15, 10, 14, and 15 minutes respectively. I audio-taped the interviews and subsequently transcribed them in a verbatim manner for analysis. I collected and analysed the data concurrently as suggested by Sargeant (2012) and Thorne (2000).

9. After conducting the in-depth interviews, I conducted a focus group interview with 6 more actual participants from the study's population. I audio taped the focus group with the 6 participants, and subsequently transcribed it in a verbatim manner. I analyzed the data within this interview transcript . The questions asked during the focus group were similar those asked during the pilot-test and the in-depth interviews. I conducted the focus group under similar conditions as the pilot-test; at the organization's headquarters and in a group format. The focus group lasted for approximately 49 minutes.
10. After analyzing data collected from the first 10 actual participants, I realized that I had not reached the point of data saturation. The point of data saturation was reached, after I analyzed the data, that I had collected from the 11<sup>th</sup> participant in this study. I collected this data by means of an in-depth interview. This interview was transcribed in a verbatim manner for analysis and lasted for approximately 16 minutes in terms of duration.
11. I used thematic analysis to analyze all the data collected in this study. Two lecturers in the field of Educational Research, employed to a teacher training

institution in Jamaica helped to validate that themes that emerged from the data analysis.

### **Exit Strategy for Participants**

On some occasions, after agreed participants contribute to a research project, they may have questions, concerns or both about the study (Cant & Cooper, 2011).

Researchers may address this phenomenon through debriefing (Cant & Cooper, 2011, McLeod, 2015). In the literature, there are varied definitions for debriefing, but in the context of research, debriefing is the process by which researchers engage their participants to solicit feedback about the actual contributions made by these participants (McLeod, 2015). The process involves the provision of relevant and additional information by the researchers (McLeod, 2015). Researchers might do the following when debriefing: probing participants for suspicions, clarifying the actual purpose of the study to participants, and ensuring participants exit the study with a positive feeling (Hammond, 2014). Hammond recommended that researchers issue debriefing statements to participants after they have contributed to studies.

After collecting data from this study's actual participants, I hand delivered debriefing statements to them, regardless of the extent to which they made contributions (see Appendix E for a copy of the debriefing statement). The debriefing statements conveyed a message of thanks to the actual participants for their contribution. The debriefing statements also gave details for contacting myself as the researcher should they have any queries after participation.

### **Data Analysis Method**

After organizing the collected data, I attempted to gain an understanding of this information. I achieved an understanding of this information through data analysis. In qualitative research, data analysis is the process by which researchers search for the meaning of collected data systematically (Creswell, 2009, Green et al., 2007; Hesse-Biber, 2010). As indicated in the first chapter, I used thematic analysis to perform data analysis in this study. When researchers use thematic analysis to analyze collected qualitative data, they present their findings as themes (Alhojailan, 2012). In this study, I applied Creswell's (2009) six-step procedure to execute thematic analysis, which is synonymous with the inductive approach for qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2009).

Reading the interview transcripts entirely on multiple occasions for familiarity represents the first step to understanding the collected data. According to Creswell (2009), this step (exploratory analysis) entails a reflection by researchers on the overall meaning of the data. To analyze the data obtained from this study's participants, I first read the interview transcripts multiple times for familiarity and an understanding of the data itself.

Coding the data (data reduction) is the next step in the procedure (Creswell, 2009). This step requires researchers to identify and organize (sort) segments of the data that relate to the research questions into meaningful categories or common themes (Creswell, 2009; Hesse-Biber, 2010; Khandkar, 2009). I used line-by-line coding to identify these segments, as I did not use a computer software program to analyze data collected from this study's participants. I identified these segments based on the research



questions in this study. Line-by-line coding (or open coding) is the process of going through (sifting) qualitative data sets line by line, to identify meaningful segments (codes) in order to develop common themes from them (Khandkar, 2009). Line-by-line coding ended at the point of data saturation, as suggested by Hesse-Biber (2010).

Developing common themes from meaningful segments is the third step in the procedure (Creswell, 2009). I attached labels to meaningful segments of data with the use of the Microsoft Word Insert Comment feature as suggested by Chenail (2012), for further analysis to develop common specific themes. Where possible, I grouped and merged common specific themes that were related, to develop broad themes as recommended by Creswell (2009).

The common specific themes that were related and grouped, all shared a common property (Coffey & Atkinson, 2005). This process is known as axial coding (Klose & Seifert, 2017). To accomplish this task, I used data matrices as suggested by Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014). Researchers use data matrices to highlight huge amounts of coded qualitative data for consequent interpretation, and to examine relationships amongst meaningful data segments and themes (Miles et al., 2014). I used a process that involved note taking, reflection and refinement to develop both common specific themes and broad themes which emerged from the data analysis as recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006).

The use of interrater reliability (peer checking) to validate the findings (themes) represents the fourth step in the procedure for analyzing the data (Creswell, 2009). Further, after completing their data analysis, qualitative researchers use peer checking to

ensure interpretation of data in similar ways (Billups, 2015; Creswell, 2009). Two lecturers in the field of Educational Research employed to a teacher training institution in Jamaica helped to validate the common specific themes and broad themes, which emerged from the data analysis in this study.

Interpreting the findings is the fifth step in the procedure. The purpose of the interpretation is to give meanings to themes presented as findings (Creswell, 2009). In this study, I accomplished the interpretation of the broad themes as findings with the aid of storytelling as suggested by Creswell (2009). Reporting the findings is the sixth and final step in the procedure, and is done when researchers include the findings from the data analysis in their research reports (Creswell, 2009). I included the findings from the data analysis in this study in this manuscript.

While conducting qualitative data analysis, it is essential that researchers identify and analyze discrepant data (Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005). According to Morrow (2005), discrepant data is a variant perspective or description identified within qualitative data. Kaplan and Maxwell recommended that qualitative researchers scrutinize both supporting (relevant) data and discrepant data; however, the authors pointed out that occasionally qualitative researchers are encouraged to ignore discrepant cases. They further suggested that qualitative researchers present discrepant data in their research reports, thus giving readers an opportunity to form opinions; a suggestion supported by Anderson (2010) and Lewis (2009). In this study, I obtained discrepant data, which is in the fourth chapter of this manuscript.

### **Issues of Trustworthiness**

In the context of qualitative research, the concept of trustworthiness is essential (Billups, 2015; Lietz & Zayas, 2006; Reynolds et al. 2011). In the literature, there are multiple definitions for the concept. According to Loh (2013), trustworthiness refers to the degree to which a qualitative study represents quality and is eligible for future use. Trustworthiness of qualitative studies also refers to the extent to which a qualitative study presents evidence of valid and credible findings that result in researchers making sound conclusions (Lietz & Zayas, 2006; Noble & Smith, 2015; Reynolds et al., 2011). Furthermore, trustworthiness represents a framework for readers to assess the quality of a qualitative study (Billups, 2015). Guba and Lincoln (1986) suggested four means to ensure the trustworthiness of qualitative studies: (a) establishing credibility, (b) establishing dependability, (c) establishing transferability, and (d) establishing dependability (as cited in Billups, 2015). Based on this suggestion made by Guba and Lincoln, I applied these means to attain trustworthiness in this study.

#### **Establishing Credibility**

In the context of qualitative research, credibility is the extent to which the research findings are congruent with the truth (Billups, 2015). Shenton (2004) contended that strategies such as triangulation, prolonged engagement, persistent observation, data saturation, peer debriefing and member checking can establish credibility in a qualitative study. Triangulation is the process by which researchers use multiple data sources (participants and documents) as well as methods to generate a breadth and depth of understanding (Billups, 2015; Loh, 2013). In this study, I applied data triangulation

through the inclusion of multiple research participants to provide a breadth and depth of understanding of the concept that I studied. The concept was an independent agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

Prolonged engagement refers to researchers spending adequate time to understand responses given by participants, in an effort to reduce bias (Billups, 2015). As a concept, I employed prolonged engagement during the data collection process in this study. Prolonged engagement was determined by data saturation. During the qualitative data collection process, researchers persist to gather data until they achieve data saturation (Baker & Edwards, 2012; Simon, 2011a). Data saturation is the point where a qualitative researcher does not see, nor hear any new information during the data collection process (Simon, 2011a). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, I applied the concept of data saturation in this study when I collected data, to determine its final sample size. I applied the concept of data saturation since it is a criterion for establishing credibility (Shenton, 2004).

Member checking is a process by which qualitative researchers corroborate their research findings by soliciting feedback from their participants (Billups, 2015; Lietz & Zayas, 2006). To solicit feedback, qualitative researchers ask participants to read the interview transcripts that contain the information they had provided (Billups, 2015). The purpose of reading the interview transcripts is to verify this information (Billups, 2015; Lietz & Zayas, 2006; Shenton, 2004). However, Billups cautioned that participants'

reading of the interview transcripts might create repercussions; hence, I took care during the execution of member checking.

In this study, I executed member checking as a process. First, I contacted and reminded the participants who contributed to the in-depth interviews about the need for member checking. During contact, they were informed that I will meet with them to verify the data they had provided and its interpretation. After my analysis of the data gathered in this study, I hand delivered the hard copies of coded interview transcripts to each of these participants. Each participant got a copy of the coded interview transcript that contained the information they had provided during the in-depth interviews. I placed the hard copies of the interview transcripts in privacy envelopes. During the meetings, they read and agreed on the wording of the data they had contributed as well as interpretation of the data in the form of themes.

I executed member checking with the participants who contributed to the focus group. I gave each participant who contributed to the focus group interview a hard copy of the interview transcript that contained data provided during this interview. I placed the hard copies in privacy envelopes and hand delivered them to the participants. I met with 2 of the 6 participants from the focus group at their business offices to complete member checking as they had requested, but I met the other 4 participants at the organization's headquarters. The participants who took part in the focus group interview read the coded interview transcript that contained data during the focus group interview. They read this coded interview transcript to verify the accuracy of its wording and the interpretation of the data in the form of themes. After reading, none of the participants from the focus

disputed the wording nor the interpretation of the coded transcribed interview. I completed member checking with the 11 participants, 3 weeks after I collected data for this study.

Another strategy for ensuring credibility is peer debriefing (Creswell, 2009). Peer debriefing occurs when qualitative researchers solicit and attain feedback from experts in the field of qualitative research about their works, for a number of reasons (Billups, 2015; Hammond, 2014). Some of these reasons are to identify bias and errors, to promote reflexivity, and to verify both data analysis and interpretation of findings (Billups 2015; Lietz & Zayas, 2006). Two lecturers in the field of Educational Research employed to a teacher training institution in Jamaica verified the data analysis and interpretation of the findings in this study.

To complete both the verification of data analysis and the interpretation of the study's findings, I took the following steps. First, I gave hard copies of the following documents to the two lecturers: all coded interview transcripts, matrices showing relationships between research questions and themes that emerged from data analysis, and Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 in this manuscript. I placed the documents in privacy envelopes and hand delivered them to the two lecturers. Next, I had a joint meeting with the two lecturers to compare our interpretations of the data and the interpretation of findings presented in the fourth chapter in this manuscript. This meeting occurred 16 days after member checking with this study's participants and almost one month after completing its data analysis.

Prior to the joint meeting, I gave the lecturers a reasonable amount of time to review the documents. At the joint meeting, we discussed and compared our interpretations of the data as well as interpretations of the findings. The discussion and comparison resulted in a few discrepancies identified. These discrepancies were the descriptions (wording) of two broad themes. I personally reviewed and refined these two broad themes.

### **Executing the Process of Reflexivity**

Qualitative researchers use reflexivity to enhance the credibility of their findings and reduce personal bias on their part (Billups, 2015). As a technique, reflexivity involves the use of a reflexive journal to undertake personal reflections to avoid the introduction of preconceptions, or prejudices during the qualitative research process (Darawsheh & Stanley, 2014; Hadi & Closs, 2015). The introduction of these preconceptions or prejudices might occur because of the researcher's own background, beliefs, and attitudes (Darawsheh & Stanley, 2014; Hadi & Closs, 2015). To execute the process of reflexivity, Mitchinson and Pole (2004) suggested that qualitative researchers acquire and use reflexive diaries to record their feelings, perceptions, and thoughts throughout the research process (as cited in Chan et al., 2013).

In this study, I used a reflexive diary to execute the process of reflexivity. After completing each interview and the data analysis, I recorded my feelings and thoughts about these activities for my personal reflection. The purpose of reflection was to ensure that preconceptions or prejudices were not introduced while I executed data collection and data analysis in this study.

### **Establishing Transferability**

In qualitative research, transferability is the extent to which research findings are applicable (can be transferred) to similar settings or contexts (Barnes et al., 2012; Billups, 2015). There are two ways that qualitative researchers can use to attain transferability in a qualitative study: the making of thick descriptions and the selection of participants from the study/s population in a varied manner (Barnes et al. 2012). According to Billups, qualitative researchers make thick descriptions when they record in-depth details about four things in a qualitative study: the participants, the research setting, the data collected, and the findings derived. Billups pointed out that most times qualitative researchers do this recording through field notes when they conduct their data collection and analysis.

I did not apply the practice of writing thick descriptions in this study to ensure that its findings can be transferred to similar contexts. I took field notes during the data collection, the data analysis, and the writing of findings. Some of these notes captured a few points that participants made during the interviews, but did not focus on the participants' behaviors and nonverbal communication during the semi-structured interviews, nor any particular setting. The rationale for this decision was that Barnes et al. (2012) contended that the practice of thick description is more suitable for ethnographic and case studies. Futhermore, Leeds-Hurwitz (2015) asserted that qualitative researchers use thick descriptions to explain the behaviors of participants in ethnographic studies so that they can provide meanings for such behaviors. This study was a phenomenological inquiry, with focus on the perspectives from some members of the Jamaican business



community on an independent anticorruption agency to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

**Variation in participant selection.** Exercising care when selecting participants in a qualitative study is another way to establish transferability in a qualitative study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). To establish transferability, qualitative researchers select their participants with the use the maximum variation sampling method (Anney, 2014a; Simon & Goes, 2016; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). According to Patton (2014), maximum variation sampling enables qualitative researchers to attain a broad range of cases that might cause them to provide varied responses of interest (as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). As indicated earlier in this chapter, I employed the maximum variation sampling method to select and recruit some of this study's actual participants. These participants provided data, which helped me to answer all research questions in this study.

### **Establishing Dependability**

Dependability refers to the degree to which qualitative study's findings (results) are stable over time, and across conditions (Billups, 2015; Sinkovics, Penz & Ghauri; 2008). According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), Tobin and Begley (2004), qualitative researchers ask participants to evaluate the findings and the interpretations of these findings, and the recommendations in a qualitative study to establish dependability (as cited in Anney, 2014a). The reason for this evaluation is to ensure that the data obtained from participants support the study's findings and their interpretations, and recommendations (Anney, 2014b).

In relation to a qualitative study' findings, audit trails, member checking, and triangulation can establish dependability (Anney, 2014a; Anney, 2014b; Loh, 2013). Qualitative researchers use an audit trail as a strategy to examine a study's research process and its outcomes, by scrutinizing data collection, data recording, and data analysis (Bowen, 2009, as cited in Anney, 2014a). External auditors who played no role in the study, usually perform the examinations (Anney, 2014a). To accomplish an examination of this study's research process and outcomes, I asked two lecturers in the field of Educational Research to do this task. The two lecturers are employed to a teacher training institution in Jamaica. More on audit trail later in this chapter.

Qualitative researchers can establish dependability with the application of the code-recode strategy (Anney, 2014a; Anney, 2014b). As a strategy, code-recode is the process by which qualitative researchers code collected research data at least twice to get a better understanding of it, and to determine consistency amongst derived findings. Qualitative researchers may execute the code-recode strategy in two ways: coding data alone as the researcher (intra-coding), and the researcher coding the data with others (intercoding) who are qualitative data analysis experts (Van den Hoonaard, 2008).

A qualitative researcher uses the code-recode strategy to determine consistency amongst research findings with no help from other persons, aims to achieve intracoder-reliability, but a qualitative researcher seeking to achieve intercoder-reliability will first code the data, and then ask others to recode it to determine consistency (Van den Hoonaard, 2008). In this study, I only did intracoding, because of some issues that were related to the concurrent collection and analysis of data. To be specific, the time between

the execution of some of the semi-structured interviews and the analysis of data collected from these interviews did not allow me to do intercoding. Some participants, especially for the first three in-depth interviews had specified when they would be available for these interviews.

Triangulation is another strategy for establishing dependability. As indicated earlier in this chapter, I executed data triangulation in this study. To be specific, I collected data from multiple participants on the concept that I studied. As a reminder, the concept was an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

### **Establishing Confirmability**

Confirmability refers to the extent to which other researchers can verify or corroborate results of a qualitative study (Baxter & Eyles, 1997 as cited in Anney, 2014a). Research suggests that confirmability can be achieved by execution of reflexivity, audit trail and triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 as cited in Anney 2014a). I highlighted earlier in this chapter that I executed both reflexivity and triangulation in this study. In the next section, I outline how I performed an audit trail in this study.

**Audit trail.** An audit trail refers to the transparent provision of details of the research steps that qualitative researchers execute from the commencement of a study, to its findings emergence and reporting (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006b; Rodgers, 2008; Wolf, 2003). An audit trail enables individuals to examine a study thoroughly for the validity of its data (Bowen, 2009, as cited in Anney, 2014a). An audit trail also enables individuals to understand a researcher's decisions and activities in the following contexts: data

collection, data recording, and data analysis (Guba & Lincoln, 1982 as cited in Anney, 2014a). Guba and Lincoln (1982) contended that an audit trail ensures the confirmability of a qualitative study (as cited in Anney, 2014a). Individuals such as peer reviewers can use an audit trail to evaluate or determine a study's trustworthiness (Wolf, 2003). To establish an audit trail for a qualitative study, Guba and Lincoln (1982) suggested that researchers keep the following documents for crosschecking: observation and interview notes, raw data, scores from tests, as well as records and documents obtained from the field (as cited in Anney, 2014a).

In this study, I used interviewing as the sole qualitative method to collect data. I did not use other qualitative methods to collect data such as observing and reviewing of documents since the purpose of the study was to discover perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on a concept. Hence, there were no field notes from observing, nor reviewing of documents as data sources for crosschecking. To establish an audit trail in this study, I presented copies of interview notes, audio-recordings, coded interview transcripts, Chapter 3, and Chapter 4 of this manuscript to two lecturers in the field of Educational Research employed to a teacher training institution in Jamaica for their evaluation. These two lecturers served as peer debriefers for this study's data analysis and interpretation of its findings.

### **Ethical Procedures**

In the context of research, the idea to apply ethical procedures is essential (Resnick 2015; Stevens, 2013; United States Bioethics Commission, 2012). Ethical procedures are a set of ethical actions that researchers apply during the entire research

process (Resnick, 2015; Sanjari, Bahramnezhad, Fomani, Shoghi, & Cheragh, 2014; Stevens, 2013). A research process may pose certain risks and unintended harm; hence, it is important that researchers apply ethical actions to protect participants and themselves (Resnick 2015; Sanjari et al., 2014; Stevens, 2013). The application of ethical actions implies that researchers must demonstrate good behavior associated with ethical principles such as honesty, objectivity, integrity, and protection of human participants (Resnick, 2015, Stephens, 2013). Prior to conducting this study, I sought and received approval from the Walden University's Institutional Review Board. The approval number for this study is 10-12-17-0363402.

The participants in this study were individuals from the Jamaican business community. These individuals had a choice whether or not to participate in the study. An organization representing some individuals from the Jamaican business community was approached to refer some of its own members as potential participants. To be specific, these individuals had businesses based in one of Jamaica's parishes (a geographical territory).

I sent a letter that sought cooperation from the organization to its elected leader for assistance to identify and recruit potential participants. This letter was sanctioned (approved) by Walden University's Institutional Review Board. The organization provided participants from its own membership. I made a verbal request for a sample frame that comprised of names and contact details for all members of the organization to make contact with potential participants. Although, a sample frame was not given to me,

I was able to receive a list of potential participants who met this study's eligibility criteria. These individuals participated in this study.

I made contact by both face-to-face and phone with the recommended potential participants to secure their participation. During face to face meetings. I explained to them verbally Walden University's ethical guidelines to conduct research. I gave them both an invitation letter and consent form to read. The invitation letter had a written description of some ethical guidelines that I eventually followed, and how agreed participants in this study would provide data. After they listened to my explanation of Walden University's ethical guidelines to conduct research, and read the invitation letters given to them, these individuals signed the consents forms given to them. The signing of the consent forms indicated their agreement to participate in this study.

### **Treatment of Agreed Participants**

According to the National Institute of Health (2011), researchers have a duty to treat humans who they have recruited to participate in their studies, in an ethical and respectful manner. In this study, the participants as humans were treated on the basis of ethical principles and with respect. After I met and screened the participants in this study, I gave them recruitment materials. In the context of research, recruitment materials are documents or any other physical substance used by researchers to recruit potential participants for a study (Newington & Metcalfe, 2014). Shaw, Brady, and Davey (2011) contended that recruitment materials may appear in different forms such as letters, emails, face-to-face conversations, and advertisements.

Prior to data collection for this study, I gave an invitation letter and a consent form to each participant. I gave them the invitation letter and consent form for their agreement to participate. Beninger et al. (2014) asserted that recruitment materials must be transparent; hence, both the invitation letter and consent forms had transparent and reliable details. Details in the letter of invitation had advised the participants to complete and sign the consent form if they agree to participate.

As it relates to research, consent forms must have specific details that inform potential participants for a study of their rights if they agree to participate, and the study's characteristics (Koonrungsesomboon, Laothavorn, & Karbwang, 2015). The completion of consent forms that include agreed participants' signature is an indication of informed consent (Steevenson, 2006; Wiles, 2013). Informed consent refers to individuals voluntarily and clearly giving consent to participate in a study on the basis of some given information (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011; Koonrungsesomboon, Laothavorn, & Karbwang, 2015). Steevenson cautioned that researchers should ensure that research participants understand the details in consent forms, prior to affixing their signatures. According to Stephenson, the affixing of signatures on consent forms represent physical evidence that participants have consented to participate in a study. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, all participants in this study signed the consent forms that I gave to them.

**Contents of recruitment materials.** As an ethical requirement, recruitment materials should not contain details that appears to coerce, or unduly influence humans to participate in a study (Felt, Bister, Strassnig, & Wagner, 2009). Consequently, the invitation letter and consent form as recruitment materials did not contain such details. In

addition, Shahnazarian, Hagemann, Aburto, and Rose (2013) pointed out that recruitment material should clearly inform prospective research participants about a study's purpose. Based on this point, the invitation letter informed potential participants of the study's purpose and nature, the expected duration of participation and contact details for myself as the researcher. The invitation letter informed participants in this study that its results will be shared with them, and their participation should be voluntary. Furthermore, the invitation letter informed participants in this study that their privacy will be respected and maintained, and that no known risks were associated with participation.

The invitation letter also revealed to potential participants that they had an option to withdraw from the study, or discontinue their participation, even after formally consenting to participate. The participants were advised by details in the invitation letter that there were no penalties associated with withdrawing from the study. The participants were informed by the invitation letter, that if they discontinue their participation, they will receive all of their entitled benefits since Mfutso-Bengo, Masiye, Molyneux, Ndebele, and Chilungo (2008) pointed out that both researchers and participants should benefit from a study.

During data collection for this study, the participants had a right not to answer any question when asked. This right was conveyed to the participants prior to data collection for this study. There was no foreseen harm to be experienced because of participation in this study, as it sought to gain perspectives on a public issue only. If a participant had experienced emotional harm, I would have made a referral to the relevant Jamaican social services.



## **Treatment of Data**

Another ethical principle that researchers should consider is to ensure confidentiality or anonymity in relation to data obtained from research participants (Stuckey, 2014). The formats that I used to record data obtained for this study were both paper and electronic. Paper was used to document field notes from interviews, but audiotapes were used to obtain the data electronically. As indicated earlier in this chapter, the paper and audiotapes which contained the data that I obtained from participants are stored and locked in a filing cabinet at my home. I transcribed the audio tapes were to generate interview transcripts.

I placed the interview transcripts and papers with field notes inside privacy envelopes. In addition, information from the transcripts was transferred to computer files in the form of Microsoft Word documents for storage. Storing qualitative data in the form of Microsoft Word documents represents a cost-effective and safe way for organizing and managing data (Poole, Jackson, & Randall, 2002; Wong, 2008). The computer requires a password to access these files.

To protect the identity of research participants, Berman (2016) and Stuckey (2014) suggested that researchers remove identifiers such as names and contact details from transcripts and field notes. Furthermore, Stuckey recommended that qualitative researchers create a master list with names and contact details for all research participants, and assign codes or pseudonyms to each name. Stuckey pointed out that the master list must be locked away carefully, when not being used by the researcher. Consequently, I created a master list with the names and contact details for all research

participants, and assigned codes to these names. The master list is stored with hard copies of documents, which contain data obtained for this study, in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher's home. The interview transcripts (both hard copies and soft copies), and the field notes, do not have identifiers such as names and contact details for the research participants.

Only members of my data collection team, a transcriber, two peer checkers and myself handled the data collected for this study. Prior to data collection, I gave these persons confidentiality agreement forms approved by Walden University's Institutional Review Board to sign. They all signed the forms to acknowledge that they will remain confidential about the data collected and participants in this study. Data will be stored for at least five years after which it will be destroyed. Paper with interview transcripts and field notes will be shredded, but electronic documents with interview transcripts on the computer will be deleted.

### **Dissemination of Data**

According to Schober, Farrington, and Lacey (2009), the primary reason why researchers conduct studies is to obtain data that relates to a problem or issue, and subsequently prepare a report to disseminate findings that emerge from that data. Schober et al. purported that all research findings derive benefits for persons and organizations. They also expressed the view that research findings should disseminate extensively, so that they can be understood and applied to either practice or policy. The Community Alliance for Research and Engagement (2016) recommended that researchers design a data dissemination strategy to share their research findings. Elements of data

dissemination strategy include the identification of a target audience, the determination of an effective medium or channel (e.g. media, community meetings, and conferences), and the communication of the meaning or implications of the research findings effectively (Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2016; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2016).

On some occasions, doctoral students publish the works from their respective dissertations to disseminate data. However, Stoilescu and McDougall (2010) cautioned that findings from a dissertation may be shared, only if that dissertation has been approved by the associated university. If this study is approved by Walden University, its findings will be disseminated extensively to members of Jamaica's business community, members of the Jamaican government, and Jamaican-based civil society organizations by means of community meetings and publication.

### **Other Ethical Issues**

This study was not conducted within the researcher's working environment. Consequently, there were no anticipated conflicts of interests, since the researcher was not a member of the organization from which participants were recruited.

### **Summary of Chapter 3**

In this chapter, I provided details about the chosen methodology and design for this study. I revealed that a qualitative exploratory design and the phenomenological methodology were used to answer this study's research questions. To collect data to answer the study's research questions, I employed semi-structured interviewing. Additionally, specific details of the procedures for the following activities were given: (a)

the identification, (b) the selection, and the recruitment of participants, and (c) the collection and analysis of data. In this chapter, I described the strategies that were used to ensure the trustworthiness of the study's findings. These strategies are (a) establishing credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, and (d) confirmability. Finally, in this chapter, there are details about the ethical procedures that were employed to protect this study's participants and me the researcher.

## Chapter 4: Results

### **Introduction**

In the previous chapter of this dissertation, I described how this qualitative exploratory study was conducted. The purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. I sought answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on a single independent anticorruption agency with prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
2. Other than a single independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers, what alternatives does the Jamaican business community perceive that could strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
3. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on collaborating with other local societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica?

In this chapter, I also provide a summary of the data collection process and the data analysis strategy for this study. As a qualitative data collection instrument, I used interviews to collect data for this study. After the collection of the data, I employed thematic analysis to derive broad themes as findings. I end the chapter with a revelation of these broad themes. A number of chosen quotations that support these broad themes

are also included in this chapter. I will use these broad themes to guide the discussion in Chapter 5. In addition, in this chapter, I describe the steps that I took to establish the trustworthiness of the study's findings.

### **Research Site**

This study was conducted on the island of Jamaica. As a country, Jamaica has an anticorruption policy, which at the time of this study was supported by the existence of 3 anticorruption institutions. Current literature has suggested that Jamaica's present anticorruption policy is ineffective, thus warranting strengthening (Transparency International, 2016a, 2017). According to the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (2017), at the end of the year 2016, there were approximately 70,000 people practicing business in Jamaica. In this study, I discovered and understood perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

### **Demographics**

At the time of this study, 11 individuals who practice business in Jamaica provided data for analysis. Of the 11 participants, five owned micro-sized businesses, three owned small-sized businesses, and three owned medium sized businesses. As indicated in the previous chapter, I employed stratified purposive sampling and maximum variation sampling to recruit participants and to attain a sample that was representative of the study's population. The study's population comprised of owners of businesses in Jamaica, who were also members of a particular organization in of one Jamaica's parishes.

Of the 11 business owners as participants, eight were males and three were females. Their ages ranged from 29 to 69, with the average age being approximately 50 years. Their years of experience owning businesses in Jamaica ranged from 2 years to 30 years. Table 3 summarizes the demographics of these individuals. The participants are assigned numbers, which indicate the order in which they participated in the study.

Table 3

*A Table Showing the Demographics of the Participants*

Participants	Gender	Age	Type of business owned	Years owning business
P 1	Male	29	Micro-sized	6
P 2	Male	64	Small-sized	28
P 3	Male	48	Micro-sized	8
P 4	Male	58	Medium-sized	20
P 5	Female	30	Micro-sized	1
P 6	Male	60	Medium-sized	4
P 7	Female	34	Micro-sized	12
P 8	Male	68	Small-sized	24
P 9	Male	69	Medium-sized	14
P 10	Female	47	Small-sized	4
P 11	Male	46	Micro-sized	7

### **Data Collection**

Prior to actual data collection for this study, I designed and pilot-tested an interview guide with some members of the study's population. The interview guide comprised of interview questions that were formulated initially to be asked during actual data collection. The purpose of the pilot test was to ensure that these questions were clear and every participant understood them the same way when asked during actual collection of data. Three members of the study's population participated in the pilot test.

During the pilot-test, I asked the 3 members all questions in the interview guide. The 3 members responded to these questions. After receiving their responses I solicited their feedback to know if they thought the interview questions were clear. Feedback from all 3 members indicated that the questions were clear and easily understood. The feedback from the 3 members suggested that the interview guide was suitable for use. None of the three members contributed data for the actual study.

Prior to my collection of data for this study, I intended to collect data from 12 business owners who belonged to the study's population. Based on the study's plan, I subdivided the population of interest into four strata: micro-sized business, small business, medium-sized business, and large-sized business. Three participants from each stratum were to be recruited for the actual study. At the time of this study, the organization, which was the study's population had no members who owned large-sized businesses. As a result, five owners of micro-sized business, three owners of small-sized businesses, and three owners of medium-sized businesses contributed data for the actual study. I collected data from the eleventh participant to attain saturation.

All 11 participants in this study were qualified for participation since they met its inclusion criteria. The inclusion criteria were that they should be owners of businesses based in Jamaica and possess some knowledge of anticorruption policies. Five of the 11 participants were interviewed individually at their businesses' office, whilst six participated in a focus group interview at their organization's headquarters.

Prior to actual data collection for this study, the 11 business owners agreed to participate. Before interviewing them, I explained to them consent for participation in



studies based on Walden University's ethical guidelines. In addition, I told the participants that they could withdraw from the inquiry at any time, without providing a reason and without facing penalties. I shared this information formally with the participants in two ways. First, through a letter seeking cooperation from the organization that acted as a partner in this study and second, by giving each actual participant a copy of an invitation letter with these details.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, I used semistructured interviewing to collect data from the business owners who contributed data for this study. The semistructured interviews were executed during the months of October, November, and December 2017. I executed the interviews using two formats: individual interview and focus group interview. To be specific, I collected the data through five individual interviews and one focus group interview. The interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. I used the technique of face-to-face interviewing to collect data from the business owners in order to answer all research questions for this study.

According to Knapik (2006) and Raheim et al. (2016), it is essential for qualitative researchers to establish rapport with respondents for an interview to create an atmosphere of trust and comfort. Additionally, Felstead, Jewson, Fuller, Kakavelakis, and Unwin (2009) contended that creating an atmosphere of trust and comfort enhances the chance of gaining more insightful results from respondents during interviewing. I established a rapport with all participants to create an atmosphere of trust and comfort. Using this approach allowed me to set the stage for the successful completion of all scheduled interviews.

During the individual interviews, the participants answered all interview questions asked. I allowed the participants to freely express themselves in order to capture rich (in-depth) information. On many occasions, capturing rich information during qualitative data collection makes the analysis of such data much easier (Wong, 2008). The responses given by the participants related to their perceived advantages and disadvantages of Jamaica having an independent agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its own anticorruption policy. In addition, the participants were asked what other alternatives could be considered to strengthen this policy, and their perspectives on the idea of a collaboration amongst all three societal actors in Jamaica to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica.

The focus group interview was different, as it allowed a group of the participants to provide multiple perspectives that relate to the interview questions for this study at a single point in time. Although I also gave them the opportunity to freely express themselves throughout this interview, some participants responded more deeply than others. However, the focus group interview generated adequate relevant data, which enabled data analysis for this study.

### **Data Analysis**

Data analysis for this study was done manually using Microsoft Word's insert comment feature in conjunction with thematic analysis. According to Chenail (2012), qualitative researchers can use Microsoft Word insert comment feature to label codes or themes in qualitative data sets when they perform a thematic analysis. To perform thematic analysis, I employed Creswell's (2009) bottom-up approach. Creswell's bottom-

up approach (an inductive approach) is a procedure that comprises of 6 steps and used is by qualitative researchers to identify and interpret themes within qualitative data sets. To complete the data analysis, I ensured that all data collected was put in readable form, by means of transcription. I then read the data within all interview transcripts multiple times for familiarity.

After I read the data within all interview transcripts multiple times, I performed initial coding. Initial coding occurs when qualitative researchers read the data within all interview transcripts line-by-line to identify specific themes that relate to each research question (Khandkar, 2009). Where possible, I grouped specific themes that were related to each research questions to form broad themes; a process known as axial coding (Klose & Seifert, 2017). These two steps were done iteratively, as I reviewed and refined both specific themes and broad themes on occasions when needed, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006).

I derived four broad themes from the data analysis as findings for this study, which resulted in all its research questions answered. The four broad themes, which emerged from the data analysis are placed in the table below.

Table 4

*Broad Themes From the Data Analysis*

Research Questions	Broad themes
Research question 1	Theme 1: Likely improvement in some social benefits Theme 2: Possible challenges
Research question 2	Theme 3: Social and legal interventions
Research question 3	Theme 4: Support and greater success

**Evidence of Trustworthiness**

This section outlines the steps that I took to establish the trustworthiness of this qualitative study. In the context of qualitative research, trustworthiness refers to the extent to which a qualitative study represents quality and is suitable for future use (Loh, 2013). Billups (2015) contended that trustworthiness represents a framework for the assessment of a qualitative study's quality. Guba and Lincoln (1986) provided four means to establish trustworthiness in qualitative studies: (a) establish credibility, (b) establish dependability, (c) establish transferability, and (d) establish dependability (as cited in Billups, 2015). I applied these four means to establish trustworthiness in this study.

In the context of research, credibility refers to the degree to which the results of a qualitative inquiry are credible (Billups, 2015). Qualitative researchers can use activities such as (a) member checking, (b) peer debriefing, (c) prolonged engagement, (d) reflexivity, and (e) triangulation to establish credibility (Billups, 2015; Shenton, 2004). To establish credibility, first, I executed triangulation and second, prolonged

engagement. Triangulation is an activity in which researchers use multiple participants or qualitative data collection methods to both generate data and understand the phenomenon under investigation (Billups, 2015; Loh, 2013). Prolonged engagement occurs when qualitative researchers spend adequate time to gain an in-depth understanding of the data provided by participants, and to minimize bias (Billups, 2015).

Furthermore, to establish credibility for this study, I used reflexivity to avoid the introduction of personal biases as suggested by Chan et al. (2013). I also performed member checking with the participants in this study to verify the collection and analysis of the study's data. Member checking occurs when qualitative researchers involve the corroboration and verification of research findings through feedback from research participants (Billups, 2015; Lietz & Zayas, 2006). Two lecturers in the field of Educational Research did peer debriefing to verify the accuracy of the data analysis.

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of a qualitative study can be applied to similar contexts or settings (Barnes et al., 2012; Billups). Barnes et al. contended that qualitative researchers can use a diverse sample of participants to establish transferability. To establish transferability in this study, I used a diverse sample of participants. As members of the Jamaican business community, the participants were all chosen and recruited on the basis of four business sizes. Further, I chose and recruited some of the participants on the basis of years that they owned businesses in Jamaica.

In the context of research, dependability refers to the extent to which a qualitative inquiry's findings attain stability over time and across conditions. Qualitative researchers can employ audit trails, member checking and triangulation in order to establish

dependability (Anney, 2014a; Anney, 2014b; Loh, 2013). To establish dependability for this qualitative study, I employed data triangulation. Moreover, the two lecturers in the field of Educational Research who performed peer debriefing in this study, also conducted an audit trail in relation to its design and findings.

Last, in the context of research, confirmability refers to the degree to which other investigators can corroborate and verify the findings from a qualitative inquiry (Baxter & Eyles, 1997 as cited in Anney, 2014a). An audit trail, reflexivity, and triangulation are activities that qualitative researchers execute to establish confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 as cited in Anney 2014a). An audit trail is an activity that involves at least one impartial reviewer who looks for transparent details in study's report (Given, 2008; Wolf, 2003). These transparent details relate to its execution and its findings (Given, 2008; Wolf, 2003). In this study, confirmability was established with the execution of an audit trail, reflexivity, and peer debriefing.

### **Results of the Study**

I discovered four broad themes that emerged from the data analysis. These four themes are supported by verbatim quotes as evidence from the data collected for this study. The themes are interpreted later on in this chapter. Anderson (2010) cautioned that when presenting themes as the results of a qualitative study, researchers should avoid long verbatim quotes, as they might disinterest persons reading its report. Based on Anderson's caution, some of the verbatim quotes presented to support the broad themes in this manuscript are not long. Furthermore, Anderson suggested that qualitative researchers select and include the quotes that are the most representative of the themes

reported. The quotes included in this manuscript are the most representative of the broad themes that I derived from the data analysis for this study.

In terms of the minimum number of verbatim quotes to support a theme in a qualitative study, the literature has varied information. First, the Kirkless Council (2016) pointed out that there is no established number of required verbatim quotes. Second, Bazeley (2013) argued that although one quote might not be enough, it may assist to provide an illustration of a point being made. Third, Marks (2013) expressed the view that a couple of quotes may be adequate to support the interpretations of data gathered in a qualitative study. Last, Philips (2016) contended that although there is no established number, qualitative researchers can consider a minimum of two verbatim quotes. In this manuscript, a minimum of two verbatim quotes from the participants is included to support the interpretations of the themes, which are this study's results.

### **Theme 1: Likely Improvement in Some Social Benefits**

The first research question for this study was: what are the perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. During my collection, most of the participants appeared more than willing to give responses to this research question. To get varied perspectives on the first research question, I first asked them, what advantages did they perceive if Jamaica has an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its anticorruption policy. Perspectives given by the participants in terms of their perceived advantages inferred that Jamaica could experience an improvement in

some social benefits. A social benefit is a condition or a situation that benefits a society, that results from a direct or indirect action carried out by an individual or a group of individuals (Brooks & Hwong, 2006; Singer, 2003).

Some of the participants thought that the implementation of an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers could bring more favorable economic conditions to Jamaica, which would be a social benefit for its society. In other words, they thought the implementation of such an agency could provide Jamaica as a country with improved economic conditions. To be specific, both P 9 and P 11 opined that more business investments in Jamaica are likely, if it has this kind of anticorruption agency.

P 9, a 69-year-old man who owned a medium-sized business, assumed that ailing industries in Jamaica would recover and the existence of a surge in investor confidence. He gave the following response during my collection of the data:

There would be a lot more investment or investor confidence higher than what is now, that's one. Two, there would be a lot more investor capital investing in the country in terms of like manufacturing, ah real estate, hotel industry, and sugar cane industry. Ailing industries . . . all those things would come back if we had an independent anticorruption agency and that would be to Jamaica's benefit.

P 11, a 46-year-old man who owned a micro-sized business, expressed the view that a better business environment was likely to exist for different kinds of investors in Jamaica, when he said the following words:



I don't think we will have corruption at zero, . . . . So the advantages have to do with productivity, investment, better business environment for investors at all levels. Be it high multimillion dollar investors or medium, small investors.

P 11 had the opinion that if this kind of agency was implemented in Jamaica, there could be greater levels of productivity.

P 1, a 29-year-old male who owned a micro-sized business, thought that if Jamaica had an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers, an advantage was that Transparency International (a global anticorruption watchdog) would have a different perspective of Jamaica. P 1 estimated that this perspective could lead to a rise in Jamaica's ranking on Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index. To him, this rise in Jamaica's ranking meant an improvement in Jamaica's social image from Transparency International's perspective, which could be a benefit for Jamaica. He made this comment during my collection of the data:

Well . . . one of the main advantages is that . . . Transparency International would take a better view of Jamaica and our ranking on the Corruption Perception Index might be improved, because at the end of the day we are consistently being reported as corrupt, and there is nothing being done to stem this corruption, we will always be falling short, so our ranking might improve.

P 2, a 64-year-old man who owned a small business, gave a response that having such an agency would be beneficial in the context of an improvement in Jamaica's criminal justice system. He mentioned his experience inside the Jamaican courts. Based

on his experience, he thought there were instances where court cases were drawn out, and this only benefited lawyers when they represented their clients. In his view, having this agency might make Jamaica's criminal justice system more efficient and effective. This was one of his responses during my collection of data:

I agree that there should be an independent agency and it should be put in place quickly. An advantage would be faster prosecution of corruption cases, as sometimes court cases take long. I have experience in the courts and there are delays, only lawyers benefit. Expedition of court cases must be, because the justice system is not working.

Both P 3 and P 7 believed that an anticorruption agency in Jamaica that has independence could make a difference in relation to Jamaica's anticorruption initiatives. P 3, a 48-year-old man who owned a micro-sized business was very assertive in his response when asked what advantages he perceived. He opined that having such an agency meant that the Jamaican government should not be given the opportunity to appoint its affiliates as employees. If persons employed to this agency were appointed by the Jamaican government or were its affiliates, then their independence would be questioned. He held the view that if this agency enjoyed true independence, this situation would help Jamaica a whole lot:

I think the advantages that Jamaica would have you know, is so overwhelming especially to the whole society on a whole, . . . no government, no matter what party should name any affiliates with them on any board in running certain

organizations in this country . . . I think it would help this country a whole lot. I can't wait for something like this to happen.

P 7, a 35-year-old woman who owned a micro-sized business, opined that having an independent anticorruption agency in Jamaica with both investigative and prosecutorial powers, would enhance confidence and trust amongst citizens in Jamaica who wished to support anticorruption efforts in Jamaica. She made these remarks, "The advantages I see is that people would feel more secure and confident in coming forward with information when dealing with an independent body."

When P 4, a 58-year-old man who owned a medium-sized business was interviewed and asked what advantages he perceived if Jamaica had an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers, his response was somewhat similar to that given by P3. Like P3, P 4 thought that Jamaica should have an anticorruption agency that enjoyed independence. He held the view that an agency of this kind could be more effective to curb corruption as a crime in Jamaica:

. . . if we have an independent investigative body, and the other term, prosecutorial body I think that will help the country to solve more of the illicit practices going on right now with regards to corruption. That will help to reduce it, if you have that body.

For P 5, a 30-year-old woman who owned a micro-sized business, having such an agency meant quicker trials for persons before the courts, when they are accused of corrupt acts when she remarked, "If we have an independent anticorruption agency with

both investigative and prosecutorial powers then it can do the investigation and also prosecute, do the prosecution as well in a quicker time.”

P 6, a 60-year-old man who co-owned a medium-sized business, assumed that the existence of such an agency could deter people in Jamaica from the engagement in corrupt practices in the context of feeling subjected to its anticorruption laws as he shares “It would be, it would be a blessing in disguise . . . the tenets of confidence to build a strong nation where people will believe that there are laws that govern us.” If more people in Jamaica feel subjected to its anticorruption laws, this could be viewed as a benefit for it as a country.

In his response to the question that asked what are the advantages of Jamaica having an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its anticorruption policy, P 8, a 69-year-old man who owned a small business, gave a straightforward response. He believed that an advantage if Jamaica had this kind of anticorruption agency would be the ability to control corruption. In his opinion this would benefit Jamaica as a country as he shares, “Well that would be a plus to the country, and it would advantageous to stem corruption”.

When asked what advantages she perceived, P 10, a 47-year-old woman who owned a small business, gave what could be considered a concise, but open-ended response “Well that agency will be more effective and there would be less corruption.” This response meant, to P 10 this kind of agency would be more successful to control corruption in Jamaica, thus being something beneficial. She thought the prosecutorial function of this agency would be a factor to cause this deterrent as she shares:

“Well if there is agency and it can only investigate and not prosecute, then most times it would not be effective. Because it would just write about it, talk about it and that’s it. There is nothing more to be done, but if it has the ability to prosecute it could go further. This is about swift justice.” To make it simple, P 10 thought that the prosecutorial powers given to this agency could deter more people in Jamaica from practicing corruption as it would have the ability to execute faster prosecution of corruption cases. In the next section of this chapter, I discuss the second broad theme as a finding.

### **Theme 2: Possible Challenges**

The first research question for this study was: what are the perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica’s anticorruption policy. To obtain multiple perspectives, the participants were asked what disadvantages did they perceive if Jamaica had an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its anticorruption policy. Some of the participants gave varied responses, but nevertheless these responses indicated that this kind of agency in Jamaica could encounter challenges.

P 1 thought that if Jamaica has such an agency, a possible challenge it could face was the inability to gain public support in the context of information on corrupt practices. He remarked that there was a belief held by some Jamaicans that persons who give information to law enforcement officials should die. He shared that some members of the Jamaican public did not trust the Jamaican police since these members thought the

Jamaican police were prone to the disclosure of their identities. Hence, he did not expect anything different in relation to this kind of agency when he said these words:

. . . one of the major disadvantages this policy could experience is a lack of immediate trust by the people. We are in a culture in which people know the informer mentality . . . informers must die, people do not willingly go to the police, because there is no privacy, there is somebody who always speak, . . . corruption is so rampant. People are not willing to put their lives at stake irrespective of it being for the greater good.

When perspectives were sought from P 2 in terms of disadvantages, he assumed that if implemented, the independent anticorruption agency could face undermining from the Jamaican government. According to P 2, the Jamaican government might do things over time, which will not be helpful to this kind of agency if it was established. To P 2, if the Jamaican government does those things, the agency would become ineffective. From his standpoint, only determination and dedication from its employees towards the prosecution of corruption cases could guarantee its success as he shared “I can tell you, the government might try to undermine it, only the aggressiveness and dedication of people who might work in it. I mean serious aggressively prosecuting cases”.

In his response to perceived disadvantages, P3 saw a possible challenge as he expressed concerned about a lack of political will, in the context that this kind of agency might not get the required resources to perform its job effectively. He had the perception that persons appointed to public entities in Jamaica, but not connected to political parties were deprived of the required resources to do their jobs well. To P3, connections to

political parties helps persons employed to public entities in Jamaica perform their jobs effectively. To sum, he had the view that if implemented, this kind of agency should be provided with resources by the Jamaican government, without considering the political affiliation of its employees when he shared:

The thing with our society is that when you have certain persons in certain positions and not affiliated with any political parties then the political machinery kicks in and kind of hampers the agency from getting certain things done, from being done properly, on time, resources are not readily available to you. That is the disadvantage I see, and what I am saying I hope the political parties have the political will to make these things happen and when they appoint these persons, they will be given the required resources: financially, manpower, and everything so that they can do their job.

P 4 and P 5 also had concerns if Jamaica has this kind of an agency. It seemed to P 4 that if Jamaica has this kind of agency, the conduct of its employees is of importance. He thought if this kind of agency was established in Jamaica, an arrangement would be needed to monitor the conduct of its employees, because of the possible influence of corruption on these individuals. If that happens, the agency would have a challenge when he shared:

Well, that agency . . . there might have to be an oversight body to see that those people are carrying out their functions and their responsibilities in that profession, in a professional manner. Because they can be, might be influenced by corruption.

P 5 envisioned a possible challenge if the agency was implemented. She thought that if this kind of agency was implemented, the possibility exists that afterward its employees may become corrupt when she made these remarks:

So even though it would be a good thing, a very good thing, one of the disadvantages is that over a period of time they may also become corrupt.

Because they might be forced to not see the truth, or not tell the public the truth about higher persons in authority . . . .

At the time of data collection for this study, P 10 and P 11 did not share any perceived disadvantages if there was an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica. However, to P 9 a challenge may emerge. The lack of seriousness amongst some Jamaican parliamentarians in the past did not give him confidence that they would support this kind of agency, He made reference to speeches made by Jamaica's lawmakers against corruption, but in his opinion, these persons had not made serious efforts in the past to control corruption in Jamaica. According to P 9. if Jamaica has this kind of agency and this perceived lack of seriousness is a reality, then this occurrence would pose a challenge for the agency itself. He made the following remarks:

Bureaucracy is like the parliamentarians. You always hear them talk about anticorruption. We need to get rid of corruption, we need to do this, we need to do that, but in parliament, it has never been discussed, there is no draft legislation going in or being talked of to impeach a politician.



In the next section in this chapter, I present the third broad theme that emerged from the data analysis in this study.

### **Theme 3: Social and Legal Interventions**

The third research question for this study was: other than an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers what other alternatives could be considered to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. A broad theme that emerged from the data analysis and connects with this question is social and legal interventions. A social intervention is an initiative undertaken by a government or a nongovernmental entity, as an intervention to address a social issue (Allard, 2017; Murphy, 2014). A legal intervention is the use of legislation or court action to prevent persons from, and punish persons for violating other people's rights (Bogart, 2011; Duquette, 1988).

P 1, P 4, P7 and P11 all thought public education as a social intervention was an alternative. P 1 estimated that an initiative in Jamaica that aims to educate people about rewards that could be gained from hard work and honesty was an alternative when he shared, "Well there needs to be a thrust for civic education. A country with great civic pride and a people who really value, value the merit of hard work, of honesty will, in the end, stop corruption." Furthermore, he seemed convinced that this initiative was a possible solution to corruption as an accepted practice when he commented, "As long as you can present some information to these people and educate so that their civic, civic minds are built, can change the culture of corruption in this country."

According to P 4, an initiative that aims to educate the Jamaican citizenry about the undesirable effects of corruption was an alternative, but this initiative should be directed towards young children in Jamaican based schools. He believed that the kindergarten level should be the prime target when he remarked:

. . . from junior level in a school and so forth, you have you would be teaching to these students from kindergarten and say look here corruption is part that plays a role that really diminishes the society. It hinders the society from and so forth you can't get growth in the society,

P 4 clarified what he meant by growth “You know all of those economic factors, gross domestic product and so forth.”

According to P 11, over time there has been a decline in socially accepted principles embraced by people in Jamaica. He opined that these socially accepted principles were replaced by the desire for expensive products that people believe will make them happy. P11 explained that this desire represented a driver for corruption in Jamaica:

Well, it has to do with a level of education. Back when I was much younger things used to different people would appreciate life a lot more. Things have changed in the last years where material things have been so driven.

P 11 thought that some young unemployed men in Jamaica were persons possessed with the idea of material things, and assumed that education was could restore these socially accepted principles as he shared “Today that has changed, where young boys 21-year-old

he feels like he want a BMW and he hasn't even started working as yet. I believe education will play a very important role in changing that culture.”

P 2 shared the view that some persons in Jamaica were not punished adequately for their involvement in corrupt practices as a misdeed. He thought that as an alternative, the Jamaican government should enact laws that impose harsher sentences on persons who are convicted for corrupt practices. During my interview with him, he commented, “Well tougher sentences may be. Tougher sentences can work; a lot of corrupt people get away in this country.” P 2 further opined that the sentences should not be limited to serving time as an alternative. When asked during the interview if these sentences should be solely mandatory prison sentences, he responded, “No, not necessarily mandatory sentences.”

P 3 thought that an alternative to an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers was a reform in Jamaica's justice system, which aims to complete trials in the courts much faster. His response suggests that there were corruption cases before the Jamaican courts that took long periods to be tried and finalized. According to him, reforming the justice system was needed, because there was a tendency for corruption cases to move slowly in the Jamaican courts. P2 shared this remark during my collection of the data:

I think that one of the things we need to get or sorted out is our justice system.

Our justice system needs to be fast-tracked, and we need to have cases come to the forefront and dealt with quickly.

To support this point, he further commented on the experiences of people in the Jamaican courts, “I mean when you have witnesses who I mean going to court every day, every time. When the case calls up, they get new dates as the cases are thrown off, thrown off.”

Based on her response, P 5 thought that more transparency in government was an option in terms of strengthening Jamaica’s anticorruption policy. This meant for her, there should be more information on governmental transactions shared with the Jamaican citizenry. During the focus group interview, she made the following remarks, “Well instead of the independent anticorruption agency, they could have a policy that says that government should do publicly everything that they do so that transparency or there should be more better transparency be seen.” In addition, she conceptualized that a law should exist, which would make government obliged to share information. P 5 thought that failure to observe this law should result in some kind of action taken when she shared:

... so a law should be passed .... if the government is giving out a contract and we don’t know about it, a law is going to say that we should have known about it and if we do not know about it, then something can be done.

During the focus group interview, P 6 also responded to this question. He felt that a starting point was needed where specific principles are taught to the Jamaican people, “It must be the beginning of a new beginning, a new beginning where the teaching and the principles of, the principles of who we are must be our motto.” When I asked him what these principles were he responded: “What are the rights and wrongs, the dos, and don’ts must not only be accepted when it is convenient but must be the reality that guides

us always.” Actually, he opined that the Jamaican people should be taught about rightful actions and wrongful actions, and they should practice rightful actions only, regardless of the situation or occasion.

P 7 shared two views. First, she agreed with P 2 that tougher penalties should go against persons convicted for corruption as a legal intervention when she remarked, “Well for me, I think more stringent penalties should be given to those found guilty.” Another sentiment she expressed was, “There should be more campaigns to educate citizens on the damaging effects of corruption on society . . . More use of the media could be used in reminding the public of the penalties of corruption”. By making these remarks, P 7 meant that there a role for the government and the media in Jamaica to play in terms of anticorruption efforts. First, the government with support from the media should educate the Jamaican public about the ill-effects of corruption, as a social intervention. Second, the media should inform the public of Jamaican frequently about the punishment for corrupt practices in Jamaica.

Like P 2 and P 7, P 10 also held the view that tougher penalties made sense, but emphasized that convicted persons return what they received corruptly, or pay more than what they received. She made this comment “Maybe stiffer penalties could be used or ask people to pay back what they took with interest or return more than what they got.” To P 10, the punishment for corruption in Jamaica should send a strong message to people within its territorial space, that they should not practice corruption.

Unlike the participants who believed that social and legal interventions were alternatives that could strengthen Jamaica’s anticorruption policy, P 8 had a different

view. He thought that polygraphing current employees in Jamaica's anticorruption agencies was an alternative. According to P 8, the polygraphing of these individuals should be an organizational policy, which determines their status of employment. He mentioned that this alternative was used by a law enforcement agency in Jamaica, and that the idea be given serious consideration:

My proposal is to use the polygraph test to the fullest extent. It has been proposed that in order for a police officer to be promoted they would have to undergo a polygraph test. The new Firearm Licensing Authority board are people of very high integrity and it is been proposed to polygraph them. I see no reason why people with criminal intent should not undergo a similar test using this lie detector machine to solve a lot of our corruption problems.

This response from P 8 is an outlier in the data that I collected for this study.

#### **Theme 4: Support and Greater Success**

To answer the last research question for this study, I asked the participants what were their perspectives on a collaborating with the Jamaican government and civil society in Jamaica in order to achieve an effective anticorruption for Jamaica. The responses from most participants indicated that they thought a collaboration was a good idea, and it could make a difference in relation to Jamaica's anticorruption efforts.

During my interview with P1, it appeared as if he appreciated the concept of all societal actors in Jamaica working together to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. He expressed support for the initiative when he made this comment, "Well I think this could be a welcomed move, . . . we are all stakeholders within the society, and

if we are given the mandate to join with these people, we would definitely take it.” He also thought that conditions for doing business in Jamaica might be better, if there was this kind of collaboration when he expressed, “We want a business environment in which we are free to do business, and business people are some of the people who are most affected by corruption.”

For P 2, a collaboration represented people in Jamaica taking a united stance against corruption. In his opinion, failure in terms of curbing corruption was inevitable, if there was no unity amongst societal actors. He showed support for a collaboration amongst all societal actors in Jamaica when he commented, “I have no problem working together because everything will fall apart. You can’t have one side pushing and the other side pulling, we won’t reach anywhere, everybody has to come together.” P 2 supposed that a collaboration could also help to improve Jamaica’s justice system when he remarked “I think a collaboration is needed to modernize our justice system,” The sentiments expressed in this paragraph by P 2 shows that he was in support of the idea to have a collaboration amongst all societal actors in Jamaica.

In addition to the support he expressed for a collaboration, P 3 held firmly the belief that a collaboration was vital, for Jamaica to experience an effective anticorruption policy. During my interview with him, he made this known by sharing “Everybody has to play their part. I mean the government, the private sector, the public. I mean it has to be a holistic approach . . . I mean everybody.” For P 3, each of these societal actors has a role to play in Jamaica’s anticorruption efforts. He specified how each societal actor should play its role when he shared:

. . . who have to give the statement, who have to give the evidence, so it's a holistic approach, the government has to provide certain things so that the cases can be done, the private sector has to play its part, so it's a holistic thing.

During my interview with P 4, he expressed support for a collaboration. However, he had concerns about its sustenance if there was no trust amongst the societal actors. For him, trust shared and sustained amongst all societal actors was a key requirement for this collaboration when he shared this view, “. . . it would be good if everybody come together, yes, but at the same time you have trust deficit after.” He also thought that if the societal actors begin a collaboration, but the collaboration had no clear sense of purpose, the societal actors might end it when he commented, “. . . we come together and we say ok, here is it, and you might have some people pull back after a while, some people cannot be bothered.”

P 5 also supported the idea of a having a collaboration amongst all societal actors in Jamaica when she expressed, “The three groups should cooperate to stop the corruption in the society.” She conceptualized that the three societal actors establish a monitoring committee with an aim to aid anticorruption agencies and the Director of Public Prosecution in Jamaica. She also opined that this monitoring committee could report suspected corruption to the anticorruption agencies, for careful assessment. She believed that on the basis of their assessment, the agencies should make referrals for prosecution. In her estimation, this practice could lead to Jamaica achieving an effective anticorruption policy. During the focus group interview she shared these comments:



Maybe a group . . . made up of the three groups of people . . . they could be given the opportunity to carry out investigation into anything . . . consider as corruption . . . that group will carry out their own investigation . . . the anticorruption agency would then look over it and then refer it to the DPP's office.

In addition to showing support for a collaboration amongst societal actors in Jamaica, P 7 seemed optimistic that a collaboration could help to stem corruption in Jamaica when she made this comment, "I strongly believe working together with the government and civil society would put a leash on corruption." From her point of view, the business community in Jamaica could contribute in different ways for Jamaica to achieve an effective anticorruption policy. First, she thought that the Jamaican business community should provide cash to secure resources for stemming corruption. Second, the Jamaican business community could establish a mechanism to help those who wish to offer information on corrupt persons in Jamaica. I derived this interpretation when she commented, "The business community could make monetary contributions to acquire the necessary resources for fighting corruption. They could use their status to influence people in coming forward with information."

During the focus group interview, P 9 also expressed support for a collaboration amongst all societal actors. He thought that a collaboration could enable Jamaica to achieve an effective anticorruption policy. To him, a collaboration meant that all societal actors would then have one aim and a common understanding, which is working towards Jamaica experiencing an effective anticorruption policy. He appeared somewhat confident about this outcome if there was a collaboration when he shared:

. . . if you have the collaboration, what you find happen is that everybody is going to be on the same hymn sheet and everybody singing from the same hymn sheet. So you don't find one man singing bass, and one man singing tenor, and one singing something else. Everybody would be trying to resolve one objective.

. . .

During the focus group interview, P 10 thought that a collaboration amongst all societal actors could be a means of reducing corruption in Jamaica at a quicker pace when she remarked "You find that if everybody pools their heads to try to get it done, it would be more successful, done at a faster rate and all those kinds of things." She also opined that a collaboration amongst all societal actors could result in the creation of a more business-friendly environment in Jamaica, and possibly result in a reduction of corruption in Jamaica. During the focus group interview she made this comment:

So I believe if we work together it will make . . . it would make Jamaica to be a business-friendly country. This would lead us or make us get corruption down. It is difficult for us to do business when corruption is up."

Like some of the participants, P 11 showed some level of optimism about the usefulness of a collaboration amongst all societal actors. During my interview with him, he expressed the view that a collaboration might help Jamaica to attain an effective anticorruption policy. For him, a collaboration meant an opportunity for increased exposure of corrupt practices and corrupt individuals wherever in Jamaica when he shared, "I believe that one of the problems with corruption in Jamaica, is secrecy and with this collaboration, we will eliminate this secrecy totally." From his standpoint, a

collaboration, which included the use of the media in Jamaica could contribute to the increased exposure needed to reduce corruption in Jamaica when he made this comment, “. . . that would have the media involved. What we would really have is this sort of a watchdog approach and I believe that this would make a great difference.”

#### **Summary of Chapter 4**

In this chapter, I presented the results of this study. The primary purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica’s anticorruption policy. Three research questions were used for guidance and direction in this study. I used interviewing as the sole data collection instrument. Eleven business owners in Jamaica provided data for analysis. I used the thematic analysis strategy to analyze the data that I collected. My analysis of the data yielded four broad themes: likely improvement in some social benefits, possible challenges, social and legal interventions, and support and greater success.

I interpreted the broad themes presented as findings in this chapter to communicate their meanings. These broad themes were interpreted to enable readers of this manuscript to understand them in a better way. I presented verbatim quotes from the interview transcripts to support my interpretations. A minimum of two verbatim quotes was presented to support each of these interpretations.

In this chapter, I detailed the strategies that I employed to establish trustworthiness in this study. The strategies that were employed to establish

trustworthiness are (a) audit trailing, (b) member checking, (c) peer debriefing, (d) prolonged engagement, (e) reflexivity, and (f) triangulation. Two lecturers in the field of Educational Research employed to a tertiary institution in Jamaica served as peer debriefers in this study. Furthermore, in this chapter, I described the demographics of participants who contributed data to this study. In the next chapter in this manuscript, there is a discussion of the findings with current research literature.

## Chapter 5: Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations

### **Introduction**

In a historical context, corruption as a sociocultural practice in Jamaica has been an ongoing phenomenon for more than 20 years (Transparency International, 2016a; Transparency, 2017). After conducting research on corruption in Jamaica, Osei (2007) reported that since the 1990s, the government in Jamaica has tried in different ways to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy in order to curb corruption. Past research by Phillips (2012) identified factors contributing to the inability to reduce corruption as a sociocultural phenomenon in Jamaica. Some of these factors include lack of political will, undermining of the country's anticorruption policy by Jamaican public officials, the country's current political model, and a weak judicial system (Phillips, 2012).

Despite the number of measures undertaken by the Jamaican government in the past few decades to control corruption in Jamaica, it appears as if corruption persists at perceived intolerable levels (Bogicevic, 2012; National Integrity Action, 2016) even though Jamaica has three anticorruption institutions supported by various anticorruption laws (National Integrity Action, 2016). Recent inquiries have indicated that corruption in Jamaica has negatively affected businesses and by extension the country's economy (Nugent & Schmid, 2014; Stanfill et al., 2016). In fact, the results of research conducted by Bogicevic (2012) and Boxhill et al. (2007) revealed that corruption in Jamaica has contaminated its electoral system and some of the country's public institutions.

Annual research conducted by Transparency International since 1995, also suggests that Jamaica's anticorruption policy appears to be ineffective (Transparency

International, 2016a, 2017). Transparency International (2016b) uses surveys that measure perceived and actual occurrences of corruption. Based on the findings from these surveys, countries are awarded scores on a scale ranging from 0 to 100 (Transparency International, 2016b). This scale is known better as Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index. On this scale, countries earning score close to 100 are perceived to be not corrupt, but those receiving scores close 0 are viewed as very corrupt (Transparency International, 2016b). From 1995, the year when Transparency International was established and until the year 2016, Jamaica has never earned a score higher than 0.41 (National Integrity Action, 2016). For the years 2015 and 2016, it received scores of 0.41 and 0.39 respectively (National Integrity Action, 2016; Transparency International 2017).

To strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy, the National Integrity Action (a Jamaican based civil society group) proposed the implementation of an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica (Christie, 2012). There are three anticorruption institutions in Jamaica. All three anticorruption institutions have investigative powers but have no authority to prosecute individuals suspected of involvement in corrupt practices (Christie, 2012). The present Jamaican government has proposed a merger of all three bodies into a single anticorruption agency, but with the power to investigate corrupt practices and limited power to prosecute such incidents (Henry, 2017). According to the Jamaican government, all prosecutions for corrupt practices in Jamaica must be approved by the country's prosecution director (Christie, 2017; Rhooms, 2017). An implication of this proposal is that this agency will

not have independence nor full authority to prosecute persons suspected of being involved in corrupt practices (Christie, 2017; Rhooms, 2017).

Based on my literature search, it appears as if most of the research on strengthening anticorruption policies has been done on countries outside the Caribbean (the territory in which Jamaica belongs). From their study, Waller et al. (2007) recommended further research to identify ways for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. It was documented in the research literature that in the past few years, the business community in Morocco had contributed to the strengthening of that country's anticorruption policy (Maghraoui, 2012). From research findings, Parnini (2013) argued that for a country to experience an effective anticorruption policy, a collaboration is needed amongst all three societal actors (government, business community, and civil society).

I mentioned earlier in this section that the National Integrity Action proposed the implementation of an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Therefore, in this phenomenological study, I sought to fill a gap in the literature in terms of perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on this proposal. I also sought their perspectives on alternatives to this proposal that could be considered to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. In addition, I aimed at gaining their perspectives on a collaboration amongst the three Jamaican societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. The goal of this inquiry was to understand all of these perspectives.

To ensure successful execution of this study, I formulated three research questions for guidance and direction. These questions were answered through semistructured interviews with 11 persons who owned businesses in Jamaica using formats such as individual interviewing and focus group interviewing. Five individual interviews and one focus group interview provided data for this study. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for data analysis. I conducted the data analysis manually with the support of Microsoft Word and matrices.

I analyzed the data collected from the interviews thematically with support from Creswell's (2009) bottom-up approach. According to Creswell, the analysis of qualitative data to derive broad themes as findings is an iterative process. To derive broad themes associated with different parts of the collected data, I first read the interview transcripts multiple times for familiarity. Second, I performed initial coding, also known as open coding, which derived a number of specific themes. To be specific, verbatim quotes that connected with the research questions were highlighted along with these specific themes. I then performed axial coding, which is grouping related specific themes into broad themes. Grouping the related specific themes eventually derived four broad themes. During this iterative process, specific themes and broad themes were reviewed and refined, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). As key findings, the broad themes were presented and interpreted in the fourth chapter of this manuscript. In the next section of this chapter, I present a summary of these key findings.



### **Summary of Key Findings**

I identified four broad themes as key findings from the data analysis in this study. The broad themes answered the research questions for this study. The first research question sought perspectives from the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Two broad themes that emerged from the data analysis and connected with the first research question for this study are likely improvement in some social benefits and possible challenges. A social benefit is a situation or condition that is beneficial to a society, resulting from a direct or indirect action performed by an individual or group of individuals (Brooks & Hwong, 2006; Singer, 2003). Examples of the social benefits described in the data are (a) more investor confidence, (b) improved economic conditions, (c) improved social image, and (d) reduction in corruption.

Some participants in this study thought that an independent agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy could face challenges. Some of these challenges are (a) the influence of corruption on agency's employees, (b) lack of public support, (c) lack of support from legislators, and (d) undermining of the agency by the government.

The second research question for the study attempted to gain perspective from the study's participants on other alternatives that could strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. A broad theme that emerged from the data analysis and connects with this research question is social and legal interventions. A social intervention is a program initiated by a government or nongovernmental organization to improve the social well-

being of its people. A social intervention that emerged from the data analysis was the use of public education. A legal intervention is a response from government in the form of legislation or court action to a public issue. As legal interventions, participants thought that legislating harsher penalties for corruption and enhancing transparency in governmental transactions could be considered as other alternatives.

The third and final research question sought perspectives from the participants on a collaboration amongst all three societal actors in Jamaica for the purpose of achieving an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. The data garnered for this research question yielded varied results when analyzed. The results showed that most participants support the idea of a collaboration. Some participants even thought that a collaboration might bring greater success in terms of curbing corruption, thus making Jamaica's anticorruption policy more effective. In the next section of this manuscript, I present a comparison of the findings of this study, with those from peer-reviewed studies highlighted in its second chapter.

Table 5

*Answers to the Research Questions*

Research Questions	Themes
1. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on a single independent anticorruption agency with prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?	Likely improvement in some social benefits Possible challenges
2. Other than a single independent anticorruption agency having both prosecutorial and investigative powers, what alternatives does the Jamaican business community perceive that could strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?	Social and legal interventions
3. What are the Jamaican business community's perspectives on collaborating with other local societal actors to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica?	Support and greater success

**Interpretation of Findings**

In this section, I present a comparative discussion of this study's findings with the literature reviewed in the second chapter of this manuscript. It should be noted that most literature reviewed in that chapter focused on countries outside the Caribbean. The Caribbean is the territory where Jamaica belongs. Readers of this manuscript should be reminded that the table in the previous section includes the questions that this study sought answers for and broad themes, which emerged from the data analysis as findings.

### **Research Question 1**

**Likely improvement in some social benefits.** A finding from this investigation was that some members of the Jamaican business community thought Jamaica could enjoy an improvement in some social benefits if it had an independent anticorruption agency with both powers to investigate and prosecute corruption. For example, based on the responses given during interviewing, some business owners seemed convinced that an agency of this nature could gain trust, confidence, and support amongst a number of Jamaican residents. A social benefit is a condition or situation that is beneficial to a society, resulting directly or indirectly from the action of an individual or a group of individuals (Brooks & Hwong, 2006; Singer, 2003).

The research literature complements this position as Budak and Rahj (2012) reported that a few years ago in Croatia, some of its residents did not believe in reporting corruption since they did not trust that country's anticorruption institutions. In addition, Persson et al. (2013) also found from their study that a similar situation occurred in Kenya and Uganda. The findings from these two studies suggest that confidence and trust are two critical requirements for people to support anticorruption institutions.

Further, the independence of an anticorruption agency in Jamaica seems to be a matter of importance. A finding from this study suggests that for an anticorruption agency in Jamaica to gain confidence and trust, its employees should not be appointed by a government nor its affiliates. Appointments by a government or its affiliates could mean perceived or realistic ties between employees of the anticorruption agency and government members. The finding also suggests that close ties between employees of the

anticorruption agency and government members could possibly lead to perceived political interference. If there is actual political interference in the work of an independent anticorruption agency, chances are that it may become ineffective in terms of its anticorruption efforts. This point could be considered consistent with the research literature, as Singh (2016) discovered in the recent past that the ineffectiveness of Afghanistan anticorruption efforts was because of political interference. To support this point, research by Ugoani (2016) indicated that in the recent past, Nigeria's anticorruption efforts were also hampered by political interference.

As another finding for this study, some business owners thought there could be improved economic conditions in Jamaica if it had an independent anticorruption agency with full investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen its anticorruption policy. In a specific sense, some participants had the view that the implementation of such an agency could yield more investor confidence, more business investment, and increased production of certain goods. It could be assumed that they formulated this opinion on the basis that such an agency might curb corruption to a greater extent in Jamaica. This finding connects with what the research literature reveals, in the context that some countries such as Philippines, Nigeria, and others in Africa have all experienced a decline in economic conditions, because of failure to curb corruption (Abotsi, 2015; Dela Rama, 2012; Nwankwo, 2014 ). Further, in their study, Vorley and Williams (2015) found that an abundance of corruption in Bulgaria and Romania hampered investor confidence. On the contrary, the research literature indicates that there are some countries which enjoyed

both effective anticorruption policies and strong economic conditions, for example, Singapore and Honk Kong (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2012; Quah, 2014).

Another social benefit identified from the data analysis for this study was a likely improvement in Jamaica's social image by the global corruption watchdog Transparency International. This finding emerged from the data analysis as a perceived advantage if Jamaica had an independent anticorruption agency granted powers to investigate and prosecute corrupt persons. This finding is consistent with the literature, as the literature shows that countries such as Denmark, Finland, Hong Kong, Singapore and New Zealand have been perceived in past years as having a positive social image, because of their ability to keep corruption under control (Brewer, Leung, & Scott, 2014; Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013a; Quah, 2014). It should be noted too that these countries enjoyed effective anticorruption policies (Gong & Wang, 2013; Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013a; Quah, 2014).

In addition to a likely improvement in Jamaica's social image as a social benefit, another finding from this study was some participants thought that an independent anticorruption agency in Jamaica with investigative and prosecutorial powers could further curb corruption. In other words, these individuals had the view that an agency in Jamaica with these functions could control corruption in Jamaica. This discovery is complementary with information in current research literature, which indicates that countries such as Hong Kong, Indonesia, and Singapore, have all successfully kept corruption under control (Gong & Wang 2013; Partohap & Pradiptyo, 2015; Quah 2014). To be specific, according to past research, these countries realized this kind of success

after they established independent anticorruption agencies (Gong & Wang 2013; Quah 2014).

**Challenges that the agency could experience.** Although the business owners thought that the implementation of an independent anticorruption agency could result in some improved social benefits for the Jamaican society, they also had the view that it is possible that the agency experiences some challenges. One possible challenge was a lack of public support on the basis of inadequate trust. With regards to the research literature on anticorruption agencies, it shows that challenges experienced by anticorruption institutions are nothing new (Appiah et al., 2014; Budak & Rahj, 2012; Dada, 2014; Guo & Songfeng, 2015; Persson et al., 2013). As indicated earlier in this manuscript, a lack of public support for anticorruption institutions in Croatia, Kenya, and Uganda has been documented in the research literature (Budak & Rahj, 2012; Persson et al., 2013). Therefore, it can be concluded that trust is a prerequisite for anticorruption institutions to receive public support.

Another possible challenge that participants in this study thought, was a lack of support from the Jamaican government. Some business owners had the view that the Jamaican government might undermine the proposed agency, by not providing it with the necessary resources required to do its work effectively. Information in the research literature shows that there are independent anticorruption agencies that have experienced a similar challenge (Appiah et al., 2014). In their study, Appiah et al. found that there were multiple anticorruption institutions in Ghana, but these anticorruption institutions failed to receive the necessary budgetary support from that country's government. On the

other hand, Mao, Wong, and Peng (2013) discovered that support from Hong Kong's government towards that country's anticorruption agency was a factor, which contributed to the effectiveness of its anticorruption policy. These findings suggest that for anticorruption agencies to fulfill their mandates, they should acquire the necessary resources needed to do their work efficiently and effectively.

Interestingly, during the data collection for this study, some participants shared the view that law enforcement agents employed to an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica could overtime become corrupt, thus failing to perform their duties professionally. It is known from research that there are intrinsic and extrinsic factors that can influence people to become corrupt (Roman, 2014). It is also known that there has been support for corruption in some countries, which has influenced people entrusted with public power to do corrupt acts (Anduiza, Gallego & Munoz, 2013; Weschle, 2016). One could argue that great care should be exercised when selecting potential agents for employment to an anticorruption agency. In addition to this point, measures should be implemented to refrain them from engaging in corrupt practices, if employed. To support this view, it has been documented in the research literature that in the past, government in Singapore implemented measures, for example, a training program for its police personnel to prevent them from engaging in corrupt acts (Quah, 2014).

Another viewpoint shared during data collection was the possible lack of seriousness on the part of Jamaican lawmakers. This viewpoint was made on the basis of Jamaican lawmakers' failure to reduce corrupt practices effectively, despite talking



repetitively about the need to curb corruption in Jamaica's parliament. The lack of seriousness or political will to curb corruption has been observed in the research literature (Ugoani, 2016; Nwankwo, 2014). In the past, government in Nigeria has been accused of not implementing anticorruption measures seriously in that country, despite making pledges to do so (Ugoani, 2016; Nwankwo, 2014). In contrast to this observation, past research has indicated that a strong political will contributed to the effective curbing of corruption in countries such as Finland, Hong Kong and Singapore (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2014; Salimen, 2013). A lesson learned from these findings is that on occasions, some governments are serious about making anticorruption initiatives work, whilst others are not.

### **Research Question 2**

**Social and legal interventions as alternatives.** Evidence in the data collected for this study pinpoints that its participants had the view that both social and legal interventions could be considered as alternatives for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Some of the participants believed that educating the Jamaican citizenry was an option. Educating people as an intervention to deter people in different societies from corruption involvement has been documented in the literature (Berlie, 2012). In fact, Berlie revealed that as a country, East Timor used this as a strategy to prevent or reduce incidents of corrupt practices within its borders. Additionally, Gong and Wang, 2013 found that Hong Kong's independent anticorruption agency used public education and training to desist people in that country from practicing corrupt acts.

As a finding from this study, another social intervention that some participants thought that could be used to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy was improving the country's justice system in the context of speedier corruption trials. Based on this finding, one might make the assumption that Jamaica's justice system is ineffective in terms of aiding Jamaica's anticorruption efforts. This finding relates to earlier research, which revealed that Swaziland as a country in the past, experienced an ineffective justice system, which contributed to the failure of its anticorruption efforts (Hope, 2016).

Moreover, the view that an improved justice system is needed in Jamaica should be taken seriously. This view suggests a lack of confidence in Jamaica's justice system to deliver justice in the context of corruption cases, which if shared by many people inside and outside Jamaica has social and economic implications (Philips, 1975). Although the literature discussed in the second chapter of this manuscript highlighted the reformation of Morocco's justice system as a means of strengthening its anticorruption policy (Maghraoui, 2012), in a specific way Chan (2014) revealed that Indonesia implemented specialized anticorruption courts to strengthen its anticorruption policy. One might assume that the implementation of this kind of court in Indonesia was also done to improve its justice system for greater efficiency and effectiveness in the context of dealing with corruption cases.

Some participants in this study shared that varied anticorruption laws could be considered as alternatives for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. As legal interventions, these anticorruption laws should require the full disclosure of all public transactions, and impose harsher penalties for corruption involvement, The full disclosure

of all public transactions could be perceived as means of enhancing transparency in the context of public transactions, something that Morocco and Japan did in the past as a strategy for controlling corruption (Maghraoui, 2012; Oyamada, 2015). Transparency seems to be a means of keeping persons entrusted with public power in check through public awareness or public access to information.

Researchers have documented that harsher penalties were introduced in China and Morocco in recent years for corruption involvement (Guo & Songfeng, 2015; Maghraoui, 2012). In addition to a law promoting transparency or full disclosure with regards to all public transactions, a legal intervention that some participants in this study thought could make Jamaica' anticorruption policy much stronger was the legislation of harsher penalties for corrupt acts. Harsher penalties for corrupt acts is a way of sending a message to people that the punishment for such acts is not light. In addition, harsher penalties for corrupt acts could be regarded as giving people in a society two options; do not practice corrupt acts or prepare to face tough punishment for involvement in corrupt acts. Nevertheless, it should be noted that although China implemented harsher penalties for corruption involvement in recent years, it experienced difficulties to control corruption to some extent (Guo & Songfeng, 2015).

### **Research Question 3**

**Support for societal collaboration.** Participants in this study expressed support for the idea of a collaboration amongst all societal actors within Jamaica to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica. Some of the participants thought that a societal collaboration represented a vehicle for curbing corruption in Jamaica, which

could lead to the achievement of a favorable business environment. Furthermore, participants expressed the view that a collaboration amongst all societal actors represented a vehicle for reforming Jamaica's justice system. I mentioned earlier in this chapter that a finding from this study suggested a need for improving Jamaica's justice system in the context of completing court trials speedily. The delays in the completion of court trials were thought to be a contributory factor for ineffective corruption control in Jamaica. Literature has indicated that in the past, the business community in Morocco collaborated with the government and the civil society to reform the country's justice system achieve effective control corruption (Maghraoui, 2012).

The research literature on societal collaboration against corruption shows that this practice is nothing new as Mungiu-Pippidi and Dusu (2011) found that a group of societal actors in Romania collaborated to ensure that universities in that country, observe and practice ethical principles. According to Mungiu-Pippidi and Dusu, the group played an active role to ensure that most of these institutions observe and practice ethical principles. Furthermore, Poocharoen (2014) found that a societal collaboration against corruption in Finland led to societal actors playing different roles in terms of curbing corruption. Similarly, in this study, some participants thought that a societal collaboration meant specific and active roles for each societal actor, in terms of curbing corruption in Jamaica.

It appears as if a societal collaboration was something symbolic to some participants in this study. To these participants, a societal collaboration represents a united force against corruption in Jamaica but required trust and cooperation amongst all

societal actors who wish to be a part of that collaboration. Moreover, according to a view shared during my data collection, a societal collaboration in Jamaica to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica made sense; but only a societal collaboration that is meaningful. Another finding from this study revealed that a societal collaboration against corruption in Jamaica should involve the media for exposure of corrupt individuals. The exposure of corrupt individuals has been done in Singapore (Quah, 2014).

**Greater success in controlling corruption in Jamaica.** According to the literature, there are countries with anticorruption policies that have enjoyed success in terms of control of corruption. Therefore, it can be argued that they have achieved effective anticorruption policies. In contrast, literature has revealed that Jamaica's anticorruption policy appears to be ineffective (Phillips 2012; Transparency International, 2017). Participants in this study opined that a collaboration amongst societal actors in Jamaica against corruption might result in greater corruption control. This finding is supported by a result from Mungiu-Pippidi's (2013b) study, which suggested that an association existed between a greater number of groups within civil society coalitions and corruption control in some countries. The views from participants that societal collaboration could derive greater success in controlling corruption in Jamaica, thus making its anticorruption policy effective may be because of two reasons. First, the sharing of ideas and second, the sharing of resources; all which might lead to Jamaica achieving effective anticorruption control as a desirable outcome.

### **Interpretation of Findings in the Context of the Theoretical Frameworks**

I used two theoretical frameworks in this qualitative study. A reason for including theoretical frameworks in qualitative studies is to give readers an understanding of the issue under investigation (Creswell, Hanson, Clark Plano, & Morales, 2007; Kelly, 2009). The first of the two theoretical frameworks is the principal-agent theory. I included the principal-agent theory to provide readers of this manuscript an understanding of the importance and relevance of perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on a concept, which I investigated. The concept was strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy, or make it more effective with the establishment of an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers. I also investigated the alternatives they perceived that could be used to for the same purpose. Furthermore, I sought their perspectives on the idea of a collaboration amongst all three societal actors in Jamaica, to achieve an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica.

The principal-agent theory is based on these two concepts: an agent serving the interest of his or her principal, and the same agent taking the necessary corrective action to preserve that interest (Forgues-Puccio, 2012, Srivastava, 2014; Walton, & Jones, 2017).). These concepts can be applied to a system of governance in the context of policymaking (Srivastava, 2014; Walton, & Jones, 2017). In the context of policymaking, an implication is that government in a society is an agent for its constituents who are the principals, and government must implement policies that serve the interest of its constituents (Forgues-Puccio, 2012; Srivastava, 2014; Walton & Jones, 2017).

Responses from participants in this study indicated that if the government of Jamaica as an agent implemented an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers there could be an improvement in social benefits for its constituents. A social benefit is something that benefits everyone in a society as a result of an action performed by at least one person. In this study, I also sought perspectives from its participants in terms of alternatives that could be used to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. According to the participants as constituents, the government of Jamaica as their agent could consider social interventions and legal interventions in order to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Strengthening an anticorruption policy is an example of a government taking the necessary corrective action to preserve the interest of constituents in a society (Forgues-Puccio, 2012; Srivastava, 2014; Walton & Jones, 2017).

The other theoretical framework, which I included in this study is the advocacy coalition framework. The advocacy coalition framework assumes that policy actors in a society are likely to form coalitions if they share similar beliefs on an issue (Cisneros, 2017; Sabatier & Weible, 2012; Weible & Sabatier, 2010). In this study, the participants as members from Jamaica's business community shared the view that a societal collaboration could make a difference in Jamaica, in terms of corruption control within its territories. Based on the advocacy coalition framework, one may assume that if all societal actors are serious about curbing corruption in Jamaica, it is possible to see a societal collaboration in Jamaica against corruption.

### **Limitations of the Study**

This qualitative study incurred some limitations. One limitation of this qualitative study was that the sample of participants did not include owners of large-sized businesses in Jamaica. The population of interest might have been too specific because at the time of data collection it had no members that owned large-sized businesses. Only persons owning micro-sized, small-sized, and medium-sized businesses contributed data for this study. The population of interest was an organization comprising of and representing some members of the Jamaican business community in a particular Jamaican territory.

A limitation too was that I only executed intra-coding during the data analysis for this study and not inter-coding. In the context of research, inter-coding occurs when two or more persons code all of the data gathered for a qualitative study (Johnson, 2006; Van den Hoonaard, 2008). I did not achieve inter-coding because of the concurrent collection and analysis of data gathered from the first four in-depth interviews, The times between these interviews did not allow me to execute inter-coding. The participants for these interviews specified the times when they were available to make their contributions.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

My decision to investigate perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy was based on multiple reasons. First, annual research by Transparency International suggests that Jamaica's anticorruption policy is ineffective (Transparency International, 2016a; Transparency International, 2017). Second, it was recommended by Waller et al (2007) that further research be done to make Jamaica's



anticorruption policy more effective. Third, according to literature, the National Integrity Action has advocated that the government of Jamaica establish an independent anticorruption agency to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy (Christie, 2012). Fourth and last, at least one study has revealed that the business community in Morocco contributed in an active way towards strengthening that country's anticorruption policy (Maghraoui, 2012).

In this study, I used a qualitative exploratory design to answer its research questions. Although qualitative exploratory studies do not provide any conclusive evidence about a phenomenon, they can generate variables as findings for future inquiries (Labaree, 2009b; Ozgen, 2012; Sparks, 2013). Moreover, this study derived a few findings. Based on these findings, I provide some recommendations for further research. Findings from these studies could guide the designing or redesigning of specific public policies in Jamaica especially its own anticorruption policy.

First, it was discovered that some members of the Jamaican business community opined that the establishment of an independent anticorruption agency in Jamaica might yield an improvement in various social benefits. These social benefits were an improved social image, more investor confidence, a rise in productivity, and more effective corruption control. As variables, these social benefits present an opportunity for researchers to conduct inquiries such as surveys and correlational studies. For example, a survey could be done to determine what portion of the Jamaican population think that an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers might improve Jamaica's social image. Researchers could also survey the Jamaican

public to gain their opinions on whether an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers can enhance investor confidence in Jamaica.

Researchers interested in correlation investigations could over time determine whether an association exists between effective corruption control and Jamaica's employment rate.

Second, literature has revealed that there are anticorruption institutions in some countries, which have experienced challenges (Appiah et al., 2014; Budak & Rahj, 2012; Dada, 2014). In this study, I discovered that there are business owners in Jamaica who opined that an independent anticorruption agency with investigative and prosecutorial powers established in Jamaica might experience different kinds of challenges. The fact that Jamaica's anticorruption policy appears to be ineffective (Transparency International, 2017), gives researchers an opportunity to explore and understand if possible, the challenges experienced by Jamaica's present anticorruption institutions. Successful research on this issue would contribute to the research literature on challenges experienced by anticorruption institutions.

Third, in this study I discovered that there are members of the Jamaican business community who shared the view that both social and legal interventions can be considered as alternatives to an independent anticorruption with both prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Current research literature shows that both the government of Singapore and Hong Kong's independent anticorruption agency have used social intervention programs to support their anticorruption policies (Gong & Wang, 2013; Quah, 2014). In this study, some of the participants believed that public education and a reformation of Jamaica's justice system as social interventions

were actions that could be considered to make Jamaica's anticorruption policy stronger. Quantitative researchers could gain opinions from Jamaica's population on whether these social interventions should be implemented to make Jamaica's anticorruption policy stronger.

Fourth and last, the research literature on strengthening anticorruption policies has indicated that Indonesia implemented an anticorruption court in past years as a means of strengthening its own anticorruption policy (Chan, 2014). Chan revealed that this court was regarded as a specialized court, because of the fact that it only tried corruption cases. Researchers can conduct a survey, which aims to get opinions from Jamaica's population, as to whether a specialized anticorruption court established in Jamaica could control corruption in Jamaica.

### **Implications for Positive Social Change**

This investigation gave some members of the Jamaican business community an opportunity to share their perspectives on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. As a societal actor in Jamaica, these business owners thought that corruption control in Jamaica could be greater if there was a collaboration amongst all of its societal actors. If a societal collaboration against corruption is initiated in Jamaica, this represents a chance for the Jamaican government to engage and work together with civil society and business community in a meaningful way to desist more Jamaican residents from involving in corrupt activities.

It is my intention to share the findings from this study with all societal actors in Jamaica through approved publication and direct communication. The first major finding from this study was that some members of the Jamaican business community thought the establishment of an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers in Jamaica might improve social benefits for Jamaican society in different contexts. Two contexts that emerged from the data analysis were an improvement in both employment and investor confidence. An interpretation of this finding is that the inability to control corruption in Jamaica might be depriving it an opportunity to experience improved employment and investor confidence. Current literature shows that Jamaica has been struggling to meet its desired employment rate and investor confidence as favorable economic conditions (Blake, 2015; Mayberry Investments Limited, 2017; Schmid & Malcolm, 2016). Sharing this finding might entice Jamaicans to desist from corrupt practices so that the country might experience an improvement in employment and investor confidence.

### **Recommendations for Policy**

The findings of this study will be disseminated by various means to all societal actors in Jamaica. As stated earlier in this chapter, these means are approved publication and direct communication. As suggested by previous research, there is a need to reduce corruption in Jamaica (Transparency International, 2017), which has implications for the current Jamaican government and Jamaica's anticorruption policy. To be specific, this need implies that the Jamaican government needs to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

Moreover, findings from this study offer some options that the current Jamaican government could consider to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. In addition to the option of establishing an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers, the current Jamaican government could consider social and legal interventions. These social interventions include a public education program against corruption and reformation to Jamaica's justice system, especially in relation to delays in corruption cases. Legal interventions such as the harsher penalties for corrupt practices and the provision of full disclosure of all governmental transactions in Jamaica is also worth considering.

Going forward, the Jamaican government can also consider a collaboration amongst all societal actors in Jamaica with an aim to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. A societal collaboration might result in the sharing of ideas and resources to bring about this policy's desired outcomes. A desired outcome from this policy is greater corruption control in Jamaica. According to participants in this study, the ability to control corruption in Jamaica is a requirement for the improvement and preservation of some its social benefits.

### **Conclusion**

The primary purpose of this study was to discover and understand perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Prior to this study and as a concept, the National Integrity Action, a civil society group in Jamaica proposed the establishment of an agency with these powers

to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy (Christie, 2012). The business owners who contributed perspectives on this concept, opined that there might be an improvement in different kinds of social benefits for the Jamaican society, if this kind of agency was established in Jamaica. Although they shared this opinion, they also thought there was the possibility of this kind of agency experiencing challenges; a point supported by the research literature (Appiah et al., 2014; Budak & Rahj, 2012; Dada, 2014).

Furthermore, this study also revealed that its participants did not think the only solution for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy is an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers. In fact, some participants expressed the view that social interventions and legal interventions were options worth considering. It must be emphasized too that participants thought a societal collaboration would be a useful tool for ensuring that Jamaica attains and enjoys an effective anticorruption policy. Moreover, in terms of positive social change, a societal collaboration in Jamaica against corruption could be a new phenomenon for its greater good. However, findings from this study suggest that the societal collaboration should be based on the concepts of one aim, trust, meaningfulness, and cooperation.

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## Appendix A: Invitation for Cooperation

### Sample Letter Requesting Cooperation from Community Research Partner

Community Research Partner's Name

Contact Details

Date

Dear Executive,

I am a doctoral candidate in the Public Policy and Administration program at Walden University, located in the Minnesota, United States. In order to complete this program successfully, it is required that I conduct a research. My research seeks to discover perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on a single independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Additionally, the study will explore other alternatives that are worthy of consideration to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy. The study is qualitative and exploratory in nature; consequently, I need to interview at least 12 members of your organization for actual data collection. Four additional members are required for interviewing prior to actual data collection. The following is the criteria that will be used to select these members:

1. Must be members of the Jamaican business community
2. Must own businesses within categories such as micro-sized (number of employees ranges from 1 to 9), small-sized (number of employees ranges from 10 to 49),

medium-sized (number of employees ranges from 50 to 249), and large-sized (number of employees is more than 250).

3. Must own presently own at least one business in Jamaica, for a period ranging from 0 to more than 10 years.

These interviews are to take place in a private setting, either at your organization's headquarters or at another place that is convenient and appropriate for both interviewer and interviewees. The interviews will be done face-to-face using both individual and group formats. I wish to conduct four individual interviews, and two group interviews consisting of four and eight agreed participants respectively. The individual interviews should take approximately 30 minutes or less, but the group interview should take between 60 minutes and 90 minutes. If necessary, I will conduct more individual interviews to determine the appropriate sample size for the study.

The organization's name and the participants' names will remain confidential, and will not be disclosed to other parties. Based on Walden University Institutional Review Board's policy, information collected from participants will be stored in a locked file cabinet for five years and will be subsequently destroyed by the researcher. The researcher will give agreed participants a consent form to read and sign prior to the interviews.

**Background Information:**

The purpose of this study is to discover and understand perspectives from the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency having both investigative and prosecutorial powers to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

**Procedures:**

Any person who consents to be in this research study will be asked to participate in one interview at their organization's headquarters or a venue of their choice that is convenient and appropriate for both interviewer and interviewees. Interviews will be conducted on a one-to-one basis for no more than 30 minutes or using a group format lasting for no more than 90 minutes. If participants give permission, the interviews will be audio-recorded in order to obtain accurate details for data analysis.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study:**

Participation in this research study is purely voluntary. If a member decides to participate or not to participate, this decision will not interfere with his/her present or future relations with the researcher, Walden University, or the organization of which he/she is a member. If at first you and other members of the organization agree to be included in this research study, you can all withdraw at any time afterward. Withdrawing from the study will not affect the previously mentioned relationships, or will not result in facing any penalties.

**Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:**

Risks associated with participating in this study are unknown. Participation might yield valuable information that could contribute to ongoing or future discussions on strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy.

During participation in the research study, if participants experience any anxiety or stress, they are free at any time to withdraw their participation. Participants have the right to avoid answering questions that they consider stressful, or invasive.

**Compensation:**

There is no compensation to be received because of participating in this study.

**Confidentiality:**

Privacy will be given to records of this study. In the event that reports of this study are published, there will be no inclusion of information that may lead to the possible identification of a participant. The researcher will keep all research records in a locked filing cabinet and will be the only person having possession of these records. In order to gain a better understanding of participants' perspectives on the concept to be studied, the audio recording of interviews will be done. One year after completion of the study, audiotapes used to capture information during the interviews will be destroyed.

**Contacts and Questions:**

The researcher conducting this study is Curt Brown. The researcher's advisor is Dr. Paul Rutledge. If participants should have concerns, I will address them as promptly as possible. If you have concerns relating to this letter, you may contact Curt Brown at XXX, via email XXX@XXX, or Dr. Paul Rutledge at XXX, and via email XXX@XXX. The Research Participant Advocate at Walden University is Dr. Leilani Endicott. You may call her using this telephone number XXX, or email her at XXX@.XXX if you have any concerns or queries in relation to the contents of this letter. The approval number for this study is 10-12-17-0363402 and it expires on October 11th, 2018.

If you agree to let me use your organization for conducting the interviews, please copy the attached letter of permission form and put on your organization's letterhead, complete, sign and mail to the address below:

Curt Brown,

XXX

Alternatively, you can scan the signed letter and send a copy of it to my school email

address:

XXX@XXX

Thank you as I await your decision to support my study.

Respectfully yours,

Curt Brown

Walden University Doctoral Candidate

## Appendix B: Interview Schedule and Guide for In-depth Interview and Focus Group

Date

Location

Time

Name of Interviewer

Name of Interviewees

Interview Number

**Section A:**

The interviewer greets participant/s and thank him/her/them in advance for their participation, in order to make him/her/them feel welcome. The interviewer will also explain the purpose of the interview to participant/s.

**Section B:**

The interviewer will ask interviewees the questions below.

1. What advantages do you perceive, if Jamaica has an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen its own anticorruption policy?
2. What disadvantages do you perceive, if Jamaica has an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen its own anticorruption policy?

3. Instead of an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers, what other alternatives do you think could be considered to strengthen Jamaica's anticorruption policy?
4. As, business community members, what are your views on collaborating with Jamaica's government and civil society to derive an effective anticorruption policy for Jamaica?

**Section C:**

Interviewer summarizes the interviews for clarity, confirmation, and schedule member checking date with participant/s. Interviewer thank participant/s again for their contribution.

### Appendix C: Interview Protocol

The following details represent the protocol that I used to conduct the interviews with the study's participants.

- (a) Arrange time and place with participants for conducting the interviews.
- (b) Introduction and establishing an atmosphere that is conducive for interviewing,
- (c) Ask the participants follow-up questions if needed.
- (d) If given permission, audio record the interview and document given responses.
- (e) Arrange date for member checking.
- (f) Thank participants for their participation in order to complete interview.



## Appendix D: Letter of Cooperation from Research Community Partner

Date: October 6, 2017

Dear Mr. Curt Brown

Based on the review of your letter requesting that we facilitate you in conducting a study that seeks to gain perspectives from members of the Jamaican business community on an independent anticorruption agency with both prosecutorial and investigative powers to strengthen Jamaica anticorruption policy, we are willing to provide you with support.

Your letter stated that you want our organization to assist with the recruitment process. We are willing to assist you in that regard. We recognize that participation in this study should be done on a voluntary basis and without coercion, thus we will honor that request. In addition, we are willing to permit you to conduct interviews and perform member checking activity at our offices, but at our own discretion and with the consent of participants. We also are ready to accommodate you when your study's results are available for sharing. Since the data collection activity for your study will entail interviewing only, and no observation of our resources (e.g. site, infrastructure, personnel and our organizations records), we have no immediate concerns about the data collection process.

We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change. I understand that the student will not be naming our organization in the doctoral project report that is published in Proquest or any other database. I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

.....  
(President)

## Appendix E: Debriefing Letter to Participants

Dear X,

I am grateful to you for participating in my study. My study aimed to gain perspectives from you on a concept for strengthening Jamaica's anticorruption policy. Although your identity will remain confidential, your participation is valued and may contribute to the overall process of finding an effective solution to curb, or control corruption in Jamaica. Thanks again for participating in this study.

Yours truly,

Curt Brown

Doctoral Student

Walden University