



Munich Personal RePEc Archive

Alcohol and corruption

Azia-Dimbu, Florentin and Kalonda-Kanyama, Isaac and
Kodila-Tedika, Oasis

17 July 2012

Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/40120/>
MPRA Paper No. 40120, posted 18 Jul 2012 10:23 UTC

Alcohol and corruption

Draft, Preliminary and Incomplete

This Version: July 3, 2012

FlorentinAzia-Dimbu

Faculté de Psychologie et Sciences de l'éducation, Université Pédagogique Nationale, Rép. Dém. du Congo
flo_azia@yahoo.fr

Isaac Kalonda-Kanyama¹

Department of Economics and Econometrics, University of Johannesburg, South Africa.
Faculté des Sciences Économiques et de Gestion, Université de Kinshasa, Rép. Dém. du Congo
ikkanyama@uj.ac.za

Oasis Kodila-Tedika

Faculté des Sciences Économiques et de Gestion, Université de Kinshasa, Rép. Dém. du Congo
Institute of African Economics
oasiskodila@yahoo.fr

Abstract

This study had for objective to measure the link which exists between the alcohol and the corruption, or more exactly the relation between the drinker and the corruption. In the term of this study, it seems clearly that the relation is positive between both variables. Drinkers' quantitative increase in the country tends to increase the level of the received corruption.

If this relation is clear, it requires nevertheless a lot of caution as far as we do not supply an argument so robust.

Keys-words: corruption, alcohol, drinkers, institutions

JEL : I12, O15, Z13, D73

1. INTRODUCTION

There is little doubt that alcohol consumption is associated with many social problems. Not only is alcohol consumption and its adverse outcomes a concern for an individual's close partners and relatives, but it also is a cause of serious public health problems insomuch that both national and international health organizations frequently give related alerts. For example, maternal alcohol consumption during pregnancy can result in fetal alcohol syndrome in children, and parental drinking is correlated with child abuse and impacts a child's environment in many social, psychological and economic ways (Gmel & Rehm, 2003). On the other hand, according to the World Health Organization (2011), the harmful use of alcohol

¹Corresponding author

results in 2.5 million deaths each year. In addition, 320 young people between the age of 15 and 29 die from alcohol related causes, resulting in 9% of all deaths in that age group.).

The relationship between alcohol and health is well documented as well. Alcohol abusive consumption is shown to be the cause of several health conditions such as neuropsychiatric disorders (Samokhvalov et al., 2010), gastrointestinal diseases, cancer (Baan et al., 2007; Hamajima et al., 2002), cardiovascular diseases (Rehm et al., 2010) and diabetes mellitus (Baliunas et al., 2009a). In addition to the fact that abusive use of alcohol is an important cause of road accidents, research has also found that alcohol consumption is strongly associated with violent crime (Bushman, 1997; Graham and West, 2001) and with a substantial number of domestic violence accidents (Maffli and Zumbrunn, 2003; Gmel et al., 2003; Rehm, 2003; White and Chen, 2002; Obot, 2000; Jewkes, Levin and Penn-Kekana 2002; Koenig et al., 2003); although the relationship between alcohol and domestic violence is complex.

More interestingly, the impact of alcohol use has been showed on macroeconomic variables. Researchers have suggested that alcohol consumption expenditures account for a substantial part of the annual Gross Domestic Product of industrialized countries (Klingemann & Gmel, 2001). Baklien and Samarasinghe (2001) conducted a study in 11 districts in Sri Lanka, examining the link between alcohol and poverty and found that 7% of men said that their alcohol expenditure was greater than their income. On the other hand, heavy drinking at the workplace may potentially lower productivity. Trapenciere (2000) estimated that drinking and alcoholism have reduced labor productivity by about 10%. In addition, there is ample evidence that people with alcohol dependence and problem drinkers have higher rates of sickness and absenteeism than other employees (Klingemann & Gmel, 2001). Furthermore, Klingemann and Gmel (2001) note that a number of studies have demonstrated an association between heavy drinking or alcohol abuse and unemployment. Here, a causal association may go in either direction, heavy drinking may lead to unemployment, as suggested by Mustonen, Paakkanen and Simpura (1994) and Mullahy & Sindelar (1996). However, loss of work may also result in increased drinking, which may lead to heavy drinking, as indicated by Gallant (1993), Dooley & Prause (1998) and Claussen (1999). Other links between alcohol consumption and work related issues are documented by Hughes and Bellis (2000) and Stallones and Xiang (2003).

Although many research papers have focused on the impact of alcohol consumption, none have addressed its impact on corruption. While only anecdotal evidence point to the possible link between alcohol consumption and corruption (**Ramirez Torres, 1990**), no paper, to the best of our knowledge, has systematically provided empirical evidence of such an effect. Our aim in this paper is to feel this gap in the literature.

This is organized in five section. The first section introduces the article. The following one presents the relation, apparently, anecdotal between the corruption and the alcohol. The third presents the methodological approach and the fourth presents the results. The last section is dedicated to the conclusion.

2. ANECDOTAL EVIDENCE

This section presents some evidence on alcohol consumption and corruption.

Insert graphical

Source: World Health Organization (2011)

A large variation exists in adult per capita consumption (Figure 1). The highest consumption levels can be found in the developed world, mostly in the Northern Hemisphere, but also in Argentina, Australia and New Zealand. Medium consumption levels can be found in southern Africa, with Namibia and South Africa having the highest levels, and in North and South America. Low consumption levels can be found in the countries of North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa, the Eastern Mediterranean region, and southern Asia and the Indian Ocean. These regions represent large populations of the Islamic faith, which have very high rates of abstention (World Health Organization, 2011).

In terms of consumption, according to the same report, the world average consumption of pure alcohol was 6,13 liters per capita of more than 15 years (calculated on an average from 2003 till 2005). The countries which consume most are Russia, the United Kingdom, France, Germany and the Eastern Europe with more than 12,5 liters of pure alcohol a year and a person, in the evening the equivalent of 500 pints of beer in 5 %. Just behind, we find the rest of Europe, Argentina and Australia, with more than 10 liters.

The WHO notes generally that the consumption is stable since the beginning of 1990s to the rich countries but that it increases strongly in developing countries, in Asia and in Africa. She also worries about the increase at the young people generally. On 82 countries having agreed to answer, 80 % would have noted such an evolution.

Obviously, the tendency varies strongly between every country. The consumption of the Russians increases to arrive at 15,7 liters a year, whereas that of the French people, with 13,7 liters, takes a nose dive, if we look since the 60s, when they consumed about 25 liters of pure alcohol a year!

The graph 2 below, besides, brings to light the perception of the corruption in the planet. A low score (red) indicates a high degree of corruption. The index assumes values between 0 (corruption) and 10 (no corruption). It is clear that the countries of the southern hemisphere and the Asian countries are the most corrupt, with regard to this indicator. Contrary to the previous graph, this one is concentrated. It is more the block of regions that is the most concerned.

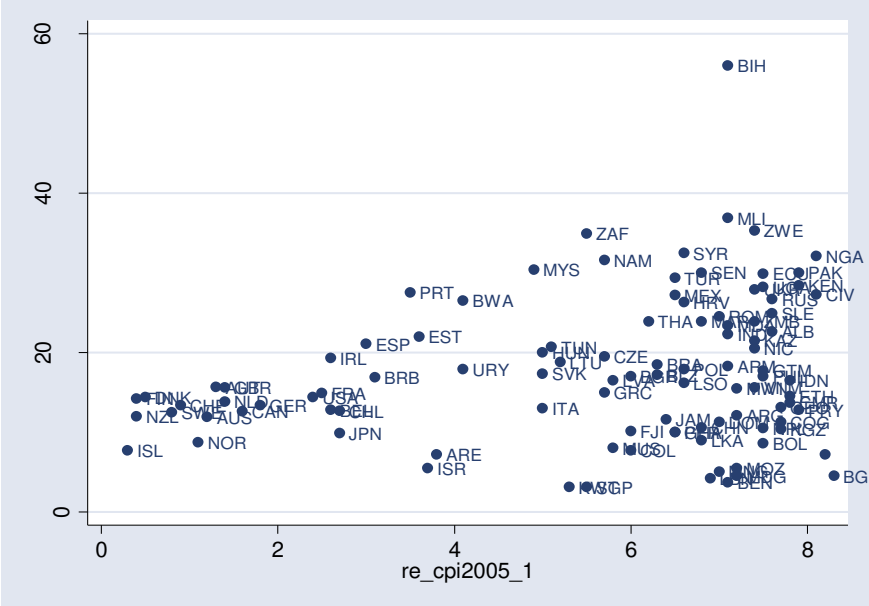
Figure 2. Corruption perception in world

Insert graphical

It is not obvious, from the previous figures, to establish a relationship between corruption and alcohol consumption. We plot the two variables in Figure 3. We represent the number of drinkers on the vertical axis and the corruption perception index (CPI) on the vertical axis. The data is for 2005 and comes from World Health Organization (2011) and Transparency International for CPI. In graphical, the reversed index (re_cpi) assumes values between 0 (no corruption) and 10 (extreme corruption).

It appears that countries with a low number of drinkers have lower CPI while countries with a higher number of drinkers have higher levels of CPI. However, Figure 3 also depicts the fact that some of the countries that have less drinkers have a lower CPI as well. Our aim in this paper is to check if there exists a causal relationship between the two variables.

Figure 3. Alcohol and corruption



3 EMPIRICAL MODEL

We estimate the following empirical model:

$$Cor_i = \alpha + \beta Alcohol_i + \delta Z_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

where Cor_i is the corruption index for country i . To measure corruption, I use the reversed Transparency International’s Perception of Corruption Index (CPI) for the year 2005. The reversed index assumes values between 0 (no corruption) and 10 (extreme corruption). The CPI has often been used in empirical research on corruption (see the studies mentioned in section 1). $Alcohol_i$ is adult per capita consumption among drinkers, both sexes, 2005 (15+ years; in litres of pure alcohol). The source of this variable is the report of World Health Organization 2011. $Z = (z_1, \dots, z_k)'$ is the vector of control variables, and ε_i is the error term that is assumed to be normally and independently distributed. Finally, α is the intercept, β captures the effect of adult per capita consumption among drinkers while $\delta = (\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_k)$ is the parameter vector for the control variables. Our parameter of interest is thus β .

As control variables, we include openness to trade (or KOF index of economic globalization for the year 2005 from Dreher 2006 and Dreher et al. 2008) for the year 2005 (from Penn World Tables 6.3), the log of GDP per capita for the year 2005 (from Penn World Tables 6.3), intelligence quotient for the year 2001 (from Lynn et al., 2002), democracy for the year 2005

(from Cheibub et al., 2010), average years of schooling (% of population aged 25 and over or % of population aged 15 and over) from Barro and Lee (2010), legal origin and geographical location. Following the trend in the literature, legal origin is captured by distinguishing between the English, French, German, Scandinavian and socialist legal heritages.

We estimate the model with ordinary least squares (OLS) and robust standard errors. The constraint of a study in cross-section is due to availability of data.

4 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Tableau 1.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Drinker	0,057*** (0,019)	0,060*** (0,017)	0,035* (0,020)	0,032** (0,012)
Africa		0,845 (0,529)		3,624** (1,553)
America				2,460 (1,634)
Asia		0,827 (0,568)		2,946* (1,578)
Europa		-1,981*** (0,624)		0,373 (1,602)
Oceania		4,832* (0,567)		
LegorOrigin (UK)				1,931*** (0,550)
LegalOrigin (french)				2,821*** (0,492)
LegalOrigin (socialist)				4,473*** (0,391)
LegalOrigin (scandinavian)				-0,360 (0,342)
Intelligence quotient			0,050** (0,022)	
Log GDP per capita			-1,849*** (0,289)	
Democracy			-0,243 (0,388)	
KOF index of economic globalization			-0,033* (0,019)	
Average years of schooling			0,040 (0,087)	
Constant	4,589*** (0,489)	4,832*** (0,567)	19,156* (1,909)	4,832*** (0,567)
Adj. R ²	0,05	0,38	0,66	0,63
Obs.	102	102	89	101

Notes: Absolute value of t statistics in brackets; * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

5 CONCLUSION

This study had for objective to measure the link which exists between the alcohol and the corruption, or more exactly the relation between the drinker and the corruption. In the term of

this study, it seems clearly that the relation is positive between both variables. Drinkers' quantitative increase in the country tends to increase the level of the received corruption.

If this relation is clear, it requires nevertheless a lot of caution as far as we do not supply an argument so robust.

REFERENCES

- Baan R et al. on behalf of the WHO International Agency for Research on Cancer Monograph Working Group (2007). Carcinogenicity of alcoholic beverages. *Lancet Oncology*, 8:292–293.
- Baklien B, Samarasinghe D. *Alcohol and poverty in Sri Lanka*. FORUT (Solidaritetsaksjon for utvikling [Campaign for development and solidarity]), 2001.
- Baliunas D et al. (2009a). Alcohol consumption and risk of incident human immunodeficiency virus infection: a meta-analysis. *International Journal of Public Health*, 55:159–166 [Epub 2009 Dec 1].
- Barro, R.J., Lee, J.-W., 2010. A new data set of educational attainment in the world. 1950-2010. *NBER Working Paper* 15902.
- Bushman BJ. Effects of alcohol on human aggression: Validity of proposed mechanisms. In: Galanter M, ed. *Recent developments in alcoholism*. New York, Plenum Press, 1997:227-244.
- Cheibub, J., Gandhi, J., Vreeland, J.R., 2010. Democracy and dictatorship revisited. *Public Choice* 143, 67-101.
- Claussen B. Alcohol disorders and re-employment in a 5-year follow-up of long-term unemployed. *Addiction*, 1999, 94(1):133-138.
- Costes JM, Martineau H. Drugs and dependence - Indicators and trends in 2002. *Tendances*, 19. Paris, Observatoire Français des Drogues et des Toxicomanies [French Monitoring Centre of Drugs and Drug Addiction], 2002.
- Dooley D, Prause J. Underemployment and alcohol misuse in the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 1998, 59(6):669-680.
- Dreher, A., 2006. Does globalization affect growth? Evidence from a new index of globalization. *Applied Economics* 38, 1091-1110.
- Dreher, A., Gaston, N., Martens, P., 2008. *Measuring globalization – Gauging its consequences*. Springer, Berlin.
- Gallant DM. Unemployment and alcohol consumption. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, 1993, 17(3):722-723.
- Gmel G, Rehm J. Harmful alcohol use. *Alcohol Research and Health*, 2003, 27(1):52-62.
- Graham K, West P. Alcohol and crime. In: Heather N, Peters TJ, Stockwell T, eds. *International handbook of alcohol dependence and problems*. London, John Wiley & Sons, 2001:439-470.
- Hamajima N et al. (2002). Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Alcohol, tobacco and breast cancer-collaborative reanalysis of individual data from 53 epidemiological studies, including 58,515 women with breast cancer and 95,067 women without the disease. *British Journal of Cancer*, 87:1234–1245.

- Hughes K, Bellis MA. *Alcohol: Some sobering statistics from the NWPHO*. North West Public Health Ovservatory (NWPHO), 2000.
- Jewkes R, Levin J, Penn-Kekana L. Risk factors for domestic violence: Findings from a South African cross-sectional study. *Social Science and Medicine*, 2002, 55(9):1603-1617.
- Klingemann H, Gmel G, eds. *Mapping the Social Consequences of Alcohol Consumption*. Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001.
- Klingemann H, Gmel G, eds. *Mapping the Social Consequences of Alcohol Consumption*. Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001.
- Koenig MA et al. Domestic violence in rural Uganda: Evidence from a community-based study. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 2003, 81(1):53-60.
- Lynn, R., Vanhanen, T., 2002. *IQ and the wealth of nations*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Maffli E, Zumbunn A. Alcohol and domestic violence in a sample of incidents reported to the police of Zurich City. *Substance Use and Misuse*, 2003, 38(7):881-893.
- Mullahy J, Sindelar JL. Employment, unemployment, and problem drinking. *Journal of Health Economics*, 1996, 15(4):409-434.
- Mustonen H, Paakkanen P, Simpura J. Drinking habits among the employed and unemployed. *Nordic Alcohol Studies*, 1994, 11(English Suppl.):21-34.
- Obot IS. The measurement of drinking patterns and alcohol problems in Nigeria. *Journal of Substance Abuse*, 2000, 12(1-2):169-181.
- Ramirez Torres, F. (1990), *Los Delitos Economicos en los Negocias*, Managua, Tollerer de don Bosco.
- Rehm J et al. (2009). Alcohol and global health 1: global burden of disease and injury and economic cost attributable to alcohol use and alcohol-use disorders. *Lancet*, 373:2223–2233.
- Rehm J et al. (2010). The relation between different dimensions of alcohol consumption and burden of disease – an overview. *Addiction*, 105:817 -843.
- Samokhvalov AV et al. (2010): Alcohol consumption, unprovoked seizures and epilepsy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Epilepsia*[Epub ahead of print January 13].
- Stallones L, Xiang H. Alcohol consumption patterns and work-related injuries among Colorado farm residents. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 2003, 25(1):25-30.
- Trapenciere I. Statistics on alcohol, drugs and crime in Latvia. In: Leifman H & Edgren-Henrichson N, eds. *Statistics on alcohol, drugs and crime in the Baltic Sea regions*. Helsinki, Nordic Council for Alcohol and Drug Research (NAD), 2000.
- White HR, Chen P. Problem drinking and intimate partner violence. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 2002, 63(2):205-214.
- World Health Organization (2011), *Global status report on alcohol and health*, WHO Press, Geneva, Switzerland.