ANTI-CORRUPTION LAWS AS A PILLAR OF NATIONAL SECURITY PROTECTION: WARTIME PECULIARITIES

LAS LEYES ANTICORRUPCIÓN COMO PILAR DE LA PROTECCIÓN DE LA SEGURIDAD NACIONAL: PECULIARIDADES EN TIEMPOS DE GUERRA

Tetiana Madryha[*]
Olena Berezovska-Chmil[**]
Yuliia Kobets[***]
Valerii Bortnikov[****]
Oleksandr Panasiuk[*****]

Abstract: The analysis focuses on how anti-corruption rules ensure both national security and support it during times of war when corruption endangers stability. Our study checks if existing anti-corruption rules and institution systems help protect national security effectively. The research methods compare different anti-

[*] PhD in Political Science, associate professor, Department of Political Sciences, Faculty of History, Politology and International Relations, Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University, Ivano-Frankivsk, Ukraine. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7761-9811. tetiana_madryga@ukr.net.

[**] Candidate in political science, lecturer, Department of Political Institutions and Processes, Faculty of History, Political Science and International Relations, Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University, Ivano-Frankivsk, Ukraine. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3395-9141.

[***] Candidate in political science, associate professor, Department of Political Institutions and Processes, Faculty of History, Politology and International Relations, Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University, Ivano-Frankivsk, Ukraine. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9492-6119.

[****] Professor, Doctor of Political Science, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Lesya Ukrainka Volyn National University, Lutsk, Ukarine. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0991-4047.

[*****] PhD in History, associate professor, Department of Jurisprudence, Augustin Voloshin Carpathian University, Uzhhorod, Ukraine. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9871-3441.

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

corruption laws, including the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA), the PIF Directive (Protection of the European Union's Financial Interests Directive), and the Ukrainian national legislation. This research uses both quantitative Corruption Perception Index (CPI) measurements alongside computer-based systems to spot corruption. Our findings prove that, when governments stay separate from anti-corruption efforts and institutions support political stability combined with economic openness, it is possible to create social unity. Therefore, comparing international frameworks, especially the PIF Directive, against Ukrainian conditions can boost efforts to adapt the Ukrainian anti-corruption policy to its unique requirements. Likewise, digital technologies assist transparency according to research that shows how artificial intelligence (AI) monitoring systems and electronic systems for purchasing items help achieve this goal. On the other hand, corruption during wartime prevents the military from performing effectively while leading to wrong resource usage and losing public support. The analysis shows that nations must develop strong corruption prevention methods in hybrid conflicts to defend their security interests. The results help create anti-corruption policy suggestions for Ukraine that focus on strengthening legislation and digital platforms while preserving autonomy of anti-corruption institutions. Our findings help both experts and officials of public administration improve governance and security for both academics and policy makers. These findings indicate that researchers should inspect the long-term success of anti-corruption actions and their ability to strengthen national resistance against external danger.

Keywords: Corruption, Anti-corruption legislation, National security, Transparency, Independent anti-corruption bodies, Digital technologies, Corruption Perception Index, PIF Directive, Anti-corruption, Public administration.

Resumen: El análisis se centra en cómo las normas anticorrupción garantizan la seguridad nacional y la respaldan en tiempos de guerra, cuando la corrupción pone en peligro la estabilidad. El presente estudio examina si las normas anticorrupción y los sistemas institucionales existentes contribuyen a proteger eficazmente la seguridad nacional. Los métodos de investigación comparan diferentes leyes anticorrupción, como la Ley de Prácticas Corruptas en el Extranjero (FCPA), la Directiva PIF (Directiva de Protección de los Intereses Financieros de la Unión Europea) y la legislación nacional

ucraniana. Esta investigación utiliza mediciones cuantitativas del *Índice de Percepción de la Corrupción (IPC)* junto con sistemas informáticos para detectar la corrupción. Los hallazgos demuestran que, cuando los Gobiernos se mantienen al margen de las iniciativas anticorrupción y las instituciones apoyan la estabilidad política, combinada con la apertura económica, es posible crear unidad social. Por lo tanto, comparar los marcos internacionales, en especial la Directiva PIF, con las condiciones ucranianas se puede impulsar los esfuerzos para adaptar la política anticorrupción ucraniana a sus necesidades específicas. Asimismo, las tecnologías digitales fomentan la transparencia, según una investigación que muestra cómo los sistemas de monitorización de inteligencia artificial (IA) y los sistemas electrónicos para la compra de artículos contribuyen a lograr este objetivo. Por otro lado, la corrupción en tiempos de guerra impide el desempeño eficaz de las fuerzas armadas, a la vez que conduce al uso indebido de recursos y a la pérdida de apoyo público. El análisis muestra que las naciones deben desarrollar métodos sólidos de prevención de la corrupción en conflictos híbridos para defender sus intereses de seguridad. Los resultados contribuyen a la formulación de propuestas de políticas anticorrupción para Ucrania, centradas en el fortalecimiento de la legislación y las plataformas digitales, con lo que también se preserva la autonomía de las instituciones anticorrupción. Los hallazgos ayudan tanto a expertos como a funcionarios de la administración pública a mejorar la gobernanza y la seguridad, tanto para académicos como para legisladores. Estos hallazgos indican que los investigadores deberían examinar el éxito a largo plazo de las medidas anticorrupción y su capacidad para fortalecer la resistencia nacional ante amenazas externas.

Palabras clave: *Corrupción, Legislación anticorrupción, Seguridad nacional, Transparencia, Organismos independientes anticorrupción, Tecnologías digitales, Índice de Percepción de la Corrupción, Directiva PIF, Anticorrupción, Administración pública.*

Summary. *I. Introduction. I.1. Overview of anti-corruption concepts and theories. I.2. Historical development of anti-corruption legislation in the world. I.3. The relationship between corruption, political instability and hybrid threats. I.4. Literature review. II. Methods. III. Results and discussion. III.1. Potential challenges and risks of digitalization in the fight against corruption. III.2. Comparative analysis of anti-corruption models in different countries. III.3. Experience of countries that have undergone democratic transformation. III.4. Analysis of the effectiveness of international anti-corruption standards. IV. Conclusions. References.*

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

I. INTRODUCTION

Corruption is one of the biggest threats to modern society, undermining the foundations of governance, hindering economic development, and reducing public trust in government institutions.

I.1. Overview of anti-corruption concepts and theories

Corruption is described in the scientific literature as a multidimensional phenomenon that appears across political, economic, and social processes. Key theoretical frameworks used to analyze it include the economic theory of corruption, institutional theory, agency theory, and conflict theory. According to the economic theory of corruption (Becker and Stigler, 1974), corruption results from rational choice: individuals engage in corrupt acts when the expected benefits outweigh the risks of punishment. Institutional theory (North, 1990) attributes corruption to weak formal institutions and the absence of transparent rules. Agency theory (Rose-Ackerman, 1978) highlights the problem of information asymmetry between society (the principal) and public officials (the agents), which creates opportunities for corruption. Finally, the conflict theory approach (Le Billon, 2003) views corruption as a mechanism for resource allocation within political struggles, particularly in states with unstable power structures. These perspectives demonstrate that corruption is not a uniform phenomenon and requires a multi-faceted response.

In Ukraine, the implementation of anti-corruption legal tools during wartime calls for a recalibration of existing mechanisms to function effectively under hybrid threats, martial law, and emergency governance. Institutions such as the National Agency on Corruption Prevention (NAPC) and the High Anti-Corruption Court (HACC) must maintain greater transparency and independence while coordinating with defense and humanitarian bodies to prevent fund misappropriation, procurement fraud, and political exploitation. Strategies for adapting to wartime conditions include integrating digital monitoring tools into military procurement systems and strengthening protections for whistleblowers. The application of different theoretical models helps identify which anti-corruption strategies are most effective in varying political and social settings.

I.2. Historical development of anti-corruption legislation in the world

The fight against corruption has a long history. In ancient China, the Tang Dynasty (VII-X centuries) introduced strict laws against bribery, and in ancient Rome there were anti-corruption mechanisms, such as the Licinius Law on Financial Control. However, in the modern sense, anti-corruption legislation began to take shape in the 20th century. One of the first global legal acts was the United States (U. S.) FCPA (1977), which prohibited U. S. companies from bribing foreign officials. In 1997, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) adopted the Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions, which became the international standard for fighting corruption.

At the level of the European Union (EU), an important step was the adoption of the PIF Directive (2017/1371), which set strict standards for the

investigation of financial crimes and abuse of budgetary funds. In Ukraine, active anti-corruption reform began after the Revolution of Dignity (2014), when the National Anti-Corruption Bureau of Ukraine (NABU), the NAPC, and the HACC were established. Thus, the evolution of anti-corruption legislation demonstrates that effective fight against corruption requires a combination of tough sanctions, international cooperation and independent oversight bodies.

I.3. The relationship between corruption, political instability and hybrid threats

Corruption directly affects the political stability of the state, as it undermines public trust in the government, weakens the legal system, and creates preconditions for the development of authoritarianism. According to a study by Transparency International (2023), countries with high levels of corruption are more likely to face political crises and revolutions. In the context of modern hybrid threats, corruption is becoming an instrument of external influence; for example, Russia uses corruption mechanisms to destabilize political processes in Eastern Europe.

In that sense, corrupt ties in the defense sector weaken the ability of states to defend themselves, which is critical in times of military conflict. Hybrid wars include not only military operations but also cyberattacks, economic pressure, and information campaigns. Governments with high levels of corruption are less able to respond effectively to these threats, as resources are stolen and state institutions are paralyzed by internal conflicts. Thus, corruption is not only an internal problem of the state, but also a serious threat to national security in the context of current geopolitical challenges. Therefore,

effective anti-corruption legislation should be integrated into national security strategies to ensure the sustainability of state institutions and strengthen democratic mechanisms.

According to the CPI, the level of corruption remains critical in many countries worldwide, especially in those undergoing democratic transformation. This threatens economic stability and political and social security, making the problem relevant for research.

Facing this, scholars have already paid much attention to the study of anti-corruption mechanisms. For example, Kruessmann (2022) studied the international legal framework for fighting corruption, and Watt (2024) analyzed the Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC) model in Hong Kong as a practical anti-corruption approach. At the same time, Odilla (2023, 2024) focuses on the potential of digital tools, such as AI, in monitoring corruption schemes. However, many questions remain, including integrating international experience into national conditions, the effectiveness of digital solutions in different contexts, and the impact of anti-corruption legislation on national security.

This research is driven by "white spots" in understanding the long-term effectiveness of implemented anti-corruption measures, particularly in countries with low democratic traditions. The issues of adapting European standards, such as the PIF Directive, to Ukrainian realities and assessing the impact of innovative approaches on political, economic and social stability remain unresolved. During wartime, corruption poses unique threats to national security by undermining defense capacities, disrupting resource allocation, and weakening public trust in institutions.

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

In that sense, it is necessary to consider a comparative analysis of anti-corruption strategies during the war, as well as the experience of other countries in fighting corruption during armed conflicts. Corruption in times of war creates additional challenges for the state, as military spending increases and control mechanisms may be weakened. That is why the experience of different countries that have faced armed conflicts demonstrates different approaches to minimizing corruption risks in wartime.

- *Iraq and Afghanistan.* In Iraq and Afghanistan, after the U. S. military operations, serious corruption schemes related to the theft of humanitarian aid, inefficient government contracts, and shadowy security financing schemes were revealed. One of the main problems was the lack of transparency in military procurement and control over international aid. To combat these problems, the Special Inspector General for Afghanistan Reconstruction (SIGAR) was introduced, a special body to investigate abuses in the financing of the country's reconstruction. This allowed to identify significant embezzlement and take measures to eliminate it.

- *Balkans (Yugoslavia, Bosnia, Kosovo).* During the armed conflicts in the Balkans in the 1990s, corruption became an integral part of the war economy. Illegal arms deals, resource smuggling, and political corruption weakened state institutions. After the conflict ended, anti-corruption tribunals were established under the auspices of the United Nations (UN), which facilitated the prosecution of perpetrators. In Kosovo, the EU established the EULEX, a rule of law mission that

tackled corruption in the public sector. This helped to partially restore transparency in military procurement and public administration.

Ukraine, being in a state of war, also faces the problem of corruption in defense, humanitarian aid, and public administration. Given this, the experience of Iraq, Afghanistan, and the Balkans points to several key aspects that should be taken into account:

- Establishment of an independent military anti-corruption body: an analog of SIGAR to control the use of international aid and the defense budget.

- Digitalization of military procurement: use of transparent tender procedures to prevent "closed" procurement of weapons and equipment.

- International control and involvement of independent experts: strengthening cooperation with the EU and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) to oversee defense contracts.

- Prosecution of corrupt officials in wartime: introduction of expedited trials for war crimes, as was done in the Balkan countries.

Thus, the experience of other countries shows that effective fight against corruption in wartime is possible only with a combination of independent oversight, digital solutions, and international support. These factors amplify the relevance of anti-corruption measures, particularly in the context of hybrid threats and international sanctions. Likewise, the study examines anti-corruption legislation's role in ensuring national security. Tasks include:

1. Analysis of legal and institutional approaches to fighting corruption in different countries.

2. Assessing the effectiveness of digital tools in combating corruption practices.

3. Formulation of recommendations for improving anti-corruption policy in Ukraine, considering international experience.

Therefore, the given work is relevant theoretically and practically, as the study's outcomes may contribute to enhancing the efficiency of the fight against corruption and increasing state safety.

I.4. Literature review

The emerging literature has highlighted the relevance of anti-corruption regarding national security. However, less attention has been paid to the specific challenges that wartime conditions create for anti-corruption efforts. Recent studies (e.g., Dolan, 2023; Sadigov, 2024) indicate that wartime environments intensify corruption risks due to urgent procurement needs and the increased flow of international aid, requiring enhanced monitoring and accountability mechanisms. Carey and Mitchell (2023) cite EU directives as foreign legal requirements that enhance legal authority for effectiveness in combating corruption. Lysetskyi et al. (2024) reviewed the application of information and communication technology (ICT) in developing anti-corrupt policies in different countries, with special attention to the impact of ICT in promoting transparency. Kruessmann (2022) documented the measures on corruption in international law, and Watt (2024) on the effectiveness of the ICAC. Odilla

(2023, 2024) also investigated the applicability of AI and concludes that technology is underutilized and can be used to track corruption schemes. In the studies conducted by Smith (2022, 2024), it is underlined that the legislation of the country plays a significant role in the fight against financial crime and corruption. Finally, according to Lysetskyi et al. (2024), regulatory analysis is important when developing an anti-corruption policy in Ukraine aligned with the EU.

As for McLean's (2022, 2024) studies, these examine the privatization of security and the impact of protest movements on the shaping of anti-corruption discourse, which adds to the general understanding of the topic. Dolan (2023) draws attention to the relationship between foreign policy and internal security in the context of anti-corruption activities. Davidov et al. (2023) examine the resource base of the criminal process in the fight against corruption in Eurasian countries. Engelbrekt (2024) focuses on the regional dimension of security and the role of anti-corruption initiatives in ensuring stability in the EU. Bazerkoska (2024) analyzes EU standards in the fight against corruption in the EU enlargement process, emphasizing the importance of their adaptation to the national systems of the candidate countries. Gupta (2024) examines changes to India's investment treaties to strengthen anti-corruption measures, an example of transformational initiatives. Finally. the role of public oversight remains an important area, which Gumisiriza and Mukobi (2022) explore in the case of Uganda; they emphasize the need to engage civil society to improve the effectiveness of anti-corruption policy.

Likewise, Dovgan et al. (2023) demonstrate a discursive approach to studying national security issues in Ukraine, which allows them to reveal the specifics of anti-corruption challenges in this country. Hassall (2023) and

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

Sadigov (2024) complement these views by emphasizing the role of regional approaches to security. McLean (2024) focuses on the challenges associated with the privatization of security and its impact on state anti-corruption efforts. Odilla (2024) examines the limitations of using AI to fight corruption, particularly those related to ethical risks and algorithmic bias. Pauls (2024) examines EU legislative initiatives in sustainable finance, focusing on the role of transparency in managing public financial flows, which directly impacts reducing corruption risks. Finally, Sadigov (2024) examines the nexus between natural resources, corruption and national security, highlighting the role of anti-corruption campaigns in stabilizing the political system.

In the case of Konovalova et al. (2021), they analyze the importance of managerial approaches in implementing anti-corruption measures among economic actors, emphasizing the need to use innovative human resources (HR) technologies. Wang (2023) focuses on the role of gender in leadership and its impact on the development of more effective anti-corruption strategies. De Coteau (2024) examines the specifics of anti-corruption measures in the Caribbean region, focusing on the need to consider cultural and social aspects in policy development. Alli (2024) focuses on defence reforms to improve internal security, which can be adapted to an anti-corruption strategy. Okpara and Mamman-Muhammad (2022) examine African public governance initiatives, emphasizing the importance of moral values and transparency as essential elements of the fight against corruption. Adeniran and Taofeek (2024) emphasize the importance of anti-corruption policies in strengthening national security, analyzing the experience of Nigeria. Wenyah (2022) and McLean (2022) focus on the effectiveness of public oversight as a key element of anti-

corruption strategy. Finally, Dolan (2023) examines the impact of foreign policy on national security through the prism of the fight against corruption.

Thus, despite considerable research, the problems of assessing the long-term effectiveness of the implemented measures and integrating anti-corruption initiatives into areas that have not previously been the focus of systemic attention, such as the privatization of security and the impact of cultural factors on the fight against corruption, remain unresolved.

II. METHODS

The research adopts a comprehensive methodology that integrates qualitative and quantitative methods to examine anti-corruption legislation and its impact on national security. On the qualitative side, it conducts a comparative legal analysis of anti-corruption laws across several jurisdictions – including the U. S., the EU, Singapore, and Ukraine– with attention to their wartime adaptations. This analysis identifies key legal and institutional frameworks and is supported by doctrinal and content analysis of legal texts, court rulings, and policy documents.

The quantitative component involves statistical analysis of data from the CPI covering the years 2018-2023. This analysis identifies trends and correlations between anti-corruption measures and national stability indicators in conflict-affected states. The results are presented in tables and figures (figures 2 and 3), illustrating the evolution of perceived corruption in Ukraine and comparator countries.

In the initial phase, international and national regulations –such as the FCPA, the PIF Directive, and other key documents– were examined to evaluate

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

legal mechanisms for combating corruption across countries. The analysis of literature and policies in selected jurisdictions, including the U. S., the United Kingdom (U. K.), Germany, Hong Kong, and Singapore, was used to identify the most effective legislative models.

The study emphasizes a systemic analysis of the relationship between legislative and institutional measures and their influence on state stability, including political, economic, and social dimensions. Special attention is given to the effects of wartime conditions on the efficacy of anti-corruption mechanisms, with case studies from Ukraine and other conflict-affected regions.

As for the CPI data for 2018-2023, this serves as the basis for the quantitative analysis, which aimed to identify patterns of change in the selected states. Results are presented through graphs and tables to enable clear comparison and interpretation. Scientific publications concerning anti-corruption legislation and its role in public administration were also assessed using content analysis.

The final stage of the study involved graphical representations to illustrate the effects of anti-corruption measures on national security. An action plan for improving Ukraine's anti-corruption policy was proposed, synthesizing findings from various appendices and highlighting patterns useful for shaping a more effective anti-corruption strategy.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Organized anti-corruption efforts in various countries include both legal and institutional measures, such as the creation of specialized anti-corruption agencies, the enactment of strict legal provisions, and the adoption of advanced technologies. These measures target corruption at all levels of government (local, national) and in the private sector. Emphasis is placed on preventive strategies that reduce the risk of corrupt practices and on mechanisms that enhance transparency in public administration. In that sense, the comparative analysis of different national approaches, such as the implementation of the FCPA in the U. S. or the ICAC model in Hong Kong, demonstrates that the independence of anti-corruption bodies and strict legal compliance are essential to their effectiveness.

The role of digital technologies (AI, big data, blockchain) in combating corruption is significant. These enhance the efficiency of anti-corruption strategies: AI is employed to detect irregular financial transactions, analyze procurement processes, and predict corruption risks. In the U. S., for example, AI algorithms assist the Department of the Treasury in automatically identifying suspicious financial flows; meanwhile, in the EU, AI is used to monitor public procurement.

Big data enables the identification of corruption schemes by processing large volumes of information from diverse sources, including banking transactions and procurement contracts. In India, a big data system has been implemented to monitor unusual changes in officials' income, which has led to the detection of large-scale corruption cases. Blockchain technology promotes transparency and data integrity, making it particularly effective in e-

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

government systems. Georgia, for instance, was the first country to implement blockchain for land property registration, significantly reducing bribery in that sector. Overall, digital technologies foster a new level of transparency and oversight, making corrupt practices and abuses more difficult to carry out.

To illustrate the practical use of these technologies in anti-corruption strategies across jurisdictions, Table 4 presents a comparative overview of monitoring tools adopted in selected countries. These examples demonstrate how technology supports transparency, accountability, and efficiency in both civilian and defense sectors.

Table 1

Application of monitoring technologies in anti-corruption practices (selected countries)

Country	Technology implemented	Area of application	Notable Outcomes
Ukraine	Diia Platform, Prozorro System	Public services, procurement	Reduced bureaucratic delays and procurement fraud
U. S.	AI-based surveillance tools	Financial operations, budget oversight	Real-time detection of suspicious transactions
India	Big data analytics for asset tracking	Monitoring of income/assets of officials	Identification of disproportionate income among public officials
Georgia	Blockchain in land registration	Property records and registries	Elimination of bribery and fraud in property documentation

Country	Technology implemented	Area of application	Notable Outcomes
Estonia	X-Road integrated data infrastructure	Inter-agency data exchange	Increased transparency and resistance to data manipulation
Singapore	GovTech e-services	E-procurement, digital auditing	Fully digital public administration with enhanced oversight

Note. Created by the author based on *Legalisation with lawyers in lawfare: The case of national security.* In *Legalisation of international law and politics*, by H. Carey and S. M. Mitchell, 2023, Palgrave Macmillan; *Conceptual framework of Ukraine's national security: Regulatory examination using information and communication technologies*, by Y. Lysetskyi et al., 2024, Springer; Unfairness in AI anti-corruption tools: Main drivers and consequences, by F. Odilla, 2024 *Minds & Machines, 34*; The Hong Kong model: Building an effective anti-corruption agency, by W.Y. Watt, 2024, *GPPG, 4; International anti-corruption law*, by T. Kruessmann, 2022, Asser Press.

These findings confirm that the strategic use of monitoring technologies plays a critical role in reducing corruption risks. As shown in Table 4, countries that have integrated AI, blockchain, or big data analytics into governance have experienced measurable improvements in transparency and institutional trust. These tools are particularly valuable in wartime contexts, where rapid decision-making and large-scale resource allocation require strong accountability mechanisms.

Specific examples of e-governance and e-transparency demonstrate how digitalization supports anti-corruption efforts. In the case of e-government, it is a key area in the fight against corruption, as it reduces direct contact between officials and citizens, thereby minimizing opportunities for bribery.

- *Ukraine*: Diia. Ukraine has emerged as a leader in digital governance through its Diia platform, which enables citizens to access public services without physical interaction with officials. For instance, the ability to submit business registration documents through Diia has eliminated bureaucratic delays and opportunities for corruption.

- *Singapore*: GovTech. Singapore's GovTech initiative has created a fully digitalized public administration system. It includes e-procurement, automated audits of budget expenditures, and online monitoring of tender processes.

- *Estonia*: X-Road. Estonia, one of the most digitally advanced countries, has implemented the X-Road system, which connects all government databases. This allows for real-time information exchange between agencies and prevents data manipulation.

- *Georgia*: Transparent Government. Georgia has introduced a public electronic declaration system for officials' income, which has significantly reduced undisclosed earnings among public servants.

These initiatives demonstrate that digitalization not only improves the efficiency of public administration but also significantly limits opportunities for corruption.

III.1. Potential challenges and risks of digitalization in the fight against corruption

Despite all the advantages of digital technologies in the fight against corruption, there are significant challenges and risks that need to be taken into account. These are described in the following paragrapghs:

1. *Algorithmic bias*. AI systems can reflect biases in their training data, leading to unfair decision-making. For example, some fraud detection algorithms have disproportionately targeted lower-income communities, raising concerns about discrimination.

2. *Cyberattacks and the threat of system hacking*. As government systems become more digitalized, they face a greater risk of cyberattacks. In 2022, Ukraine's state e-governance platforms were targeted by Russian cyber groups, threatening their functionality.

3. *Misuse of confidential information*. Digital tools require the collection of large volumes of personal data, which increases the risk of misuse or unauthorized sale of sensitive information.

4. *Corruption in the implementation of digital solutions*. There is a risk of corruption even in the process of launching and administering digital platforms, especially when government contracts for the development of IT solutions are awarded to companies affiliated with government officials. Thus, while digital tools can significantly reduce the level of corruption, it is essential to implement robust cybersecurity mechanisms, ethical oversight of AI systems, and personal data protection.

III.2. Comparative analysis of anti-corruption models in different countries

International practice offers several effective models for combating corruption, each with distinct characteristics. Among the most successful are the approaches adopted in the Scandinavian countries, the U. S., the U. K., Hong Kong, and Singapore.

In the Scandinavian countries (Sweden, Denmark and Norway) the fight against corruption relies on high levels of transparency in government, robust democratic institutions, and minimal bureaucracy. Denmark, for example, consistently ranks at the top of the CPI, largely due to its advanced e-governance system and the absence of political interference in anti-corruption agencies.

In the U. S., anti-corruption efforts focus on the strict criminalization of corrupt practices, particularly in international business. The FCPA (1977) prohibits American companies from bribing foreign officials and imposes strict corporate liability.

The U. K. enforces one of the world's most comprehensive anti-corruption laws, the Bribery Act (2010), which addresses both domestic and international bribery. It also holds British companies accountable for acts of bribery committed abroad. The Serious Fraud Office (SFO), an independent body, is responsible for conducting anti-corruption investigations.

As for Hong Kong and Singapore, these have adopted authoritarian-liberal models, in which the state plays a central role in anti-corruption efforts through independent enforcement bodies. In Hong Kong, the ICAC, established

in 1974, operates under a three-pronged mandate: investigation, prevention, and public education. In Singapore, the Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau (CPIB) is empowered to arrest individuals and examine the financial records of public officials.

These examples demonstrate that effective anti-corruption measures can be implemented successfully in both democratic systems (such as those in Scandinavia and the U. K.) and in more centralized, state-controlled environments (such as Singapore and Hong Kong).

III.3. Experience of countries that have undergone democratic transformation

Countries transitioning from authoritarian to democratic governance face unique challenges in combating corruption. This is particularly evident in post-Soviet states, Eastern Europe, and Latin America.

Georgia stands out as a notable example of successful anti-corruption reform. Following the Rose Revolution in 2003, the government implemented a comprehensive overhaul of public administration, which included dismantling corrupt law enforcement agencies, conducting mass dismissals of officials, and digitalizing public services. By 2020, Georgia achieved a score of 56 on the CPI, the highest among post-Soviet countries outside the Baltic states.

After joining the EU in 2004, Poland restructured its anti-corruption framework to align with EU standards. This included the creation of the Central Anti-Corruption Bureau (CBA), which was granted extensive authority to investigate high-level officials.

Ukraine initiated significant anti-corruption reforms after 2014, establishing independent institutions such as the NABU, the NAPC, and the HACC. Despite these efforts, persistent issues related to the oligarchic system and political interference continue to undermine their effectiveness.

In conclusion, countries undergoing democratic transitions require deep institutional reforms, strong civilian oversight, and sustained international support. Without these elements, there is a risk that corruption will reassert itself.

III.4. Analysis of the effectiveness of international anti-corruption standards

Global anti-corruption practice is based on international agreements and initiatives. The main documents are the following:

- The United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC, 2003) is the first global treaty that defines standards for the prevention of corruption, criminalization of corruption offenses, international cooperation, and recovery of stolen assets.

- The Group of States against Corruption (GRECO) is a Council of Europe body that monitors anti-corruption reforms in member states. Ukraine joined GRECO in 2006.

- The World Bank Anti-Corruption Initiative is a program that helps countries develop strategies to fight corruption through reforming public administration, as well as the judiciary and government accountability.

- The PIF Directive (2017/1371) is an EU directive on the protection of financial interests that requires member states to strengthen the fight against fraud and corruption in the EU budget.

Country experiences demonstrate that international anti-corruption standards are effective when adapted to national contexts. In Lithuania, for example, the application of GRECO standards has led to increased transparency in public procurement. In the Czech Republic, the implementation of mechanisms from the UNCAC has contributed to reducing corruption within the judicial system.

However, some countries, such as Hungary and Bulgaria, formally adopt international standards but fail to implement them in practice, often due to entrenched political corruption. This highlights that the effectiveness of anti-corruption standards depends not only on the presence of legal frameworks, but also on the independence of the judiciary and the government's genuine willingness to implement reforms. Regarding this, the EU's experience with legislative harmonization through the PIF Directive illustrates how the standardization of legal norms can strengthen inter-state cooperation and improve financial transparency (Table 2).

Table 2

Analysis of legal and institutional approaches to anti-corruption activities in different countries

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

Country/region	Legal approaches	Institutional approaches
U. S.	The FCPA extends jurisdiction to transnational corruption offenses.	Independent anti-corruption units within the Ministry of Justice.
U. K.	The 2010 Bribery Act establishes harsh penalties for corruption at national and international levels.	The SFO investigates serious economic crimes, including corruption.
Germany	The Law on Bribery Control aims to increase legal entities' liability for corruption offenses.	Regional anti-corruption commissions that work in cooperation with federal agencies.
Hong Kong	Legislation supporting the work of the ICAC, which has autonomous powers.	The ICAC is a fully independent body with three functional areas: investigation, prevention, and public education.
Singapore	The Law on Prevention of Corruption allows broad powers to investigate corruption offenses.	The CPIB conducts independent investigations and cooperates with government agencies.
EU	The EU's PIF Directive obliges member states to comply with anti-corruption regulations strictly.	The European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF) investigates corruption cases in EU institutions and member states.
Norway	Legislation aimed at transparency in the public sector and strict regulation of conflicts of interest.	The Economic and Environmental Crime Directorate (Økokrim) investigates complex corruption schemes.

Note. Created by the author based on *Legalisation with lawyers in lawfare: The case of national security. In Legalisation of international law and politics*, by H. Carey and S. M. Mitchell, 2023, Palgrave Macmillan; *Conceptual framework of Ukraine's national security: Regulatory examination using information and communication technologies*, by Y. Lysetskyi et al., 2024, Springer; Unfairness in AI anti-corruption tools: Main drivers and consequences, by F. Odilla, 2024 *Minds & Machines, 34*; The Hong Kong model: Building an effective anti-corruption agency, by W.Y. Watt, 2024, *GPPG, 4.*

Anti-corruption legislative models presented in different countries demonstrate various approaches to ensure national security through the fight against corruption. To better understand the effectiveness of these approaches, it is proposed to consider specific examples from the countries with the highest ratings in the fight against corruption. The legislative framework and establishing independent bodies that oversee compliance with anti-corruption norms are important aspects. Table 3 below shows successful models of anti-corruption legislation and their impact on national security.

Table 3

Successful models of anti-corruption legislation that contribute to national security

Country	A successful model of legislation	Results for national security
U. S.	The FCPA prohibits bribery of foreign officials.	Reducing the level of transnational corruption, increasing the transparency of international agreements, and strengthening national economic stability.

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

Country	A successful model of legislation	Results for national security
U. K.	The 2010 Bribery Act regulates both domestic and international corruption offenses.	Increased accountability for corrupt practices, reduced private sector corruption, and increased government trust.
Singapore	The Prevention of Corruption Act (POCA) severely penalizes anyone involved in corrupt practices.	The almost complete absence of corruption ensures the political system's stability and investment attractiveness.
Hong Kong	Establishment of the ICAC, which operates based on special legislation.	Effective fight against corruption at all levels, increasing public trust in the government and reducing the risk of political instability.
Norway	Legislation aimed at regulating transparency in public administration and preventing conflicts of interest.	Ensure a high level of integrity for civil servants and promote national security through the stability of institutions.
EU	The PIF Directive aims to combat fraud and corruption in member states.	Ensuring the financial stability of the EU, increasing trust in EU institutions, and reducing corruption risks in financial flows.

Note. Created by the author based on *Legalisation with lawyers in lawfare: The case of national security. In Legalisation of international law and politics*, by H. Carey and S. M. Mitchell, 2023, Palgrave Macmillan; *Conceptual framework of Ukraine's national security: Regulatory examination using information and communication technologies*, by Y. Lysetskyi et al., 2024, Springer; Unfairness in AI anti-corruption tools: Main drivers and consequences, by F. Odilla, 2024 *Minds & Machines, 34*; , The Hong Kong model: Building an effective anti-corruption agency, by W.Y. Watt, 2024, *GPPG, 4.*

Thus, the analysis of effective anti-corruption legislation models shows that implementing strict legal frameworks alongside robust institutional mechanisms can substantially improve transparency, accountability, and public trust in government institutions. However, for such measures to be effective in the long term, it is essential to take national specificities into account, draw on international experience, and incorporate modern technologies. The following sections outline key areas that support transparency and accountability in public administration within anti-corruption strategies. As for corruption, this represents one of the most serious threats to national security, as it weakens institutional structures and undermines the foundations of governance. Its effects manifest across multiple dimensions:

- *Political stability*. Certain forms of corruption directly undermine public confidence in state institutions and political processes. They weaken democratic systems, foster authoritarian practices, and entrench impunity. For example, illegal campaign financing or lobbying can distort financial resource allocation and contribute to conditions that destabilize political systems..

- *Economic stability*. The misuse of public resources reduces efficiency and impedes economic development. While corrupt transactions may appear to benefit specific budgets in the short term, they deprive critical sectors such as healthcare, education, and security of necessary funding. Corruption also contributes to the growth of the shadow economy, which reduces state revenue and diminishes the country's attractiveness to investors.

- *Social stability*. Corruption exacerbates social inequality by lowering the quality of life for most citizens. It fuels public discontent, which may escalate into protests or civil unrest. In highly corrupt environments, public confidence in law and justice erodes, contributing to the radicalization of society.

- *National security*. High levels of corruption undermine the state's ability to respond to external threats, such as economic pressure, cyberattacks, or hybrid warfare. Corruption in defense procurement, for instance, can reduce military effectiveness and compromise national defense. Moreover, internal threats such as organized crime or terrorism become more difficult to counter when law enforcement and judiciary officials can be bribed.

Analyzing corrupt practices is essential for identifying risks and determining priority areas for anti-corruption interventions aimed at strengthening national security. Corruption undermines political, economic, and social stability, all of which are pillars of a secure state. The CPI, which assesses perceived levels of corruption in public sectors on a scale from 0 (highly corrupt) to 100 (very clean), provides insight into these dynamics. Examining recent CPI scores for Ukraine and other countries helps illustrate the broader implications of corruption on national stability.

To grasp the full impact of corruption on national security, it is important to examine its consequences across political, economic, and social dimensions. Corruption erodes trust in institutions, fosters instability, leads to inefficient resource allocation, and hampers development. At the same time, it

intensifies social disparities and may trigger civil conflict. Figure 1 offers a schematic overview of these effects, clarifying the multifaceted nature of corruption and the threats it poses to society.

Figure 1

*The impact of corruption on national security*
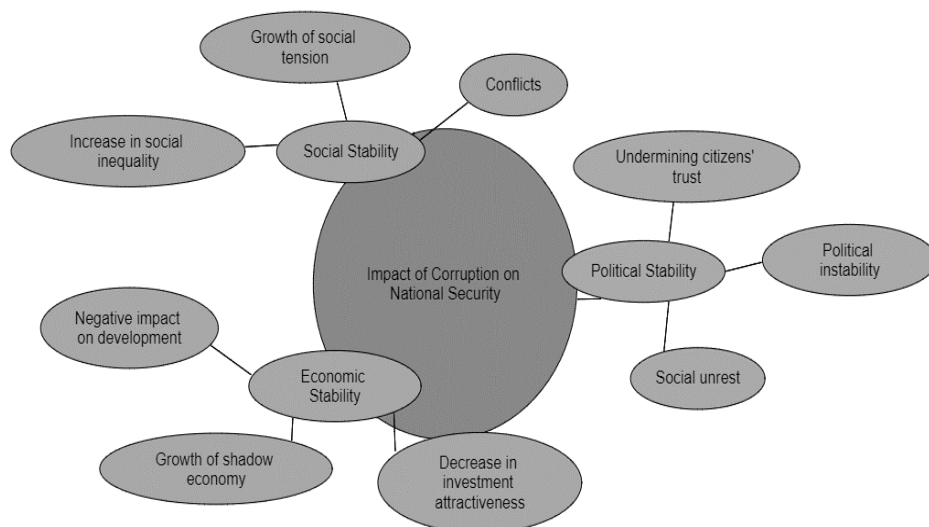
- Political stability: high levels of corruption undermine public trust in state institutions, which can lead to political instability and social unrest.

- Economic stability: corruption negatively impacts economic development, reducing the country's investment attractiveness and contributing to the development of the shadow economy.

- Social stability: corruption increases social inequality, increasing social tension and conflict.

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

Figure 2 illustrates changes in the CPI in selected countries from 2018 to 2023. The indicators show differences in the levels of corruption perception and the effectiveness of anti-corruption measures in each country. It also shows stability trends or changes in the fight against corruption in different political and economic conditions.

Figure 2

Dynamics of the CPI in Ukraine, Poland, Germany and Denmark (2018-2023)
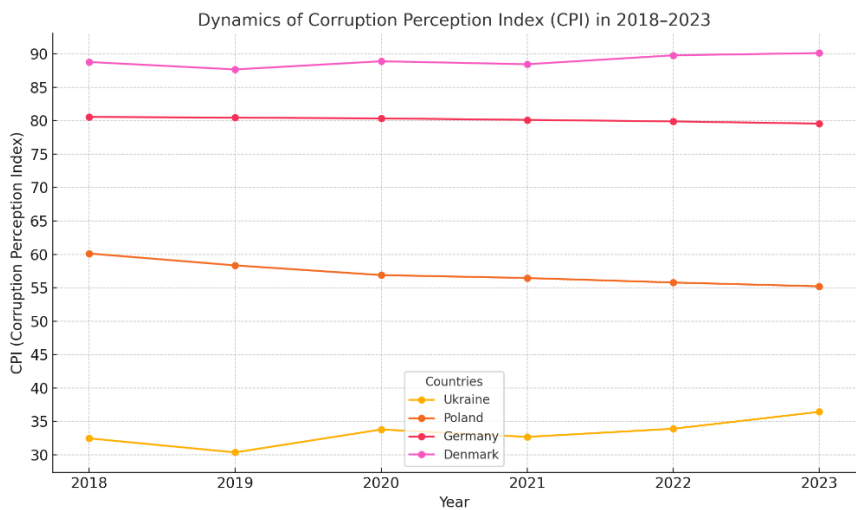
Note. Created by the author based on *Legalisation with lawyers in lawfare: The case of national security. In Legalisation of international law and politics*, by H. Carey and S. M. Mitchell, 2023, Palgrave Macmillan; *Conceptual framework of Ukraine's national security: Regulatory examination using information and communication technologies*, by Y. Lysetskyi et al., 2024, Springer; Unfairness in AI anti-corruption tools: Main drivers and consequences, by F. Odilla, 2024 *Minds & Machines, 34*; , The Hong Kong model: Building an effective anti-corruption agency, by W.Y. Watt, 2024, *GPPG, 4.*
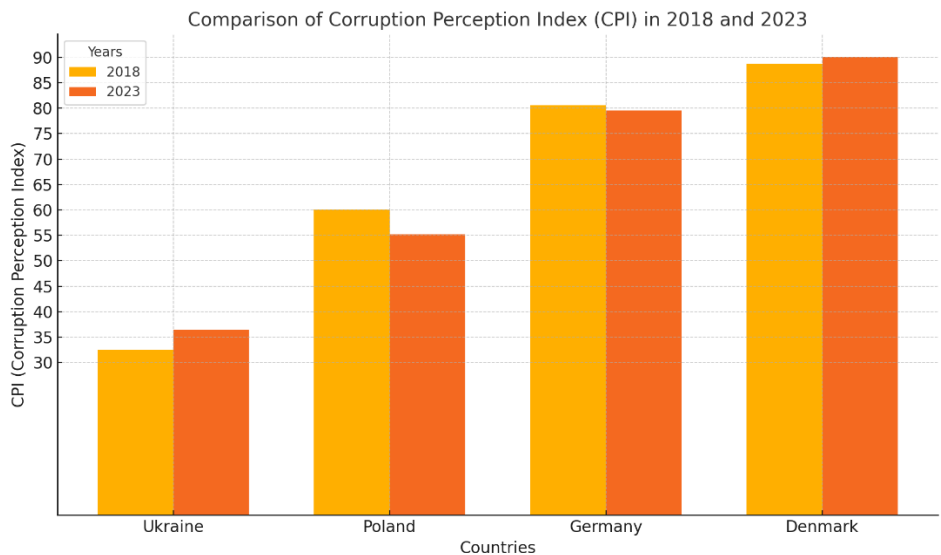
The diagram illustrates the dynamics of the CPI in four countries (Ukraine, Poland, Germany and Denmark) between 2018 and 2023. Over this period, the countries exhibited varying trends in CPI scores. Ukraine recorded the most notable improvement, with a 12.23 % increase in its CPI score, reflecting positive policy developments and a gradual reduction in corruption. Denmark maintained its position as a global leader in anti-corruption, with its consistently high CPI scores demonstrating the effectiveness of traditional anti-corruption mechanisms.

In contrast, Poland experienced a decline of 8.17 % in its CPI score, indicating increased corruption risks and reduced transparency. As for Germany, it remained relatively stable, with only a slight decrease of 1.24 % in its CPI score, suggesting continued efforts in combating corruption despite minor fluctuations. These findings underscore the importance of adapting anti-corruption strategies to each country's specific context.

To better compare changes in corruption perception across these countries, a graph of CPI scores for 2018 and 2023 is presented in Figure 3. This visual representation highlights both improvements and stagnation or deterioration in corruption levels, allowing for a clearer assessment of the effectiveness of anti-corruption measures during the period.

Figure 3

Comparison of CPI in 2018 and 2023 in Ukraine, Poland, Germany and Denmark

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

An analysis of the CPI from 2018 to 2023 reveals mixed trends among the selected countries. Ukraine showed a 12.23 % increase in its CPI score, indicating progress in anti-corruption efforts and a reduction in corruption risks. In contrast, Poland experienced an 8.17 % decline, suggesting a weakening of anti-corruption measures or a rise in corruption-related challenges. Germany recorded a slight decrease of 1.24 %, reflecting relative stability in its anti-corruption performance. Denmark, consistently ranked among the least corrupt countries globally, saw a modest increase of 1.51 % in its CPI score, reaffirming

the effectiveness of its anti-corruption policies. These results illustrate the diverse challenges and achievements each country faces in combating corruption. Therefore, integrating innovative methods and international experience into national legal frameworks can strengthen anti-corruption efforts through several key approaches:

- The implementation of digital tools for monitoring and prevention, such as electronic public procurement platforms (e-procurement), digital asset-tracking systems, and automated data analysis technologies.

- Enhanced international cooperation through agreements with organizations like Transparency International and GRECO, as well as collaboration with foreign anti-corruption agencies to exchange knowledge and best practices.

- The systematization of domestic legislation and adaptation of international standards –such as the EU's PIF Directive– to national contexts, taking into account the specific characteristics of the legal and economic systems.

- The professional development of anti-corruption personnel through training programs and internships for public officials, based on the practices of countries with the highest CPI scores (e.g., Denmark, Finland, Norway).

Focusing on priority areas that promote transparency and accountability in public administration is essential for an effective anti-corruption strategy. These areas aim to foster openness in government, strengthen public oversight, enhance the legal framework, and introduce modern digital tools. Figure 4

outlines the main strategic directions that support integrity and improve the efficiency of governance processes.

Figure 4

Priority areas for improving transparency and accountability in public administration

Strengthening public oversight mechanisms requires creating conditions that enable active citizen participation in monitoring the activities of state institutions. This can be achieved through transparent reporting platforms. It is also essential to improve and strictly enforce legislation aimed at preventing conflicts of interest among public officials. Accountability for corruption offenses must be increased by implementing stricter penalties for senior officials and ensuring the inevitability of punishment. To enhance transparency in public finances, mandatory public audits of budget expenditures should be introduced, particularly in sensitive sectors such as defense and healthcare. Additionally, the implementation of e-governance can reduce direct interactions between citizens and officials, thereby minimizing opportunities for corruption.

The findings of this study confirm the significant influence of anti-corruption legislation on national security. The results indicate that countries with strong legal frameworks and independent anti-corruption institutions exhibit greater political stability, economic performance, and social cohesion. These outcomes are consistent with the conclusions of Lysetskyi et al. (2024) and Carey and Mitchell (2023), who highlight transparency and accountability in public administration as critical to reducing corruption risks. Similarly, Kruessmann (2022) emphasizes the importance of aligning national strategies with international standards within the broader context of international anti-corruption law.

In this regard, the results support the view that incorporating international experience –especially through the adoption of EU directives such as the PIF Directive– enhances the effectiveness of anti-corruption policies. However, unlike other authors, this study found that national economic and political conditions significantly affect the implementation of these standards, which warrants further investigation. The findings also highlight the importance of adapting anti-corruption strategies to wartime contexts, where traditional mechanisms may be less effective due to urgent decision-making and limited resources. This is particularly evident in Ukraine, where hybrid warfare has exposed weaknesses in public procurement and defense expenditure management.

A comparison with Watt (2024), who analyzed the ICAC model in Hong Kong, shows that institutional independence is a highly effective anti-corruption strategy. In this respect, the study underscores the potential impact of establishing independent anti-corruption bodies in Ukraine, provided they receive adequate funding and are shielded from political interference.

Tetiana Madryha, Olena Berezovska-Chmil, Yuliia Kobets, Valerii Bortnikov & Oleksandr Panasiuk

The study also acknowledges certain limitations. Notably, there is insufficient evidence on the long-term impact of anti-corruption efforts in countries with weak democratic traditions. Smith (2022) supports this view, stressing the importance of integrating anti-corruption policies with broader justice sector reforms. The findings further identify areas for future research, especially regarding the role of digital tools in preventing corruption. Odilla (2023) points to the promise of AI-based technologies for corruption monitoring, while this study suggests that these tools must be adapted to national contexts to be effective.

In conclusion, the findings support the initial hypothesis that anti-corruption legislation plays a critical role in ensuring national security. However, further research is needed to assess how innovative methods and international cooperation influence the success of anti-corruption measures. The practical application of these results may include recommendations for aligning Ukrainian legislation with international best practices.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The results highlight that corruption tends to intensify during wartime, making strict anti-corruption legislation a vital component of national security. The research by Ernest Bartsch clearly demonstrates the importance of such laws in enhancing political stability, promoting economic efficiency, and fostering social cohesion. It also emphasizes that incorporating international standards –such as the PIF Directive– into national legal systems, while adapting them to local contexts, strengthens governance structures and improves institutional resilience.

A key contribution of this study is the systematization of effective anti-corruption models and an assessment of their applicability in conditions of hybrid conflict. Based on these findings, several practical recommendations are proposed for improving Ukraine's anti-corruption policy in wartime conditions:

- Establish a specialized wartime anti-corruption unit responsible for overseeing defense procurement, humanitarian aid distribution, and reconstruction funding.

- Expand and enhance the functionality of digital monitoring tools, including e-procurement platforms and AI-based analytics systems, while ensuring protection against cyber threats.

- Strengthen the institutional independence of key bodies such as the NABU and the HACC, safeguarding them from political interference.

- Implement expedited legal procedures for investigating, prosecuting, and adjudicating corruption cases during wartime, including fast-track mechanisms for high-risk sectors.

- Deepen international cooperation with the EU, NATO, and UN institutions to harmonize compliance standards and secure technical assistance for ensuring transparency in international aid flows.

- Develop targeted wartime anti-corruption training programs for public officials, security personnel, and procurement officers to raise awareness of emerging risks and effective mitigation strategies.

In that sense, the policy implications of the research are that it would guide policy changes and institutional building in post-conflict reconstruction

and security governance. The long-term effectiveness of such steps and the importance of the civil society in assisting the transparency during the emergency regimes should be studied in the future. To conclude, it can be stated that, during the period of war, anti-corruption laws are neither merely a governance instrument nor a strategic element of national defense, national trust, and rational utilization of scarce resources.

REFERENCES

Adeniran, A. I., & Taofeek, A. K. (2024). Migration and national security in Nigeria. En A. Abdullahi, F. Aremu, U. Raheem, & A. Olaseni, Understanding contemporary security challenges in Nigeria. Palgrave Macmillan.

Alli, F. (2024). Civilian control, military reforms, and internal security in Nigeria. En A. Abdullahi, U. Raheem, J. Amzat, & K. Nwachukwu, Managing contemporary security challenges in Nigeria. Palgrave Macmillan.

Bazerkoska, J. B. (2024). EU enlargement and anti-corruption standards: From candidacy to accession. En C. a.-2. 500), Pellat, G; Zafiroski, J; Šuplata, M (págs. 55-68). Springer.

Carey, H., & Mitchell, S. M. (2023). Legalisation with lawyers in lawfare: The case of national security. In Legalisation of international law and politics. Palgrave Macmillan.

Davidov, S. I., Neymark, M. A., & Petukhov, E. N. (2023). Criminal procedural resources in national security against internal threats in Eurasian states. En h.-m. a.-n. Advances in natural, Maximova, S.G; Raikin, R.I; Chibilev, A.A; Silantyeva, M.M (págs. 150-166). Springer.

De Coteau, D. (2024). Smokescreens and pipe dreams: Examining anti-corruption measures in the Eastern Caribbean. En Black fins white sharks: Unmasking the genealogy of Caribbean political corruption. Palgrave Macmillan.

Dolan, C. J. (2023). Foreign policy elites and the national security state. In The politics of U.S. foreign policy and NATO. Palgrave Macmillan.

Dovgan, V., Chmyr, Y., Moshnin, A., Kravtsov, M., & Yermolenko, I. (2023). Review of the Ukrainian discourse field of national security issues of the modern state. En N. s. Ukraine, Radchenko, O; Kovach, V; Semenets-Orlova, I; Zaporozhets, A. Springer.

Engelbrekt, K. (2024). The European security order. En A. Bakardjieva, P. Engelbrekt, A. Ekman, Michalski, & L. Oxelheim, The borders of the European Union in a conflictual world. Palgrave Macmillan.

Gupta, S. (2024). Addressing corruption: Reimagining India's investment treaties. En J. Nedumpara, India's bilateral investment treaties 2.0. Springer.

Hassall, G. (2023). Regional peace and security. En T. U. 24). Springer.

Konovalova, O. V., Nikolaev, D. A., & Caruana, E. M. (2021). The role of management in providing anti-corruption activities of economic entities. En S. Ashmarina, & V. Mantulenko, Digital economy and the new labour market: Jobs, competences and innovative HR technologies. Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems (Vol. 161) (págs. 1001-1014). Springer.

Kruessmann, T. (2022). International anti-corruption law. En S. Sayapin, R. Atadjanov, U. Kadam, G. Kemp, N. Zambrana-Tévar, & N. Quénivet, International conflict and security law. T.M.C. Asser Press.

Lysetskyi, Y., Semenyuk, Y., Cirella, G. T., Pavlenko, D., Yuriyovich, G. A., & Demydkin, O. (2024). Conceptual framework of Ukraine's national security: Regulatory examination using information and communication technologies. En G. Cirella, Handbook on post-war reconstruction and development economics of Ukraine. Springer.

McLean, N. (2022). Anti-corruption discourses. En P. m. right. Palgrave Macmillan.

McLean, N. (2024). The privatisation of security. En i. s. Australia. Palgrave Macmillan.

Odilla, F. (2023). Bots against corruption: Exploring the benefits and limitations of AI-based anti-corruption technology. Crime, Law, and Social Change, 80, 353-396. 10.1007/s10611-023-10091-0.

Odilla, F. (2024). Unfairness in AI anti-corruption tools: Main drivers and consequences. Minds & Machines, 34, 28. 10.1007/s11023-024-09688-8.

Okpara, N., & Mamman-Muhammad, A. (2022). Imperatives of anti-corruption initiatives in enhancing public service delivery in Africa. En K. A. Ogunyemi, & R. Hinson, Ethics and accountable governance in Africa's public sector, Volume II. . Palgrave Macmillan.

Sadigov, T. (2024). Crude realities: Oil, corruption, and anti-corruption campaigns. Crime, Law, and Social Change, 82, 17-44. 10.1007/s10611-023-10127-5.

Smith, D. (2022). National legislation. In Fraud and Corruption. Contributions to Finance and Accounting . Springer.

Smith, D. (2024). National materials. In Money laundering, terrorist financing, and virtual assets. Contributions to Finance and Accounting. Springer.

Wang, J. (2023). Policies and legislation. En J. Ke, & G. McLean, Chinese women in leadership. Current Perspectives on Asian Women in Leadership. Palgrave Macmillan.

Watt, W. Y. (2024). The Hong Kong model: Building an effective anti-corruption agency. GPPG, 4, 287-296. 10.1007/s43508-024-00090-9.

Wenyah, S. (2022). Anti-corruption initiatives in Africa's public sector. En K. Ogunyemi, I. Adisa, & R. Hinson, Ethics and accountable governance in Africa's public sector (págs. 7-24). Palgrave Macmillan.