



**EXPLORING THE ROLE OF COLLECTIVE EFFICACY AND TRUST IN POLICE
FOR CRIME PREVENTION IN ADDIS ABABA NEIGHBORHOODS**

BY

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Exploring the Role of Collective Efficacy and Trust in Police for Crime Prevention in Addis Ababa Neighborhoods

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Original Literary Work Declaration

I, Medareshaw Tafesse Melkamu, do hereby declare to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University that this thesis entitled “Exploring the Role of Collective Efficacy and Trust in Police for Crime Prevention in Addis Ababa Neighborhoods” is a product of my original research work. It was not submitted, in full or part, for the attainment of any academic degree elsewhere. This work has also acknowledged the views of the research participants. To the best of my knowledge, I have fully acknowledged the materials and pieces of information used in the study. The reporting procedures comply with the expected standards and regulations of the University.

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Abstract

Ethiopia's capital, Addis Ababa, is grappling with significant crime challenges, as highlighted by various reports and studies. For example, police data indicates that between 2013 and 2018, major predatory crimes—such as murder, assault, robbery, and burglary—increased by 43%. Despite this alarming rise in crime and its many consequences, there is a notable lack of empirical research aimed at enhancing our understanding as well as informing effective crime control measures. This research emphasizes the importance of collective efficacy—social cohesion combined with shared belief among community members in their ability to achieve common goals—and trust in police forces as vital components in crime prevention and enhancing community safety. This study adopts a pragmatist research philosophy, combining ontological and epistemological approaches to fill empirical gaps. It utilizes methodological triangulation through a convergent design that integrates quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data from 616 residents in 11 neighborhoods of Addis Ababa was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Qualitative data was collected through key informant interviews and focus group discussions with residents and police and analyzed thematically. The study revealed that collective efficacy appears to play crime-protective role in the study areas. Specifically, higher collective efficacy correlates with lower crime levels, as reflected in residents' perceptions of crime seriousness, fear of crime, and victimization rates. Yet, the qualitative results reveal a notable degree of collective efficacy in specific crime-stricken, disadvantaged neighborhoods, contradicting findings from developed nations that suggest crime-ridden areas lack collective efficacy. Nevertheless, these communities do not have the essential resources required for effective social control. Further, the study found that lower trust in the police and procedural justice is inversely related to how respondents perceived the seriousness of the crime in their neighborhoods and their fear of crime. The study provides compelling evidence to support the idea that collective efficacy, trust in the police, and procedural justice are crucial factors in reducing crime rates, improving safety, and fostering positive police-community relations. Thus, enhancing collective efficacy and trust in the police is essential for addressing neighborhood crime in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. This approach is vital for effective community-based crime prevention strategies, creating resilient communities that can proactively address crime.

Keywords: Crime prevention strategies, Community Safety, Collective efficacy, public trust in the police, social capital, Procedural justice, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Crime is a multifaceted social issue with far-reaching effects on individuals, families, and entire communities. It is widely acknowledged as a major contributor to the decline of social and economic well-being. Furthermore, the repercussions of crime are severe and widespread, impacting personal safety, economic stability, institutional integrity, and governance. Therefore, it poses a significant threat to society's well-being and demands ongoing attention and innovative solutions to address it effectively. Numerous reports and empirical data indicate that Africa is grappling with significant challenges related to criminal activities. For instance, the recent global homicide study estimates 12.7 homicide per 100,000 populations in Africa in 2021, the highest number of cases, followed by the Americas and Asia (UNODC, 2023).

The high levels of crime, as showcased by homicide in Africa, can be attributed to various socioeconomic and cultural factors. These include widening income inequality, high rates of unemployed youth populations, rapid and unplanned urbanization failing to accommodate urban poor, rural-to-urban migration, poorly equipped criminal justice systems, and the proliferation of firearms (UNODC, 2005; World Bank, 2011). To effectively address this issue, it is essential to adopt a comprehensive approach that takes into account social and economic conditions, law enforcement strategies, and technological advancements. By considering these multiple sources of crime, more effective strategies can be developed to prevent and reduce crime (Ojo & Ojewale, 2018; Skilling & Rogers, 2017; UNODC, 2005). Despite the increasing crime rates in Africa, there is a lack of empirical and analytical research on community measures for reducing crime, enhancing crime prevention, and promoting community safety (Frimpong et al., 2018a; Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016; Skilling & Rogers, 2017).

Crime in Ethiopia poses significant challenges, leading to increased loss of lives, physical harm, property damage, and societal instability (Abbink, 2017). UN agencies such as WHO and UNODC consider homicide rates a reliable crime indicator due to their consistent reporting. Ethiopia saw a decrease in its homicide rate from 11.0 in 2000 to 7.2 per 100,000 in 2019, but crime still poses a significant threat to social well-being and remains one of the highest in the Eastern and Horn of

Africa region(WHO, 2019). Moreover, the World Population Review (2020) survey shows Ethiopia had the highest crime rate in Eastern Africa in 2019, at 47.46 per 100,000 inhabitants. The Ethiopian Federal Police (EFP) crime report further indicates that between 2016 and 2021, the rates of violent crimes including homicide, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault increased by 25%, 52%, 51.8%, and 29.8%, respectively. The recent World Values Survey (2017-2021) revealed that 11.5 percent of the respondents reported to victims of crimes one year prior to the survey(Haerpfer, C., Inglehart, R., Moreno, A., Welzel, C., Kizilova, K., Diez-Medrano J., M. Lagos, P. Norris, 2022). However, it's important to note that there is a lack of current and periodic crime data collection in Ethiopia and Africa.

Crime in Ethiopia has traditionally been more common in urban areas than in rural ones. However, recent statistics show a rise in rural crime(Andargachew, 2004). Despite this increase, urban areas continue to have a much higher incidence of crime and violence (Andargachew, 1988; Di Nunzio, 2014; Jibat & Nigussie, 2015). Addis Ababa, with a projected population of around 6 million by 2023 (World Population Review, 2024), is the most urbanized city in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa faces significant crime issues, including theft and assault, with a high crime rate, second only to the Oromia region, according to Ethiopian Federal Police statistics (EFP, 2022).

Scholars in the fields of criminology and sociology have long worked to explain the problem of crime in neighborhoods. Several theories and models have been developed to better understand this phenomenon. Overall, these theories and models aim to explain the complex interplay between different social and structural contexts, which helps to understand the prevalence and variation of crime at the neighborhood and community levels. Some of the most influential theories include the social disorganization theory (Shaw & McKay, 1942[1969]), the Broken Window Theory (Wilson & Kelling, 1982), and the collective efficacy framework (Sampson et al., 1997). These theories have been widely studied and debated among experts, mostly in developed societies.

Empirical research has shown that crime reflects the quality of the social environment, such as living conditions, social cohesion, and informal social control(Kawachi et al., 1999). Thus, Crime decreases as living conditions improve, community sense or social cohesion increases, and the community's capacity to act for common causes improves. Based on theoretical frameworks and supported by assumptions and empirical evidence, a variety of techniques and strategies have been

utilized to address neighborhood crime, such as the implementation of community policing programs(Gill et al., 2014), neighborhood watch(van Graan, 2016), and urban or physical design interventions(Newman, 1995). These initiatives have been implemented to shape the crime problem by mobilizing community capacity for self-regulation and changing the physical environment.

Expanding on substantial evidence, Sampson and fellow researchers (Sampson et al., 1997) have put forward the essential elements required for a community to uphold social order and decrease crime. Their emphasis is on "collective efficacy," which is described as social control implemented in an environment of social trust, and involves a fusion of interpersonal trust (social capital) with mutual anticipations for action(R. Sampson, 2004; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997). The construct of collective efficacy is marked by a shared sense of trust, mutual obligation, and willingness to intervene in the face of deviant behavior and other social problems. Through numerous studies, collective efficacy theory has shown to explain why, despite weak ties among community members, the existence of shared values and expectations can enable enough trust for the community to achieve common goals (Browning et al., 2004; Gerell, 2015; Mazerolle et al., 2010). Few studies from developing countries also confirmed the crime-protective value of collective efficacy(Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016; Parks et al., 2014). Further, collective efficacy was shown to mediate the impacts of structural disadvantages, including residential instability, social exclusion, and concentrated economic disadvantage (Sampson et al.,1997). Other groups of researchers have also confirmed the crime-reducing role of community collective efficacy and highlighted its important implications for designing and implementing crime prevention strategies and community safety models (Gerell & Kronkvist, 2016; Hipp & Wo, 2015; Maxwell et al., 2018; Sutherland et al., 2013). In contrast, others have argued that collective efficacy and other elements of social mechanisms such as social ties and networks within a community, are limited in what they can achieve(Sutherland et al., 2013). For instance, to ensure order and control crime, communities need the essential services of the police(World Bank, 2011).The police's services, however, depend on the community's trust in the police institutions, not only internal cohesion and shared expectations for social action(Sargeant, 2015; Yesberg & Bradford, 2021). Thus, it is advised to incorporate explanations about relationships between the police and the public, as they affect public order and crime control outcomes.

Studies have demonstrated that community-based interventions effectively reduce crime and improve safety, suggesting that enhancing collective efficacy may be essential to consider in such efforts (Donna-Mae, 2014; Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Furthermore, recent studies conducted by police academics and others in developed countries suggest that collective efficacy plays a crucial role in combating crime (Sargeant, 2015; Sargeant et al., 2013). These studies also indicate that police should work to strengthen collective efficacy in the neighbourhoods and provide adequate police services to address crime problems. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that the effectiveness of policing in preventing crime and the degree to which procedural justice is observed can positively impact the collective efficacy of communities and reduce crime (Yesberg et al., 2023; Yesberg & Bradford, 2021).

Research on the protective role of collective efficacy against crime in developed countries is extensive (Gerell, 2015; Hipp & Wo, 2015; R. Sampson, 2004). Search results from various databases, including ProQuest theses and dissertations, the Addis Ababa University library, Google Scholar, and other potential sources of academic articles, yielded no scholarly work in Ethiopia related to the social control construct of collective efficacy and trust in the police concerning neighborhood crime issues and their role in crime prevention. This indicates a significant gap in scholarly attention regarding the community context that explains crime, particularly in relation to collective efficacy and essential policing practices in developing countries like Ethiopia. This knowledge gap limits our understanding and challenges policymakers and academics to comprehend how collective efficacy and policing practices contribute to explaining crime and enhancing safety in these contexts. Therefore, it is worthwhile to conduct research to understand the contribution of collective efficacy and policing practices to crime prevention in developing countries.

To sum up, in Ethiopia, urban crime is a growing concern, but crime control efforts lack research into community contexts that contribute to crime control and fail to engage effectively with local elements that support crime prevention efforts. Due to this, the existing crime control strategies are less comprehensive and viable (Kebede, 2014), have emerged top-down (Jackson et al., 2018), and are less informed by community-level, evidence-based knowledge. This lack of knowledge and evidence-based approaches presents an opportunity for further research to understand better social contexts, such as collective efficacy and police behavior, that shape neighborhood crime and inform crime control and order maintenance efforts. With a law enforcement professional

background, the student researcher assumes a role in advancing the understanding of relevant crime-protective community characteristics and identifying policing elements significant to fostering the collective capacity for social control. By providing evidence-based solutions to address neighborhood crime problems, the present study aims to contribute to public police, community safety and help reduce crime.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In Addis Ababa, police reports indicate that between 2016 and 2021, the incidence of major predatory crimes, including murder, assault, robbery, and burglary, surged by 43% (Addis Ababa Police Commission, 2021). In response to this rising crime wave, the city has implemented special operations targeting criminal networks and has instituted a ban on motorbikes, which are often associated with criminal activity. As insecurity escalates, Addis Ababa residents are taking precautionary measures by erecting high walls, installing advanced locks, and hiring private security personnel. This trend has led to an increase in gated communities, new condominium building with weak social ties reflecting the heightened sense of vulnerability among the population (Yeraswork, 2008). Furthermore, the proliferation of private security companies highlights growing concerns about crime and safety in the city (Eshete, 2023). Many observers argue that the private security industry has become profitable, exploiting the existing insecurity and the inadequacies of public law enforcement.

Rising unemployment and inflation have been identified as significant contributors to increasing crime rates in Ethiopia, particularly in Addis Ababa (Alemayehu, 2018). Ineffective crime response strategies, coupled with a lack of community-based crime prevention initiatives, have led to inadequate and unsustainable methods of criminal control (Di Nunzio, 2014; D. Kebede, 2014). Numerous studies highlight that the surge in crime can be attributed to various interrelated factors, including poverty, social inequality, residential mobility, rural-to-urban migration, high unemployment rates, and poorly trained and equipped police forces. Moreover, research indicates that the weakening of social cohesion within communities has played a crucial role in exacerbating crime and deviant behavior in Addis Ababa (Kassahun, 2015).

Neighborhood-level crime has been extensively studied within the frameworks of physical, environmental, socioeconomic, and institutional contexts, with a particular focus on neighborhood

social processes. Researchers have found that social cohesion, combined with residents' willingness to act for the common good, can lead to reduced crime rates (Armstrong et al., 2015; Burchfield & Silver, 2013; Hipp & Wickes, 2017; Mazerolle et al., 2010; Sampson et al., 1997). Sampson, Morenoff, and Earls (1997) referred to this phenomenon as "collective efficacy," which describes neighborhoods where residents collaborate to monitor activities, regulate illegal markets, and address social disorder, ultimately resulting in lower rates of violent crimes.

Building on this concept, scholars have emphasized the importance of collective efficacy in crime prevention and its role in addressing various serious issues faced by urban residents. Some studies conducted in developing countries, particularly Ghana and Trinidad and Tobago, have highlighted the positive impact of collective efficacy on crime reduction (Frimpong et al., 2018; Kochel, 2013; Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016). Additionally, research in Nairobi's slum neighborhoods demonstrated how informal social control can enable communities to self-regulate and cope with crime and violence (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Despite these findings, the results of such studies have not been conclusive, making it challenging to draw generalizations. It remains unclear whether collective efficacy can predict neighborhood crime rates or maintain its effectiveness in addressing other social problems in countries like Ethiopia, which have distinct socioeconomic and historical characteristics.

Previous empirical studies conducted in Ethiopia, particularly in Addis Ababa, have shown the presence of robust social ties, social cohesion, and high reciprocity norms within communities (Kassahun, 2015; Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). These social processes are shown to account for various positive outcomes in a non-criminal context. However, there has been little exploration of how social processes, like collective efficacy, influence crime prevention at the neighborhood level. It's unclear whether collective efficacy has the same impact in Ethiopia as it does elsewhere, making it important to investigate its role in crime prevention.

Furthermore, the importance of public trust in police for crime prevention, including aspects of policing like police effectiveness in crime control, procedural justice and police-community relations, remains under-researched. In contrast, research conducted in the developed world found that aspects of formal social control, such as police effectiveness, procedural justice, and community policing, play a crucial role to crime prevention and understanding crime level at the neighbourhood level (Mazerolle et al., 2013; Sargeant, 2015; Wickes et al., 2013). These

studies have shown a strong link between the effectiveness of the police, judiciary, prisons, and the incidence of criminal activities in various locations, and citizens' involvement in community safety. In essence, the effectiveness of the criminal justice system is a reliable predictor of crime rates in these areas (Kirk & Matsuda, 2011; Kirk & Papachristos, 2011; Sargeant, 2015). Further, community safety initiatives established for crime prevention require collaboration with formal and informal social control mechanisms.

Moreover, recent research has suggested that policing practices and behaviors shape the community's capacity for self-regulation, specifically its collective efficacy (Yesberg et al., 2019). Notably, public trust in the police—specifically trust in police effectiveness and procedural fairness—enhances social cohesion and citizens' willingness to exert informal social control and collaborate more with the police (Kochel, 2013; Sargeant, 2015; Sargeant et al., 2013). Further research suggests that effective police services that demonstrate procedural fairness are essential for fostering community trust in the police and enhancing collective efficacy. Conversely, if residents perceive the police to be ineffective, unresponsive, ill-equipped to maintain public safety, engaged in misconduct, or not treated fairly, they may be less likely to cooperate with the police and utilize informal social control (Renauer, 2007; Tankebe, 2008). Furthermore, academic research articles shows that negative police behaviours are likely to result in crimes going undetected and unpunished, leading to increasing crime rates (Kochel, 2013). However, research evidence on the link between policing and community capacity for self-regulation is largely based on studies from developed countries, with limited research in developing nations where issues like inefficiency, corruption, and mistrust are prevalent. There is a need to explore how police services impact community self-regulation and the relationship between citizen trust in police and crime rates, as well as the potential for police practices to enhance collective efficacy.

In the Ethiopian context, Gudeta (2019) found that public trust in police is at a lower level, and institutional performance are critical in determining the source of trust. Further, the most recent wave of the World Values Survey revealed that 40.8% of Ethiopians have little faith in the police and its capacity to prevent and control crime (Haerpfer, C., Inglehart, R., Moreno, A., Welzel, C., Kizilova, K., Diez-Medrano J., M. Lagos, P. Norris, 2022). Despite the above little evidence, Ethiopia's current state of research on citizens' trust in the police to protect life and property, particularly at the neighborhood level, is limited. In addition, these studies have not explored how the

nature of police services impacts community self-regulation initiatives, social cohesion, and informal social control efforts. Further, the impact of police services on community crime prevention and safety has not been studied before. Beyond impacts on crime prevention, research shows that citizens' trust in the police boosts participation in crime control and cooperation with law enforcement. Additionally, certain policing behaviors may enhance community collective efficacy in preventing crime. However, the interplay between collective efficacy and trust in the police in crime control is not well understood, particularly in Ethiopia, where their independent roles and interactions remain unexplored.

Empirical studies in Ethiopia show that the community policing strategy has largely failed to reduce crime, ensure safety, and prevent violence (Kebede, 2014; Di Nunzio, 2014). The studies highlighted shortcomings due to a top-down approach, political interference, and insufficient resources. Community safety initiatives that do not arise from grassroots involvement often overlook local knowledge and fail to engage citizens in collective crime reduction efforts are less likely to succeed (Skiling & Rogers, 2017). In the Ethiopian context, efforts to identify and incorporate these qualities into existing initiatives or provide recommendations is less a common practice. The problem is the lack of systematic documentation and understanding of how critical social characteristics and processes in Ethiopia, such as strong social ties, networks, social cohesion, and informal social control, contribute to crime prevention and enhance community safety. In addition, the impact of trust relationships, procedural justice, and police-community relations on community safety initiatives receives insufficient academic attention.

Understanding the roles of collective efficacy and trust in the police is essential for effectively tackling and preventing crime in our communities. Knowledge produced can serve purposes for creating safer environments and fostering a collaborative approach to law enforcement and crime prevention. In this regard, the findings of the current study can significantly enhance both theoretical and empirical perspectives on how collective efficacy and policing variables contribute to crime control. The research underscores the importance of examining crime at the neighborhood level to develop evidence-based solutions, particularly in a country like Ethiopia, where resources allocated for policing and crime prevention are limited. Furthermore, the study highlights the

relevance of integrating sociology with crime studies to deepen our understanding of the sociology of crime and to formulate more effective strategies for enhancing public safety.

1.3 Objectives of the study

1.3.1 General Objective

This study seeks to reveal how collective efficacy and public trust in law enforcement contribute to crime prevention in specific Addis Ababa neighborhoods and identify effective strategies for enhancing community safety.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

Specifically, this study aims to:

1. Identify criminality and response to crime in selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa.
2. Analyze the impact of collective efficacy for community crime prevention in the study areas.
3. Explain the varying degrees of social ties and usage of community services
4. Evaluate policing practices that contribute to public trust in the police and community crime prevention in the study areas.
5. Identify compatible social control features relevant to community crime prevention and safety in Addis Ababa.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The present research explored the interplay between neighborhood crime rates, collective efficacy, and police services. Specifically, the study aimed to comprehend the impact of police services on promoting collective efficacy and how these factors affect crime and disorder in Addis Ababa. Overall, the results of this study could improve both theoretical and practical understanding of the role of collective efficacy and policing factors in preventing crime. Furthermore, the study aimed to bridge existing gaps in the literature and provide insights based on unique sociocultural contexts that could inform crime control strategies.

Residents' evaluation of crime in their neighborhoods, personal experiences with crime, and fear of crime have significant implications for citizens' well-being, quality of life, and daily routines. These conditions affect people's overall health, mobility, living costs, and general quality of life. The impact of these factors can be far-reaching and complex, necessitating a comprehensive

approach to address them. A study of citizens' crime victimization and concerns about crime problems in their neighborhood and relationship with relevant community-level characteristics that predict such problems informs overall crime control efforts and contributes to the body of knowledge in the social science. The following points further outline the study's theoretical, research, and crime control relevance.

Crime is a central problem that negatively impacts human welfare, city livability, businesses, and social life. Thus, sociologists investigate a centrally important social problem and suggest informed solutions. In Ethiopia, despite the significant problem of crime with several negative ramifications, limited research has explored this topic through the use of research evidence and social contexts that better explain its prevalence and suggest how responsible societal units and agencies can better prevent it. Thus, this study serves as a valuable resource for researchers, policymakers, and law enforcement officials interested in exploring the relationships between crime and social processes and between crime and the behaviors of formal/informal social control.

Existing research based primarily on the experiences of Western countries has shown that understanding collective efficacy can inform efforts to control crime and improve safety. The study's findings can inform law enforcement agencies, particularly police officers, about the role of collective efficacy in predicting crime distribution across geographic places. Furthermore, the study suggests to the police the importance of enhancing collective efficacy at the neighborhood level to reduce perceived and actual crime problems and improve safety and order.

The current study also investigated trust in the police and which police practices and behaviors are relevant for understanding citizens' trust in the police. The study also investigated how citizens' perceptions of trust in local police officers relate to their perceptions of the crime problem in their neighborhood. The relationship between the perception of crime and trust in CJS institutions remains underexplored (Singer et al., 2019). Despite the existing scant research evidence concerning the influence of the efficacy of police and its treatment of citizens and its bearing on actual and perceived crime problems, research conducted in industrialized countries has produced mixed results on whether police practices and programs can shape actual and perceived crime among citizens in developing countries. This study seeks to reveal the extent of trust in the police and identify relevant policing practices and behaviors that influence residents' trust in the police

and their perception of crime. This helps police and other law enforcement bodies prioritize their efforts, which enhances citizens' trust in the police and addresses concerns about both actual and perceived crime problems. Thus, this study offers insights and practical solutions for improving public trust in the police.

Emerging research, primarily from developed countries, shows that a favorable evaluation of criminal justice institutions is linked with improved involvement of the citizenry in social control, enhanced social cohesion, and cooperation with police, leading to increased engagement of citizens in crime control (Haberman et al., 2016; Kirk & Papachristos, 2011; Sargeant, 2015; Sargeant et al., 2013). Notably, the research revealed that trust in police effectiveness and procedural justice are important in influencing citizens' desire and willingness to be involved in crime control activities in their neighborhoods, by exploring policing aspects that likely shape citizens' willingness to engage in informal social control and social cohesion, the study suggests ways for police officers to foster and leverage neighborhood collective efficacy, thereby reducing crime and disorder.

Novel concepts seldom develop in a vacuum, and social sciences often catalyze further exploration. The findings of this study can be used as a springboard for sociology and criminology students and researchers who wish to research the nexus of collective efficacy and crime, trust in the police and relevant policing factors that shape collective efficacy and trust in the police. This study contributes to national, regional and global literature by exploring the applicability of the collective efficacy approach to explaining crime in developing nations grappling with crime and other social problems. This study extends previous research on collective efficacy and trust in the police beyond developed countries, such as the United States and Europe, to a developing nation such as Ethiopia facing challenges such as widespread disadvantage, rapid expansion of urbanization, inadequate infrastructure, acute violence, corruption, and cynicism among its people.

While the advantages of highlighting are emphasized, the research's applicability should be considered. Additionally, it's crucial to recognize that this study was carried out in Addis Ababa, which limits its generalizability to other significant cities in Ethiopia.

1.5 Conceptualization of Important Concepts

The current study looks at the crime problem in the community, as measured by crime victimization, perception of the severity of the crime problem, and fear of crime in a neighborhood settlement. Measuring crime on a single axis has advantages and disadvantages, and researchers recommend examining multiple aspects of crime to understand its severity and impacts (Rhineberger-Dunn & Carlson, 2011). Scholars in the field recommend using survey-based information as well as police crime reports to have a holistic view of crime problems at a specific place. The current study conceptualizes crime through three aspects: crime victimization, the prevalence of neighborhood crime problems, and fear of crime.

Crime victimization relates to the direct experience of being a victim of a crime (Singer et al., 2019). Scholars suggest that personal victimization assessments are more reliable because people can better recall incidents that happened to them (Lauritsen & Rezey, 2013). The accuracy of personal crime victimization data may be limited due to non-reporting and under-reporting, to its rarity and instability. As a result, scholars suggest that such data should be complemented with residents' assessment of the severity of crime problems and fear of crime. Moreover, it is crucial to complement victimization data with police records of crime. This multi-faceted approach can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the crime problem in a given environment. The term "prior crime victimization" in this study refers to incidents of violent crimes, such as robbery, assault, or physical attacks experienced by individuals residing in the sampled household, including the household representative, within the past 12 months.

The prevalence of neighborhood crime problems indicates how residents evaluate the severity of crime and disorder in their vicinity. This reflects their perception of the crime situation in their neighborhood. Furthermore, fear of crime or the danger of being a victim of crime is strongly linked to specific community traits, which can provide prevention or, at the very least, a defense against it (Ceccato, 2012; Singer et al., 2019). Notably, community characteristics such as social cohesion and informal social control are proven to resist local crime concentrations and thereby minimize direct crime victimization or fear of crime (Bruinsma et al., 2013; Frimpong et al., 2018a; Singer et al., 2019a). Rountree and Land (1996) identified two components of fear of crime: affective (fear of crime) and cognitive (perceived risk) components. The affective dimension of

fear of crime links emotional responses to the fear of becoming a victim of specific crime categories. Moreover, cognitive fear refers to the perception of safety in one's neighborhood. The present study addresses both cognitive "fear" or fear-risk perception and crime-specific, emotionally based fear. Emotional fear is assessed by asking respondents how concerned they are about becoming the victim of a specific crime, such as burglary, robbery, attack, or having their property vandalized. On the other hand, cognitive fear is assessed by asking individuals how safe their neighborhood is from crime or how comfortable they feel walking alone at night or during the day (Rountree & Land, 1996). In this study, fear of crime is understood in terms of the cognitive approach to the concept.

In this research, a neighborhood is described as a geospatial area outlined by law enforcement, encompassing street layouts and the communal connections of neighbourly engagements. In Addis Ababa, the police have instituted these neighborhoods, referred to as "Ketena," which possess vaguely delineated boundaries and social interactions, serving the functions of community policing and other administrative endeavours. The context of a neighborhood is shaped by various factors, including physical, socio-economic, environmental, and institutional elements (Komeily & Srinivasan, 2016). Studies in sociology and criminology have highlighted the significance of neighborhood context-particularly the socioeconomic and cultural- in explaining the problem of crime as well as designing effective policies and programs that can help to reduce and prevent crime (Goudriaan et al., 2006; Skilling & Rogers, 2017). The current study considers collective efficacy and the characteristics of formal social control at the neighborhood level as important contexts for explaining the crime problem.

Collective efficacy refers to the conditions of some neighborhoods or groups where there is trust, cohesion, and a willingness to act toward common goals, such as reducing crime and disorder (R. J. Sampson et al., 1997). It combines two critical social processes: social cohesion and informal social control. Social cohesion involves residents' willingness to help their neighbors, feelings of trust, and shared values within the community (Gearhart & Joseph, 2018; Mazerolle et al., 2010; Petrosino & Pace, 2015; Wickes et al., 2013). Therefore, social cohesion is assessed by asking residents if people in their neighborhood are willing to help their neighbors and if the community is close-knit and trustworthy. On the other hand, informal social control refers to residents' willingness to actively engage in behaviors that aim to prevent criminal and deviant behavior in

their neighborhood (Silver & Miller, 2004). However, I think it could additionally be stated as the activation and utilization of social capital or community resources (time, knowledge, money, assets) for collective goals. In other words, social ties or social networks are necessary but not sufficient conditions for collective efficacy. In the absence of expected community benefits and the activation and utilization of social capital, it would fall far short of realizing collective goals.

The concept of trust entails the "willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer, Roger C. et al., 1995). Moreover, trust in criminal justice involves the public's expectation and confidence in the integrity, effectiveness, and justice of the criminal justice system and institutions in their jurisdictions (Sherman, 2002). The concept of police trust involves the confidence that the public has in the police to keep them safe and deliver necessary services (Boateng, 2017). According to Sherman (2002), trust in the criminal justice system has three dimensions: belief in the system's integrity, efficacy, and justice. Trust enhances criminal justice efficiency, authority, public cooperation, and the willingness of the public to report crimes (Mazerolle, Antrobus, et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2019; Wandall, 2015).

The term "public trust in the police" refers to the public's confidence in police officers' ability to carry out their tasks professionally and ethically (Hardin, 2002). Trust in police also refers to the notion that police officers have people's best interests in mind and can act appropriately under specific conditions (Hardin, 2002). Trustworthiness is essential for police agencies, as citizens generally have limited knowledge of police practices and lack expertise in evaluating police performance (J. Jackson et al., 2012b). That is, a person's trust in the police tends to be based on limited personal experience, hearsay, which conveys little information about the police's intentions and characteristics. Further, trust in the police is conditioned by legal literacy, and culture. Researchers have been trying to conceive and find the roots of public trust in the police to enrich police interaction with the public and increase the benefits of trust relationships (Nix et al., 2015; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003; Van Craen, 2013). The Following line shows the continuum of public trust in the Police.



According to proponents of the performance model, the effectiveness and quality of police services are more critical for building public trust in the police than fairness in methods and procedures (Sargeant, 2015; Tankebe, 2008). Procedural fairness proponents, on the contrary, argue that procedural fairness is an essential component of police activity and that the public prefers to evaluate police officers based on the fairness of the tactics they use during interaction and the decisions they make (Nix et al., 2015; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tankebe, 2008). Procedural justice refers to the principles of fairness, trust, and respect during interactions with police or at points of decision-making. Articles 15 and 19 of the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia outline procedural justice as a constitutional framework for due process of law. According to this research, gaining residents' trust requires the police to treat everyone equally, regardless of race, gender, or socioeconomic class. A related concept to procedural justice is police-community relations which is conceptualized as the quality of interactions and cooperation between the police and the public in a given area.

Overall, public trust in police work improves police effectiveness and legitimizes police actions (Goldsmith, 2005), leading to voluntary acceptance, which supports positive behavioral outcomes, including cooperation, compliance, and information sharing, improving police effectiveness (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). However, not every police institution is regarded as reliable and trustworthy, and some police agencies have severe trust issues, which results in ineffectiveness. When a police department lacks public trust, gaining public cooperation and compliance is difficult.

Several studies have shown that trust in the police is essential for reducing crime and violence and enhancing collective capacities for social control (Kochel, 2013; Kochel & Weisburd, 2019; Renauer, 2007; Sargeant, 2015). Citizens who trust the police can help by reporting crimes they see and supplying crucial information that leads to the arrest of criminals. In various sociocultural contexts, the aforementioned studies suggest that police can contribute to collective efficacy and reduce crime by providing effective services, minimizing misconduct, and enhancing procedural fairness. Thus, a study that interrogates trust in the police and the factors that shape it can contribute to crime control efforts by the police and police-community cooperation

The effectiveness of community policing is conceptualized as citizens' perception or evaluation of the extent to which community policing reduces crime in their neighborhoods. This is in line with the literature that supports the notion that proper implementations of community policing reduce both actual crime and fear of crime (Skogan, 2009; Sergeant, 2015). Since its introduction in 2005, community policing in Ethiopia has been underexplored in terms of its impact on crime prevention and reduction, as well as its effect on crime fear. This study highlights the relationship between residents' perceptions of community policing, its effectiveness in reducing crime, and its impact on fostering trust in the police and promoting collective efficacy.

1.6 Study Scope

The present study is limited by geographic context, units of observation, and substantive issues. In terms of substantive issues, the study focuses on the role of collective efficacy and trust in law enforcement in crime prevention. However, defining appropriate boundaries to reflect a community or neighborhood has always been a challenge, as community and crime researchers point out (R. J. Sampson, 2012; Sutherland et al., 2013; Wilcox et al., 2018). To address this empirical challenge, this study conceives of lower-level administrative arrangements in the study area as neighborhoods. As a result, the *Ketena* arrangements in Addis Ababa would be utilized as a community. The police call these smallest areas of jurisdiction as *Katana* (synonymous with the county level). *Katana* is not only a geographical area; it can also be viewed as a neighborhood with residents who share similar traits and are connected through social and economic life. To obtain representative data, the following ecological settings will be utilized in Addis Ababa: high- and low-crime neighborhoods, lower-income and higher-income neighborhoods, high-income and high-crime neighborhoods, high-crime business areas, and residential and business precincts. Household heads or representatives, police officers, community and religious leaders, self-help groups such as Idir leaders, youth leaders, and business owners in the study neighborhoods are the units of observation or target groups that serve as the primary sources of data.

Crime affects a neighborhood and its residents in several ways, including increasing fear of safety, leading to poorer self-rated physical and mental health. It can also negatively affect neighborhood growth, lower housing prices, and even harm the health of people not directly impacted by violence. An increasing crime level in a given area also affects citizens' trust in the government and law enforcement agencies. Even though crime has a reciprocal effect on social well-being,

social cohesion, and citizens' opinions of the police, investigating the possible effect of crime in the study locations is not the scope of this study.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study's main limitations include the lack of relevant community-level data, financial constraints, and a scarcity of research on the studied topics. The first major challenge of the study was the lack of community-level data on crime, collective efficacy, social cohesion, informal social control, and other central variables of the study in the Ethiopian context. Further, the dearth of empirical research, limited availability of dedicated forums and scientific papers solely focused on the sociology of crime pose significant challenges to the research process.

The other limitation of the study is related to periodic official crime data. In Ethiopia, police crime records are unsystematic, lack detail, and are not geocoded, making it challenging to create a community-level picture of crime, create meaningful correlation with other neighbourhood contexts. Furthermore, outdated data recording and processing systems have made it difficult to obtain accurate and timely data from the police.

Concepts crucial to this area of study are rarely used in the local literature, making additional contextualization and building measurements difficult. As a result, the definition and measurement of the concept are based on studies conducted outside of Ethiopia. The researcher considered peculiarities and local contexts while developing survey instruments and qualitative guides. The present study is based on empirical evidence and employs primary data collected through surveys and interviews. However, due to a lack of sufficient research funding, financial constraints pose a significant challenge in terms of finishing it timely.

1.8 Organization of the Paper

This dissertation is comprised of eight chapters. The first chapter elaborates on the research issue; it argues for the presence of significant research gaps, the necessity for empirical research, and the study's usefulness in filling those gaps. The second chapter examines the theoretical and empirical literature on neighborhood contexts relevant to understand crime and demonstrate gaps in research. In particular, the chapter briefly conceptualizes the construct of collective efficacy and its relevance to addressing urban social problems, analyses formal social control characteristics

such as trust in the police, procedural justice, and relationships with collective efficacy and crime problems. The chapter also presents the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that guide the dissertation, drawing from strong social process and formal social control theories and models including social disorganization theory, systemic models, social capital theory, collective efficacy theory, and trust in police models and assumptions. Chapter three presents the research process design and the overall methodological framework of the study.

Chapters 4-8 of the research present the major findings of the study conducted in Addis Ababa. Chapter 4 describes the variation in crime response at the neighborhood level, while Chapter 5 examines the influence of collective efficacy on the crime problem in the same area. Chapter 6 assesses the relevance of trust in police in shaping neighborhood crime problems. Chapter 7 integrates community-level social mechanisms and policing factors to inform crime control in Addis Ababa based on key findings of the study. Finally, the last chapter presents a synthesis of the research, recommendations, and conclusions.

Chapter Two

Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present background information, an overview of what has been done, and the need for additional studies on collective efficacy and trust in the police in relation to crime problems and public safety. This chapter opens with an overview of the theoretical foundations of research into collective efficacy and trust in law enforcement. It examines how these constructs are linked to crime-related outcomes at the community level. In this regard, the literature reviews established community or neighborhood characteristics and their protective role against crime and disorder. The chapter concludes with a discussion of domestic research on crime, social mechanisms, such as social cohesion, collective efficacy, and trust in criminal justice, and their impact on community-level outcomes. Each subsection of the literature review highlights the need for current research by providing an overview of previous studies and their significance. Then, open questions that the current research aims to answer are posed, demonstrating how their resolution may contribute to the field's overall goals.

2.1 Tracing the Roots of Community Crime Control: Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives

Crime, as a significant social issue, has been extensively theorized and studied by scholars across various disciplines. For a long time, sociologists and criminologists preferred microlevel individual-level pathology to expound why individuals broke the law (for reviews, see, for example, Eck and Eck 2012; Sampson, 2012; Weisbured, Groff and Yang 2012). Since 1930, criminologists and sociologists have shifted to macro- and community-level factors that conceive crime as a social product rather than the consequence of specific individual pathologies(Chouhy, 2016; Kubrin & Wo, 2016; Wilcox et al., 2018). Macro- and meso-level theories of crime examine *"how characteristics of delimited geographic areas as neighborhoods, census tracts, cities, or nations- are related to rates of crime"* (Pratt & Cullen, 2005, p. 373). Theories at these levels seek to explain why certain neighborhood characteristics account for the variation in crime (Wilcox et al. 2018). Scholars in this tradition argue that the community context, not people, is criminogenic and determines neighborhood crime rates (Wilcox, 2018).

Despite the changing scope, the intriguing relationship between sociological contexts and crime has long been the subject of scientific research and theorization. For instance, in the classic work "Suicide: A Study in Sociology," Emile Durkheim (1951) empirically demonstrated that increasing crime is a sign of anomie or the breakdown of mechanical and organic solidarity, a fundamental flaw that the social system is not functioning normally. Later, through social disorganization theory, Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay (1942) connected crime and delinquency rates to socioeconomic conditions. Shaw and McKay attributed rising crime and disorder to the dissolution of social structures and institutions that support the community. Recent studies based on the contexts of Europe and the United States have empirically assessed the basic assumptions of social disorganization theory through systemic models and social capital theories, such as their reliance on informal social control, social networks, and social relationships in explaining crime and disorder in ecological settings (Bruinsma et al., 2013; Hawdon & Ryan, 2009).

The underlying assumption of neighborhood-level analysis is that crime is not randomly distributed across neighborhoods; some communities consistently generate higher crime rates than others (DeLisi & Vaughn, 2016; Sampson et al., 1997; Kurbin & Wo 2016). This is because some neighborhoods possess protective factors against crime and consistently generate a lower crime rate, while others do not. Furthermore, DeLisi and Vaughn (2016:18) summarized the central assumption of community and crime research in the following manner:

The opportunity to engage in antisocial behavior more directly to commit a crime is ubiquitous...but one should not conclude that crimes occur evenly across social strata and that everyone is equally likely to become a recurrent offender.

The following section comprises theoretical and empirical discussions that aim to guide the current study.

2.1.1 Exploring Social Disorganization Theory

Theoretical traditions that link crime with community contexts are robust. However, social disorganization theory is the foremost theoretical tradition linking neighborhood socioeconomic structures and characteristics to crime (Wilcox et al., 2018). Social disorganization theory is widely regarded as a crucial perspective for comprehending how community social characteristics influence criminal conduct. According to this theory, people's decision-making and behavior can

be influenced by specific structural features of urban communities. Hence, this theory serves as the widely used criminological framework for the majority of empirical studies that examine how crime-related outcomes differ among communities.

Early studies by Robert Park on the distribution of delinquency in urban settings served as the foundation for the development of social disorganization theory within the Chicago School of Criminology in the early 20th century. The concentric zone thesis, which demonstrated that delinquency rates were higher near the city center and lower farther out, was supported by this study (Parks & Burges, 1924). Social disorganization theory was developed by Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay, who built on the concentric zone concept to infer that crime occurrence is explained by community structural characteristics (Shaw & McKay, 1942).

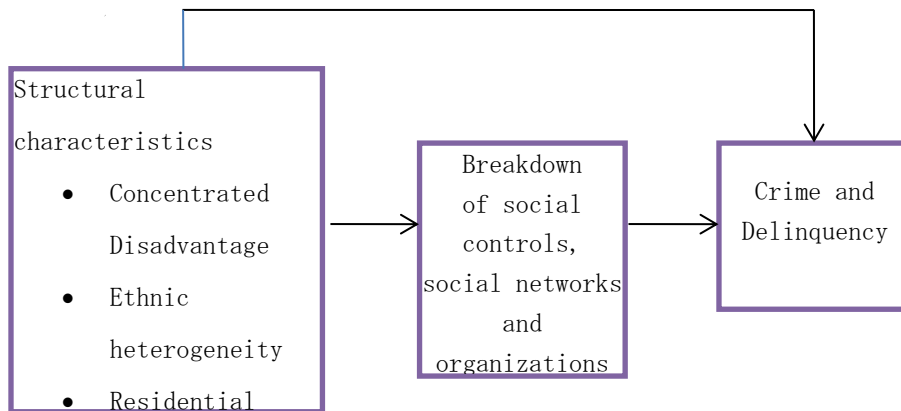
Social disorganization, according to Shaw and McKay (1942), is the disintegration of fundamental relationships, the decline of social norms, and the erosion of a common culture. It is the condition of the inability of community members to achieve shared values or to solve jointly experienced problems (Bursik, 1999). According to social disorganization theory, specific neighborhood characteristics—notably poverty, residential instability, and racial heterogeneity—can disrupt working relationships, shared values, and communities' ability to reach common goals (Kurbin & Wo, 2016). Because of this, these communities lack mutual trust and have weak social ties, which causes residents to perceive crime as common and criminals as looking for suitable targets (Cancino, 2005; Bruinsma et al., 2013). According to Shaw and McKay, socially organized communities, which are described as cohesive places where families and neighbors interact, trust each other, can identify strangers, and take collective action for the benefit of the community, tend to have lower crime rates (Bellair & Browning, 2010, p. 499). In socially organized communities, the capacity of residents to engage in informal control for the mutual benefit of neighbors, such as intervention to prevent a crime or conscientious surveillance of space, is strengthened (Bellair & Browning, 2010, p. 499).

According to social disorganization theory, the connection between socially disorganized neighborhoods and crime is due to residents' inability to exercise social control, absence of formal social control and address common problems. In neighborhoods with high population turnover, possibly due to fear of crime, guardianship decreases, creating conditions that promote crime. The

theory proposes that structural disadvantage leads to crime and that offending occurs when weakened social bonds cannot support legitimate behavior or prevent deviant behavior (Ceccato, 2016).

Figure 2.1 shows that three structural factors—low socioeconomic status, ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility—break down or disrupt a community's social controls, social networks, and social organization, which explains the spatial variations in crime and delinquency rates.

Figure 2.1. Causal Model of Social Disorganization Theory



Source: Sampson and Groves (1989)

Recent studies that followed the social disorganization framework have revealed mixed results. Some studies have shown that structural factors strongly predict the differential ability of neighborhoods to maintain social order and use informal social control, which accounts for the variation in crime levels across urban ecological settings (Bellair & Browning, 2010; Sampson & Groves, 1989). For example, Da Silva (2014) showed in a Brazilian study that disparities in crime rates are a result of poverty at the local level. On the other hand, research has demonstrated that the assumptions of social disorganization are insufficient to account for the variance in crime (Bruinsma et al., 2013; Sutherland et al., 2013). For example, Bruinsma et al. (2013) discovered that different urban dynamics than those mentioned in the social disorganization framework might be responsible for variations in crime and offender rates.

Social disorganization theory's initial formulation has been criticized for being class-biased and pathologizing the underprivileged while ignoring how political and economic forces contribute to the development of criminogenic conditions in impoverished neighborhoods (Sampson et al., 1997; Wilcox et al., 2018). Further, Weisbured et al. (2012) and Burisk (1993) contested Shaw

and McKay's theory that crime rates were constant over time and space. According to Burisk (1993), crime rates frequently fluctuate along with the organization of communities. Burisk asserts that while instability in these patterns might result in instability in crime rates, stable crime patterns are caused by long-term stability in the socioeconomic characteristics of communities. Wilcox et al. (2018) suggest that social disorganization theory offers a compelling alternative to explanations that attribute crime to individual pathology. Despite its limitations, the theory's central argument, linking the erosion of social controls, networks, and organizations to crime and delinquency, remains relevant. Furthermore, a neighborhood's socioeconomic status is still crucial in criminological research. Late 20th and early 21st century studies have consistently shown that socioeconomic status is the most significant predictor of neighborhood disorders (Browning et al., 2004; Morenoff et al., 2001; Rosenfeld et al., 2001; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999; Sampson et al., 1997).

The existing criminological literature has frequently discussed and extensively studied social disorganization theory in developed countries (Kubrin & Wo, 2016). Research that interrogates the premises of social disorganization in developing nations, such as Africa, is still in its early stages. Few studies in Africa have examined the correlation between social disorganization, violent crime, and feelings of safety, as demonstrated by Breetzke's (2010) research in South Africa and Owusu et al.'s (2016) research in Ghana. The findings of these studies are mixed. For example, Breetzke (2010) revealed marginal evidence supporting the link between social disorganization, socioeconomic deprivation, and residential mobility. However, Owusu et al. (2016) discovered that low-income neighborhoods are relatively safe due to strong social cohesion and the presence of guardianship. Differences in socioeconomic, cultural, and environmental contexts can explain the contrasting conclusions.

Regarding Ethiopia, some studies have examined the assumptions of social disorganization theory about social ties and networks and the ramifications for social trust, confidence in law enforcement/criminal justice institutions, and health outcomes, focusing on lower-income neighborhoods of Addis Ababa (Kassahun, 2011; Kebede, 2012). Contrary to what the theory suggests, these studies revealed that poor neighborhoods and slum areas exhibit robust social bonds and social networks that aid them in managing economic and health-related

difficulties(Kassahun, 2015). However, existing studies in Ethiopia have never examined the assumptions of social disorganization in relation to the crime problem.

2.1.2 The Systemic Model: Exploring the Role of Community Ties and Networks in Crime Control

The systemic model is a macrolevel theory that revitalizes the fundamental formulations of the social disorganization thesis (Sampson & Groves, 1989). The model originated in the work of Kasarda and Janowitz (1974), "*Community attachment in mass society*," which postulated the influence of social networks on crime-related outcomes. Kasarda and Janowitz (1974:328) viewed the local community as "*a complex system of friendship and kinship networks and formal and informal associational ties rooted in family life and ongoing socialization processes*." They argue that social network ties are generated by residential longevity and improve the community's capacity for social control (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974). In this classic work, Kasarda and Janowitz (1974) measured the relative contributions of friendship bonds, kinship bonds, and formal and informal community ties to the formation of strong community sentiment and achievement of common goals. These authors proposed that residents who lived together for longer periods, (i) had a greater number of friends in the area or (ii) participated in formal local organizations and had the strongest community attachment and community interest, respectively (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974).

The systemic model successfully links community ties and networks with informal social control, which influences crime rates at the community level (Swartz, 2012). The model relies on the notion that informal social control emerges from "*the accumulation of stocks of social resources as found in ties and memberships*" to determine the variability of crime (Sampson, 2006, p. 153). According to this model, social ties and networks are the basis of the capacity of neighborhood residents to successfully exercise *informal social control* (Sampson & Groves, 1989:776). Communities in which such social ties were frayed—those that Shaw and McKay called *socially disorganized*—were considered incapable of achieving their goal of maintaining safety and peace through informal social control; as a result, crime in these neighborhoods would flourish (Swartz et al., 2012).

At its core (as illustrated in Figure 3.2), the model stipulates an inverse relationship between informal control and crime and an indirect, negative effect of networks on crime through informal control (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993; Bellair & Browning, 2010). The most crucial and essential link lies in the relationship between informal control and crime, followed by the indirect effect of social networks on crime through informal control (Bellair & Browning, 2010). Accordingly, denser or stronger social ties are linked to more informal social control and, thus, to lower crime rates (Sampson, 2006).

Studies guided by the systemic model have produced mixed results. A study conducted by Sampson and Groves (1989) provided supportive evidence that communities with few friendship networks, unsupervised teenage peer groups, and the absence of organizational participation experienced higher rates of crime and delinquency.

Figure 2.2: Casual Structure of The Systemic Model of Neighborhood Crime



Source: Bellair and Browning (2010)

Conversely, studies have observed high crime in poor communities in which social ties are strong and a lower rate of crime in the middle-class people who live in suburbs despite fostering anonymity. Later studies established that the existence of social ties has only conditional effects (Warner, 2014). Furthermore, studies have noted that dense social ties among personal groups may impede social control and increase crime rates (Kubrin & Wo, 2015).

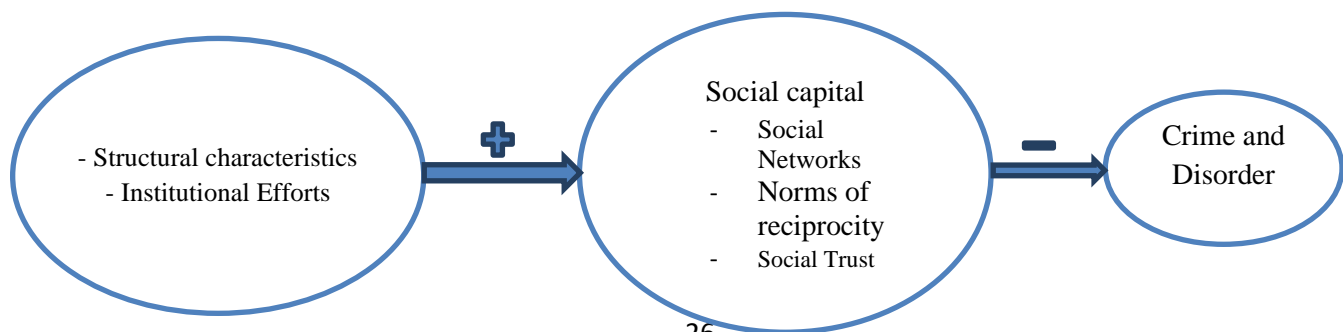
In Ethiopia, studies interested in aspects of social networks have provided supportive evidence for the basic assumptions of the systemic model and its trust in denser social networks (Kassahun, 2015; Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). For instance, Samson (2015), in a study conducted in poor neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, linked denser social ties to positive outcomes such as better social trust, confidence in institutions, and patterns of reciprocity among residents. This study examines social trust together with informal social control and policing features rather than social ties to explain the neighborhood level of crime in lower-income neighborhoods of Addis Ababa.

2.1.3 Social Capital Theory

An alternative to the systemic model is the social capital formulation, which shares core assumptions on the ameliorative effects of systemic ties (Hawdon & Ryan, 2009; Roh & Lee, 2013; Sampson 2012). Ansari (2013:76) defined social capital as *a "community stock of social trust and norms of reciprocity embedded in social networks that facilitates collective actions."* Furthermore, Hegan (1999:331) conceived of social capital as *"the quality of the social relationships that exist between people in families, interpersonal networks, and neighborhoods that make it possible to achieve individual and group goals."* Scholars have noted the significance of features of social capital for achieving collective goals such as crime prevention through the development of informal social control (Coleman, 1988; Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974; Weisburd et al., 2015). Social capital was found to enhance the ability of a social group to regulate its members in line with their goals, a primary goal being the desire of residents to live in environments that are free of crime and violence (Cusson, 2015).

The social capital control model is linked with the work of Sociologist James Coleman (1988). According to Coleman (1988), social norms and effective sanctions are effective and powerful forms of social capital. Coleman (1988) found that weaker social capital in socially disorganized communities was associated with increased crime rates. At its core, the social control model of social capital focuses on the idea that social networks generate resources that can be drawn upon to confront issues such as crime and neighborhood disorders (Portes, 1998). Burisk (1999:87) draws the causal link between crime and social capital in the following manner: *"...neighborhoods with depleted social capital are less likely to achieve norm consensus and unlikely to ascertain effective social control."* In contrast, civically active communities rich in relevant social capital have a greater ability to solve and prevent crime, all else being equal (Kubrin & Wo, 2015).

Figure 2.3. Social Control Model of Social Capital (Source: Ansari 2013; Moore and Recker, 2013)



Numerous studies have shown a causal relationship between social capital and crime (Moore & Recker, 2016; Roh & Lee, 2013; Weisburd et al. 2015; Messner et al., 2004). However, studies have shown that social capital explains crime rates but does not equally affect crime categories. For instance, Messner et al. (2004) and Rosenfeld et al. (2001) found dense social capital to be effective at reducing homicide crimes. Kennedy et al. (1998) observed areas with high social capital enjoying lower rates of violent crime with a firearm. Another set of studies found greater effects of social capital on property crime than on violent crime (Deller & Deller, 2010; Moore & Recker, 2016). Whereas Sampson and Raudenbush (1999:612) observed that *"personal ties and friendship are not sufficient; the private world of strong kinship ties may interfere with public trust and expectation of collective responsibility for getting things done."* Scholars also noted that strong social ties within a community do not always translate to high social control (Wilcox et al., 1999; Wilkinson, 2007).

In Ethiopia, several studies have linked various forms of social capital with outcomes related to community development and informed sexual practices(Kassahun, 2015; Kebede, 2012; Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). For instance, Kebede and Butterfield (2009) found that social networks among poor women in Addis Ababa increased access to better information and additional resources or strengths to address economic and social needs. Conversely, Kebede (2012) linked both reduced and increased HIV/AIDS transmission rates to community social networks. These studies show that social ties and networks are inconsistent in explaining neighborhood outcomes. Proponents of community and crime research suggest that social capital is a prerequisite and source of informal social control and collective efficacy (Ansari, 2013). Furthermore, scholars maintain that enhancing social capital and collective efficacy are important crime control tools for police officers(Weisburd et al., 2015). Despite the role of social capital in controlling crime and its dimensions, no study has investigated the contribution of forms of social capital to crime control in Ethiopia. This study explores how social trust/cohesion and value consensus, as key components of social capital, relate to the neighborhood level of crime in poor neighborhoods of Addis Ababa.

2.1.4 Collective Efficacy: An Approach to Community Crime Control and Explanation

In psychology, collective efficacy is understood as the extent to which a group of individuals living in a specific community or neighborhood share common beliefs and can work together to achieve

a shared goal (Bandura, 1997). Whereas, in sociology and criminology, collective efficacy uniquely attempts to capture “*the differential ability of neighborhoods to realize the common values of residents and maintain effective social controls*” (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 918). The study focuses on examining the sociological and criminological concept of collective efficacy, which combines social cohesion and informal social control.

The collective efficacy theory has emerged since the mid 1990 as the most influential and effective contemporary theory for studying neighborhood-level crime (Bruinsma et al., 2013; Cole, 2019; Cullen, 2002; Gearhart & Joseph, 2018; Wilcox et al., 2018). The theory revitalized the core assumptions of the earlier social disorganization theory, systemic models, and social capital perspectives (Drakulich, 2014; Wilcox et al., 2018). Collective efficacy theory, in contrast to other community-level theories, contends that residents' informal social control is essential to comprehending why high crime rates are frequently seen in underprivileged and unstable communities (Wilcox et al., 2018, p. 179).

"Collective efficacy" refers to the level of social connectedness and reciprocity standards that inhabitants of a community have, which in turn encourages their desire to work together and take collective action to achieve shared objectives. Sampson and his associates developed the social control construct of collective efficacy, which has been widely supported by empirical studies. According to Sampson et al. (1997), the idea involves a community's special capacity to regulate the conduct of its members as well as their inclination toward togetherness and common ideals. Additionally, the construct's proponents contend that the negative impacts of structural disadvantage, ethnic heterogeneity, residential instability, and family disruption on the degree of crime and disorder are mitigated by collective efficacy (Sampson, 2012).

Scholars in the field argue that collective action can still occur even in areas where personal relationships and social networks are not well established. Instead, what is essential is a willingness to intervene on behalf of the common good, an expected active sense of engagement among people, for instance, by looking after public property or engaging in activities that improve the overall safety of the neighborhood. Following, crime control emerges from residents' willingness to work together and act, regardless of whether they are friendships or other associational ties. Proponents argue that communities need not have dense interpersonal ties for effective community control. Rather, strong resident-based social control emerges in contexts where (1) there is some level of

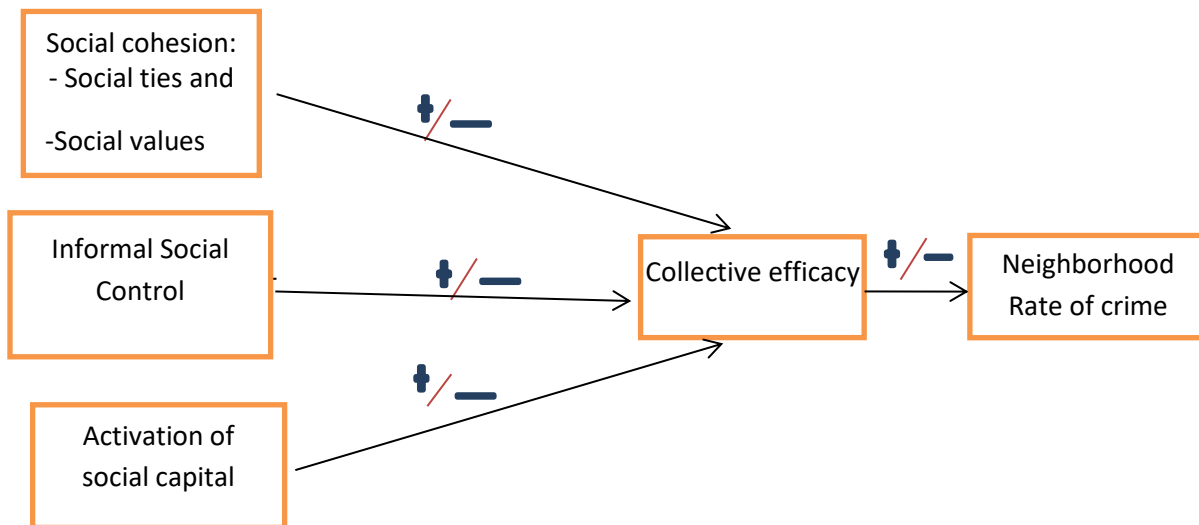
social cohesion rooted in working trust and mutual support (rather than strong friendships) and (2) shared expectations for action when community well-being is at stake (R. J. Sampson, 2012; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997; Wikstrom & Sampson, 2006; Wilcox et al., 2018).

Collective efficacy combines two fundamental social mechanisms—social cohesion and informal social control. Empirically, Sampson et al. (1997) found that the two mechanisms were strongly correlated ($r = 0.80$, $p < .001$). According to Sampson et al. (1997:919), residents are "*unlikely to intervene in a neighborhood context in which the rules are unclear, and people mistrust or fear one another.*" Thus, mutual trust and cohesion are prerequisites for informal social control, conceived as willingness and intention to intervene for the neighborhood cause (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 920). Accordingly, neighborhoods with elevated levels of informal social control combined with social cohesion, trust, and expectations among residents for collective action experience lower levels of violent crime (Mazerolle et al., 2010; Rhineberger-Dunn & Carlson, 2011; Sampson et al., 1997).

Collective efficacy has been discussed with diverse community-level outcomes, including public safety, health, and youth development initiatives, for the last three decades. However, robust body research has demonstrated the relevance of collective efficacy in explaining crime-related outcomes. Recent research considers collective efficacy as the community's 'local social eyes,' an essential self-regulating mechanism comprising joint supervision of children's and adolescents' behavior (Bruinsma et al., 2013; Hardyns et al., 2018). At the same time, a study by Sampson and Wikstrom (2008) acknowledged a greater sense of collective efficacy as having indirect protective impacts on crime rates and direct protective benefits on citizens' feelings of safety and security. Furthermore, studies have established that violent and property crime rates are lower in communities where members are socially cohesive, trust one another, and utilize informal social control to address behaviors that violate neighborhood norms and values (Browning et al., 2004; Mazerolle et al., 2010). For instance, Mazerolle et al.'s (2010) study of eighty communities in Brisbane, Australia, came to a similar finding, concluding that victimization was once more adversely correlated with collective efficacy. Taken together, collective efficacy is a viable tactic that boosts citizens' physical and psychological defenses against crime and fear of crime while fostering community well-being through interacting with one another to make streets safer and lessen conflict in their immediate surroundings.

Methodologically, collective efficacy formulation employs individuals as reporters of neighborhood conditions (Sampson et al., 1997). The assumption is that respondents on their own may be biased or simply in error in their assessments. Collectively, however, when controlling for potential individual-level sources of bias, such respondents may produce a reliable and valid measure of a collective phenomenon—or, as Durkheimian social fact: "*a thing distinct from its manifestations*" (Sampson et al., 1997 p. 520). Collective efficacy theory sees the community as resilient, crimes as reducible, and residents as exerting human agency in a concerted effort to solve neighborhood problems (Wilcox et al., 2018). According to the original statement of the theory, collective efficacy should be stronger in communities experiencing economic advantage, few immigrant residents, and a stable resident population (R. J. Sampson et al., 1997). In turn, communities with strong collective efficacy were expected to enjoy low rates of crime, in contrast to neighborhoods with weak collective efficacy, which experienced higher levels of crime (Wilcox et al., 2018). The following pathway model illustrates how collective efficacy links the neighborhood level of crime with structural factor-concentrated disadvantage, ethnic heterogeneity, and residential instability.

Figure 2.4. Pathway Diagram Showing How Social Ties, Shared Values, Social Capital and Informal Social Control Influence Neighborhood Crime Rates via Collective Efficacy.



(Sources: Sampson et al.1997; Ansari 2013; Cole 2019). Signs entail an increase or decrease along pathways, though nonlinear.

A wealth of theoretical and empirical evidence demonstrates the significant and practical impact of collective efficacy on the varying distribution of crime in urban areas. However, most of these studies have been conducted in the U.S. and other developed countries, such as England, Sweden, the Netherlands, and Australia. In line with this, studies conducted in developing countries have shown that collective efficacy strongly predicts crime variation across neighborhoods. These results imply that neighborhood-level crime in various situations can be explained by the notion of collective efficacy (Frimpong et al., 2018; Kochel, 2013; Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016; Parks et al., 2014). The fact that so few studies have been carried out in developing nations, however, limits the generalizability of the crime-protective benefits of collective efficacy and its suitability as a universal paradigm for researching effects at the community level.

Research on collective efficacy and its relationship to social pathologies like crime is lacking in the Global South, especially in Africa, due to a lack of community-level data (Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016). Although there are serious limitations, these studies demonstrate the relative applicability of collective efficacy to diverse national contexts. The collective efficacy theory, for example, might explain the spatial distribution of crime and fear of crime in cities and urban regions, according to research done in Ghana (Frimpong et al., 2018; Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016; Owusu et al., 2016). Additionally, a study carried out in Trinidad and Tobago demonstrated that the difference in crime between communities may be accurately predicted by collective efficacy (Kochel, 2013). Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the aforementioned research points to the critical role that group efficacy plays in preventing crime. Given the dearth of resources available to combat crime, research on collective efficacy and how it should be developed should be given more emphasis in developing nations.

Despite being a popular theory, collective efficacy lacks a clear and comprehensive explanation of crime situation in developing countries, and culturally different societies. Robert Sampson, one of the theory's main proponents, acknowledges this gap in understanding. Moreover, the theory does not clearly explain how to increase or enhance collective efficacy. Although poverty, residential instability, and ethnic heterogeneity are known to have an inverse relationship with collective efficacy, Sampson et al. (1997) provides evidence of collective efficacy's mediating role despite the poverty level.

Studies focused on collective efficacy have limitations, such as relying on informal social control as an overarching explanation of neighborhood-level crime, recognizing the role of formal social control less, and missing information on how to improve collective efficacy (Kochel, 2013; Sargeant et al., 2013). Hence, the role of policing, precisely police effectiveness, procedural justice, and its relations with the community, demonstrates the key to understanding the community level of crime (Gill et al., 2014; Goudriaan et al., 2006; Haberman et al., 2016; Telep & Weisburd, 2012). This study examines how collective efficacy is related to crime and investigates which aspects of police services can enhance collective efficacy in Ethiopia.

Sources of collective efficacy

Collective efficacy is a crucial phenomenon that can positively impact neighborhood social problems, such as crime. However, the factors that lead to collective efficacy for political/civic issues may differ from those that lead to collective efficacy for social control (Wickes et al., 2013). Therefore, it is necessary to understand what influences people's perceptions of collective efficacy for various activities related to social order maintenance and crime response.

Researchers have identified social networks, a sense of community and shared ownership, and trust in one another as sources of collective efficacy. Trusting relationships among neighbors foster collective efficacy and promote social cohesiveness and willingness to implement informal social regulations (Chouhy, 2016; Mazerolle et al., 2010; Rhineberger-Dunn & Carlson, 2011).. By changing the character and practices of their social system, people can improve their lives and achieve their shared destiny through collective action and collaboration.

Collective efficacy occurs when people see themselves as part of a collective and are willing to act to support the greater good. When neighborhood residents develop working trust, agree on appropriate behaviors and practices in the area, and feel a sense of ownership and responsibility for the area, they are willing to intercede to address problems and entrust their neighbors to assume this responsibility as well (Sampson et al., 1997).

Moreover, research has revealed that the characteristics of formal social control, including public trust in criminal justice agencies, have an impact on collective efficacy. Attempts to improve collective efficacy lead to fewer crimes. The present research aims to identify neighborhood

contexts and attributes of police services that can effectively contribute to improving community collective efficacy.

2.2 Trust in the Police: Concept, Sources and Nexus with Crime Problems

2.2.1 Conceptualization of Trust in the Police

The cognitive concept of trust is defined as the “willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Mayer, Roger C. et al., 1995). Whereas, trust in criminal justice involves the public's expectation and confidence in the integrity, effectiveness, and justice of the criminal justice system and institutions in their jurisdictions (Sherman, 2002). According to Sherman (2002), trust in the criminal justice system has three dimensions: belief in the system's integrity, efficacy, and justice. All the aspects of trust are valuable for criminal justice because they make them more efficient and authoritative, ensure public cooperation, and enhance the willingness of the public to report crimes and provide information (Mazerolle, Antrobus, et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2019; Wandall, 2015). The concept of trust in the police is approached differently by various scholars. Some define it as the level of faith that people have in the police to provide them with essential services and protect them from harm (Boateng, 2018). Others view it from the perspective of the public's confidence in police officers' ability to carry out their tasks professionally and ethically, ensuring that they act appropriately under specific conditions and always have the best interests of people in mind (Hardin, 2002). Despite these different approaches, the common thread is the importance of trust in the police for maintaining social order and building a safe and secure environment for all.

Police agencies rely heavily on public trust, as citizens tend to have limited knowledge of police practices and lack expertise in evaluating police performance. People's trust in the police is often based on limited personal experience, which doesn't provide enough information about police intentions and characteristics. To foster trust in the police, researchers have been trying to identify the roots of public trust in the police and develop strategies to improve police interaction with the public (Nix et al., 2015; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003; Van Craen, 2013). Trust in the police is essential for them to achieve their overall goal of enforcing laws and handling crimes that threaten the safety and security of societies. Lack of public cooperation and trust can hinder

the police's ability to enforce laws and handle crimes effectively. Conversely, people who trust the police are likelier to assist them by reporting crimes and enforcing social rules covertly. Several studies have shown that trust in the police is important for reducing crime and violence (Kochel, 2013; Kochel & Weisburd, 2019; Renauer, 2007; Sargeant, 2015). Accordingly, citizens who trust the police can help by reporting crimes they see and/or supplying crucial information that leads to the arrest of criminals. The above studies, in different sociocultural contexts, contend that police can contribute to collective efficacy and lower the level of crime through effective services, minimizing misconduct, and improving procedural fairness. Thus, a study that interrogates trust in the police and the factors that shape it can contribute to crime control efforts by the police.

Several theoretical perspectives have been proposed to explain why individuals have varying degrees of trust in criminal justice systems, particularly the police. Performance (outcome-based or instrumental), the reassurance model, procedural justice (process-based or expressive), and community policing models are frequently referenced in investigating the value of trust and are widely cited to guide research in the field (Boateng, 2017; Renauer, 2007; Van Craen, 2013). Overall, public trust in police work improves police effectiveness and legitimizes police actions (Goldsmith, 2005), leading to voluntary acceptance, which supports positive behavioral outcomes, including cooperation, compliance, and information sharing—all of which improve police effectiveness (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). However, not every police institution is regarded as reliable and trustworthy, and some police agencies have severe trust issues, which has resulted in their ineffectiveness and overall service delivery. Furthermore, when a police department lacks public trust, it is difficult to achieve public cooperation and compliance.

The goal of the study is to investigate the importance of trust in the police for crime prevention, explain citizens' assessment of crime severity, community capacity for social action-collective efficacy and other safety-related concerns. In order to reach this objective, the study examines various models and theories that explain the influence of trust in the police on crime outcomes and overall safety. By analyzing these models and theories, the study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the role of trust in the police in enhancing public safety and reducing crime rates.

2.2.2 Theories of Trust in the Police

Several theoretical perspectives have been proposed to explain why the public trust the criminal justice system, its relevance for practical operations, and how it can be improved or enhanced (Bouckaert et al., 2002; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003; Van Craen, 2013). These theories were created with the knowledge that a lack of public participation and trust hinders the police's ability to enforce laws and handle crimes that harm the safety and security of societies. Furthermore, people who trusted the police were more likely to assist them by reporting crimes and covertly enforcing social rules (Nix et al., 2015).

Performance (outcome-based or instrumental), procedural justice (process-based or expressive), and community policing models are frequently referenced and widely cited to guide research in the field (Boateng, 2017; Renauer, 2007; Van Craen, 2013). In the present study, performance, procedural justice, and community policing models and assumptions are used to guide the study to determine whether they explain the variation in public trust in the police and are applicable in the Ethiopian context.

Performance theory and its explanation of institutional trust

The performance model is one of the most widely utilized perspectives by researchers to explain the sources of public trust in institutions (Boateng, 2018; Sargeant, 2015; Tankebe, 2008; Van Craen, 2013; Wang & Sun, 2020). Advocates of the model argue that institutional performance influences citizens' perceptions of trust and distrust, with citizens trusting public institutions that perform well or effectively (Bouckaert et al., 2002). The basic premise of the theory is that citizens are aware of whether government institutions are doing well or poorly and that they can respond appropriately in terms of trust or distrust (Bouckaert et al., 2002).

Performance theory encompasses both macro and micro dimensions. Macro-performance theory specifically focuses on analyzing the trust disparities between countries over time. This is done by examining various factors such as changes in unemployment rates, economic growth, inflation, political stability, and other such factors that have a significant impact on the economic and social well-being of a country. By studying these factors, researchers can better understand the underlying causes of trust disparities and develop effective strategies to address them (Bouckaert

et al., 2002; Van Craen, 2013). Following this aspect of the theory, the police can be evaluated as a key component of criminal justice by examining overall crime rates, insecurity, fear of crime, and neighborhood disorders(Boateng, 2017).

On the other hand, micro performance theory emphasizes variations in trust in changes in (the quality of, or perception of) service delivery of a specific institution, where actual service delivery determines trust reactions(Bouckaert et al., 2002). Specifically, Bouckaert et al. (2002) identified the quality of service, the existence of service, and the level of service as indicators for judging the micro performance of any institution. When it comes to police institutions, the theory contends that public expectations of the police in terms of controlling crime, reducing fear of crime, and offering basic services determine the degree to which the public trusts the police (Boateng, 2017; Sargeant, 2015). Accordingly, the public reacts negatively if the police fail to control crime or are incompetent at dealing with crime problems and inadequately provide the required services (Sargeant, 2015; T. R. Tyler, 2005). In contrast, if the police are successful at combating crime, they will gain public trust and confidence, as well as the public's help and support. Thus, police officers' ability or inability to engage in effective crime control and service provision is seen as driving the valence of public evaluations of trust in the police. Scholars have preferred the micro performance theory to explain public trust in local police, as local police maintain intimate interactions with people (Boateng, 2017; Sargeant, 2015; Tankebe, 2008).

Studies primarily confined to developed societies have established the importance of the effectiveness of the police in controlling crime and understanding citizens' trust in the police (Berthelot et al., 2018; Sargeant, 2015; Telep & Weisburd, 2012). However, few studies have produced results that contradict the assumption of performance theory and instead allude to the fairness of police practices as a significant determinant of the public's trust in the police(Lim & Kwak, 2022; Roberts & Plesnicar, 2015; Sun et al., 2014; Tankebe, 2008). Again, other groups of scholars argue that citizens' trust and confidence in the police are influenced by people's experience of victimization, fear of crime, and actual crime problems in their environment (Berthelot et al., 2018; J. Jackson & Bradford, 2009; Renauer, 2007; Sargeant, 2015; Singer et al., 2019b). As a result, residents in areas with high levels of serious crime tend to have a negative view of the police. On the other hand, when individuals feel safe and protected from the risk of victimization, they tend to have higher levels of trust in the police.

When it comes to developing countries, research has shown that citizens' trust in the police is not solely based on their effectiveness in controlling crime. Other factors such as the treatment of citizens with respect and dignity by police officers, neighborhood disorders, and incidents of police corruption or misconduct also play a key role in determining citizens' trust in the police (Boateng, 2017; Tankebe, 2008). Studies conducted in Ghana and Trinidad and Tobago revealed that citizens' trust in police is linked to police effectiveness in controlling crime, whether officers treat citizens with respect and dignity, neighborhood disorders, and police corruption or misconduct (Boateng, 2018; Tankebe, 2008).

However, the generalizability of the above evidence to other societies is limited in different ways: first, the assumptions of performance theory are primarily tested in Western societies, which hinders the ability of a theory to achieve global acceptance in explaining citizens' trust in the police; second, because the evidence from these societies itself shows conflicting results, showing that either performance model alone is not a sufficient factor in determining trust in the police; and third, these studies have taken into account only the perspectives of citizens, not those of the police, when describing what influences public-citizen trust relationships. Therefore, the present study explores applicability of the performance model in explaining crime variations and the level of trust in the police.

The Reassurance Model of Policing

The reassurance model of policing suggests that effective law enforcement reduces citizens' perception of crime and improves trust in the police. It assumes that the public's sense of security is closely tied to their confidence in the police's ability to combat crime, despite the consistent decrease in crime rates (Millie & Herrington, 2005; Quinton & Morris, 2008). Specifically, visible, accessible, and effective policing can produce assurance among the public and improve a sense of security and safety (Quinton & Morris, 2008). Furthermore, it was assumed that increasing the number of officers on street duties, developing "customer awareness" in policing, and connecting with the communities they serve are crucial to reassuring the public and obtaining confidence (Skogan, 2009, p:302). This was, the model assume that the police force plays a crucial role in designing a comprehensive system to lower crime rates, maintain laws and order, and address other public concerns. This model treats concern about crime as a dependent variable

which is influenced by confidence in the police and assumes that individuals feel reassured by the visibility and effectiveness of law enforcement, reducing their perceived risk of becoming a victim of crime (Innes, 2004; Skogan, 2009).

Over the past two decades, the reassurance model of policing has been created and subjected to rigorous testing, mainly in the United Kingdom (Innes, 2004; Millie & Herrington, 2005; Skogan, 2009; Williamson et al., 2006). The reassurance policing model was piloted in 16 experimental areas in the UK. Innes (2004) reported that the program positively impacted various aspects of public safety, including increased confidence in the police, reduced perceived crime and antisocial behavior, self-reported victimization, concerns about different crimes, and perceived risk of being victimized. These findings suggest that the program effectively enhanced public safety and reduced crime rates. Based on the reassurance model of policing and studies regarding the impact of successful policing on the public perception of crime, the study hypothesizes that when citizens have confidence in law enforcement's ability to control crime and offer assistance, they are more likely to view their neighborhoods as having fewer crime issues.

Procedural Justice Theory and Its Explanation of Institutional Trust

Procedural justice posits that the public prefers to evaluate police officers based on the fairness of the tactics they use during interaction and the decisions they make (Nix et al., 2015; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tankebe, 2008). The theory argues that trust-based approaches to authorities lead to better prosocial outcomes than instrumental tactics like punishment or rewards for crime prevention (O'Brien & Tyler, 2020; T. C. O'Brien & Tyler, 2019). The effectiveness of utilizing trust tactics makes sense from both a moral and practical standpoint, diminishing fear among communities struggling with crime and increasing their willingness to become active stewards in providing solutions to social issues (T. C. O'Brien & Tyler, 2019). Furthermore, trust-based approaches can positively transform cultural attitudes toward authority, creating solid bonds between citizens and those charged with keeping them safe, building goodwill between all parties involved, and creating a healthier society for all. Researchers identify direct or vicarious experiences with the police, police treatment, police effectiveness and the quality of decisions as roots of perceptions of the criminal justice system (Kirk & Matsuda, 2011; Hitchens et al., 2017).

Police officers are considered representatives of the government and the rule of law (Gau et al., 2012), and their actions considerably impact public attitudes. As a result, how police officers carry out their duties is a serious concern, as they possess immense powers that can be readily exploited. Therefore, their actions must be closely monitored and held to meet the highest standards of accountability. According to Brien and Tyler (2019), procedural fairness refers to individuals' perceptions of how they are treated during decision-making. This perception is shaped by the fairness and appropriateness of the methods used to exert authority. Additionally, Stoutland (2001) argues that procedural justice requires treating people with respect and dignity, reinforcing the perception of fairness.

Procedural justice highlights the importance of police officers who actively listen to people's concerns, remain neutral, provide clear explanations of their decisions, and demonstrate a strong knowledge of laws and practices. These factors play a crucial role in determining whether individuals will trust, voluntarily collaborate, and obey the orders given by police officers (Mazerolle, Antrobus, et al., 2013; Mazerolle et al., 2012; T. R. Tyler, 2005; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003). Tyler (1990) and Tyler and Huo (2004) identified four components of procedural justice: citizen participation in the decision-making process, perceived neutrality in the officer's decision-making, treatment with dignity and respect, and belief in the officer's motives. Accordingly, when police incorporate these procedural justice components into their interactions with citizens and suspects, citizens are more likely to trust them, follow their directives and consider them legitimate. In contrast, scholars have identified two main components of procedural fairness, namely quality of treatment and fair decision-making (Reisig et al., 2007). Accordingly, police treatment should be impartial, based on objective criteria, and respectful. Fair and simple decision-making is essential for quality policing (Reisig et al., 2007; Tyler & Fagan 2006).

In a study conducted by Nix and colleagues (2015), which analyzed survey data from a random sample of 1,681 residents in a metropolitan city in the U.S., it was found that evaluations of procedural justice were a key factor in determining trust in the police. A substantial body of research demonstrates that process-based evaluations are superior to assessments of police performance in predicting citizen trust in the police (J. Jackson et al., 2012b; Nix et al., 2015; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Further, a longitudinal study conducted in the United Kingdom showed that trust in the police is primarily linked to perceptions of crime and the property crime rate rather

than to aggregate fear about crime, perceptions of social cohesion, informal social control, or other factors (Sindall et al., 2012). This aligns with statements made by prominent scholars who have acknowledged that in some countries, outcome considerations may significantly impact public perceptions of legal authorities more than procedural treatment (Tyler, 1990).

A study in Taiwan showed that both the instrumental model (concerns about safety) and the expressive model (trust in neighbors and perceived quality of life) were strongly related to trust in the police (Sun et al., 2014). In contrast, a longitudinal study conducted in the United Kingdom revealed that confidence in the police is solely connected to perceptions of crime and the property crime rate, not to aggregate fear about crime and perceptions of social cohesion or informal social control (Sindall et al., 2012). Western scholars have acknowledged that in some countries, procedural factors may play a less important role than outcome factors in shaping public perceptions of legal authorities (Tyler, 1990).

Several studies conducted in developing societies, particularly in Africa, have highlighted the importance of both instrumental and procedural justice perspectives in understanding trust in the police. For example, Tankebe's (2012) research in Ghana revealed that public cooperation with the police was influenced by perceptions of their effectiveness in fighting crime and maintaining law and order. However, trust cannot be solely based on effectiveness, as inappropriate behavior can still lead to limited trust. Other researchers argue that both performance and procedural justice perspectives are essential to understanding police trust (Prinsloo, 2019; Sun et al., 2014). Therefore, it is important to investigate how both police effectiveness and procedural justice impact residents' trust in the police. This study builds upon existing research by examining whether residents' views of the police can be differentiated based on trust in their procedures and trust in their outcomes. Additionally, this study aims to determine if both instrumental and expressive models are effective predictors of trust in the police, their contribution to social cohesion and collective efficacy, and ultimately, crime reduction.

2.3 Trust in the Police and Its Contribution to Crime Prevention

The role of trust in law enforcement in reducing crime rates has been a topic of much discussion and research. Tyler and Fagan (2008) found that trust in the police increases public cooperation, leading to more efficient crime detection and prevention. Similarly, Sunshine and Tyler (2003)

argued that when community members trust the police, they are more likely to respect the laws and regulations put in place, thereby reducing crime. Studies that follow the performance model of trust in the police have shown that when citizens perceive the police as being effective at controlling crime and maintaining order, their trust in the police increases (Boateng, 2017). This trust can lead to greater cooperation between the police and the community, which can help reduce crime levels. However, if citizens do not perceive the police as effective, their trust may decrease, leading to less cooperation and potentially higher crime levels. Therefore, building and maintaining trust between the police and the community is essential for effective law enforcement.

Trust is often associated with perceived procedural justice, suggesting that citizens are more likely to trust and cooperate with the police if they perceive them as fair (Jackson et al., 2012). When citizens believe that the police are using fair and transparent processes, they are more likely to view them as legitimate and trustworthy. This can lead to greater cooperation and support for the police, which can help reduce crime levels. On the other hand, if citizens perceive that the police are not using fair and transparent processes, their trust in them may decrease, leading to less cooperation and potentially higher crime levels. This is supported by Murphy et al. (2008), who conducted research across four Australian states on procedural justice's role in shaping the public's willingness to assist police in crime control. They found that views about police legitimacy influence public cooperation with the police and that those who view the police as more legitimate are more likely to assist police in controlling crime (Murphy et al., 2008).

Another line of research has focused on the role of trust in reporting crimes. Skogan (2006) highlights that a lack of trust in the police can lead to underreporting of crimes, making it harder for the police to intervene effectively. Conversely, high levels of trust can increase crime reporting, facilitating the police's ability to address and deter crime (Skogan, 2006). Research suggests that higher levels of trust and confidence in the police lead to greater perception of police legitimacy, which promotes normative compliance and reduces crime rates (Jacksonm, 2012). Therefore, police departments can potentially reduce crime in their jurisdictions by improving public trust and confidence through positive community engagement, accountability for misconduct, and fair policing practices. This highlights the importance of building strong police-community relationships anchored in trust.

In addition to the direct effects of police trust on normative compliance and crime rates, several researchers have proposed and empirically tested indirect pathways through which trust in police may reduce crime. Studies revealed that police trust can lower the public's fear of crime and promote collective efficacy, which in turn enhances crime prevention and control. For instance, Hinkle and Weisburd (2008) conducted community surveys and found evidence that higher levels of trust and confidence in the police were associated with lower levels of fear of crime among citizens. Whereas, decreased fear promotes increased outdoor activity, social connections among neighbors, and shared expectations to intervene in the common good(Hinkle & Weisburd, 2008).

Overall, citizens' trust in police effectiveness, police-community relations, and perceptions of procedural justice can impact their willingness to cooperate with and support law enforcement efforts, increase crime reporting, promote police legitimacy, reduce fear of crime, and enhance collective efficacy. However, if trust in the police is low or if citizens believe that the police are not using fair and transparent processes, cooperation may decrease, potentially leading to higher crime levels. However, further research is needed to understand the complex mechanisms through which trust influences crime rates and to identify strategies to enhance trust in the police. The following subsection highlights the impact of trust in the police on collective efficacy.

2.4 Upholding the Public Trust and Its Vital Role in Policing

Police institutions play a vital role in maintaining public safety by preventing and investigating crimes, upholding justice and protecting citizens. Policing is an essential security service that serves to protect citizens and ensure that they comply with the legal framework of their country. However, the police alone cannot be effective without the support of the community it serves. Research evidence has shown that the level of trust and confidence that residents have in the police is closely tied to the effectiveness of their performance and strategies while on duty(Crowl, 2017; Sargeant, 2015). However, the public's comprehension of law enforcement is predominantly shaped by their interactions with police officers. Regular encounters and meetings with police officers are crucial for influencing the public's perceptions and attitudes toward law enforcement(Skogan, 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Research shows that positive contact experiences between civilians and police officers, characterized by traits such as fairness, politeness, and courteousness, significantly impact the level of support, trust, and

cooperation that civilians exhibit toward police officers (Gau et al., 2012; Hough et al., 2010; O'Brien & Tyler, 2019). This suggests that improving the quality of contact interactions between civilians and officers can have a tangible impact on the effectiveness of law enforcement efforts (Mazerolle et al., 2013; Skogan, 2006). In addition, avoiding negative interactions with citizens, such as avoiding abusive language, verbal harassment, and disregarding the needs of citizens, is crucial. Empirical evidence shows that the above behaviors can lead to negative attitudes and decreased trust in the police. Nevertheless, research has shown that citizens may still hold negative perceptions of the police even if they have had positive experiences (Guzy & Hirtenlehner, 2015).

Various research studies conducted in developed countries have emphasized that the opinions and evaluations of the public regarding law enforcement agencies are not only shaped by the performance and actions of the police but also influenced by the contextual factors of the neighborhood where they are located (Mazerolle et al., 2013; Skogan, 2006). The economic status, social and physical disorders, and racial makeup of a neighborhood are believed to be strong predictors of how individuals and the community perceive the police force (Mazerolle et al., 2013). Research conducted on neighborhood dynamics has shown that in underprivileged and inner-city areas suffering from high crime rates and poverty, the police are less trusted.

In addition, research conducted in the U.S. has explored the role of race in shaping attitudes and trust in law enforcement. Studies have consistently revealed unfavorable associations between minority communities and the police, such as the mistreatment and harassment of these groups by law enforcement authorities. Police officers are frequently observed engaging in various forms of harassment, including but not limited to the use of racial slurs, verbal abuse, and derogatory language. These behaviors can be considered to indicate bias and often indicate a lack of cultural competence and sensitivity among officers (Weitzer & Brunson, 2009). Furthermore, the use of legal force and its application, regardless of fairness, can significantly impact the perception and behavior of citizens toward law enforcement.

Overall, law enforcement relies heavily on the cooperation and support of the community for effectiveness. The way residents perceive the police in a given area can greatly impact their willingness to work with and trust law enforcement. The evaluation of police performance,

effectiveness, and competence is often based on individuals' ability to demonstrate respect, trustworthiness, and professionalism in their interactions with the public (Tankebe, 2012).

Unfortunately, this is often evident in underprivileged neighborhoods primarily inhabited by minority groups, where a strained relationship with the police and a lack of confidence in law enforcement prevail (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Negative perceptions of police–community relationships can reinforce law-breaking attitudes among citizens and contribute to police misconduct. Instances of police brutality and negative interactions with law enforcement by members of the public are common. Furthermore, scholars in the field also link public trust in the police with the response time of the police, which varies significantly based on the type of neighborhood. According to related research, areas with low crime rates receive faster response times than areas with high crime and poverty rates. Residents of disadvantaged neighborhoods often report slower response times and less attention given to victims (Gau et al., 2012).

A body of related research has revealed the relationship between trust in the police and crime. This research has particularly revealed the connection between citizens' safety concerns, fear of crime, and perceptions of law enforcement agencies. These investigations were mainly conducted in developed nations by renowned scholars in the field, such as Renauer (2007), Tankebe (2012), and Reisig and Parks (2000). In particular, the relationship between citizens' perception of crime and their level of fear is closely linked to their evaluation of police effectiveness (Boateng, 2017; Reisig & Parks, 2000). For instance, Reisig and Parks (2000) demonstrated that in areas classified as safe, there is a positive correlation between the level of trust and the satisfaction citizens have with the police. Therefore, positive feedback and comment can serve as indicators of effective policing. Nonetheless, the greater the level of fear of crime is, the more cynical residents are toward police performance (Corsaro et al., 2015). Likewise, individuals who feel unsafe tend to have a disapproving attitude toward the police. In addition, sometimes civilians may feel that it is the police's obligation to keep them safe in their neighborhoods, and when they sense danger or have fears or concerns, they blame the police for it. In this regard, Skogan's (2009) accountability model elaborates on citizens holding the police accountable for their safety, crime rate, and disorders in their neighborhoods, which influence general judgments of police performance.

Sub-Saharan Africa lacks sufficient studies that have adequately established the correlation between the relationship between citizens and the police, their perceived crime problem, and fear of crime; although there are a few studies available, they require recognition. (Boateng, 2017; Boateng & Wu, 2018; Fry, 2013). A study conducted in Ghana on police effectiveness and trustworthiness revealed that the public perception of police effectiveness plays a role in determining trustworthiness (Boateng, 2017). This means that Ghanaians' confidence in the police's ability to prevent crime and provide personal security in their communities is a crucial factor in determining their trust in the police. Another study by Boateng (2012) highlighted the significance of citizens' fear of crime in shaping their trust in the Ghanaian police. Essentially, people are concerned about the level of security provided by the police in their neighborhoods, and this significantly influences their trust in them. Boateng and Wu (2018) conducted a different study on neighborhood-level effects on trust in the police in Ghana and revealed significant variations in trust levels depending on factors such as disorder, income, and education. In South Africa, Fry's (2013) study showed that corruption was a significant predictor of trust in the police, but interpersonal trust, poverty, and race were stronger predictors.

Most studies examining the correlation between crime and trust in law enforcement have been conducted in developed Western nations. Since there is limited knowledge and understanding of crime and trust in law enforcement in developing countries, conducting research on this subject in the Ethiopian context could provide additional insights and knowledge and contribute to the literature. Furthermore, these findings can inform crime control efforts. Therefore, this study examines the influence of collective efficacy and trust in the police for crime prevention in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

2.5 The Relationship between Policing and Collective Efficacy

Despite the recent growing interest in this subject, the relationship between policing and collective efficacy has not been a well-established area of research. However, recent studies have been conducted to examine this relationship and shed light on its complexities. For instance, some studies conducted in developed countries argue that the quality of police services can foster collective efficacy (Sargeant, 2015; Sargeant et al., 2013; Yesberg & Bradford, 2021). These studies showed that specific policing activities and the nature of relationships empower

communities to self-regulate and be willing to intervene and be involved in collective action against disruptive and criminal behaviors. However, other scholars have focused on the value of implementing specific types of policing approaches in crime-ridden neighborhoods for promoting collective efficacy. For instance, Kochel and Weisburd (2019) noted that aspects of hotspot policing, such as directed patrolling or increased police presence in crime-prone areas, promote modest improvements in collective efficacy. Similarly, Sargeant and colleagues argue that partnership-based and place-based policing tactics encourage perceptions of police legitimacy to facilitate and encourage collective efficacy, which in turn reduces crime (Sargeant et al., 2013).

Sampson (2013) argued that the nature of criminal justice practices affects collective efficacy. Other researchers also noted that neighborhood residents' evaluations of criminal justice practices are somewhat connected to informal social control, which ultimately shapes neighborhood crime rates (Goudriaan et al., 2006; Silver & Miller, 2004). In another study, Warner (2014) observed that police effectiveness through crime control and residents' faith in police performance increase informal social control efforts. This can be explained by the fact that neighborhoods with a positive evaluation of police also contain residents who are more likely to intervene in situations and incidents that lead to crime and disorder.

Research has shown that the public's perception of the quality of police services, such as police performance and procedural justice, is essential for ensuring collective efficacy in a community (Sargeant, 2015). This means that when people trust that the police are effective at controlling crime and treating people fairly, they are more likely to take informal steps to control crime and keep their communities safe. One study suggested that the way people view formal social control, in particular, the police's procedural justice and efficacy, directly influences how they evaluate informal social control efforts and the ability of their neighborhoods to control crime (Matsueda & Drakulich, 2016). Therefore, it is vital for the police to communicate their effectiveness and deliver procedural justice to citizens to encourage collective efficacy and potentially reduce crime. However, a different study has shown that a community style of policing may not be enough to change deeply ingrained attitudes toward the police (Renauer, 2007). In fact, this may even hinder informal social control. Instead, residents' opinions about social cohesion and the responsiveness of police administration are the best indicators of improved informal social control.

Research evidence has also shown a relationship between the quality of routine police services and levels of police misconduct and collective efficacy (Kochel, 2013). Kochel's study revealed that minimizing police misconduct, such as police corruption, enhances collective efficacy and lowers crime. This implies that impressions about police services and misconduct may affect community collective efficacy and crime reduction efforts. Furthermore, Lombardo et al. (2017) found that satisfaction with the police mediates the effects of community policing on informal social control. Thus, general satisfaction with the police, rather than community policing, is essential for explaining neighborhood crime problems (Lombardo et al., 2017). Overall, research from industrialized nations has identified aspects of policing likely to foster collective efficacy and has suggested the value of promoting collective efficacy as a crime prevention strategy. While there is research on the relationship between police services and collective efficacy in developed countries, there is a dearth of studies on this subject in developing countries. Specifically, there is a lack of research on the influence of policing programs on collective efficacy in sub-Saharan Africa. Few empirical studies conducted in developing countries have shown that beyond the direct effects on crime, trust in criminal justice practices may determine collective efficacy (Kochel & Weisburd, 2019).

In Ethiopia, research on the relationship between community collective efficacy and the perceived strengths of criminal justice practices is needed. However, few studies in the area of policing have examined how governments initiate policing strategies—community policing and problem-oriented policing—functioning to control crime and maintain order (Denney & Demelash, 2013a; Di Nunzio, 2014). However, these studies have barely examined the improvement in police performance in response to crime or other social issues or in terms of enhancing the relationship between the police and residents in terms of social cohesion, informal social control, crime resistance, police support, addressing the sources of crime, and accepting police decisions. The available research has not evaluated how police–community relations affect local crime situations, reinforce neighborhoods' ability to tackle sources of crime, or intervene by using informal social control to manage crime. Therefore, it is necessary to consider, social cohesion, informal social control and the activation and utilization of social capital as critical aspect of collective efficacy, as well as how residents' opinions of police services and their relationships influence collective efficacy.

2.5.1 The Impact of Trust in the Police on Collective Efficacy

Trust in the police and collective efficacy have both emerged as key concepts in understanding crime problems at the community level and relevant mechanisms to police-community relations and in engaging citizens in preventing crime and maintaining safety. Some research has sought to identify the antecedents of collective efficacy, with trust in police emerging as a key factor linking policing to informal social control capacity (Carr et al., 2003; Nix et al., 2015). In a rapid evidence assessment, Yesberg and Bradford (2021) reviewed the empirical research on the relationship between policing and collective efficacy. They identified thirty-nine studies and found that trust in the police was the aspect of policing most consistently associated with collective efficacy (Yesberg & Bradford, 2021). Specifically, Sargeant (2015) found that trust in police effectiveness and procedural justice are the key variables explaining collective efficacy.

Positive police relations may enhance residents' shared willingness to intervene by signaling law-abiding norms, the dependability of the justice system, and police responsiveness if needed. In this regard, Carr et al. (2007) analyzed survey data from more than 5,000 Chicago residents in 80 neighborhoods. They found that trust in the police significantly predicts collective efficacy while controlling for structural disadvantage (Carr et al., 2007). This highlights that beyond poverty and instability, police-community relationships impact neighborhoods' capacity and willingness to engage in informal social control. This finding supports their hypothesis and suggests that police-community relationships characterized by trust can strengthen residents' willingness to work together for the common good.

Nix et al. (2015) replicated previous findings using data from 1,681 residents in another major city in the U.S. They found that trust in the police remained significantly associated with collective efficacy, even after demographic variables and judgments of procedural justice were controlled for. This finding suggests that, in addition to experiencing fair police practices, residents' confidence in law enforcement officers is still a unique predictor of their collective willingness to intervene in the common good. Overall, the Nix and colleagues study provides further evidence that trust in officers positively predicts collective efficacy at the neighborhood level and supports the theory that improving public trust can enhance communities' ability to prevent crime themselves. Hinkle and Weisburd (2008) also found that police trust reduces fear of crime, which

enables social connections and collective efficacy. Similarly, Murphy et al. (2008) showed that procedural justice enhances police trust, in turn promoting cooperative intentions. Together, these studies provide consistent evidence that positive police relations characterized by public trust are critical for enabling communities to prevent crime themselves.

The findings above contribute to the broader literature on collective efficacy and crime. Past influential studies by Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls (1997) established collective efficacy as one of the strongest predictors of reduced neighborhood crime rates, even after accounting for disadvantage and prior crime levels. By showing that police trust is tied to collective efficacy, studies have identified a social mechanism through which positive police–community relations, trust in police effectiveness, and perceptions of procedural justice can enhance informal social control and subsequently reduce crime. This suggests that building trust between the police and the community can help to foster collective efficacy and potentially reduce crime.

The above works empirically connect the points of police trust, collective efficacy, and crime control. While there is empirical evidence linking trust in the police with collective efficacy, additional research is needed in geographic and cultural settings beyond developed Western countries, and further research in developing countries could better test whether gains in trust in the police predict subsequent increases in collective efficacy within communities. Moreover, while most studies offer quantitative evidence, qualitative evidence that could provide deeper insights into how trust relationships between the police and citizens strengthen social cohesion and expectations for intervention is largely absent.

2.5.2 Promoting Collective Efficacy through Trust in the Police

Determining how collective efficacy can be sustained and encouraged is important because it can aid police officers in their endeavors to support informal community regulation and inform police practices in communities lacking collective efficacy (Renauer, 2007; Sargeant, 2015). Scholars argue that perceptions of formal social controls, such as police procedural fairness and police efficacy, directly influence individuals' evaluations of informal social control efforts and neighborhood capacities to exert informal social control (Drakulich & Crutchfield, 2013; Kochel & Weisburd, 2019; Sargeant et al., 2013). In particular, Nix, Wolfe, Rojek, and Kaminski's (2015)

study on trust in the police showed that individuals' perceptions of procedural justice, such as whether the police act fairly and respectfully, influenced their accounts of collective efficacy in their neighborhoods. Furthermore, a study by Sargeant (2015) showed that perceptions of police effectiveness in crime control and procedural justice are linked to collective efficacy. In other words, when people believe that the police are competent and fair in their procedures, they are more likely to view their neighborhoods collectively as effective and to use informal social controls. Furthermore, studies support the idea that minimizing police misconduct, such as police corruption, enhances collective efficacy and lowers crime (Kochel, 2013). The above body of research suggests that improving the quality of police services can foster collective efficacy, particularly in areas with high crime rates, by empowering communities to self-regulate and encourage citizen involvement in collective action against disruptive and criminal behaviors.

Another body of related research has focused on policing strategies and undesirable perceptions that affect community collective efficacy. For instance, problem-oriented and partnership-based policing operations are expected to increase collective efficacy by encouraging community "self-help" and social cohesion and increasing access to police resources (Sargeant et al., 2013). In contrast, a study by Renauer (2007) suggested that a community style of policing may actually hinder informal social control. According to Renauer (2007), the community model of policing may not be enough to change deeply ingrained attitudes toward the police. Instead, the best predictors of enhanced informal social control are residents' perceptions of social cohesion and the responsiveness of police administration. Similarly, Lombardo et al. (2017) found that general satisfaction with the police, rather than community policing, is essential for effective neighborhood crime control strategies. Other groups of scholars have emphasized how specific types of policing programs are vital for enhancing collective efficacy. For instance, Kochel and Weisburd (2019) revealed that hotspot policing, such as directed patrolling or increased police presence in crime-prone areas, promotes modest improvements in collective efficacy.

Furthermore, other groups of researchers have focused on how certain undesirable perceptions of criminal justice institutions and laws affect collective efficacy and community capacity for self-regulation. For instance, Kirk and Matsuda (2011) found that residents of neighborhoods with high levels of legal cynicism are less likely to engage in collective efficacy. Accordingly, crimes that might flourish in neighborhoods that view the law as illegitimate are less likely to comply with it;

however, because of distrust toward the police and courts, these crimes might go unreported and, therefore, unsanctioned (Kirk & Matsuda, 2011). Moreover, a study conducted in Kenya associated a higher level of crime in neighborhoods where residents viewed police as unresponsive, ill-equipped and less capable of controlling crime (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Overall, the studies above demonstrate that attitudes toward the police are essential in motivating individuals to participate in informal social control, comply with police directives, report crime, and obey the law.

Many studies demonstrating the relationship between police services and collective efficacy behaviors are overwhelmingly conducted in industrialized nations. In countries such as Ethiopia, which have distinct social, cultural, and economic contexts, there is no research on the relationship between collective efficacy and policing activities or the effectiveness of policing services and police treatment for citizens in influencing social cohesion and informal social control. The current study will fill this gap by investigating the influence of police practices and behaviors likely to promote collective efficacy.

2.5.3 The Significance of Public Trust in Police Work

Trust in criminal justice involves the public's expectation and confidence in the integrity, effectiveness, and justice of the criminal justice system and institutions in their regions of jurisdiction (Sherman, 2002). According to Sherman (2002), trust in the criminal justice system has three dimensions: belief in the system's integrity, efficacy, and justice. All the aspects of trust are valuable for criminal justice because they make them more efficient and authoritative, ensure public cooperation, and enhance the willingness of the public to report crimes and provide information for law enforcement (Mazerolle, Antrobus, et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2019). Citizens who trust criminal justice institutions can help by reporting crimes they see and/or supplying crucial information that leads to the arrest of criminals. Furthermore, public trust is central to successful investigations and prosecution of crimes and to citizens' willingness to report crimes.

Advocates of the performance model argue that the effectiveness and quality of police services are more vital to generating public trust in the police than is the trust generated from the fairness of the methods and procedures (Sargeant, 2015; Tankebe, 2008). Procedural fairness proponents, on the contrary, argue that procedural fairness is an important component of police activity and that

the public prefers to evaluate police officers based on the fairness of the tactics they use during interaction and the decisions they make (Nix et al., 2015; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tankebe, 2008). To these researchers, to gain residents' trust, the police must treat everyone equally, regardless of color, gender, or socioeconomic class.

Overall, public trust in police work improves police effectiveness and legitimizes police actions (Goldsmith, 2005), leading to voluntary acceptance, which supports positive behavioral outcomes, including cooperation, compliance, and information sharing—all of which improve police effectiveness (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Further research revealed that public trust legitimizes police (Mazerolle, Bennett, et al., 2013; Roberts & Plesnicar, 2015; Sargeant, 2015; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003). However, not every police institution is regarded as reliable and trustworthy, and some police agencies have severe trust issues, which has resulted in their ineffectiveness. When a police department lacks public trust, it is difficult to achieve public cooperation and compliance.

Several studies have shown that trust in police effectiveness and procedural fairness improve informal social control and collective efficacy, both of which are important for reducing crime and violence (Kochel, 2013; Kochel & Weisburd, 2019; Renauer, 2007; Sargeant, 2015). These studies contend that police can contribute to collective efficacy and lower the level of crime through effective services, minimizing misconduct, and improving procedural fairness.

The relationship between collective efficacy and crime problems at the neighborhood level has been extensively studied in developed countries. However, the connection between crime problems and the quality of police service, as well as the treatment of citizens, has not been thoroughly researched. Moreover, researchers have recently begun studying the impact of policing practices on collective efficacy, although this work has primarily been conducted in developed nations. However, no study has attempted to investigate the extent to which collective efficacy and the public's perception of police efficacy and procedural fairness are related to crime problems in Ethiopia.

2.6 Conceptual Construction: Merging Theoretical and Empirical Reviews

Integration is taking a central stage in sociological and criminological theorization and research (Cole, 2019; Wikstrom & Sampson, 2006; Wilcox et al., 2018). In this regard, Wikstrom and

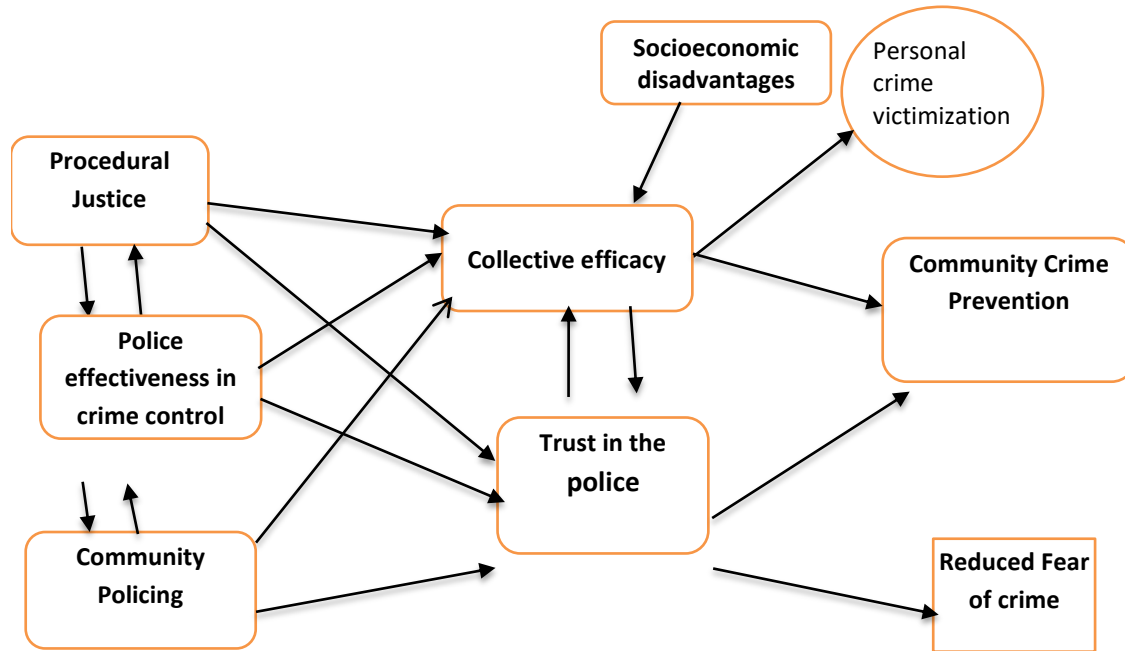
Sampson (2006) identified a minimum of four types of integration: theories (e.g., social process and social control), methods (quantitative and qualitative), levels of analysis (e.g., neighborhood and individual), and disciplines (e.g., sociology and psychology). However, the majority of integrative efforts in the study of crime advocate theoretical and methodological integration (Pratt & Cullen, 2005; R. J. Sampson, 2012; Wikstrom & Sampson, 2006; Wilcox et al., 2018). Theoretically, scholars suggest that the integration of structural, cultural and social control explanations provides richness and promotes explanatory power in community-level crime research (Pratt & Cullen, 2005; Wilcox et al., 2018).

Building on the virtues of integration, the conceptual framework of this study integrates relevant factors to understand neighborhood contexts, collective efficacy, personal crime experiences and trust in police that influence crime problems. The study's conceptual framework draws upon theoretical and empirical literature concerning collective efficacy, trust in police, and neighborhood context, which potentially influence community crime prevention and crime reduction efforts. Figure 2.5 illustrates the conceptual framework, which summarizes empirical and theoretical reviews and guides the analysis of core themes. It serves as a guide for research and analysis by outlining the key concepts, variables, and their relationships. The framework helps to clarify and define the scope of the study, enabling researchers to form hypotheses, identify research questions, and analyze data effectively.

The diagram on the left side illustrates various factors related to policing that are believed to affect trust in the police, collective efficacy, and contribute for crime prevention. Residents' evaluation of police effectiveness, procedural justice, and community policing are expected to have a positive influence on trust in the police and collective efficacy. Similarly, favorable assessments of police effectiveness in crime control, procedural justice, and community policing positively contribute to community crime prevention in neighborhoods.

The second part of the diagram illustrates the connection between trust in the police and collective efficacy. The diagram shows that trust in the police positively influences collective efficacy. The third part of the diagram on the right depicts the influence of collective efficacy and trust in the police towards community crime prevention.

Figure 2.5: Conceptual Framework (*source*: researcher’s own construction)



Based on the theoretical and empirical review, trust in police effectiveness to control crime and procedural justice to have implications for neighborhood crime prevention. In this line of inquiry, Kirk and Papachristos (2011) noted that the perception of the law and its agents as responsive or unresponsive, equipped or ill-equipped, and treating citizens with respect and dignity is related to informal social controls and collective efficacy. This study ascertains the above assertions utilizing empirical evidence, including etic and emic viewpoints from study participants using both quantitative and qualitative data. The arrows in the diagrams indicate how policing practices influence trust in the police and collective efficacy, which in turn affect community crime control.

2.7 Understanding the Contexts of Crime in Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, crime is a significant issue that affects society, causing fatalities, injuries, destruction, and social breakdown (Abbink, 2017). According to UNDOC's (2015) reports, Ethiopia recorded 7552 (7.52 per 100,000) deliberate homicide offenses in 2013, the highest in the Horn of Africa. Moreover, the World Values Survey (2017–2021), which included 1230 samples in 87 locations

across Ethiopia, showed the severity of crime victimization and the prevalence of predatory crimes such as robberies and street violence (Haerpfer et al., 2022). Similarly, a World Population Review (2020) revealed that Ethiopia, with 47.46 crimes per 100,000 people, had the highest crime rate in Eastern Africa in 2019. Moreover, the Ethiopian Federal Police (EFP) crime report shows that between 2013 and 2018, 25% increase in homicide, 52% increase in rape, 51.8% increase in robbery, and 29.8% increase in purse snatching is recorded by the police.

Table 2.1. Five-Year Crime Statistics for Major Types of Predatory Crimes in Ethiopia

Type of crime	Year (with number of crimes reported)					
	2016-2017	2017-2018	2018-2019	2019-2020	2020-2021	Total
Intentional Homicide	3492	4020	4427	4133	4339	20411
Rape	1636	2168	2351	2597	2492	11244
Robbery and snatching	4018	3743	5554	5380	6103	24798
Assault	49433	46169	61712	71304	64177	292,795

Source: Ethiopian Federal Police Commission Crime and Traffic Statistics Department 2022

The World Values Survey (2017-2021), which involved 1230 samples at 87 sites across Ethiopia, inquired about crime victimization, how often predatory crimes such as robberies and street violence occur in the community, and aspects of fear of crime at the neighborhood level (Haerpfer, C., Inglehart, R., Moreno, A., Welzel, C., Kizilova, K., Diez-Medrano J., M. Lagos, P. Norris, 2022). The survey results show the severity of the crime and the fear of the crime. Among the respondents, 11.5% said they had experienced a crime in the past year, and 32.2% said robberies are common in their area. Approximately 31.3 percent felt unsafe in their area, and 75.4 percent avoided going out or walking alone at night. Additionally, approximately 52% of them said street violence and fights happen frequently in their area. Numerous studies conducted revealed the sources of crime including poverty, lack of employment opportunities, income inequality, urbanization, and rural-urban migration (Dessalegn, 2011; Wassie et al., 2021). Further, crime

rates are influenced by the widespread availability of small arms and ineffective law enforcement (Cochrane & Hadis, 2021).

Like in any other country, crime and violence are primarily concentrated in urban areas, which have poorly managed urbanization, a lack of opportunity, and a weakening of traditional values (Andargachew, 2004). In Addis Ababa, crime can take various forms, such as property, violent, and drug-related crimes. In addition, property crimes—*theft, fraud, and burglary*—are also prevalent. According to statistics reported by the Addis Ababa Police Commission (AAPC), in 2019 alone, more than 50,000 offenses were officially recorded, which represents a significant increase compared to the previous fiscal year. This figure illustrates the widespread occurrence of crime and its prevalence within the capital city. Property crimes directed toward residential properties—including *burglary, theft, squatting, and robbery*—accounted for 65% of all criminal activity in 2019 (AAPC 2019).

Violent acts such as homicides are also occurring more often than other types of violent crimes currently occurring in Ethiopia's capital city; however, they persist. Similarly, after reviewing decadal crime statistics for Addis Ababa, Beyene (2010) discovered that crime is committed mainly by uneducated men who have only primary education, are between the ages of 19 and 30 years, and are unemployed.

Police records also confirm increasing predatory and violent crime, particularly in urban areas. For instance, in the 2019 fiscal year, the Ethiopian Federal Police recorded the highest crime rate in Addis Ababa (EFPC, 2019). Similarly, the Addis Ababa police crime record shows that between 2013 and 2018, major predatory crimes such as *murder, assault, robbery, and burglary* increased by 43%, with most offenders being young, male, and less educated (AAPC, 2019). The increasing crime rate and fear of crime in the capital manifest themselves in the residents' various preemptive and preventive tactics. For instance, residents increasingly rely on basic target-hardening methods, including *walls, locks, and guards*, and increasingly live-in gated communities due to increased crime and vulnerability (Yeraswork, 2008). The proliferation of private security firms can also shed light on the increasing risks of crime and illegal activities in towns.

Table 2.2 Five-Year Crime Statistics for Major Types of Predatory Crimes in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Type of violent crime	Year (with number of crimes reported)					
	2016-2017	2017-2018	2018-2019	2019-2020	2020-2021	Total
Intentional Homicide	165	102	165	149	184	765
Forceful rape of woman*	526	495	449	378	412	2260
Robbery and snatching	1696	1433	1811	2092	2895	9927
Assault	15469	12991	12665	12239	12382	65,746

Source: Addis Ababa Police Commission, 2021

* The crime data are incomplete and erroneous. For example, robbery and snatching are combined into one category. Minor and aggravated assault were combined into one category.

Further, studies suggest that the high crime rate in Addis Ababa is due to the imperfect urbanization process, which has resulted in the marginalization of the poorer population (Pedrazzini et al., 2018) and increased unemployment and inflation (Alemayehu, 2018; Jibat & Nigussie, 2015). While urbanization in Ethiopia is due to rapid population growth and rural–urban migration, rapidly growing urban populations and ill-managed urbanization are among the critical forces explaining increasing criminal activities, including theft, robbery, and violence in urban areas, including Addis Ababa. In addition, inequality, poverty, a lack of economic opportunities, inadequate quality education, poor access to services, and weak law enforcement are often mentioned as underlying contexts. However, few studies also note the deterioration of the long-held social fabric that undermines societal controls for increasing crime problems. Moreover, the cash-based nature of the market puts residents at risk of crimes, including robbery, theft, and burglary. Moreover, studies show that the availability of guns has increased crimes and violence in the country.

Concerning law enforcement, studies partly attribute the rising crime and violence in Addis Ababa to a poorly informed and incomprehensive crime prevention strategy that lacks public support and is accompanied by a poorly trained, disciplined, and equipped police force (Kebede, 2014). There

are areas in the city that lack police services and functioning law enforcement, which pushes residents to rely on alternative ways to control behavior and create new coping mechanisms against crime. These coping mechanisms can range from community group "policing" to increasing security to collective violence against criminals. There is also a need for comprehensive and up-to-date data on crime, which affects research efforts, making it difficult to fully understand the extent of the problem and its correlates and forward recommendations for practical solutions. Furthermore, a dearth of resources and financing for crime studies in Ethiopia impedes efforts to study and recommend evidence-based practical solutions. In sum, inadequate empirical evidence negatively impacts efforts to transcend crime and violence in towns.

Regarding crime control, numerous legal and policy tools exist, including the criminal justice policy. The policy aims to enhance citizen safety by increasing community participation, improving police training, and strengthening prosecutorial capacities, among other measures. However, the criminal justice policy in Ethiopia lacks detail and consideration for the root causes of crime, leading to poor coordination, ineffective strategies, and unfair targeting of specific groups such as political groups. It also fails to emphasize transparency, accountability, and the need to build public trust in law enforcement agencies. Despite the policy, Ethiopia also lacks a comprehensive crime prevention strategy that addresses crime risk factors. Although drafted in 2020, it has not been officially released or implemented.

When it comes to specific crime control mechanisms, Ethiopia has introduced community policing as a crime prevention and community safety policing philosophy. Studies from Western countries suggest that proper implementation of community policing can reduce crime and fear of crime. Its implementation in Ethiopia has encountered unique challenges, such as the absence of clear legal and institutional frameworks, negative public perception, and poor training of officers. Community policing in Ethiopia faces significant challenges in implementation and effectiveness. These include politicization, lack of community involvement, resource constraints, political interference, and high tension. Further, a study has found that the police force needs to prioritize public participation and independence to uphold accountability, congruence, and community-centering principles (Assefa et al., 2021). Political interference affects accountability, and the police must establish a cooperative relationship with the public. To overcome these challenges, fostering collective efficacy, strengthening informal social control, training officers, encouraging

community engagement, and implementing localized programs is important. Thus, a multifaceted approach is necessary for successful implementation.

2.8 Understanding Crime and Collective Efficacy: An Empirical Study in the Context of Ethiopia

Ethiopia is a country with a diverse range of cultures, religions, and ethnicities that contribute to its rich social fabric. The diverse and multicultural contexts in Ethiopia may affect the level of social cohesion and collective efficacy in different communities. Social cohesion is an important factor in societies, particularly in diverse and multicultural contexts such as Ethiopia. There is a common saying in Ethiopia that reflects the importance of neighborhood social cohesion and relationships: (ከሩቅ ዘመድ፣ የቅርብ ጎረቤት!) [Meaning: a close neighbor is more helpful than a distant relative]. This suggests that people prioritize good neighborhoods and community cohesiveness over blood relatives who live far away.

Studies conducted in the capital city of Addis Ababa have shown the existence of solid social cohesion in which many communities have strong social ties, mutual support, and shared norms that lead to positive outcomes, such as better health, education, and well-being (Kassahun, 2015; W. Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). For instance, Samson (2015) found that stronger and denser social ties among residents of poor neighborhoods in Addis Ababa were associated with higher levels of social trust, institutional confidence, and reciprocal exchanges. Similarly, Kebede and Butterfield (2009) showed that social networks among poor women in Addis Ababa enhanced their access to better information and additional resources or strengths to cope with economic and social challenges. Furthermore, Kebede (2012) argued that community social networks could have a positive or negative impact on HIV/AIDS transmission rates, depending on the type and quality of the networks. However, these studies also acknowledge that social ties and networks are not always consistent or sufficient for explaining neighborhood outcomes, as there may be other factors that affect the level of collective efficacy and social cohesion.

The latest wave of the World Values Survey (2017-2021) indicates that most Ethiopians uphold normative values and condemn deviant behaviors. However, the survey also revealed a low level of interpersonal trust among Ethiopians, as 87.8% of the respondents reported that they either did

not trust people at all or were very cautious in their interactions. The survey didn't reveal factors that undermine interpersonal trust, which may require further research.

A study conducted Bekele and Hone (2023) compared the views of residents on social capital in different settlements in Gondar town, Northern Ethiopia, and found that social capital varied across settlement areas, with the lowest level observed in condominium settlements. The study showed that residents of condominiums had weaker social networks, trust and reciprocity, informal social control, and neighborhood attachment than residents of slums and squatter settlements. Moreover, the study highlighted several of the factors that hinder the formation and preservation of social capital among residents in settlements, such as increasing intolerance, crime and dishonesty; illegal arms trade; gang activities; corruption; and poor governance.

Although the concept of collective efficacy has been largely neglected in the Ethiopian context, some studies have applied it to various domains of social life and demonstrated its relevance and importance. For instance, studies in the public health and education areas utilized the construct of collective efficacy and found its relevance to predict the effectiveness of health interventions and educational outcomes. For instance, Delea et al. (2018) found that collective efficacy was positively associated with the uptake of maternal health services, while Terefe (2016) showed that collective efficacy was a significant predictor of school quality and student achievement.

Ethiopia has a rich variety of traditional social institutions that foster community participation and promote social harmony. These institutions help to resolve conflicts and maintain order through informal social control mechanisms, such as norms, values, sanctions, and rewards. The above studies suggest that collective efficacy can have a positive impact on various aspects of public welfare and development. However, it is largely unclear whether collective efficacy plays an equivalent role in contextualizing crime concerns in Ethiopia, as it did elsewhere. In a study that examined reactions to criminality in the Oromia Region of Ethiopia, Nega and Negussie (2015) found that the diversity of subcultural norms, lifestyles, and occupational activities undermined the effectiveness of informal social control. This led to a rise in crime and a decline in communities' capacity to deal with crime-related issues.

Despite its potential to explain the variation in crime rates across different communities, collective efficacy has not been empirically tested in the Ethiopian context. This is partly due to the scarcity

of reliable and disaggregated data on crime and victimization at the local level, as well as the underdeveloped state of criminological research in the country. Therefore, there is a need to examine the role of collective efficacy in preventing crime and enhancing social cohesion in Ethiopia. This study aims to fill a gap in the literature by exploring the relationship between collective efficacy and neighborhood crime rates in Ethiopia, a country that faces various challenges related to crime and insecurity. Moreover, this study seeks to examine how police behaviors, such as trustworthiness, responsiveness, and fairness, influence the level of collective efficacy and the willingness of citizens to cooperate with the police and participate in crime prevention activities. This study is the first to address these issues in the Ethiopian context and contributes to the theoretical and empirical understanding of collective efficacy and its implications for crime control.

The current study has both practical and theoretical implications for crime prevention and policing in developing countries. On the one hand, the study provides useful insights and suggestions for improving police performance and enhancing public trust and cooperation with the police. On the other hand, the study advances the knowledge and understanding of collective efficacy as a key factor that affects crime and disorder in different contexts. The study also explored how policing variables, such as police legitimacy, police responsiveness, and police fairness, shape the level of collective efficacy and the extent of citizen involvement in crime control. By doing so, the study contributes to the literature on collective efficacy and its role in reducing crime in developing countries.

Chapter Summary

The association of crime with social networks, social capital, collective efficacy, and the perceived strength of criminal justice is explained by various sociological and criminological theories. This study is firmly grounded in the social science approach, where theory guides the research. By integrating structural factors, social cohesion, informal social control, and public social control, it was found that these factors were the strongest predictors of crime in ecological settings. As a result, the systemic model, social capital theory, collective efficacy theory, and trust in criminal justice proved to be instrumental in exploring crime at the community level. The empirical literature reviewed supported the explanatory power of collective efficacy and police efficacy in crime control within the context of this dissertation.

To enhance public engagement in crime prevention initiatives and improve police-community relations, law enforcement leaders need to grasp citizens' perceptions of the police. Procedural justice theory posits that the police can cultivate and uphold public trust by exercising fairness and justice in their interactions. Conversely, employing unfair, biased, or unjust practices can rapidly diminish residents' trust in law enforcement. In contrast, performance theory suggests that a well-performing institution garners trust, while poor performance leads to distrust. This underscores the need for police officers to enhance their performance in order to gain public trust. Although these theories offer insights into the dynamics of public trust in law enforcement, the lack of comparative studies in the African context limits the applicability of these concepts in explaining residents' attitudes toward the police. This knowledge gap hinders our ability to draw broad conclusions from research findings about the validity of these theories in policing.

To address this issue, this study examines public trust in the police in the Ethiopian context using performance theory and procedural justice theory. The conceptual framework was intended to condense the entire essence and processes of the study into a more understandable model that combines both theoretical and empirical evidence. The framework deployed in this study lays a fertile ground for the forthcoming chapters that thoroughly extend discussions on the presentation of the analysis.

Chapter Three

Methodology: Research Process and Design

Introduction

This chapter portrays the plans and procedures pursued to realize the study. It discusses topics ranging from presenting philosophical underpinnings to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. In addition, the chapter vividly describes the validity and reliability of the measures, ethical considerations, and the study area.

3.1 Philosophical Foundations of the Study

The philosophical position reflects a researcher's philosophical orientation toward the world and his or her approach to research (Wahyuni, 2012). From a philosophical standpoint, this study adopted pragmatism as a foundation for guiding researchers' behavior, choice of research approach, design, data collection, and analysis. The purpose of pragmatism is to find a negotiated ground between philosophical and methodological dogmatism and to locate a workable solution (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It provides a practical and outcome-oriented method of inquiry and offers a method for selecting methodological mixes that help researchers better answer research questions. Contemporary community and crime literature suggests that both external and multiple realities, etic and emic perspectives, observable patterns, and individual meanings should be explicated using both qualitative and quantitative methods to have a holistic and comprehensive understanding of community-level characteristics that provide context for crime problems (Bagson, 2016; Pauwels & Hardyns, 2009; R. J. Sampson, 2012).

The present study has the following philosophical merits. Ontologically, the study insists that reality is both internal and external and that human behavior is both predictive and creative. Wahyuni (2012:71) stated, "... objectivist and subjectivist perspectives are not mutually exclusive...hence...a mixture of ontology [and] epistemology is acceptable for approaching and understanding social phenomena."

Furthermore, collective efficacy and the public's view of law enforcement construct a social reality and social aspects shaped and interpreted by individuals and their experiences. Community

members view crime and security challenges through their personal experiences in daily interactions, which also influence their perceptions of social control agents. To explore the complex nature of the social controls and to comprehend their contributions to crime prevention, qualitative research methods were utilized to gather descriptive information in the form of words and text instead of numerical data.

Epistemologically, the current study assumes that knowledge can be constructed and understood in subjective and objective ways. Collective efficacy is a shared belief in a community's ability to achieve common goals and maintain social order. It is grounded in the understanding that communities can work together to address shared problems, which is an objective reality that it can be measured and observed through various indicators. Following this assumption, indicators that allow for the objective assessment of collective efficacy are well developed, including willingness to engage in informal social control, social cohesion and social trust, engagement in local organizations, and perceptions of trust towards local organizations. To assess the objective nature of collective efficacy, this study employs a household survey utilized in prior research, however, with contextualization to Addis Ababa. Specifically, it incorporates a comprehensive approach that includes household surveys designed to gather pertinent data from individuals reporting about their community.

Furthermore, the researcher argues that collective efficacy is influenced by individual experiences, socioeconomic and cultural contexts, and personal histories, which can shape perspectives on a group's resilience and capabilities. For instance, studies show that socioeconomic factors significantly affect collective efficacy, where communities facing economic challenges may feel less efficacious, while affluent areas can foster a stronger sense of capability. Additionally, public trust and social networks play a crucial role—strong relationships enhance collective efficacy, whereas mistrust can diminish it. Cultural values also influence beliefs about cooperation and community action. Thus, collective efficacy also involves subjectivity and involves a dynamic interplay of subjective experiences, beliefs, and social contexts that shape how individuals perceive their collective power and agency. Qualitative interviews with residents and police will be conducted to illustrate the subjective aspects of collective efficacy and its role in crime reduction.

Above all, a holistic and comprehensive understanding of community collective efficacy, trust in the police and their contribution to crime prevention and crime reduction depends upon both surface and in-depth investigations. Further, the study aims to provide practical insights and generate workable knowledge that can be used to enhance crime control measures and promote safety in local communities. Thus, the combination of different philosophical approaches in this study presents a promising opportunity to leverage a wide array of methods, theories, and empirical evidence.

3.2 Research Design

Mixed methods research provides more evidence for studying a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative research alone” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 12).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) describe research designs as procedures for collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies. The present study employs a mixed-methods research design to guide the overall research process, encompassing the design of research objectives, methods, analysis, and data presentation, as well as the discussion of results. Leading scholars in the neighborhood context and crime research have recommended that researchers be reflective and avoid methodological and theoretical ethnocentrism (Gerrell, 2015; Hardyns et al., 2015; Sargeant, 2015). Furthermore, scholars suggest that combining methods and theories provides a more comprehensive view of the contexts of crime problems and suggests workable solutions (Ceccato, 2016). Specifically, Pauwels and Hardyns (2009) argue that combining qualitative and quantitative approaches enhances the understanding of neighborhood crime and identifies critical social processes that aid crime prevention.

Some argue that quantitative methods ensure high levels of reliability of gathered data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Yet, the exclusive reliance on quantitative methods in community and crime research has been criticized for failing to capture the contextual and sociocultural factors influencing neighborhood crime, and community knowledge and expertise, long serving as a protective element. To better understand these unique aspects, incorporating qualitative research methods is essential alongside quantitative approaches. For instance, in illustrating the value of qualitative data, in his book “*Great American City: Chicago and the Enduring Neighborhood*

Effect”, Robert J. Sampson (2012) took a pluralistic stance on the nature of evidence and causation, advocates for the inclusion of qualitative methods in community and crime research:

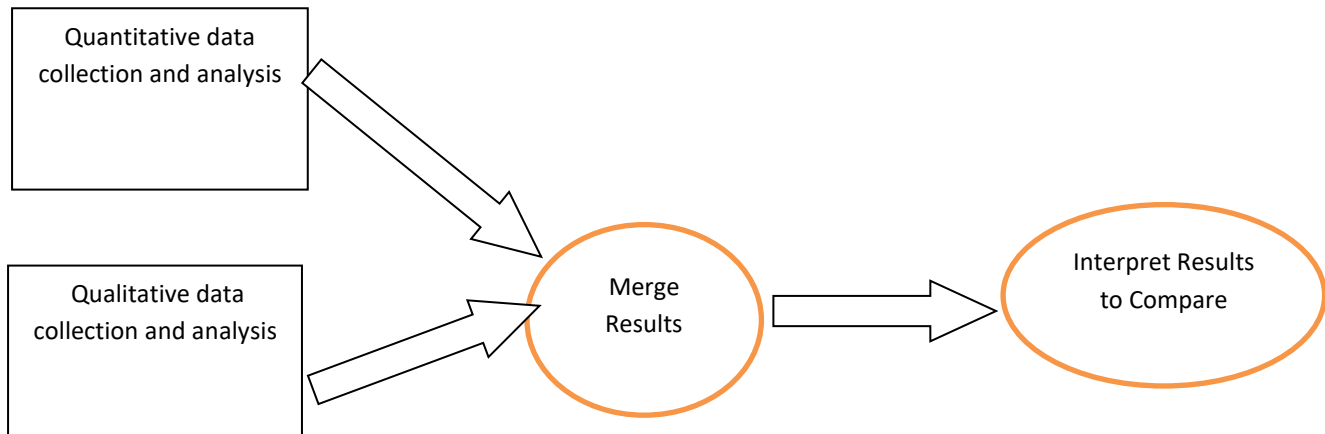
...theoretically interpretive, descriptive, qualitative, and observational approaches with econometrics and rigorous empirical analysis in a holistic way that serves up valid evidence on social causality (Pp:382).

The rationale for using a mixed-methods design is to fully understand how collective efficacy and trust in the police contribute to crime prevention. Moreover, neighborhood crime contexts and responses involve many actors and factors with diverse characteristics, and no single actor, source, or methodology can fully capture the varying nature of neighborhood crime, response and community safety initiatives (Haberman et al., 2016). Thus, a mixed-method approach supposedly enhances the credibility of the findings, fortifies and enriches the conclusions, enables us to learn about the context, uncovers new research themes, and contributes workable solutions to the crime problem.

Further, research on collective efficacy and its role in crime prevention has mainly relied on quantitative methods, creating a gap for qualitative insights. Similarly, studies on policing practices and community safety lack qualitative analysis. This study aims to address this gap by utilizing a mixed-methods design to investigate collective efficacy as a coping mechanism and the contribution of policing practices to community safety. By integrating both numerical and textual information, the research will explore informal and formal social control methods and consider contextual factors for a deeper understanding.

Three main mixed-method designs are commonly identified, namely, the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design, and the convergent design (Brannen & O’Connell, 2015; J. Creswell & Clark, 2018; J. W. Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Leavy, 2017). The study employs a convergent-parallel mixed methods design, integrating qualitative and quantitative data to enhance understanding of the research problem. This approach is chosen for its ability to provide richer insights, validate findings, and explain numerical trends using qualitative context, leading to a more nuanced interpretation of the results. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were equally emphasized, allowing for method triangulation and a systematic research approach.

Figure 3.1 Visual Diagram of Convergent Mixed Methods Design for Data Collection and Analysis.



Sources: Convergent mixed method design (adapted from the works of Creswell and Creswell, 2022; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

According to Figure 3.1, data collection occurred simultaneously using both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study collects both forms of data using the same or parallel variables, constructs, or concepts. Integrating these two types of data will take place in the subsequent phases. The interpretation phase involves addressing how the qualitative findings can shed light on outliers, unique findings, and findings that need further clarification from the quantitative study.

3.3. Research Methods: Methodological Triangulation

This subsection outlines the data collection methods and tools used in the study, which employed to achieve a comprehensive understanding of collective efficacy, trust in the police, and their role in crime reduction and prevention. It also describes the study area and the selection process for the data collection sites.

3.3.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia and the seat of many continental organizations, including the African Union and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. Addis Ababa accounts for approximately 29% of Ethiopia's GDP. World Population Review 2025 estimates show that the population of Addis Ababa is 5,956,680. This

number accounted for approximately 25% of Ethiopia's urban population, making it the only city with more than a million people (Ethiopian Statistical Services (ESS), 2024). The capital hosts people from different socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds, undergoing significant demographic, economic and social changes. These changes are consistent with the new urban forms contributing to the transformation of the social and physical landscape of the city. This transformation is associated with enormous heterogeneity, greater residential instability, and an influx of urban ward migrants. This situation forced the city to host enormous social and economic problems, including widening income disparities, deepening poverty, rising unemployment, severe housing shortages, poorly developed physical and social infrastructure and the proliferation of slums and squatter settlement, factors widely linked with crime and delinquency.

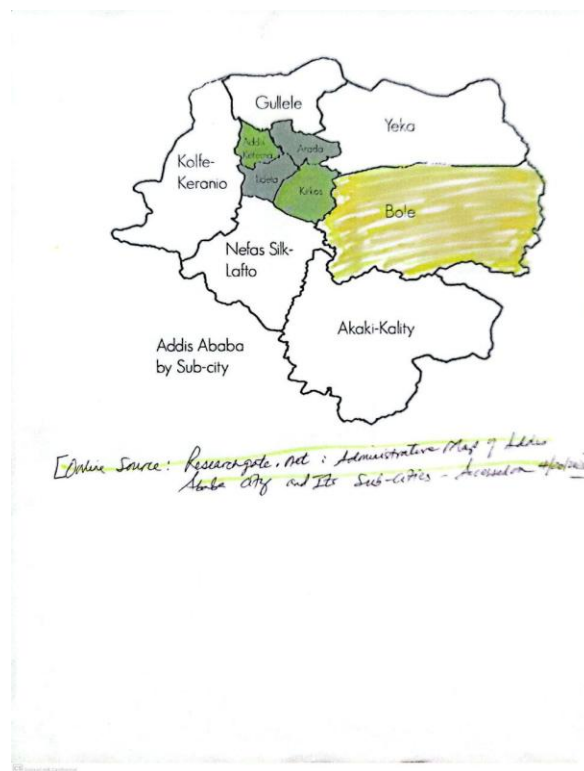
Addis Ababa city administration comprises eleven sub-cities, more than 118 districts, and 850 counties (*Ketena* in Amharic). During the time of data collection, there were 11 sub-cities, including the newly established sub-city called “Koye-Feche.” Government reports show that there are significant differences in living conditions, prevailing socioeconomic activities, and population density among sub-cities, districts, and neighborhoods. The levels of crime and disorder also vary across sub-cities, districts, and neighborhoods, according to police reports. The researcher systematically selected three sub-cities in Addis Ababa that serve as socio-economic representations of the city as well as varying levels of crime problems. These sub-cities are Bole, Addis Ketema, and Kirkos, and were chosen from the 11 sub-cities available.

According to a projection by the Ethiopian statistical service, Bole sub-city has a population size of around 435,421 in 2023. Bole Sub-City is typically perceived as a locality with a high concentration of affluent and middle-class residents. However, it is important to note that there are certain neighborhoods within the sub-city that are marked by a high prevalence of poverty and associated disadvantages. Addis Ketema is a densely populated locality that low-income earners primarily inhabit. Ethiopian Statistical Service projection indicated that the population of Addis Ketema has reached 359,735 by 2023. It is home to the largest market and bus station in the country, which serves as a hub for high-volume commercial activities. The Kirkos sub city is a unique location that accommodates both high-end establishments such as the head offices of national banks and continental and regional organizations, as well as low-income neighborhoods. The Ethiopian Statistical Service estimates that the population of Kirkos Subcity has reached

311,765 by 2023. However, it is important to note that the data collection was conducted in low-income neighborhoods present in Kirkos. The three sub cities where the data collection was performed feature a distinct characteristic that represents the fabric of Addis Ababa. Hence, it can be logically inferred that residents' opinions regarding crime, collective efficacy, and policing *aspects* provide a credible and comprehensive understanding.

The police in Addis Ababa is structured at various levels, including the commission or headquarters, sub-city level, station level, and community policing center level. The police unit at the community policing level is primarily responsible for building partnerships with the community, gathering intelligence from community representatives, and holding weekly meetings with committee members.

Figure 3.2: Administrative Map of Addis Ababa City and Its Sub cities



3.3.2 Participants, Unit of Analysis and Observation

Community-level studies rely on sample surveys in which individuals act as reporters of neighborhood contexts, vital for explaining crime situations (Pauwels & Hardyns, 2009; Sampson, 2012). In particular, research on collective efficacy and neighborhood-level crime often considers

individuals as reporters of neighborhood conditions (Sampson et al., 1997). The assumption is that individuals on their own may become biased or simply in error in their assessments; however, when controlling for potential individual-level sources of bias, such respondents may produce a reliable and valid measure of a collective phenomenon—or, as Durkheimian social fact: "*a thing distinct from its manifestations*" (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 520). Residents in the study area evaluate their neighborhoods for crime, collective efficacy, and policing features, including trust in police, police effectiveness, procedural justice, and their perception of community policing.

The unit of analysis is the primary entity or subject that a researcher intends to study. It is determined by the research question and represents the smallest unit that can be used to identify and describe a phenomenon. In the realm of neighborhood context research, standard practice involves considering a particular neighborhood as the unit of analysis, drawing conclusions based on the findings, and then comparing the findings with other neighborhoods and research findings (Reisig & Parks, 2000). In the present study, the neighborhood is taken as the unit of analysis. In Ethiopia, neighborhoods are relatively cohesive social units that fulfill social, cultural and economic purposes for residents. Thus, it is appealing to consider neighborhoods or villages as units of analysis to investigate social interaction and policing practices and potential influences on crime problems. The study considers the neighborhood as the primary unit of analysis since the impacts of crime are diverse and can affect the well-being of residents in multiple ways. Additionally, to facilitate cross-study comparisons and contribute to the literature on crime and social processes, the research focuses on examining the connection between crime and social processes at the neighborhood level.

The present study particularly utilizes the Addis Ababa police's smallest operational jurisdiction for community policing purpose. Police follow communally created village arrangements to deploy resources and undertake community safety initiatives such as community policing programs. For data collection, the investigator focused on the Katana level of city administration. Considering *Katana* as a unit of analysis has many purposes. First, police agencies operate and assign resources at this geographic level. Second, it is easier to measure social mechanisms and citizens' evaluations of the local police that may impact crime at this ecological level than at larger levels. Third, neighborhoods play relevant roles in the lives of those who reside, and work there.

Thus, 11 neighborhoods (known as Ketena in Amharic) were systematically selected in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

3.3.3 Sampling Technique and Procedure

The study collected data from household heads or their representatives in specific geographic areas, known as Ketena or Sefer, which represent communities with shared social and economic values, and hold significant cultural importance for residents, reflecting their identity and sense of belonging. The household survey respondent selection involved multiple stages and clustering, considering mixed-socioeconomic and crime-level neighborhoods. Community policing officers in Addis Ababa identified areas of differing income levels—low, middle, and high—along with sections categorized by low, medium, and high crime rates, in order to gather information that illustrates the city. Following the expert advice of the police, three districts in Bole, Kirkos, and Addis Ketema Subcity that qualify the above selection criteria were selected. Table 3.1 displays the precise locations for data collection across the various sub-cities.

Table 3.1 Sample Size for the Household Survey per Subcity

Sample Subcity	Sampled District/ Woreda/	Number of County (Katana)	Selected Katana/or block	Total HHs randomly selected Katana	Size of selected	Sample HH
Bole Subcity	District 2	10	1	318		56
			4	328		60
			7	323		59
			Gerji Condominium block 3	291		47
Addis Ketema Subcity	District 8	8	3	271		54
			4	290		53
			7	281		54
Kirkos Subcity	District 5	9	1	320		61
			4	341		58
			9	331		59
			Gotera Condominium block 1	253		55
Total		27	11	2803		N=616

The required number of EAs for each of the eleven neighborhoods, including two residential condominiums, was sourced from the community policing department of each subcity police division. Then, it was ensured that the number of EAs obtained were proportional to the population

size of the various neighborhoods. The next stage involved systematically sampling houses within each EA, and the last stage involved systematically sampling a household head from each house. Following the above sampling procedure, the researcher drew 616 samples from 11 neighborhoods of Addis Ababa. To determine the sample size for the household survey, the researcher deployed Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula, which is widely utilized among the social science research community.

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP (1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + X^2P (1 - P)},$$

Where?

- s represents the required sample size,
- X^2 represents the value of the chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841),
- N represents the population size,
- P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size), and
- d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)
- Following, the formula, 616 samples were drawn.

3.3.4 Measurement of Key Variables

Citizen's assessment of the crime problem in their neighborhood

Neighborhood effect crime studies measure crime in two different ways: prevalence rate and incident rate (Chouhy 2016; Frimpong et al. 2018; Sampson et al. 1997). The prevalence of crime in the community can be measured through victimization risks experienced by residents (Browning & Jackson, 2013; Chouhy, 2016; Gerell & Kronkvist, 2016; Haberman et al., 2016; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997). Whereas, crime incident measures the number of events that occurred (Lauritsen & Rezey, 2013). Thus, police crime reports are frequently used and widely accepted sources for research in developed countries. After a preliminary visit to the concerned police departments in Addis Ababa, the researcher realized that police crime reports were not systematically collected and recorded and that many incidents were unreported. The recording procedures employed to document criminal activities were not uniform and lacked standardized nomenclatures for

categorizing crime. Moreover, the unavailability of police data bifurcated at the neighborhood level limited its usability. Therefore, the existing police data holds little research value, and neighborhood-level crime statistics that are geocoded are particularly unavailable. Finally, it was concluded that the most viable option was to rely on household surveys to gather information about the severity of crime problems in a neighborhood. In addition, the aggregate police data was analyzed to compare and corroborate it with household survey data.

The current study utilizes citizens evaluation of the severity of neighborhood crime problems to gauge the crime level in the study neighborhood. The resident's evaluation of the severity of neighborhood crime problem and prior crime victimization aligns with existing practices of measuring the extent of neighborhood crime problem (Armstrong et al., 2015). For instance, Weitzer and Tuch (2005) measured the seriousness of crime using a single question: "*How serious a problem is violent crime in your neighborhood—very serious, somewhat serious, not serious, or not a problem at all?*". In contrast, Haberman et al. (2016) utilized seven-item Likert scales that require respondents to rate how much different types of crime affect their lives in their neighborhoods.

The current study conceptualized the neighborhood crime problems as the extent and severity of crimes, which is measured by asking residents about their evaluation of the severity of crime problems in their neighborhoods (Skogan, 2009). Table 3.2 shows the description of how the prevalence of crime is operationalized in the present study. In addition, personal crime victimization is the other outcome variable of the study. The current study defines personal crime victimization as the experience of violent crime in the past 12 months by any person residing in the sampled household, including the household representative. Thus, respondents were asked: *Have you been a victim of a robbery, assault, burglary, violent threats, or any other type of violent crime or threat in the past 12 months (yes=1, no=0)?* To identify the location of the crime incident, the survey also incorporated a question regarding where the victimization event took place.

Endogenous variables

Collective efficacy

Collective efficacy is a concept that refers to the ability of a group of people to work together toward a common goal, particularly in the context of a community or neighborhood. It is

characterized by a combination of social cohesion and a willingness to take action on behalf of the greater good. In other words, it is the shared belief among members of a community that they can work together effectively to solve problems and improve their collective well-being (Sampson et al. 1997). Following the existing literature, 14 items were identified to measure collective efficacy: four for social trust, four for cohesiveness, and six for informal social control (See Table 3.2).

Trust in the police

The current study considered four items to measure trust in the police, following seminal works in the field. The items include the following: (1) overall, I trust in the police to protect lives and property and (2) I believe that the police are effective at controlling violent crime in my neighborhood. (3) I believe the police make decisions based upon facts, not personal biases or opinions. (4) I believe the police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with.

Police effectiveness

The policing variables considered for this study include police effectiveness in crime control and providing services, procedural justice and community policing. Weitzer and Tuch (2005) measured police effectiveness in crime control by asking respondents “*How effective are the police in [your city/your neighborhood] in fighting crime—very effective, somewhat effective, somewhat ineffective, or very ineffective?*” To measure police effectiveness in controlling crime, this study contextualized Haberman et al. (2016) items. Haberman et al. (2016:536) measured police effectiveness on six items describing police performance measures using a five-item Likert-type scale (ranging from *very poor* to *very good*):

How good are the police doing in dealing with problems that truly concern people in the neighborhood? How good is a job for which a police officer keeps order on the streets/sidewalks? How good is the job the police are doing in reducing violent crime? How good is a job for reducing nonviolent crime? How good is a job for which the police solve crimes once they occur? How good are the police doing preventing crime in your neighborhood?

Data about police effectiveness were collected with six items asking respondents to indicate their agreement with the job police performed in their neighborhood or community (Boateng, 2017; Sargeant, 2015). The lead-in question for each item asks the respondent to indicate whether they

agree or disagree with the statement. The items include the following: "The police are effective at controlling violent crime in your neighborhood," "The police are effective at arresting crime suspects in your neighborhood," "The police are effective at controlling burglary in your neighborhood," "The police are effective at controlling theft in your neighborhood," "The police promptly respond to emergency calls for assistance," and "The police do a good job in responding to people in the neighborhood after being victims of crime." The response categories were (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) undecided, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

Procedural Justice

To evaluate police procedural justice, participants were asked to express their level of agreement with six relevant statements that focus on aspects of procedural justice, such as the police's "quality of treatment" and "quality of decision-making" (Gau et al., 2012; Nix et al., 2015; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). The items include (1) "When the police stop people, they usually handle the situation well," (2) "The police in your neighborhood or district accurately understand and apply the law," (3) "The police make decisions based upon facts, not their personal biases or opinions," (4) "The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with", (5) "Most police officers use only the amount of force necessary to accomplish their tasks," and (6) "The police treat everyone in your neighborhood equally." The response options ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"

Perception towards community policing

Community policing is a policing strategy that involves three main ingredients: community partnerships, problem solving, and organizational transformation. The partnership and problem-solving aspects of community policing have a significant impact on the delivery of police services and on people's ability to influence both perceived and actual crime rates, as well as fear of crime (Gill et al., 2014). To measure citizens evaluation of community policing, respondents were asked to rate the following statements on a scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree: (1) The community is working with the police in discussing crime problems, identifying causes, and providing solutions. (2) The police in the neighborhood are good at dealing with residents in a courteous manner. (3) Most police officers in the neighborhood use only use the necessary force to accomplish their tasks. (4) Police–community partnership under a community policing program effectively reduces crime and fear of crime.

Socioeconomic and demographic variables

In this study, socioeconomic factors are considered for two purposes: to determine their influence on community collective efficacy and their relationship with crime in selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa. Several studies, mainly in developed countries, have demonstrated the existence of a strong relationship between certain socioeconomic factors and crime levels. That is, the existence of accumulated disadvantage, diversity of norms and values and greater residential instability in certain ecological settings produces increased crime rates. Research has also shown that collective efficacy mediates the relationship between socioeconomic factors and crime levels (da Silva, 2014; Frimpong et al., 2018b; Mazerolle et al., 2010; Sampson et al., 1997). Gathering data on socioeconomic factors can assist in evaluating the role of collective efficacy in mediating the relationship between socioeconomic disadvantage and crime incidence. The following socioeconomic indicators are selected to determine the relationship between violent crime and collective efficacy in ecological settings.

Table 3.2. Overview of Key Variables and Measurement.

Category	Variable	Items
Dependent variable	Prevalence of neighborhood crime problem	<i>(1) How much of a problem is robbery in your neighborhood? (2) How much of a problem is physical assault in your neighborhood? (3) How much of a problem is burglary in your neighborhood? ('not a problem' (1) somewhat a problem (2) a problem' (3) or "a big problem' (4)</i>
	Personal crime victimization	<i>Have you been a victim of violent crime in the past 12 months? That is, have you been a victim of a robbery, assault, burglary, violent threats or any other type of violent crime or threats in the past 12 months (Yes/No)."</i>

Endogenous variable	Collective efficacy	<p><i>(1)People around here are willing to help their neighbors"(2)People in this neighborhood can be trusted.(3)This is a close-knit neighborhood(4)People in this neighborhood share confidential information.(5)People in this neighborhood Do not get along with each other.(6)Adults in this neighborhood know who the local children are.(7)Neighbors would get together to deal with problem.(8)People in this neighborhood Visit in each other's homes or talk on the street (Strongly agree' (5), 'agree' (4), 'neither agree nor disagree' (3), 'disagree'(2) or 'strongly disagree' (1).</i></p> <p><i>(9)People in this neighborhood scold children skipping school and hanging out on undesirable places. (10)People in this neighborhood Showing disrespect to adults</i></p> <p><i>(11)Underage youth smoking cigarettes, chewing 'Chat,' or drinking alcohol</i></p> <p><i>(12)People in this neighborhood intervene when disrespectful husband attacks wife</i></p> <p><i>(13)when they observe, people in this neighborhood break a fight in front of their house and someone was being beaten or threatened. (14) People in this neighborhood Willingness to form a neighborhood watch (Respondents will be asked about the likelihood that their neighbors would intervene ('very unlikely'(1), 'unlikely'(2), 'neither likely or unlikely'(3), 'likely'(4), 'very likely'(5)).</i></p>
	Trust in police	<p><i>(1) I Trust in the police to protect lives and properties (2) I believe the police are effective in controlling violent crime in your neighborhood. (3)The police make decisions based upon facts, not their personal biases or opinions (4)The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal</i></p>

		with. (Strongly agree' (5), 'agree' (4), 'neither agree nor disagree' (3), 'disagree'(2) or 'strongly disagree' (1).
Independent variables	Police effectiveness in crime control	<i>(1)The police are effective in controlling violent crime in your neighborhood," (2)The police are effective at arresting crime suspects in your neighborhood," (3)"The police are effective in controlling burglary in your neighborhood," (4)"The police are effective in controlling theft in your neighborhood," (5)"The police promptly respond to emergency calls for assistance," and (6)"Police do a good job in responding to people in the neighborhood after being victims of crime."</i> The response categories were (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) undecided, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.
	Police-citizen relations	<i>(1)The police in your neighborhood are doing a good job working together with residents to solve local problems (2) The police in your neighborhood involve the community to discuss crime problems, to identify causes and provide solutions (3) The police in your neighborhood do a good job dealing with residents in a fair manner (4)The police in your neighborhood do a good job dealing with residents in a courteous manner (5) Most police officers in my neighborhood use only the amount of force necessary to accomplish their tasks (6)Police-community partnership under community policing program is effective in reducing crime and fear of crime (7)Does community policing exist in your neighborhood? (8)Do the police on the street talk with people to identify and solve problems? (9)Does police treats everyone equally with fairness and dignity? (10) Does the police himself respect the law?</i>
	Community policing	<i>(1) The community is involved by the police in discussing crime problems, identifying causes, and providing solutions. (2) The police in the neighborhood are good at dealing with residents in a courteous manner. (3) Most police officers in the</i>

		<i>neighborhood use only the necessary amount of force to accomplish their tasks. (4) The police-community partnership under the community policing program is effective in reducing crime and fear of crime.</i> (Response: Strongly agree' (5), 'agree' (4), 'neither agree nor disagree' (3), 'disagree'(2) or 'strongly disagree' (1).
	Fear of crime	<i>(1)I am worried about walking in my neighborhood at night by myself, (2) I am worried that someone will break into my house and steal my property, and (3) I am worried about being attacked or robbed or mugged on the street</i> (response has three levels: Not worried at all=1, worried to some extent=2 and extremely worried=3).

The relevant demographic variables included in the household survey are: age, sex, education status, marital status, and homeownership. The measurement of age in the survey was based on the respondents' actual age in years. Gender will be measured as a dummy variable (1 = male, 0 = female). Education refers to the respondents highest obtained educational status (1 = None/no formal education, 2 = Primary school, 3= Secondary school/not completed, 4= Secondary school completed, 5= Postsecondary school/TVET, Certificate and Diploma, 6= Postsecondary school/TVET, Certificate and Diploma, 7= Tertiary (masters and above). A dichotomous measure was created by combining categories, with 0 representing Senior High School or below (including categories 1, 2, 3, and 4) and 1 representing more than Senior High School (including categories 5, 6, and 7). The educational attainment was transformed into a binary variable to establish factors like socioeconomic background, with educational level being the primary influence. Dichotomous variables for socioeconomic background were created for statistical analysis and considered alongside other factors for a comprehensive understanding.

Marital status was measured by four categories (married=1, single=2, divorced/separated=3, widowed/widowed=4). The responses were transformed into two categories for analysis: 0 for not married (which included categories 2, 3, and 4) and 1 for married. To measure employment status, respondents were asked to indicate their current employment status, and the response

categories were (1) wage employee, (2) daily labor, (3) run own bussines, (4) studying, (5) unemployed, (6) Student and (7) doing unpaid work. These categories were later combined to form a dichotomous measure with 0 = unemployed (included initial categories: 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7) and employed=1 (include categories=1 and 3).

Homeownership was measured by the type of housing of the household (1 = *public rental housing*, 2 = *private rental housing*, 3 = *owner*). These categories were later combined to form a dichotomous measure: 1 = owner and 0 = rented (including categories 1 and 2). Household size was measured by the number of people in a given household. The duration of residence was measured by the number of years the respondent resided in the current neighborhood.

3.3.5 Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of the Constructs

Factor analysis (FA) is a statistical method that helps to uncover the basic structure underlying a set of variables(DeVellis, 2016). This is accomplished by examining the relationships between the variables to identify underlying patterns of covariance. By reducing the number of variables included in the analysis and focusing on a few key factors, FA enables researchers to reveal the latent structure that underlies large datasets. This approach is particularly useful when dealing with complex datasets, as it allows researchers to extract the most important information from the data while minimizing the impact of noise and other extraneous factors(DeVellis, 2016). This technique helps researchers identify a smaller set of underlying dimensions or factors from a larger set of variables. These factors are not directly observable but represent a meaningful structure that can explain the relationships among the variables. By reducing the number of variables, factor analysis can simplify the data analysis and facilitate the interpretation of complex datasets. Therefore, factor analysis is a valuable tool for researchers who want to gain insights into the underlying structures of their data (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Its significance lies in its ability to determine whether underlying constructs might influence a set of variables featured in a survey instrument. Experts in the field have postulated that highly correlated measures are often influenced by the same factors, while uncorrelated variables are influenced by different factors. This suggests that correlated variables tend to load on the same factor, whereas uncorrelated variables tend not to load on different factors.

To ensure the reliability of the items measuring the construct, a reliability test was conducted to verify the items' internal consistency and whether the scale items represented a unique dimension. The study employed Cronbach's alpha to evaluate the degree of consistency among the variables within the multi-item construct. A higher alpha value indicates that the construct items are more strongly intercorrelated. The detailed results of this analysis are depicted in Table 5. Factor analysis of the items measuring latent variables, including perceived crime problems, collective efficacy, trust in the police, police effectiveness in controlling crime, procedural justice, community policing, and fear of crime, was performed in SPSS 25.0 using principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation.

Table 3.3 Reliability Test and Factor Loadings for each Construct.

Construct and Items	Mean (SD) of the scale	Reliability Test/Cronbach's Alpha	KMO *	Variance Explained (%)	Factor loadings
Evaluation of crime seriousness by citizens. Observed Items	6.38(2.43)	.828	.717	74.546	
How much of a problem is robbery in your neighborhood?	-	-	-	-	.843
How much of a problem is physical assault in your neighborhood?	-	-	-	-	.864
How much of a problem is burglary in your neighborhood?	-	-	-	-	.882
Collective efficacy Observed Items	47.57(7.36)	.835	.856	60.529	
People in this neighborhood can be trusted.					.707
People in this neighborhood share confidential information.					.638
People in this neighborhood Do not get along with each other.					.651
Adults in this neighborhood know who the local children are.					.760
Neighbors would get together to deal with problem.					.739
People in this neighborhood Visit in each other's homes or talk on the street					.766

People in this neighborhood scold children skipping school and hanging out on undesirable places					.684
People in this neighborhood Showing disrespect to adults					.785
Underage youth smoking cigarettes, chewing 'Chat,' or drinking alcohol					.703
People in this neighborhood intervene when disrespectful husband attacks wife					.808
People in this neighborhood break a fight in front of their house and someone was being beaten or threatened					.834
People in this neighborhood Willingness to form a neighborhood watch					.725
Trust in the police scale Observed Items	11.23(3.47)	.822	.728	65.311	
Overall, I Trust in the police to protect lives and properties					.816
I believe the police are effective in controlling violent crime in your neighborhood.					.810
The police make decisions based upon facts, not their personal biases or opinions					.784
The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with.					.822
Police effectiveness in crime control and providing services Observed Items	11.62(3.65)	.831	.758	66.467	
The police are effective at arresting crime suspects in your neighborhood					.823
The police are effective in controlling burglary in your neighborhood.					.837
The police promptly respond to emergency calls for assistance.					.767
Police do a good job in responding to people in the neighborhood after being victims of crime.					.833
Procedural justice Observed Items	10.64(3.56)	.858	.794	70.357	

F1. The police in your neighborhood or district accurately understand and apply the law					.803
F5. Most police officers use only the amount of force necessary to accomplish their tasks.					.828
F3. The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with.					.885
F4. The police treat everyone in your neighborhood equally					.837
Community-Policing Observed Items	6.71(1.977)	.685	.500	76.046	
The police involve the community to discuss crime problems, to identify causes and provide solutions					.872
Community policing program is effective in reducing crime and fear of crime					.872
Fear of crime scale Observed Items	4.86(1.74)	.681	.615	65.558	
I am afraid to walk in my neighborhood at night time by myself					.695
I am worried that someone breaking into my house and stealing my property					.827
I am worried about being attacked or robbed or mugged on the street					.877

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.

*Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy

The prevalence of crime problems is measured by a three-item additive scale. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal component analysis (PCA) and the varimax rotation method revealed that the three items, as indicated in Table 5, were associated with a single latent construct (factor loading $>.84$). Furthermore, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin sampling adequacy (KMO) measure was meritorious at .817, suggesting that factor analysis was feasible. In addition, the item's total variance resulted in a single scale component with an eigenvalue of 2.236, which explained 74.546% of the variation. The neighborhood crime prevalence subscale had a mean of 6.36 (SD=2.412) and an alpha value of 0.828, indicating good internal reliability. Table 3.3 displays the results of the factor analysis for the scaled variables. Overall, the factor analysis revealed that

all the items measured the same underlying construct; thus, the responses were summed to create an additive prevalence of crime problem in neighborhoods.

Collective efficacy: Before extraction and rotation, 14 items were identified to measure collective efficacy: four for social trust, four for cohesiveness, and six for informal social control. However, in the initial exploratory factor analysis (EFA), two items (i.e., "People around here are willing to help their neighbors" and "This is a close-knit neighborhood") prevalent in the extant literature failed to load on any dimension significantly. Thus, the EFA was repeated without including these items. The results obtained through the EFA using principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation, with a minimum factor loading requirement of 0.40, were found to be significant ($X^2=1352.927$, $df=66$, $p<0.001$). Furthermore, the level of internal consistency exhibited by the scale was acceptable ($KMO=.856$, $\alpha=0.835$, $var.= 60.529\%$). The three factors identified as part of the factor analysis in the current study aligned with the theoretical construct of collective efficacy. Factor 1 included six items about informal social control and was used to indicate the likelihood of neighborhooding the respondents intervening in informal social control scenarios; these included (1) skipping school and hanging out in undesirable places; (2) people in this neighborhood Showing disrespect to adults; (3) underage youth smoking cigarettes or chewing "Khat"; (4) disrespectful husbands attacking his wife; and (5) fighting breaks in front of their houses. (6) Willingness to form a neighborhood watch. We used a five-point Likert scale to measure informal social control. The scale ranged from 1 = "very unlikely" to 5 = "very likely". The second factor pertained to the cohesiveness aspects of collective efficacy and included three components (adults in the locality are acquainted with the children in the area, the residents of the neighborhood come together to address problems, and the people who live in the area visit each other's homes or engage in conversations on the street). Factor 3, which represents the social trust components of collective efficacy, comprises three items ("People in this neighborhood can be trusted." "People in this neighborhood trust each other enough to share confidential information." "People in this neighborhood do not get along with each other". Social trust and cohesiveness items utilized a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The collective efficacy subscale had a mean of 47.57 ($SD=7.361$) and an alpha value of 0.835, suggesting good internal reliability.

Trust in the police: As shown in Table 3.2, the four items measuring the latent variable of trust in the police successfully load on one factor. The EFA results obtained using principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation, with a minimum factor loading requirement of 0.40, were found to be significant ($X^2=478.484$, $df=6$, $p<0.001$). Furthermore, the level of internal consistency exhibited by the scale is acceptable ($KMO=.728$, $\alpha=0.822$, $var.= 65.311\%$), which indicates the reliability of the items combined to measure trust in the police construct.

Police effectiveness: During the initial examination of the EFA, two items (i.e., the effectiveness of police in controlling violent crime and the effectiveness of police in controlling theft in the neighborhood) did not significantly influence the other items. Therefore, the EFA was reconducted without these items. The subsequent analysis validated the existence of a one-dimensional component, with all communalities surpassing the required threshold of 0.40; the overall results were significant ($x^2 = 478.690$ $df=6$, $p<0.001$, $KMO=.758$, $var.= 66.467\%$, $\alpha=.831$), which indicates the reliability of the items combined to measure the police effectiveness construct.

Procedural justice: Following exploratory factor analysis (EFA), out of the six suggested items for assessing procedural justice, two items (item 1 and item 3) were found unsuitable for inclusion in the remaining item list. They failed to load properly on the remaining items. Notably, both of these items have been mentioned in previous research. The rotation without the two items validated the existence of one component construct, with all communalities surpassing the required threshold of 0.40; the overall results were significant ($x^2 = 569.908$, $df=6$, $p<0.001$, $KMO=.794$, $var.= 70.357\%$, $\alpha=.858$), which indicates the reliability of the items combined to measure the procedural justice construct.

Three items operationalize fear of crime: 1) I am worried about walking in my neighborhood at night by myself, ***2)*** I am worried that someone will break into my house and steal my property, and ***3)*** I am worried about being attacked or robbed or mugged on the street (response has three levels: not worried at all=1, worried to some extent=2 and extremely worried=3). The items were found to be reliable for measuring fear of crime ($x^2= p<0.001$, $KMO=.615$ $var.= 65.558$ $\alpha=.681$)

Individual socioeconomic status (SES). This was a composite variable created through principal component analysis (PCA) and combined dummy variables for the percentage of individuals above high school, the percentage of individuals employed and working, and the percentage of

individuals who own their homes ($\chi^2=3.414$, $p<0.05$; $KMO=.59$; $\text{var.explained}=37.434$). Previous research has shown that individual socioeconomic status positively predicts collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997). Based on empirical evidence, it is anticipated that an individual's personal socioeconomic status will positively correlate with his or her evaluation of collective efficacy.

Community-level socioeconomic disadvantage (Com_SES). A composite variable was formed through the principal component analysis (PCA) method by combining dummy variables consisting of the percentage of financially distressed households, households using latrine toilets, and the percentage of households using outdoor bathrooms ($\chi^2=120.863$, $p<0.001$; $KMO=.57$; $\text{var.explained}=56.451$). A higher level of community-level socioeconomic disadvantage is expected to be associated with lower levels of collective efficacy.

3.3.6 Analysis of the Quantitative Data

The quantitative data analysis followed rigorous procedures based on the nature of the variables, the level of measurement, the specific requirements of the sampling technique and the purpose of the study. Specifically, the analysis of quantitative data involved three stages: descriptive, bivariate and multivariate inferential analysis. Descriptive statistics serve to summarize, reduce a large amount of data and communicate the essential characteristics of the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2016; Katsis et al., 2018). The descriptive statistics pertinent to this study included frequencies, means and standard deviations. Each measure of central tendency manipulates independent and dependent variables, including the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents. The specific socioeconomic and demographic variables included sex, marital status, homeownership, length of residence (duration of stay) and household income. Endogenous variables include collective efficacy and trust in the police. The outcome variable of the study is the perception of crime problems.

A descriptive analysis was performed to investigate the distribution patterns of the study variables, which included endogenous, independent, demographic, and socioeconomic variables, as well as the outcome variable. After confirming the normality of the distribution and testing for multicollinearity, bivariate analysis was conducted. Multivariate Pearson correlation tests were employed to gauge the magnitude, statistical significance, and directionality of connections among the study factors and to offer a concise overview of the associations between variables. As shown

in Table 3.3, no indication of multicollinearity in the correlation matrix since all correlation coefficients for the independent variables were less than 0.7.

Given the scale nature of the dependent variable, the ordinary least squares procedure was used to explore the effects of the endogenous and independent variables—collective efficacy, police effectiveness, procedural justice, and other sociodemographic variables—on residents' evaluation of crime problems in their neighborhood. The OLS procedure followed a two-step process to examine how the endogenous, independent and control variables influence the outcome variables. Initially, a procedure was undertaken to see the influence of collective efficacy, police effectiveness, and procedural justice on residents' evaluation of crime issues. This procedure is conducted by excluding the impact of fear of crime, crime victimization, and other control variables. This approach allowed the study to assess the individual effect of residents' appraisal of their neighborhood's police practices, behaviors, and collective efficacy against residents' evaluation of crime problems in their locality. In the second step, the relationships between all the independent and control variables against residents' evaluation of crime problem in their neighbourhood was undertaken. The relationship between personal crime victimization and the independent variables was analyzed using binary logistic regression due to the nature of the personal crime victimization variable.

This research examined how collective efficacy and trust in law enforcement can serve as effective tools for crime prevention. Each element of collective efficacy and trust in the police, other related independent variables were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including percentages and frequencies. Additionally, a bivariate correlation analysis was performed to assess the connections between the crime situation, as gauged by perceptions of crime, personal experiences of victimization, and concerns about crime, alongside collective efficacy and trust in law enforcement, among other variables. Ordinary least squares and logistic regressions were conducted based on the outcome variable types to evaluate the strength, direction, and predictive capability of their relationships with the independent variables.

3.4 The Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

Pauwels and Hardyns (2009) noted that qualitative interviews can provide reliable and credible information regarding crime problems in ecological settings, the nature of social cohesiveness, and

informal and formal social control measures. Further, Pauwels and Hardyns (2009:403) suggested that “*the knowledge of well-chosen key informants about the social climate of an area is superior to the knowledge of the average inhabitant of that area*”. Thus, regardless of size, fewer carefully selected participants can provide valid and reliable information about community social processes that represent the community and further explain quantitative results. The qualitative study employed in-depth interviews, key informant interviews, and focus group discussions.

Key informants are “*persons who are in a privileged position to provide detailed information on local area processes*” (Pauwels and Hardyns 2009:404). The current study argues that the knowledge, experiences, and roles of individuals in their local areas play a significant role in shaping the social reality. This is because individuals with specific jobs may possess valuable and unbiased information on various matters, such as crime, social control, social cohesion, and public perceptions of criminal justice institutions, particularly the police. By taking into account the perspectives of such individuals, we can better understand and address the challenges faced by communities and develop effective solutions to promote safety and well-being. Thus, in the opinion of Gerell (2015), a manageable size of carefully selected key informants can provide ecologically reliable information concerning community collective efficacy and other social and cultural processes.

For qualitative sampling, the sample size should be large enough to obtain saturation yet small enough for a deep analysis (Johnson & Christensen, 2016). A purposive sampling technique aids in the identification of potential informants who can better explain the topic of investigation (Miles and Huberman 1994). The sampling process is guided by two important purposes. The first is generating diverse perspectives held by the category of research participants. This requires the researcher to address diverse informants who know about collective efficacy, trust in the police in the local area and crime situations. The second guiding purpose will be locating the source of deeper and richer data. As the student researcher is a law enforcement officer, he owns the knowledge of key institutions and community-level structures relevant to this study. The key informants for the study were community policing officers, whereas women and youth representatives, business owners, and residents were semi-structured interview participants. The inclusion criteria required participants to be above 18 years old, current community residents, and have the knowledge of the social processes in the studied communities.

The FGD involved six police officers who were selected based on specific inclusion criteria (the police officers involved in the focus group discussion are listed in the appendix). These criteria included having a minimum of five years of service in the study community and actively engaging in community policing or crime prevention activities. As the researcher is also a police officer, he possesses a deep understanding of police institutions, which facilitates focused group discussions. The researchers ensured the discussions were interactive and the participants felt comfortable sharing their views and opinions. This approach led to interesting conversations as participants reacted positively and negatively to each other's ideas. The focus group was comprised of community policing officers, crime prevention officers, and patrol officers. Overall, the purpose of qualitative interviews and FGDs was to further explain findings from the quantitative study that require further discussion and elaborations and broaden understanding about the topic.

3.4.1 Qualitative Data Collection Instruments and Analysis Procedure

Krueger and Casey (2014) suggested that the questions in a qualitative study be carefully predetermined, easily phrased and sequenced so that they can be easy to understand and logical to the participant. For the qualitative data collection, the study used semi structured interviews, key informants interviews and focus group discussions. Semi-structured interviews are valuable for collecting sensitive information through personal, face-to-face interactions. The researcher used open-ended semi structured questions that were carefully developed after considerable reflection and input from the advisor and other relevant experts. The researcher conducted these interviews with residents, business owners, taxi queue attendants, and private security providers.

The other qualitative data collection tool employed is focus group discussion. In FGDs, the beginning questions help the group talk and think about the topic. However, questions near the end of the group supposedly yield the most useful information. Moreover, methodologists recommend that moderators not pressure participants to reach a consensus; instead, attention should be given to understanding the feelings, comments, and thought processes of participants as they discuss violent crime and community characteristics (Krueger & Casey, 2014). Finally, it is important to remember that the FGDs follow ethnographic interviews, which facilitate further discussion and triangulation of the data generated from the interviews.

The qualitative data gathering methods explored the same topics, concepts and variables as those examined in the quantitative survey. As a result, all the research objectives of the study are investigated by the semi-structured interviews, key informant interviews, and focus group discussions. Thus, it focuses on nature, type, and incidence of crime in the neighborhood; community level social cohesion and informal social control practices; measures taken by residents to respond to and reduce crime; and participants' attitudes toward the law and its agent's effectiveness in crime control. The guides used in the study to gather qualitative data can be found in the annex. The study employed thematic analysis to organize qualitative data by coding and consolidating it into broad themes.

3.5 Integration and Interpretation of Results

Integration in a convergent mixed-methods design combines qualitative findings grounded in participant perspectives with quantitative data to compare and evaluate whether the results align or contradict each other (Creswell & Clark, 2018). The study first presented the quantitative statistical results and then discuss the qualitative findings (e.g., themes) that either confirm or disconfirm the statistical results.

In accordance with the study design, the integrative data analysis process was initiated with independent analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. Subsequently, the researcher proceeded to link the two databases by collating the quantitative results with the qualitative results under the same themes or subtopics. The conclusions drawn from the analysis do not merely confirm or agree with the quantitative results. Instead, they offer an expansion of the information obtained and a more nuanced interpretation. Additionally, these conclusions can serve as a foundation for the development of improved quantitative assessments in the future.

3.5 Validity and Reliability of Data and Results

The use of a mixed methods design is linked with validity threats arising from the use of qualitative and quantitative research in addition to gaining a fuller and deeper understanding of the problem under investigation (Johnson et al., 2007). However, the nature of the validity threat that persists in mixed-method design is diverse and relates to the type of mixed-method design used (Creswell & Clark, 2018). In a convergent design, a validity concern arises when there is no follow-up on

the two databases that present differing narratives. Another issue is the lack of clarity regarding the basis for comparison, as the shared domains between the two data sets are not explicitly mentioned. Thus, it is recommended that the qualitative data collection should utilize the same types of questions as those used in the quantitative data collection. Ignoring the implications of the differing sample sizes between the quantitative and qualitative databases poses yet another potential threat.

Thus, validity threats unique to convergent mixed methods design are linked to the concepts utilized in both strands, the sample size used in both methods and the handling of disconfirming results arising from the two datasets (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Methodologists recommend addressing sampling threats in convergent design by selecting different respondents for qualitative interviews, specifically excluding those who participated in the survey (Creswell & Clark, 2018; Green, 2008; Johnson et al., 2007). To avoid measurement validity threats associated with survey questions, the present study adopted well-tested scales and items proven to successfully represent the concepts employed in this study. However, contextualization and adaptation of the items have been made. Further, to ensure the validity and reliability of the quantitative measurements, factor analysis was conducted and unmatched items were eliminated. To validate the qualitative interview guides, the research has consulted with and obtained important feedback from the supervisor and field researchers, used similar concepts and variables as those used in the qualitative data collection.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Strict adherence to ethical norms plays a pivotal role in ensuring that the research process, findings, and recommendations are credible. In the opinion of Hesse-Biber (2010), researchers need to discuss the ethical implications of their research, and the norms should act as the guiding light. This study adhered to all ethical requirements of social science research, specifically mixed-method research requirements in collecting the data, analyzing the data and presenting the findings. Given that this research was conducted on human beings, the researcher embraced the following research norms.

First, the researcher secured the informed consent of the respondents and participants before delving into collecting any kind of information. To obtain informed consent, the researcher

developed a consent form with all the research information and objectives. Second, the researcher handled participants' information with the required confidentiality. The researcher assured participants that the given information will not be shared or divulged at all. In addition, the researcher informed the participants of the benefits of the study. In doing these, the researcher adhered to confidentiality principles and ensured that there was no harm either during or after the data collection period. Furthermore, before the data collection, the researchers requested permission from the appropriate administrative bodies. First, Addis Ababa University, Department of Sociology wrote a support letter to Addis Ababa Police. Then, the Addis Ababa Police Commission sent a letter to specific subcity police departments, and those subcity police departments then communicated with the district-level police stations through letters. The researcher did not offer incentives to participants but stated that the study's findings could inform future crime control policies and tools. Overall, the researcher conducted the study with integrity, prioritizing transparency and objectivity in data collection and analysis, and avoided manipulating findings to fit a narrative, enhancing the research's credibility and accuracy.

Chapter Summary

This research study adopts a pragmatic philosophical approach and employs mixed-method research designs to guide the research process, collect, analyze and interpret data. To obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the problem, various data collection methods were used, such as household surveys, key informant interviews, and focus group discussions. A total of 616 household heads, one focus group discussion, and nine key informant interviews were conducted to gain insight into the neighborhood level of crime, its relationship with collecting efficacy, and formal social control in Addis Ababa.

Chapter Four

Criminality, Its Impacts on Residents and Prevention Mechanisms in Addis Ababa

Introduction

This chapter analyzes criminality and its impacts in selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, using police crime data alongside survey and interview results. It examines socioeconomic factors influencing crime, protective measures, and residents' responses. The chapter sets the stage for further discussions on the impact of collective efficacy and trust in the police for crime control and crime prevention, and the relationship between collective efficacy and trust in law enforcement.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

4.1.1 Socioeconomic and Demographic Profiles of the Study Participants

Neighborhood-level studies of crime have shown a link between lower socioeconomic status (SES) and higher levels of crime and safety concerns within neighborhoods and implications for crime control efforts (Sampson et al., 1997; Wilson, 1987). The relationship occurs because individuals with lower SES face obstacles in regard to accessing and utilizing resources crucial for their well-being and safety, such as education, health, employment, and social connections and resources to invest in either collectively or individually. Table 4.1 shows the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of respondents who participated in the survey. The majority of the respondents were male, accounting for approximately 67% of the sample; the average age was 35 years (SD=9.60), and the age ranged from 19 to 86 years. The average length of residency in the current neighborhood was 20 years (SD=14.362), with the shortest and longest periods being one year and 56 years.

The respondents also displayed a range of household sizes (mean = 4.11, SD= 2.02) and income earners (mean = 2.29, SD = 1.29), indicating diverse family and economic disparity that could impact their social and living requirements. Regarding financial status, 44.48%, 41.23%, and 9.42% of the respondents reported that they were managing, experiencing difficulties, and living comfortably, respectively. Furthermore, when asked to compare their financial situation with that

of the typical residents in their community, 54.55% of the respondents asserted that they shared a comparable economic condition or lifestyle with their neighborhood residents.

Table 4.1 Socioeconomic and Demographic Profiles of the Study Participants (n=616)

<i>Study Variables</i>	<i>N(%)</i>	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Age		34.76(9.60)	19	86
Sex (Male)	412(66.9%)			
Marital status (Married)	322(52.27%)			
Highest Educ.				
High school completed or below	408(66.3%)			
Above high school	208(33.7%)			
Household Size		4.11(2.02)		
Household members actively generate income		1.97(1.29)		
Current employment status of family heads				
Employed	200(32.5)			
Unemployed	416(67.5)			
Financial/economic situation				
Struggling to Coping	44.48%			
Finding it difficult to get by	41.23%			
Living comfortably	9.42%			
Relative economic situation				
Same	54.55%			
Better	20.78%			
Much worse	11.69%			
Worse	11.69%			
Much better	0.65%			
The Duration of residence		20.16(14.362)	1	56
Homeownership	67.53%			
Rented from private landlords	28.9%			
Owned by someone in the household	1.62%			
Public housing	1.3%			
Refuse to answer				
Bathroom type				
Indoor bathroom	33.44%			
Outdoor bathroom	64.61%			
Refuse to answer	1.3%			
Toilet type				
Pit/latrine	74.03%			
The flush toilet (linked with sewerage)	20.45%			
No toilet	4.55%			
Pan/bucket	0.32%			

*Others include doing daily labor/casual work, doing unpaid work, and studying

Regarding homeownership, more than 67% of the respondents were living in rented houses, while 29% live in their own homes. The type of bathroom and toilet used can indicate socioeconomic status. Over 70 percent of respondents reported using pit latrine toilets. Access to improved sanitation, like flush toilets, often correlates with higher income, better health, and more education, whereas unimproved facilities, like pit latrines, are linked to lower status.

Table 4.2. Neighborhood-Level Variations of Selected Socioeconomic Measures

Variables	Addis Ketema (n=208)	Kirkos subcity (n=205)	Bole Subcity (n=203)
	%(n)	%(n)	%(n)
Highest Educ.			
High school completed or below	87.1	54.7	51.2
Above high school	12.9	45.3	48.8
Current employment status			
Employed	76.2	53.7	71.4
Unemployed	23.8	46.3	28.8
Homeownership			
Rented	80.2	65.3	61
Owner	19.8	34.7	37
Financial/economic situation			
Coping	29.7	22.1	43.9
Finding it difficult to get by	60.4	63.2	37.8
Living comfortably	6.9	9.5	23.3
Refuse to answer	3.0	5.3	5.1
Bathroom type			
Indoor bathroom	28.8	30.5	42.9
Outdoor bathroom	76.2	68.4	57.1
Refuse to answer	3.0	1.1	
Toilet type			
Pit/latrine	79.2	74.7	71.4
The flush toilet	9.9	22.1	28.6
No toilet	10.9	3.2	-

4.1.2 Description of Crime and Criminality

The purpose of describing criminality is to demonstrate the extent of the problem in targeted neighborhoods. The description involves summarizing data collected through household surveys on personal experiences of victimization, residents assessment of crime severity in their communities, the extent of fear of crime, along with police crime reports over subcities. Analyzing local crime patterns contributes to targeted interventions, understanding contexts, and leads to evidence-based crime prevention and building safer communities for residents.

Personal crime victimization was measured by asking residents if they had been victims of robbery, burglary, assault, violent threat, or any other form of crime in the last 12 months (2021). The results show that among the respondents, 35.4% (n=218) reported they were victims of at least one of the crimes(robbery, assault, burglary, violent threats) in the stated timeframe.

Legal Definition of Violent Crimes in Ethiopia

Robbery	Art. 670 the unlawful taking of property from a person or in their immediate presence, by using force or intimidation.
Assault	Art.560 Whoever assaults another or does him violence without causing bodily injury or impairment of health,
Burglary	Art. 665 the act of entering a building or premises without the permission of the owner, with the intent to commit a crime inside, typically theft.

Table 4.3. Descriptive Statistics of The Neighborhood Crime Problem (n = 616)

	Min	Max	Mean/ %	S. D
Personal crime victimization				
Have you been a victim of a robbery, assault, burglary, violent threats, or any other type of violent crime or threats in the past 12 months (Yes=1 No=0)?(% victimized)	0	1	35.4%	
Prevalence of crime problem				
How much a problem is robbery in your neighborhood?	1	4	2.25	.962
How much a problem is physical assault in your neighborhood?	1	4	2.07	.900
How much a problem is burglary in your neighborhood?	1	4	2.06	.948
Fear of crime				
I am worried of being attacked or robbed or mugged on the street of the neighbourhood	1	3	1.54	.611

I am afraid to walk in my neighborhood at night time by myself	1	3	1.85	.934
I am worried that someone breaking into my house and stealing my property	1	3	1.47	.638

Source: Own Survey, 2022

The location of crime victimization is an essential factor in understanding contexts that give rise to crime and neighborhood features that increases vulnerability. Thus, to determine where the victims encountered the offenders, the participants were asked to indicate where they had experienced the most recent personal crime victimization. Of those who reported being victims of crime, 145 respondents (from 218 participants) faced crime victimization in their current neighborhood. Whereas 73 respondents experienced victimization outside of their neighborhood, indicating that the neighborhood environment may play a role in influencing crime victimization risk. Over the neighborhoods selected at the sub-city level, neighborhoods in Addis Ketema had the highest percentage of respondents (53%) reporting victimization in the past year, followed by Bole (31%) and Kirkos (19%) (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Neighborhood Crime Survey Results Aggregated into a Sub-city.

Variables	Addis Ketema (n=208)		Kirkos subcity (n=205)		Bole Subcity (n=203)	
	Mean/%	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Personal Crime Victimization (No=0, Yes=1)	53%		19%		31%	
Perceived Crime Seriousness (Min=1, Max=4)	2.221	.80473	2.126	.7198	1.973	.862
Fear of crime (Min=1, Max=3)	1.815	.82165	1.840	.881	1.534	.828

Source: Own survey in 2022

Residents' assessment of crime severity in their neighborhood had a mean score of 2.13 (out of 4), indicating a moderate level of concern (see Table 4.4). Robbery was identified as the most pressing crime in the neighborhood studied, followed by physical assault and burglary. The analysis revealed that neighborhoods in Addis Ketema had the highest crime rates, with residents more concerned about these crimes than those in other areas. The sample mean for fear of crime among residents was 1.87 on a scale of 3, indicating a moderate-to-serious concern. Addis Ketema

residents reported the highest levels of fear and concern about crime, including personal victimization, followed by those from Kirkos and Bole.

4.1.3 Description of Police Crime Data Over the Study Neighborhoods

The researcher compared crime severity over the study neighborhoods using police data, but the lack of systematic neighborhood-specific data means the information only pertains to the sub city level. Crime data from Addis Ketema Police Department, shows a steady rise in violent and serious crimes over the years, including homicide, rape, robbery, assault, and burglary(See table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Five-Year Crime Statistics for Major Types of Crimes in Addis Ketema Police Department

Type of violent crime	2016-2017	2017-2018	2018-2019	2019-2020	2020-2021	Total
Intentional Homicide	15	12	17	15	18	77
Rape	53	51	45	38	42	229
Robbery and snatching	189	151	185	213	357	1095
Assault	1646	1349	1365	1284	1279	6923
Burglary	125	111	116	136	175	663

Source: Addis Ketema Police department, 2021

Monthly, there is more than one homicide and weekly reports of rape occur, along with nearly four robbery cases and two burglaries. The following sections will discuss the context behind this increase in crime within the sub-city. Crime data from the Kirkos police department also shows the severity of the crime problem. Notably, each month one homicide crime is recorded, whereas almost three rape cases are also reported each month. Whereas the level of robbery, snatching, and burglary crime is massive. Like the case of Addis Ketema, assault crime is prevalent, and at least three cases are recorded per day.

Table 4.6 Five-Year Crime Statistics for Major Types of Predatory Crimes in Kirkos Sub-City Police Department (2016-2021)

Type of crime	2009E.C/2016-2017	2010/2017-2018	2011/2018-2019	2012/2019-2020	2013/2020-2021	Total
Intentional Homicide	12	9	11	8	14	54
Rape	31	45	41	32	39	188
Robbery and snatching	176	142	181	209	189	897
Assault	1278	1311	1139	1401	1073	6202
Burglary	108	85	97	101	115	506

Source: Kirkos Subcity Police department, 2021

Crime data from Bole Subcity similarly shows the severe problem of crime and increasing trends over time. Compared to other areas, the problem of rape and sexual crimes is profound in the sub-city. According to the police crime data, Addis Ketema has the highest number of serious crimes, followed by Kirkos and Bole sub-city. The survey results of residents' evaluation of the severity of crime problems and crime victimizations also support this data. These findings further reinforce existing evidences illustrating the potential link between neighborhood crime and social processes, as well as the characteristics of formal social control.

Table 4.7 Five-Year Crime Statistics For Major Types Of Predatory Crimes In Bole Sub-City Police Department

Type of violent crime	2016-2017	2017-2018	2018-2019	2019-2020	2020-2021	Total
Intentional Homicide	14	10	15	13	17	69
Rape	56	47	44	40	49	236
Robbery and snatching	171	143	179	207	285	985
Assault	1546	1299	1165	1265	1341	6616
Burglary	117	97	105	124	163	606

Source: Bole Sub-city Police Department, 2021

4.2 Analyzing the Link between Crime and Neighborhood Characteristics.

The analysis of the present study included discussing the relationship between various aspects of crime problem with socioeconomic and demographic variables considered in the study (see Table

4.8). By examining the data, it is possible to identify patterns and trends that can contribute knowledge and inform interventions to reduce crime and improve community safety. The duration of residence has a positive correlation with personal crime victimization, while socioeconomic status has a negative association. The longer one stays in an area, the higher the chances of becoming a victim of personal crime, especially for people with lower socioeconomic status. Furthermore, crime victimization is positively linked with residents' evaluation of the severity of crime and fear of crime.

The bivariate analysis results indicate a varying strength of association between residents' assessment of neighborhood crime levels and several demographic factors. The correlation with fear of crime shows a moderate positive relationship ($r = .354, p > 0.01$). This suggests that as residents perceive higher levels of crime, their fear of crime also tends to increase. In contrast, the correlations with age ($r = .121, p > 0.05$) and marital status ($r = .114, p > 0.05$) are relatively weak but statistically significant. This indicates that age and marital status have a strong but weak association with residents' neighborhood crime level assessment. Overall, the strongest association observed is with fear of crime, highlighting its potential importance in understanding residents' feelings of neighborhood safety.

Table 4.8. Socioeconomic and Demographic Variables' Correlation with Crime Problem (n=616)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Crime victimization	1										
2 Prevalence of crime problem	.313**	1									
3 Fear of crime	.209**	.354**	1								
4 Age of respondents	.016	.121*	.145*	1							
5 Duration of residence	.127*	.036	-	.417**	1						
6 Educational level	-.055	-.007	.087	-.108	-.098	1					
7 Employment status	-.073	-.059	-.012	-.028	-	.168**	.067	1			
8 Homeownership	-.087	-.042	-.126*	.089	.253**	.070	.047	1			
9 Marital status	-.018	.114*	.139*	.321**	.166**	-.023	-.057	-.019	1		
10 Socioeconomic status	-.117*	-.059	-.026	-.027	-.011	.628**	.610**	.597**	-.054	1	
11 Socioeconomic disadvantage	-.025	-.099	-.020	-.036	-.084	.348**	.058	.154**	.026	.307**	1

** . The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * . Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level.

A study conducted by Schaefer and Mazerolle (2018) revealed that individuals who have previously experienced victimization are more inclined to report serious crime issues within their neighborhoods. This finding aligns with the victimization perspective and is supported by earlier research (Karakus et al., 2010). The rationale behind this perspective is quite simple: those who have suffered victimization tend to fear future incidents and, as a result, are more likely to perceive elevated levels of crime.

In addition, Marcus Felson's situational context theory argues that crime arises from the specific context rather than just individual characteristics (Felson, 2017). He identifies three key elements for crime to occur: a motivated offender, a suitable target, and the absence of capable guardianship. This theory emphasizes the importance of situational factors in influencing criminal behavior and suggests that crime prevention can be achieved by changing environments or enhancing guardianship.

Further, statistical analysis conducted supports the bivariate analysis results. Table 4.9 shows that, from socioeconomic variables, community-level socioeconomic disadvantage, measured by the percentage of financially distressed households, households using latrine toilets, and the percentage of households using outdoor bathrooms, has a negative relationship with residents' evaluation of neighborhood crime. This implies that community-level socioeconomic disadvantage has a detrimental influence on citizens' evaluation of the severity of crime problems at the neighborhood level.

Research studies primarily conducted in Western societies have shown that socioeconomic disadvantage significantly predicts crime prevalence in specific geographic areas (Oteng-Ababio et al., 2016; Owusu et al., 2016; Sampson et al., 1997; Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Analysis of multilevel survey data from the Australian Community Capacity Study found a clear link between socioeconomic disadvantage and an increased likelihood of reporting serious local crime issues (Schaefer & Mazerolle, 2018). Accordingly, communities with higher socioeconomic disadvantages tend to have elevated crime rates. The current study's findings align with prior research, underscoring that neighborhoods with concentrated disadvantages—such as higher rates of low economic status—are at greater risk for criminal activity (Braga & Clarke, 2014; Goudriaan et al., 2006; Reisig & Parks, 2004). Specifically, areas characterized by a higher percentage of unemployed individuals and those experiencing financial hardship, along with limited access to

toilets and sanitation facilities, reported heightened concerns about crime issues like robbery, assault, and burglary. It is crucial to note, however, that while there is a notable correlation, this relationship may not be strictly causal, as other influencing factors could also be involved. A study by Nega and Berhanu (2015) analyzed police data from Oromia, Ethiopia, revealing that socioeconomic disadvantage correlates with a higher risk of crime victimization. Residents in poorer areas, like Addis Ketema, reported more incidents of robbery, assault, and burglary. The current study also confirms the negative relationship between homeownership and crime, and the positive relationship with length of residence, aligning with previous research findings.

Table 4.9. OLS Regression Results for the Relationship between Socioeconomic Variables and Residents Assessment of Neighborhood Crime Problem

Predictor variables	Residents' evaluation of neighborhood crime problem		
	b(SE)	t	(%StdX)
Collective efficacy	-.732(.198)	13.625***	-51.85%
Police effectiveness	.222(.179)	1.540	
Procedural justice	-.595(.178)	11.142**	-44.84%
Community policing	.079(.143)	.303	
Individual SES	.363(.386)	.885	
Community-level Socioeconomic Disadvantage	-.943(.342)	7.604**	-61.05%
Age	.016(.013)	1.287	
Duration of residence	.007(.009)	.607	
Sex	.061(.229)	.072	
<i>Model fit/F</i>		104.323***	
<i>Df</i>		11	
<i>Nagelkerke pseudo R²</i>		.292	

Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

From Table 4.10, it is clear that personal crime victimization is linked to demographic and socioeconomic factors. Males are more prone to victimization than females, and those with longer residency are at a higher risk. Additionally, homeowners experience less victimization compared to renters. Further, there exists a negative correlation between crime victimization and socioeconomic status. In other words, people belonging to higher socioeconomic status are less likely to become victims of crime. These variables have been found to significantly impact the incidence of crime, highlighting the need for targeted intervention and policy to address the issue.

Previous research indicates that various factors—including age, sex, and marital status—impact crime victimization, fear of crime, and assessment of the severity of neighborhood crime (Jibat &

Nigussie, 2015; Lauritsen & Rezey, 2013). The current study reveals a positive correlation between age and residents' assessment of crime seriousness in their neighborhoods. This contradicts Schafer and Mazerolle's (2018) findings, which suggest that older individuals are less likely to perceive crimes as problematic compared to younger individuals. Additionally, sex is negatively correlated with crime victimization, whereas longer duration of residence and homeownership are positively correlated with perceptions of crime.

Research also shows that homeowners tend to view neighborhood crime as less problematic than non-homeowners (Lindblad et al., 2013).

Table 4.10 The Relationship between Crime Victimization and Predictor Variables using Binary Logistics Regression(n=616)

Variables	Personal crime victimization					95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Age of respondents	-.012	.016	.530	.467	.988	.958	1.020
Sex of respondents (Male=1)	-.746	.269	7.716	.005	.474	.280	.803
Size of household	.071	.066	1.161	.281	1.074	.944	1.221
Duration of residence	.029	.009	10.083	.001	1.030	1.011	1.048
Educational level	-.050	.301	.027	.869	.952	.528	1.715
Employment status	-.226	.283	.636	.425	.798	.458	1.390
Home Ownership (Owner=1)	-.579	.292	3.931	.047	.560	.316	.993
Marital Status(married=1)	-.150	.273	.303	.582	.860	.503	1.470
Trust in the Police	-.858	.292	8.622	.003	.424	.239	.752
Police effectiveness in crime control	.123	.247	.248	.619	1.131	.697	1.833
Procedural justice	-.883	.285	9.589	.002	2.417	1.383	4.226
Community Policing	-.080	.179	.199	.655	.923	.650	1.311
Collective efficacy	-.327	.243	1.801	.049	.721	.448	1.162
Socioeconomic status	-.883	.433	4.163	.041	.413	.177	.966
Community-level concentrated disadvantage	-.481	.431	.036	.045	.922	.396	2.144

4.3 The Context of Criminality and Coping Mechanisms

The study revealed a significant link between residents' views on neighborhood crime issues and personal victimization, influenced by various socioeconomic factors. Interviews with police and residents illustrated the social processes impacting crime, focusing on residents' coping mechanisms for self-protection and crime control. Analysis was organized by sub city to highlight the unique context of each neighborhood.

4.3.1 Exploring the Complexities of Crime in Neighborhoods of Addis Ketema

Addis Ketema, one of the oldest sections of Addis Ababa, includes Merkato, Africa's largest open market, and the central bus station. Data were collected from the busy areas of Gojjam Berenda, Sebategna, and Autobis Tera, which attract many migrants seeking affordable housing and food. These neighborhoods are characterized by overcrowding, poor sanitation, and a mix of residential and commercial spaces. Interviews with police and residents revealed that unsupervised youth, local bars, Shisha houses, and increased anonymity are contributing to rising crime rates in the area. Overall, this study identified a high rate of crime in the three areas, which poses a daily threat to residents.

Interviews with police head at the sub-city level revealed insights into the types and nature of prevalent crimes (Police Interview 1):

The most common types of crime that we are recording include pickpocketing, crimes locally known as 'Gichew,' 'Shiblil,' '23', 'Shua-Shua,' 'Qemiya' (Snatching), common frauds, shop-lifting, and interpersonal fight and assault, and burglary of shops. These offenses often involve deceptive techniques to allude to the victims. In addition, drug dealing, black markets, prostitution, and other deviant behaviors that violate public decency are prevalent.

It is essential to describe the various types of crime in Addis Ketema, as they demonstrate the nature of the crime and the modus operandi. Police in the Addis Ketema sub-city describe the most common types of incidents in the following way:

Gichew (ግጅዌ) involves a form of theft often undertaken in groups. The first criminal identified potential targets as those carrying valuables, purposely pushing the target onto the other accomplice, and then intentionally spitting peanut liquid on them to feign an accident, try to clean the clothes of the target, and steal their belongings. The other two forms occur in vehicles, where offenders break windows or create distractions to steal goods. They may also falsely accuse a driver of causing an accident, which distracts the driver and expose for the theft.

Shiblil (ሻብሊል) is also another most common form of crime reported to the police. Buyers hire someone to transport goods they have purchased from Merkato; the person often

agrees with a low service fee. The hired individual, however, intends to steal the items. Once they reach a crowded area, they exploit the moment to either hide or flee with the goods, leaving the owner unsuspecting.

A crime type, locally referred to as “23,” involves deception, where offenders often disguise their identities, sometimes resembling religious leaders or dressing well to gain victims' trust. They manipulate circumstances, often using false information about local dangers, to distract victims and steal valuable items such as gold necklaces, phones, laptops, and money. This method exploits the common societal belief that ‘religious’ and well-dressed individuals are unlikely to be criminals, making it easier for offenders to succeed in their schemes. In the city of Addis Ababa, it is common to hear and encounter a crime type called ‘Shua-Shua.’ The Police in Addis Ketema indicated that:

‘Shua-Shua’ occurs primarily at night on mini-bus taxis, where the driver and accomplices falsely offer transport services. They selectively pick up suitable passengers, drive at high speed to a chosen location, and then rob the passengers of their belongings. They either drop him off before the destination, citing potential fines from traffic police, or forcefully remove him from the car.

Further, the head of the community policing division of the Addis Ketema Police Department discussed the complexity of crime issues in Addis Ketema as follows:

The increase in property crime is concerning, largely driven by the current economic crisis that has left many struggling financially. Limited job opportunities push some individuals toward crime as a means of survival, reflecting a growing trend of seeking shortcuts to wealth instead of relying on hard work. Moreover, the rising addiction to drugs like Khat and Shisha is contributing to the increase in property crimes.

Criminals often analyze the timing and location of their crimes, assessing potential victims' behaviors and vulnerabilities. They target individuals exhibiting risky behaviors, unfamiliarity with the area, excessive caution, or obliviousness to danger. Additionally, they employ sophisticated and deceptive tactics that leave victims defenseless, leading to unforeseen negative outcomes. Regarding the complex nature of crime, key informant interviews with community

policing officers at the Addis Ketema Subcity Police Department stated the following (Police Interview Participant 2):

The urban setting of criminal activity is undergoing a significant transformation, marked by the emergence of increasingly perilous trends. Previously, deceptive methods were the most prevalent means of committing crimes. However, criminals have become more organized and are now engaging in violent and life-threatening activities. This evolution in modus operandi poses a substantial threat to public safety and an enormous challenge for law enforcement.

The incidence of vehicle-assisted robberies is on the rise in the city, as evidenced by frequent reports in the news and police reports. Police reports show that robberies now occur at any time, rather than primarily at night or in the early morning. Interviews provide substantial evidence of the deleterious impact of robberies in Addis Ketema. For instance, a male resident (In-depth interview participant 3) in Gojjam Berenda shares a story that highlights the severity of vehicle-assisted robbery in Addis Ketema:

...Late at night near 'Gojjam Berenda,' a taxi driver offered me a free ride. After hesitating, I accepted but was confronted by another passenger who pulled a knife and demanded my belongings. I surrendered my phone and some cash before they threw me out of the car, resulting in severe injuries.

Criminal activities are increasingly becoming aggressive and pose significant risks to public safety, according to police reports and interviews with residents. Offenders are often young males in groups, typically committing crimes using knives, wooden clubs, and sometimes using live guns, as well as artificial pistols, which may appear real to victims, especially in low light or under darkness.

Sebategna neighborhood, near Merkato, is known for illicit activities, including the black market, prostitution, and drug dealing. Most recorded crimes in Addis Ketema also occur in the Sebategna area. It features establishments for 'chat' chewing, 'shisha' smoking, and video streaming, which have become centers for gambling and criminal hideouts.

The rise of criminal activities in Sebetegna and other neighborhoods in Addis Ketema is linked to poor urban planning, social dislocation and an inadequate built urban environment. The layout of

houses and roads facilitates criminals' ability to hide and evade police, while making it challenging for law enforcement to conduct patrols and surveillance effectively. This aligns with the study conducted by Fitsum et al. (2018), which found that the built environment in the Sebategna area, as well as in Addis Ketema more broadly, presents significant challenges for police officers in their various policing activities. At the same time, these environments offer ideal conditions for offenders to commit crimes and evade prosecution with relative ease.

4.3.2 Crime Mapping and Its Contexts in the Neighborhoods of Kirkos

The data collection in the Kirkos subcity focused on two neighborhoods: Sebara Babur and Gotera Condominium, chosen for their contrasting contexts regarding crime and public safety. These neighborhoods are primarily residential, unlike Sebategna, which is known for its commercial and transient nature, and Chichiniya, which is known for sex work and nightlife. Sebara Babur, a low-income area near Mesqel Square, is characterized by high crime rates, poor housing, limited access to clean water, and minimal formal social control. This area hosts many public and NGO programs aimed at improving the socioeconomic conditions of its residents, including those affected by HIV/AIDS. The neighborhood is also known for its vibrant open-air market and a significant rate of migration to and from Arab countries, with households often accommodating at least one member migrating. These areas serve as pilot sites for public health and community mobilization initiatives.

Sebara Babur attracts poor people and migrants from other areas who are looking for low-cost rooms to rent and cheaper lives. However, this also makes it a target for motivated criminals who prey on the vulnerable and the poor. According to the police crime record, the area has a high rate of crimes such as murder, robbery, assault, domestic violence, fraud, and behaviors that violate public decency and morals. These crimes are often committed by gangs, drug addicts, alcoholics, or opportunists who exploit the area's weak security and absence of law enforcement. A female resident (Respondent 4) in the Sebara Babur area shared her accounts of crime problems in the following manner:

Crime is a significant issue in our neighborhood, with frequent incidents of domestic violence, robbery, and assault. Dangerous areas nearby, like Stadium, Meskel Square, and

Kasanchis, are hotspots where criminals prey on residents, often blending in with the community.

The neighborhood faces challenges in creating a secure environment due to low socioeconomic status and concentrated disadvantages affecting resource needed for collective goals. Gotera Condominium, a gated community designed for middle- and lower-income residents, houses around 2500 households. It features community-led security and an on-site police station, making it the most secure area in the study sites. However, despite these security measures, it has been identified as the most crime-affected neighborhood, warranting further investigation. Onsite visits and interviews with residents revealed that the residential area is comprised of a significant density of bars and pubs, which leads to a considerable amount of noise pollution and disturbance for the inhabitants. Police interviews suggest an increase in disorderly behaviors that increase criminality, including alcohol abuse, drug trafficking, prostitution, and violent activities in the vicinity. Further, the condominium hosts undocumented immigrants and asylum seekers, mainly from Eritrea, Somalia and other African countries.

The high rent in Gotera Condominium has led many owners to rent their houses to earn money, and some residents are moving to cheaper suburban housing. Thus, residents in the compound are well-to-do middle-income families and immigrants and refugees with limited housing options and rely on remittances. The heterogeneity of residents can signal weak social cohesion and higher anonymity, creating an environment conducive to illicit activities and the flourishing of criminality. Despite the presence of a resident committee that oversees safety and security and a police station that is supposed to prevent crime and order, crime rates are high, litter is widespread, and illegal activities such as prostitution and gambling are rampant. For instance, a residents is concerned about the paradox of increasing criminality and disorder despite the resident-established security agent in the compound: “...*despite paying for the Security Agency, issues like crime and noise pollution persist, and we notice new people with no oversight.*”

Residents of Gotera Condominium have limited social interactions with each other, which results in a reduced sense of community and belonging. For instance, a resident running a café business was asked if there is any traditional institution, such as Iddir or Equip like in other parts of the condominium that keeps the community interconnected (Respondent 6):

Of course, there is an Iddir...yet it has limited members, and many leave as they move away. Not like other Iddirs...its role primarily supports funerals and mourning families, affecting community discussions and collective problem-solving, especially among refugees and immigrants who aren't involved...Rather, most expect issues to be resolved through committee lines. Regarding Equib, I have it, but it's utilized by those running businesses both inside and outside the community; I'm unsure if others have it as well.

Limited interaction reduced opportunities for participation in collective actions that could improve living conditions and safety. With regard to lack of order and growing incivility due to lack of social interaction, an interviews with a resident (Respondent 5) revealed the following:

I grew up near Gotera Condominium, where I now run a business. Contrary to perceptions, it's not a peaceful area; the complex is noisy due to numerous bars and pubs, making child-rearing difficult amid various vices. The residents' unfamiliarity also hinders social interaction and efforts to address crime and disorder.

Further, interview with police operating in the compound identified crimes often reported to the police:

Crimes reported consist of theft, fraud, domestic abuse, and altercations between individuals. There are also instances of group altercations involving refugees and local residents. Additionally, residents raise concerns about noise pollution.

From the situation in Gotera, it can be discerned that community engagement in social control is essential; merely having a police station and security agent does not guarantee lower crime rates in less cohesive neighborhoods. The crime situation in the Kirkos study areas is complex and concerning, despite the involvement of various actors. In neighborhoods where social cohesion and informal social control exist, as well as various protective traits against crime, the community still lacks support from formal social control mechanisms and the financial resources necessary to prevent criminal activities. Conversely, in neighborhoods where resources are available, the community suffers from a lack of important social processes and interactions that could enhance safety and security.

4.3.3 Exploring Crime in Bole: Analysis of Contextual Factors in the Study Neighborhoods

The study sites in Bole focused on the Chichinya and Atlas areas, under the jurisdiction of Karamara Police Station. Chichinya, where the police station is located, experiences high crime rates, including assault, robbery, drug offenses, and fraud. The prevalence of prostitutes, massage parlors, nightclubs, and liquor stores contributes to this risk, especially at night. Interviews with police highlight that sex work is often linked to these crimes, making the area considered high-risk for public safety. When the severity of sex-related crimes in the area was evaluated, an interview with a police officer (Police Interview Participant 3) indicated the following:

This area is a recreational area known for prostitution and massage parlour, which also provides sex work services and drug use. As a result, the majority of crimes committed in the area stem from disputes between sex workers and their clients. Furthermore, incidents of theft, illicit drug consumption and sells, burglary, group fight, assaults and vehicle and auto parts theft are common.

Disagreements over payment between sex workers and clients often lead to violence, with clients sometimes refusing to pay or attempting to underpay. In response, some sex workers may resort to robbery or fraud. Additionally, local law enforcement is concerned about the illegal distribution of controlled substances, leading to raids on suspected locations for drug selling and sexual exploitation.

Gerji Condominium, a residential complex with many refugees from Eritrea and Somalia, faces prevalent crime, including vehicle theft, domestic violence, and larceny. Some refugees have legal status while others are undocumented. An interview conducted with the Gerji area Community Policing officer (Police Interview Participant 5) identified crime and disorder issues affecting the area:

In Gerji, crime types include theft, burglary, fraud, interpersonal violence, and gender-based violence. A notable aspect is the rising number of crimes committed by refugees facing issues like poverty, lack of integration, drug addiction, and trauma. As more refugees arrive, the crime rate increases, threatening the security of residents and the community. The absence of valid documentation for some refugees complicates policing efforts.

Refugees are also engaging in group fights with the youth of the host communities. These group fights also created fear, mistrust, and resentment among the citizen residents of the condominium, undermining the social cohesion and harmony between refugees and hosts. A resident in Gerji condominium (Resident Interview 9) stressed that the problem relates to refugees in the following way:

Dealing with some youth refugees is challenging. Their smoking habits are a cause for concern, and their tendency to smoke disturbs their neighbors due to living in groups. Despite our attempts to communicate, language barriers often impede understanding. Furthermore, there have been instances of altercations with gatekeepers during late hours.

The crime issues in the neighborhoods examined in Bole are troubling, with rising behaviors that compromise public decency, issues related to sex work, and alcohol and drug-related offenses. These problems are influenced by a lack of social interaction between hosts and refugees, insufficient documentation, and the difficulties associated with condominium living.

The study in Bole focused on the Chichinya and Atlas areas near Karamara Police Station and Gerji Area, which face high crime rates, including assault, robbery, sex and drug offenses. The presence of nightlife, such as prostitutes, massage parlors, nightclubs, and liquor stores, especially at night, increases public safety risks. Police interviews indicate a connection between sex work and these crimes, categorizing the area as high-risk.

4.4 Response to Crime and Prevention Mechanisms

Criminal activity in Addis Ababa is a significant issue, marked by high rates of personal victimization and severe incidents, particularly in neighborhoods like Addis Ketema. Residents express greater concern about crime, as reflected in their assessment of crime severity and fear of crime. Police data corroborate these findings, indicating that responses to crime and coping strategies may differ based on community cohesion and collaboration between police and the community.

Residents implement various prevention methods to enhance safety and deter crime, including strong locks, security personnel, neighborhood watch programs, and living in gated communities, often favored by middle- to high-income neighborhoods. Community policing officers and

residents report that many have built fences and gates along public roads to limit access, aiming to restrict both potential offenders and public movement. However, these measures violate municipal regulations that forbid gates on public roads, a trend observed across many neighborhoods in Addis Ababa.

Residents hire collective security guards and remain vigilant to enhance street safety. They avoid dangerous areas and limit outings at night to reduce crime risk. These measures aim to deter offenders, lower victimization rates, and foster a sense of security, underscoring the seriousness of crime concerns. The next section discusses the various protective measures and coping strategies employed by residents, whether voluntary or government-mandated.

4.4.1 Neighborhood Watch Initiatives

The study identifies two types of neighborhood watch initiatives: voluntary efforts by residents in response to rising crime rates and government-led schemes aimed at enhancing safety and deterring crime. Government initiatives are somewhat funded by the state and overseen by city peace and security bureaus and local police. Understanding the characteristics and effectiveness of these initiatives is crucial for addressing crime and safety concerns.

The government has established neighborhood watch groups, requiring one able person from each household to patrol the area. Residents are directed to install lighting and clear obstructions to enhance safety. Regarding its effectiveness, a watch member in Gerji (Female Respondent 5) area reported that:

We leave home at 6 PM wearing our vests and walk along the road in our neighborhood. If we notice any lights are out, we ask the residents to fix them. Around 8 PM, when people return home, we also go home...I believe the situation has improved in the area, and we are hearing about fewer people getting robbed.

However, these initiatives have faced criticism for being politicized and not considering residents' willingness to participate, prioritizing governmental objectives over genuine community safety concerns and lack of sustainability. A male respondent (Respondent 7) in the Sebategna area from Addis Ketema provided his account of the neighborhood watch:

During periods of political turmoil or when there is a clash between government forces and opposition groups, local authorities and police often request that residents conduct nighttime patrols of their neighborhoods. The purpose of these patrols is to identify any criminal activity or anti-peace elements and to report them to the police. However, once the situation stabilizes or the threat level decreases, these patrols are discontinued.

Government safety initiatives face criticism for being unsustainable, sporadic practices and only addressing immediate concerns, rather than the root causes of crime. Neighborhood watch groups are often established only during times of political unrest, leading to diminished effectiveness when threats are perceived to be low. Their role in enhancing public safety remains a subject of debate. Critics suggest that the government use these groups to monitor, intimidate, and suppress dissenting voices rather than to promote security and crime prevention (Di Nunzio, 2014). Further, one resident from the Hayahulet area (Respondent 8) shared sustainability concerns of government-led involuntary neighborhood watch practices “...*During the northern conflict, kebele officials mobilized residents to monitor neighborhoods in groups. The round watches ceased once the war ended.*”

The study identified resident-led neighborhood watch systems, where residents either hire a group for nighttime patrols or manage it themselves. Hired individuals are registered with the local police. Retail and grocery stores often employ security guards, especially for night watch. Further analysis of the data shows that resident-led neighborhood watch initiatives offer advantages over government-led efforts by ensuring sustainability through voluntary participation, independence from political agendas, and a deeper understanding of local challenges. They promote social cohesion and collective responsibility, making them a durable solution for addressing crime and safety concerns in communities. Overall, community safety programs can enhance security and promote collective efficacy by fostering informal social control among law enforcement and the public to prevent crime (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). This approach has the potential to bolster the perceived legitimacy of formal social control measures.

4.4.2 Community Policing

Community policing is a key aspect of policing in Ethiopia, with separate community policing centers established. The community plays a significant role in providing much needed resources

for building these centers and equipping them with necessary materials during the early days of initiation (Shearon & Demelash, 2018). A community policing (Police Interview Participant 2) coordinator based in Addis Ketema Police Department shed light on the center's utilization of community policing activities:

We are collaborating with Kebele residents to establish a more secure the neighbourhood. First, the Ketena community has formed crime prevention committees in every section of the kebele to patrol and report suspicious activity, particularly during the night. We're also teaching community members how to protect themselves and their property. By working together, we are implementing target hardening measures to eliminate potential risks. We are facilitating meditation and reconciliation for minor disagreements that previously led to court cases.

Community policing committees bring together residents, business owners, youths, and leaders to enhance safety. They work with police to recommend improved lighting in dark areas, reinforce vulnerable compounds, and block riversides used as escape routes by offenders. Regarding the effectiveness mixed resident responses regarding the program's effectiveness in reducing crime and ensuring safety. For instance, a resident in Gojjam Berenda stated:

Since its inception, community policing has improved the relationship between residents and the police. We have their contact number, and they communicate with us frequently. We also share information about suspicious behaviors. While theft has decreased, more serious crimes are still occurring, and we often hear about cases of robbery.

Since 2005, police departments in Addis Ababa have enhanced safety by establishing community policing centers in over 850 neighborhoods and collaborating with schools, businesses, and social institutions to identify risks and develop solutions. Police report shows successful outcomes, including reduced crime and increased security perceptions among residents, as well as improved police-community relations. However, interviews with residents indicated a declining relevance of community policing over time. For instance, an interview with a resident in the Hayahulet area (resident interview) revealed the following:

Five or more years ago, we had active community policing with regular discussions and problem-solving. Now, community policing seems to have disappeared, as I rarely see officers engaging with residents or inviting them to discussions.

Interviews with community policing officers reveal that while successful implementation has reduced crime and improved community relations, challenges persist. Issues such as a lack of resources, trained personnel, and reduced government focus have led to the initiative's decline in some neighborhoods. In complement, interview with the Addis Ketema Community policing coordinator revealed inadequacies in the following manner:

Community policing has achieved success, but improvements are still needed. The government must support it through direct funding, training, and resources rather than relying solely on requests for help from business owners and residents. We often seek volunteers to fund and sometimes involuntarily for community policing activities; this needs to change.

Many community policing centers, once active, are now vacant or repurposed, with some being used as temporary spaces for officers. The study has identified several limitations that hinder the effectiveness of community policing in the study neighborhoods. One of the main challenges is lack of legitimacy and limited trust between the police and the community, which has also been recognized by previous research. For instance, a resident in Addis Ketema(Respondent 4) said, “...in my opinion, the police have struggled to control rising crime, and their treatment of citizens is often unwelcoming, creating a distance between us.” Further, the perception that community members who actively participate in community policing are viewed as informants engaged in intelligence work has led to attacks and suspicions against them. To illustrate this situation, an interview conducted with a resident who had previously been involved in community policing revealed the following:

We are often perceived as an agent of the government, which leads to misconceptions about our role. While we actively participate in crime prevention and support the police through community policing efforts, we do so without any form of protection. Unfortunately, some quarters of the public, criminals and potential offenders view us as a “snitch” and “informants”

The police are not effectively building trust or social cohesion, nor are they investing in community resources for crime prevention. This lack of trust hinders citizen cooperation, reducing the effectiveness of crime prevention efforts. Community safety programs are generally more effective at preventing crime than policing projects. This suggests that initiatives driven by the community in a bottom-up approach tend to succeed more than those initiated by the state, as the latter often face issues of trust and confidence.

The study highlighted initiatives for crime response and prevention, such as neighborhood watch, community policing, and government-driven crime prevention. However, the effectiveness of community policing is waning due to resource limitations, political interference, and structural issues stemming from its top-down implementation focused on police and government priorities.

4.4.3 Informal Social Control as a Prevention Mechanism

The term "informal social control" refers to a set of mechanisms that are not formal or legal and that individuals and groups use to regulate social behavior in a nonformal setting. These mechanisms include citizens' tendency to take action against harmful behavior that goes against established laws, societal norms, and values. In Ethiopia, informal methods of social control, like rumors, gossip, traditional values and norms, social exclusion, informal punishments, and the establishment of norms, have effectively managed crime for a long time. Residents discussed how factors like rumors, gossip, traditional values, social exclusion, and informal punishments influence crime. A Gojjam Berenda (Respondent 3) resident highlighted the intact nature of these informal controls but noted their effectiveness is diminishing due to growing anonymity: *Gossip, punishment of children, and rumors persist among relatives and neighbors, but their impact on outsiders and their tendency toward crime and deviance is limited and weakening over time.* Another resident highlighted the role of informal social control, mentioning that *“Neighbors have ways to monitor each other's behavior, and parents can be alerted if their child is involved in inappropriate actions and cautioned if it persists.”*

Scholars from developed countries operationalized informal social control using various forms of social pressure, such as admonishing or shaming individuals for inappropriate behavior or intervening in situations of conflict or violence (Groof, 2015). Other examples of informal social

control can include discouraging children from disrespecting their elders, preventing individuals from loitering in undesirable places, and breaking up fights between adults and young people. Some scholars also include the involvement of citizens in neighborhood watch groups as informal social control. Sampson and Raudenbush (1999) suggest that crime rates tend to be lower in areas where neighbors have strong social ties and are willing to take informal measures to help the community. They refer to this phenomenon as collective efficacy. Residents in the study areas were asked about the willingness of people in their neighborhoods to exercise informal social controls that could impact crime and related issues. The responses were generally consistent, as reflected in the statement of a resident from the Hayahulet area (Respondent 10):

There is a sense of indifference because the individual affected is not from their local community. Individuals remain silent because they are unsure where to begin, and they think that as long as they are not personally impacted, it doesn't concern them.

While household surveys indicated a willingness to engage in such activities, interview findings revealed mixed feelings. Some participants believe intervening in disputes, like domestic violence, is humane and sacred, while others warn it could be dangerous, as exemplified by one man in Gojjam Berenda who was attacked while trying to de-escalate a fight. This reflects the risks associated with intervention in interpersonal conflicts. Furthermore, an older participant (Respondent 10) in the Hayahulet illustrated the following:

I would avoid scolding a youth or child I don't know well, as many young people these days are disrespectful and may react negatively. I'm concerned about being insulted, attacked, or ignored when addressing their behavior.

Residents observed a decrease in informal social control and were increasingly reluctant to intervene in conflicts, resulting in a minimal and diminishing role of informal social control in addressing crime. The study also found that not engaging in informal social control as a prevention mechanism. For instance, a resident in Gojjam Berenda (Respondent 4) has illustrated when asked how residents protect themselves from crime and safety concerns:

When you witness someone being assaulted, you turn away and act as if you didn't notice anything. If you do glance at the situation, you are told to get involved, and you may end up being a victim...so I prefer to stay out and not look at it.

Participants noted that people have faced harm in the past for accusing others of theft, leading to a reluctance to get involved. Additionally, some respondents expressed suspicion that thugs may instigate fights, with members sneakily picking the pockets of those attempting to intervene.

The study highlights varying forms of informal social control across neighborhoods, influencing crime and disorder differently. Common methods include gossip, shaming, social exclusion, scolding children, intervening in fights, and conflicts between spouses. Informal social control is more effective in areas like Kirkos and Addis Ketema than in Bole and condominium sites. Factors contributing to a decline in the effectiveness of informal social control include gentrification, relocation to another place by the government, high residential mobility, anonymity, and weakened traditional institutions that promote social cohesion.

4.4.4 Collective Violence as an Informal Social Control

Interviews with residents and stakeholders indicate that collective violence, or mob justice, has become a prevalent response to crime in neighborhoods such as Addis Ketema and Kirkos. This phenomenon can be attributed to gaps in formal social control and security, particularly in areas with informal settlements, alongside widespread distrust in legal and justice systems. Consequently, residents often forgo lengthy judicial processes in favor of immediate mob action against perceived offenders, such as those accused of theft. A male resident of Autobis Tera observed that,

“... when individuals perceive their tolerance thresholds are surpassed, instances of mob justice may ensue. It has been noted that offenders who are apprehended are frequently released from custody the following day, often as a result of bribe payments made to law enforcement officials by the offenders themselves or their guardians” (Respondent 2).

The likelihood of collective violence is notably greater in informal settlements in Addis Ababa than in other areas of the city. Thus, it is evident that a type of ‘social contract’ has been created among the inhabitants of these informal settlements, in which they establish their own ‘rules’ and ‘norms’ to address deviant behavior (Wikstrom, 2016).

A resident from Autobis Tera (Respondent 7) discussed how alleged thieves are treated by locals and business owners:

After being caught committing a crime, offenders may face physical harm from locals or passersby, including business owners. Rather than contacting the police, individuals often resort to physical assault as punishment, warning the perpetrator not to return to the area.

In high-crime neighborhoods, residents frequently engage in vigilantism, administering their own punishment to suspected offenders rather than involving law enforcement. This phenomenon can result in violent reprisals against alleged thieves, who may endure severe physical harm, often with law enforcement showing minimal concern for the underlying circumstances of their injuries. A Police officer (Police KII Participant 4) interviewed at the community policing center in Autobis-Tera illustrated spontaneous vigilantism as:

When law enforcement is delayed, mob justice can emerge, resulting in serious harm to suspects. Many prefer this vigilantism over reporting crimes, as there's a growing belief that traditional arrest and sentencing don't effectively deter criminal behavior.

The officer at Autobis Tera station opposed mob justice, arguing it undermines the rule of law and the rights of suspects. He emphasized that mob justice relies on rumors and emotions, violating the accused's human rights and their right to a fair trial. Further, police officers stationed at the Karamara police post (in the Chichinya area) acknowledged that spontaneous mob justice was prevalent not only within their jurisdiction but also in other regions of Addis Ababa. The police officer believed that mob justice arose because the public perceived the legal system as excessively lenient, stating, “*you receive three years for theft, and they consider that unjust.*” He did not endorse mob justice, referring to it as “*more like mob injustice,*” and emphasized that “*laws should be observed.*”

The study identified collective violence as an informal social control mechanism employed by communities against thieves apprehended in the act. Participants pointed to inadequate policing, lenient penalties for offenders, and protracted legal processes as contributing factors to the prevalence of mob justice. While law enforcement officials argue that mob justice undermines the rule of law and the rights of suspects, the research also emphasized several situational crime prevention strategies—such as enhanced street lighting and government-funded slum rehabilitation—that could help mitigate crime rates.

4.4.5 Situational Crime Prevention

Situational crime prevention involves reducing criminal activities by eliminating opportunities for offenders and discouraging criminal behavior. This strategy involves altering physical environments and restricting access to targets, making crime less appealing and feasible. It operates on the idea that potential criminals assess risks versus rewards and are less likely to offend if risks are high (Clark, 1995). Key enablers of crime include lack of surveillance, anonymity, and easy escape routes. A comprehensive crime response strategy requires analyzing both the opportunities for crime and the mechanisms for prevention. By understanding the context of crime, more effective interventions can be developed to lower crime rates and enhance public safety. The following section considers the methods of situational crime prevention applied in the study neighborhoods.

Installing street lights to design out crime

A study in Addis Ababa found that poorly lit roads are positively correlated with property crimes (Yigzaw et al., 2023). Thus, the installation of streetlights can enhance residents' sense of security, allowing them to stay out later and do their retail business, increasing local business earnings. Residents believe street lighting should be supported by public surveillance and formal social control, as offenders and thugs often cut wires and break lamps to avoid identification. As one police officer at Karamara Police Station (Police KII participant 4) noted, street lights in side neighborhoods were installed on the block corners and junctures, but “*the wires are cut, or thugs and offenders remove the bulbs.*” Residents have also pointed out that street lights are only effective until 10 PM. After that time, most businesses close, movement of people decreases, police patrols are less frequent, and both community and government neighborhood watch programs are minimal.

Designing out crime through slum upgrading

Many older neighborhoods in Addis Ababa lack modern urban planning, leading to challenges in providing essential services like road networks and sewer systems. According to United Nations Human Settlement Program (UN-Habitat) reports, a staggering 80% of residents in Addis Ababa reside in substandard houses and informal settlements that lack essential services and qualities (UN-Habitat, 2017). The disorganized development of neighborhoods in Addis Ababa hampers crime prevention and law enforcement efforts (Meseret et al., 2019). The lack of clear

boundaries, proper lighting, and transportation infrastructure allows criminals to evade police arrest. For instance, an interview with police (Police Interview 2) in the Sebategna area illustrated how difficult is the layout of the neighborhood to patrol as well as to trace offenders in the neighbors “ ... *Some police members are hesitant to patrol certain areas of Sebategna due to the presence of criminals who are familiar with the roads, they may attack police*”.

Scholars argue that upgrading slums reduces incidents of robbery and other crimes and improves security by creating “defensible space” (Newman, 1995). In Addis Ababa, there are slum upgrading initiatives aimed at improving the living conditions of people in these areas by providing them with safe and affordable housing, access to clean water and sanitation, and electricity. The government has constructed over 100,000 houses, renovating thousands of impoverished homes. However, the slum upgrading projects in Addis Ababa have faced criticism on several fronts. The project failed to consider the livelihoods, social networks, and ties within the neighborhoods, which provide essential functions for the residents. As a result, households were relocated to different areas with little regard for neighborhood cohesion and social fabric, and their livelihoods were affected, leading to further problems. Nonetheless, without thorough research, it is challenging to ascertain if slum upgrading has noticeably influenced crime rates.

Chapter Summary

Analysis of police statistics, surveys, and interviews shows that crime is a major concern in all neighborhoods studied. Survey data measures crime prevalence through victimization, perceived seriousness, and fear of crime. Residents of Addis Ketema reported the highest victimization and concern for crime seriousness, followed by Kirkos and Bole. Kirkos residents had the most fear of crime, with Addis Ketema and Bole also expressing significant anxiety.

Crime patterns vary by neighborhood: Addis Ketema experiences robbery, burglary, fraud, and assault, while Kirkos deals with domestic violence, sexual offenses, and public decency violations. Both areas face alcohol and drug abuse correlated with crime. Community dynamics play a key role; neighborhoods with strong social ties often lack formal crime prevention resources, whereas wealthier areas struggle with low social interaction.

Key risk factors for crime include unemployment, unsupervised youth, and a nightlife that endangers public safety. Crime response efforts like community policing have had mixed success

due to limited resources and political issues. Informal social controls in Kirkos and Addis Ketema, such as gossip and conflict resolution, are declining due to gentrification and increased mobility. The study notes a rise in collective violence as informal justice when policing fails. It recommends situational crime prevention strategies, such as better street lighting and slum rehabilitation, to reduce crime.

Chapter Five

Collective Efficacy and Its Contribution to Crime Prevention in Addis Ababa.

Introduction

This chapter examines the relationship between collective efficacy and crime prevention in diverse neighborhoods of Addis Ababa and its role in crime prevention. It highlights the levels of collective efficacy, its variations across neighborhoods, and its correlation with residents' evaluation of crime severity in their neighborhoods, fear of crime, and personal victimization. Additionally, the chapter discusses the sources of collective efficacy, emphasizing the role of policing practices and socioeconomic factors.

5.1 Understanding Collective Efficacy in Addis Ababa

Collective efficacy is a unified construct that explains crime through social trust, cohesion, and informal social control (Sampson et al., 1997). To obtain a comprehensive understanding of collective efficacy, it is recommended to approach it as a composite construct comprising two distinct but interconnected components: social cohesion and informal social control. This method is both theoretical and practical, as there has been limited research on each component of collective efficacy as a predictor of crime at the geographic level. In contrast, previous studies have treated collective efficacy as a single construct consisting of social cohesion and informal social control. In the context of Ethiopia, research on collective efficacy is still in its early stage; hence, discussions on both dimensions can contribute to knowledge. This subsection analyzes the key components of collective efficacy—social cohesion and informal social control—in Addis Ababa neighborhoods. It also explores the relationship between collective efficacy and crime, focusing on contributions from both policing and the community.

5.1.1 The Nature of Social Cohesion in the Study Area

Social cohesion refers to trust, cooperation, and solidarity among community members (Gearhart & Joseph, 2018). Multidisciplinary research across sociology, psychology, political science, economics, and public health demonstrates the importance of social cohesion in improving individuals' and communities' quality of life and well-being, serving as a catalyst for development

and peaceful coexistence. Similarly, empirical studies on the role social cohesion for crime reduction and safety is increasing, though primarily based on data from developed societies(See Villareal & Silva, 2006 for a review). The existing studies show that communities with higher levels of social cohesion tend to have lower rates of crime and violence and higher levels of perceived safety and collective efficacy. Further, it was observed that social cohesion can also facilitate conflict prevention and resolution and contribute to restorative justice and social inclusion.

By using commonly used items, the present study tried to measure social cohesion in the study neighborhoods. Table 5.1 provides a detailed summary of the items used to measure the social cohesion construct.

Table 5.1. Responses to the Six-Item Measure of Social Cohesion (N=616)

How much do you agree with the following statement:	Strongly agree/Agree %(n)	Neither agree nor disagree %(n)	Strongly disagree/Disagree %(n)
People in this neighborhood can be trusted.	60(370)	21.4(132)	18.5(114)
People in this neighborhood share relevant information.	36(222)	25.6(158)	38.3(236)
People in this neighborhood don't get along with each other.	26.9(166)	18.2(112)	54.8(338)
Adults in this neighborhood know who the local children are.	69.2(426)	12.3(76)	18.5(114)
Neighbors would get together to deal with problem.	77(474)	11.4(70)	11.7(72)
People in this neighbourhood visit in each other's homes or talk on the street	84.8(522)	7.1(44)	8.1(50)

Source: Household survey conducted in 2021

The results of the household survey indicate that, on average, 58% of the respondents perceived their communities as socially cohesive. Additionally, nearly 60% of respondents agreed that their neighbors are trustworthy. However, around 38% of the participants disagreed that their neighbors shared pertinent information. Moreover, over half of the respondents (55%) disagreed with the statement that residents in their neighborhood get along with each other. Conversely, over 69% of the participants agreed that adults in their neighborhood know the local children.

Further, a significant majority of the respondents (77%) stated that they believe people in their community come together to address common issues. Whereas, roughly 85% of the respondents feel that the people in their neighborhood visit each other's homes or engage in conversations on the street. The result shows that cohesiveness and reciprocity dimensions are stronger than trust in these communities.

Several studies in developed countries have found that poor and slum neighborhoods have lower social cohesion, threatened by income inequality, social exclusion, discrimination, and lack of public services (Mazerolle et al., 2010; Sampson et al., 1997). In contrast, the results of the current study show that poor and slum neighborhoods feature strong social cohesion. In these neighborhoods, social cohesion is a coping mechanism for socioeconomic problems. This finding of the study aligns with previous studies conducted in Addis Ababa (Samson, 2015; Wasse & Butterfield, 2009).

A comparative analysis of social cohesion across various study areas also conducted, considering the distinct socioeconomic contexts that could influence the prevalence of crime. Based on results from the social cohesion subscale, respondents from Bole believed their neighborhood is less socially cohesive than respondents from neighborhoods in Addis Ketema and Kirkos.

5.1.2 The Extent of Informal Social Control over the Study Neighborhoods

Informal social control is a key element of collective efficacy, describing a community's ability to regulate member behavior and maintain social order through unwritten norms and shared values. It involves citizens actively intervening against harmful or disruptive behaviors, such as crime and disorder, to promote the common good (Sampson et al., 1997). Groff (2015) identified informal social control as crucial in combating neighborhood crime and disorder by fostering mutual responsibility among residents. It's an important aspect of maintaining a stable and cohesive social fabric and supplements formal systems of social control. Before examining the role of informal social control on crime and disorder, it is essential to demonstrate the level of informal social control in the study neighborhoods.

This study measured informal social control using six items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = 'very unlikely' to 5 = 'very likely') (the items and the factor loadings for each can be found in chapter

3). The items asked respondents how likely their neighbors would intervene in different scenarios of informal social control. The table below shows the items and results for each one.

Table 5.2. Responses to the Six-Item Measure of Informal Social Control (N=616)

How likely that people in your neighborhood intervene if:	Very likely/likely % (n)	Neither likely nor unlikely % (n)	Strongly disagree/Disagree % (n)
Children skipping school and hanging out in undesirable places	83.5(514)	5.2(32)	11.3(70)
Youths showing disrespect to adults	60.5(496)	12.0(74)	7.5(46)
Underage youth smoking cigarettes, chewing 'Chat,' or drinking alcohol	74(456)	13.0(80)	12.9(80)
Disrespectful husband attacks wife	84.7(522)	10.4(64)	4.8(30)
Fight in front of their house, and someone was being beaten or threatened	87.7(540)	7.5(46)	4.9(30)
Willingness to form a neighborhood watch	88.3(544)	7.5(46)	4.2(26)

Source: A household survey conducted in 2021

On a survey measuring informal social control revealed that about 80% of respondents believe their neighbors would intervene in situations requiring such control. Over 83% of participants indicated that neighbors are likely to scold children for skipping school, while around 60% noted that disrespectful youths might also face discipline. Residents showed a strong propensity to intervene in physical altercations, with 87.7% willing to break up fights and 84.7% willing to intervene in domestic violence cases. However, only 74% would regulate youths' substance use. Notably, 88.3% expressed a willingness to form a neighborhood watch, highlighting significant community engagement in informal social control. The study conducted a comparative analysis of informal social control mechanisms in different neighborhoods. It found that Addis Ketema (mean = 4.42, SD = 0.610) and Kirkos (mean = 4.318, SD = 0.666) exhibited higher levels of informal social control compared to Bole, which had a moderate level (mean = 4.11, SD = 0.770). Residents

in Bole were less likely to intervene in issues like school absenteeism, underage smoking, and domestic violence. This is partly sign of more urbanization.

5.2 Social Cohesion, Informal Control & Crime

This section examines how social cohesion, informal social control, and crime are related using statistical data and theoretical frameworks. It focuses on how neighborhood-level social cohesion and informal control can affect crime rates, exploring the link between collective efficacy and various aspects of crime and safety in the study areas.

5.2.1 The Association of Social Cohesion with Crime

The bivariate analysis in Table 5.3 shows that social cohesion correlates inversely with residents evaluation of the seriousness of neighborhood crime ($r=-.209$, $p<.01$) and fear of crime ($r=-.215$, $p<.01$). Higher trust and cooperation in communities correlate with reduced crime evaluation and fear, suggesting that enhanced social cohesion promotes feelings of safety and less concern about crime. Personal crime victimization is not significantly linked to social cohesion, but other influencing factors exist. Further research is needed to explore the complex dynamics between the two.

In addition, there is a strong, positive, and statistically significant correlation between social cohesion and informal social control ($r=.499$, $p<.01$), as well as between social cohesion and both homeownership ($r=.115$, $p<.05$) and duration of residence ($r=.295$, $p<.01$). This suggests that social cohesion plays an important role in promoting social control and stability within a community.

5.2.2 The Association of Informal Social Control with Crime

Based on bivariate analysis, a noteworthy negative correlation observed between informal social control and the perception of neighborhood crime ($r=-.248$, $p<.01$) as well as fear of crime ($r=-.130$, $p<.05$). In other words, when informal social control is strong, people are less likely to perceive crime as a problem in their neighborhood and less likely to fear crime. Conversely, there is no significant relationship found between personal crime victimization and informal social control.

In order to gain a better understanding of how social cohesion and informal social control impact neighborhood crime, an OLS regression analysis was performed (refer to Table 5.4). The model

examining the influence of dimensions of collective efficacy on perceived crime problems was significant $F(7, 616) = 92.138$; $p < .0001$ and explained 26.3% of the variation in perceived crime problems, as seen in Table 5.4. From the components of collective efficacy, informal social control was found to be a significant negative predictor of the perception of neighborhood crime ($b = -.477$, $t = 9.176$, $p < 0.01$). This means that with a negative slope of .477, an increase in informal social control leads to a corresponding decrease of .477 in residents' evaluation of the seriousness of neighborhood crime. In contrast, social cohesion did not significantly predict the perception of crime problem.

Table 5.3. Correlations between Crime, Social Cohesion, and Informal Social Control

	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Neighborhood crime problem	2.12(.808)	1										
Social cohesion	3.68(.659)	-.209*	1									
Informal social control	4.24(.756)	-.248*	.499*	1								
Fear of crime	1.75(.869)	.354*	-.215*	-.130*	1							
Personal crime victimization (Victimized)	.35(.479)	.313*	-.010	-.021	.209*	1						
Age of respondents	34.797(9.570)	.121*	-.070	-.043	.145*	.016	1					
Sex (Male)	.67(.470)	.038	-.015	-.063	-.007	-.148*	.179*	1				
Educational status (>high school)	.34(.474)	-.007	-.041	-.029	.087	-.055	-.108	.089	1			
Employment status (Employed)	.32(.468)	-.059	.021	.080	-.012	-.073	-.028	.007	.067	1		
Homeownership (Owner)	.29(.456)	-.042	.115*	.111	-.126*	-.087	.089	.053	.070	.047	1	
Duration of residence	20.07(14.360)	.036	.295*	.202*	-.154*	.127*	.417*	.150*	-.098	-.168*	.253*	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

The findings from OLS regression show that fear of crime and personal victimization are strong positive predictors of residents' assessment of crime severity. Moreover, the results suggest that neighborhoods with higher percentages of households struggling financially, using latrine toilets and outdoor bathrooms have a higher evaluation of crime problem in their neighborhoods. Further, personal crime victimization ($\beta = 3.151$) and fear of crime ($\beta = 1.858$) had a more substantial and significant negative impact on residents' assessment of crime severity than informal social control ($\beta = -0.620$) and community-level socioeconomic disadvantage ($\beta = -0.379$). The results indicated that higher levels of fear of crime and personal crime victimization were linked to elevated assessment of crime severity at the neighbourhood level. The findings emphasize the significance of enhancing informal social control mechanisms, mitigating fear of crime, reducing instances of crime victimization, and addressing socioeconomic disparities to alleviate the perceived and actual crime issues in local communities.

Table 5.4. OLS Regression Results on How Dimensions of Collective Efficacy Influence Residents' Perceptions of Neighborhood Crime.

Residents' assessment of neighborhood crime issues.							
	B	Std. E	T	Exp(b)	Sig.	95% CI	
						LL	UL
Informal Social Control	-.477	.157	9.176	-0.620	.002	-.786	-.168
Social cohesion	-.279	.183	2.328	-0.756	.127	-.638	.079
Fear of crime	.620	.128	23.557	1.858	.000	.370	.871
Age	.017	.011	2.616	1.017	.106	-.004	.039
Personal crime victimization	1.148	.227	25.659	3.151	.000	.704	1.592
Individual socioeconomic status	.427	.380	1.262	1.532	.261	-.318	1.173
Community-level socioeconomic disadvantage	.970	.337	8.283	-0.379	.004	.309	1.630
Model fit/F			92.138		.000		
Df			7				
Nagelkerke pseudo R²			.263				

5.3 Explaining Strong Collective Efficacy in Poor Neighborhoods Of Addis Ababa

The study's regression results indicate a negative relationship between collective efficacy and socioeconomic disadvantages, highlighting an inverse correlation between these two factors. Previous research consistently demonstrates that low collective efficacy is prevalent in socioeconomically disadvantaged neighborhoods (Mazerolle et al., 2010; Sampson et al., 1997; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). As a result, it can be inferred that neighborhoods facing economic challenges are likely to attribute lower levels of collective efficacy.

However, neighborhood-level data analysis indicates that some low-income areas, like those in Addis Ketema, exhibit strong collective efficacy. Residents in these neighborhoods, facing socioeconomic challenges, demonstrate a strong belief in their ability to collaboratively tackle local issues. Interviews reveal that these communities employ informal social control, solidarity, and constant vigilance to manage crime and disorder. This result of the study aligns with research evidence from slum neighborhoods in Kenya, such as Kibera, where high social cohesion and guardianship were present throughout the day in underprivileged communities, thereby reducing criminal intentions (Roger and Skilling, 2017). Thus, collective efficacy assumptions can help to understand crime, but it cannot fully explain crime distribution in the Ethiopian context. Although further study is needed, it seems that the social desirability phenomenon may be at play.

Moreover, the findings of this study contest the rigid binary classification of neighborhoods as either 'safe' or 'crime incubators,' a dichotomy predominantly established in Western literature through the lens of collective efficacy (Mazerolle et al., 2010; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997). The study challenges the common belief that disadvantaged neighborhoods lack collective efficacy. It reveals that communities facing higher socioeconomic disadvantages often demonstrate strong cohesiveness and a willingness to engage in informal social control. Hence, despite challenges, these neighborhoods can generate collective efficacy.

Lower income neighborhoods and informal settlements use informal social control and strong community support as coping mechanisms against crime and disorder. The fact that these areas are slums and shacks, proximity to open markets, where migrants first arrive, with lower-priced housing and food, and offenders frequently come from other areas, may explain crime concerns in

addition to collective efficacy and other social processes. High social cohesion and guardianship were present throughout the day in underprivileged communities, which depressed criminal intentions. While collective efficacy has been identified as a potential factor in mitigating crime issues, it alone cannot fully account for crime concerns in these areas. Additional factors must also be considered to comprehensively understand the underlying context of crime.

5.4 Understanding Factors Affecting Collective Efficacy

Studies have shown that collective efficacy is crucial in predicting the crime rate. However, there is a lack of comprehensive research on the factors that influence or augment collective efficacy (Sargeant et al., 2013). The present study also identifies collective efficacy as a reliable predictor of crime-related issues, including victimization, citizens' perceptions of crime, and fear of crime. Understanding the factors influencing collective efficacy can aid in crime prevention and safety promotion.

The statistical model investigating the factors that influence collective efficacy was highly significant, $F(12, 616) = 91.838$, $p < .001$ and accounted for 25.8% of the variation of collective efficacy, as indicated in Table 5.5. From policing activities and behavior variables, residents' trust in police effectiveness in crime control and providing service ($b=.458$, $t=7.073$, $p<0.01$) and community policing ($b=.461$, $t=7.955$, $p<0.01$) were significant and positive predictors of collective efficacy. In terms of police effectiveness, there is a positive slope of .458, meaning that a unit increase in police effectiveness in crime control and providing service corresponds to a .458 increase in collective efficacy. Interpreted more simply, controlling for all other factors, a one standard deviation increase in police effectiveness scale results in 56% rise in the predicted probability of strong collective efficacy in the neighborhood. Similarly, based on the analysis, controlling for other variables, a one standard deviation increase in the community policing scale leads to a substantial 48.29% increase in the likelihood of a strong collective efficacy in the neighborhood. Thus, improving police efficiency in crime prevention and service provision, along with the implementation of community policing, can promote collective efficacy among citizens.

From demographic characteristics, age ($b = -.040$, $t = 9.991$, $p<0.01$) is a significant predictor of collective efficacy. These findings suggest that older individuals exhibit lower levels of collective efficacy within their communities compared to younger people. Whereas, the duration of residence had a strong positive association ($b=.042$, $t=22.179$, $p<0.001$). The results showed that individuals

who had lived in the community for a longer time evaluate their neighbourhood with higher levels of collective efficacy. This finding underscores the significance of stable residential settings in fostering collective efficacy, as established in previous research (Sampson et al., 1997; Mazerolle et al., 2010). Overall, the results indicated that individuals who were married, employed, and had lived in their respective neighborhoods for a longer time perceived a stronger sense of collective efficacy.

The analysis found conflicting results compared to previous studies, failing to confirm that socioeconomic disadvantage undermines collective efficacy. Armstrong and colleagues found that concentrated disadvantage and residential instability negatively predict the strength of collective efficacy (Armstrong et al., 2015). Additionally, the regression results showed no correlation between homeownership, marital status, or employment status and collective efficacy.

Table 5.5. Regression Analysis Results Highlighting Individual and Community Predictors of Collective Efficacy.

Collective efficacy							
Predictors	B	Std. Error	T	Exp(b)	(%stdx)	95% CI	
						LL	UL
Policing activities and behavior							
Police effectiveness	.461	.174	7.073**	1.581	58.56%	.181	.735
Community policing	.394	.140	7.955**	1.458	48.29%	.119	.635
Procedural justice	.053	.168	.095			-.350	.307
Crime experience							
Fear of crime	-.183	.125	2.215			-.517	-.055
Personal crime victimization (NO=0)	-.135	.221	.375			-.359	.483
Individual characteristics							
Age of respondents	-.040	.013	9.991**	0.963	- 35.34%	-.063	-.014
Marital status [Married=1]	-.349	.213	2.669			.089	.896
Duration of residence	.042	.007	22.179**	1.029	38.36%	.014	.043
Employment Status(employed=1)	.102	.330	.096			-.479	.818
Socioeconomic characteristics							
Individual SES	.584	.694	.780			.097	1.485
Community level socioeconomic disadvantage	.280	.335	.698			-1.543	-.237
Home Ownership (Owner=1)	-.047	.332	.109			-.512	.754
Model fit/F			91.838**				
Df			12				
<i>Nagelkerke</i> pseudo R ²			.258				

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

In order to validate the quantitative results, the study also explored factors hindering the growth of collective efficacy through qualitative interviews with community members. The finding shows that increasing anonymity, or value differences, is one barrier weakening informal social control and hampering the development of collective efficacy. For instance, an interview with a resident in Addis Ketema has revealed this reality (SSI 7):

It's difficult to assess people's innocence or intentions, especially as theft and pickpocketing occur among unknown individuals... Many adopt an attitude of indifference, believing that if a situation does not directly affect them, it is not their concern—failing to recognize that they could be victims, too.

A resident noted that the lack of social cohesion in neighborhoods leads to witnesses being hesitant to support police investigations, which impacts crime rates: “*There is a ‘don’t care’ attitude because the victim isn’t from their area. People remain silent since they feel unaffected*” (Respondent 5, Gojjam Berenda area, 2022).

Fear of retaliation prevents individuals from speaking out and enforcing social control, weakening community self-regulation and creating divisions. This hinders collective efficacy and negatively affects the community's ability to address common issues and achieve shared goals. Further, the study found that rising crime and disorder hinder community collective efficacy. Once vibrant, these areas now face challenges like fear, distrust, and suspicion among residents, leading to declining social interactions and relationships. This issue is prevalent across all neighborhoods examined in the study.

Some neighborhoods face greater challenges in fostering social cohesion and informal control. For example, condominium neighborhoods struggle more than others to build and benefit from collective efficacy. An interview (SSI_11) with a resident in Gerji condominium illustrates the above situation “... *Condominium residents ignore shouts or yelling, opting to stay inside and shut their doors.*” (SSI 11). Rising crime and disorder in residential areas have weakened collective efficacy, especially in communities where residents prefer solitude and anonymity. Interviews with condominium residents in Gerji and Gotera reveal that increased criminal activities have compromised safety and social cohesion, undermining informal social control mechanisms. A

semi-structured interview with a resident in Gerji condominium has revealed “*High crime and disorder in the compound lead to isolation among residents, preventing a close-knit community. Instead of helping each other, individuals are leading a solitary life.*” (SSI 10)

Based on the qualitative data, the study identified several barriers that hinder the development of collective efficacy. These barriers include factors such as rising crime and disorder, inter-ethnic and religious tensions, worsening socioeconomic conditions, growing anonymity, and other related challenges. The present study suggests that addressing these issues is crucial for enhancing social cohesion and promoting collective efficacy.

Chapter Summary

The chapter examined the correlation between collective efficacy and crime in systematically selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and identified the predictors and barriers of collective efficacy and social cohesion in the study neighborhood. The findings challenge the widely-held belief that poor neighborhoods have lower collective efficacy and struggle to develop protective measures against crime and disorder. Results from the present study have shown that low-income neighborhoods demonstrate stronger collective efficacy and other social and crime-preventing characteristics compared to better-off areas. This contradiction was explained by qualitative evidence where disadvantaged neighbourhoods employ informal social control mechanisms accompanied by solid social solidarity, mutual trust and the constant presence of guardianship as a coping mechanism against crime and disorder. The paper also discussed the relationship between collective efficacy and residents' perception of crime. The study found that collective efficacy has a negative influence on residents' perception of crime problems in their communities. Socially cohesive neighborhoods with higher levels of informal social control were less likely to perceive crime as a major issue. The study also explored factors that predict collective efficacy and found that police practices and behaviors, experiences of crime victimization, fear of crime, and individual and community-level socioeconomic characteristics were found relevant predictors of neighborhood level of collective efficacy.

The study found that fear of crime reduces collective efficacy, while reducing fear of crime enhances it. Homeownership, employment, and longer residency in neighborhoods have a positive influence on collective efficacy. However, community-level socioeconomic disadvantage influences it negatively. Several factors like increasing crime, deteriorating socioeconomic

situations, and inter-ethnic and religious tensions limit the development of social cohesion and collective efficacy. Identifying and overcoming these factors is crucial for effective crime prevention and community well-being.

Chapter Six

The Role of Trust in The Police for Crime Prevention

Introduction

The study examines how citizens' trust in the police contributes to crime prevention in selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa. It investigates the impact of police practices, including effectiveness in crime control, procedural fairness, and community policing, on building trust among citizens and contributing to crime prevention. The chapter also identifies key factors influencing public trust in law enforcement. It highlights the significance of trust-building measures for policymakers and law enforcement agencies, emphasizing its role in urban crime control strategies.

6.1 Understanding Trust in the Police in Addis Ababa

Exploring public trust in the police is crucial for several reasons. As a public service, a favorable perception of the police indicates they are meeting expectations. Trust enhances law enforcement's efficiency and legitimacy, encouraging public cooperation, crime reporting, and information sharing, all vital for effective investigations and prosecutions. Thus, building trust is essential for legitimizing police actions and improving crime-fighting effectiveness. This discussion begins with an overview of trust levels in the police and examines key practices that influence public confidence.

6.1.1 Description of Trust in the Police.

In the household survey, residents were asked four questions to evaluate their trust in the local police (See table 6.1). The overall findings regarding trust in the police revealed that only 29.2% of respondents expressed trust in the police based on four different measures. In contrast, a majority—49%—indicated that they do not trust the local police. Additionally, about 30% of respondents were undecided and could not provide a definitive answer regarding their level of trust in the police force. On the first item of trust in the police scale, out of the total respondents (N=616), 47.2% (n=292) expressed their distrust in the ability of the police to safeguard lives and properties. On the other hand, only 33% (n=218) of respondents showed their confidence in the

local police to protect lives and properties. The remaining 17% of respondents did not take a stance and remained indecisive about the reliability of the local police in protecting people and property.

Table 6.1 Responses to the Four-Item Measure of Trust in The Police

What is your response to statements about trust in the police?	Strongly agree/Agree % (n)	Neither agree nor disagree % (n)	Strongly disagree/Disagree % (n)
I trust in the police to protect lives and properties	35.4(218)	17.2(106)	47.4(292)
I believe the police are effective in controlling violent crime in your neighborhood.	38.3(236)	21.4(132)	40.2(248)
The police make decisions based on facts, not their personal biases or opinions	20.7(126)	23.7(146)	55.5(342)
The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with.	22.4(138)	24.4(150)	53.3(328)

Source: A household survey conducted in 2021

The survey revealed that 40.2% of respondents disagreed with the effectiveness of local police in controlling violent crime, while 38.3% agreed, and 21.4% were undecided. Additionally, 55.5% believed police decisions are influenced by personal biases rather than factual evidence, with only 20% asserting that decisions are evidence-based, and 23% remaining undecided. In a survey regarding police transparency, 53.3% of participants disagreed with the statement that police provide honest explanations for their actions, while only 22.4% agreed, and 24.4% were neutral. The overall trust in local police was low, with Addis Ketema rated higher than Kirkos and Bole.

To triangulate the quantitative findings, in-depth interviews with local residents and police were conducted. The findings highlight a pervasive issue with trust in law enforcement within the study neighborhoods. Residents were divided in their trust of local police regarding life-saving and property protection, with a majority expressing less trust. For instance, a resident in Kirkos sub-city, Sebara Babur Area (SSI 6) said the following:

No, I do not trust the police. Why am I saying this? I don't feel the current police are trained very well and have the competencies in terms of skills, communication, and knowledge of the law. They have no urban experience and are able to handle the people of the city. We

hear that it is the school dropouts and those who could not get jobs, mainly from other parts of the country, who are joining the police. They [the police institution] select them according to [their] structure [or physique]. If you are big, tall, and strong, they select you to become police. I do not see police come through this way to control crime and provide essential services.

Willingness to report crime or seek police help is a key indicator of public trust in law enforcement. Interviews conducted with residents shows a significant reluctance among the respondents to report criminal activities to the police or seek police help when encounter victimization. The primary reason behind this reluctance is the lack of trust in law enforcement agencies. A respondent (Respondent 6) from Hayahulet noted that citizens underreport crimes to the police because they believe no action will be taken against the perpetrators:

Even if you report it, the police do not do anything. I was attacked months ago by street thugs. I was with my friend from a nightclub at 11:30 pm in the Atlas area. They beat me and robbed my phone and money that I had in my pocket. I know the thugs who attacked me, so I reported it to the police. The police officer neither wrote anything down in the crime book nor notified me about the outcome of their investigation.

Community members have lost confidence in the police due to the experiences of criminals being quickly released after arrest. Consequently, they have begun to take matters into their own hands instead of trusting legal authorities to address criminal activity. A respondent (SSI Respondent 12) in Addis Ketema highlighted the declining trends of confidence in the police in the following way:

In the past, we used to report crimes to the police. However, due to lenient punishment and release of offenders, people are now reluctant to report crimes and take matters into their own hands if they catch a thief red-handed.

Reporting crime can be difficult for the public due to the need to physically visit a police station and a little-known phone number for reporting. There is an established hotline but it has not been familiarized with the public, and there is a lack of promotion of these contact details. A similar question was posed to a female respondent from the Autobis Tera area (SSI 9), who offered a different view “*I trust the police to some extent and appreciate their efforts in preventing and controlling crime, as they play a crucial role in ensuring community safety.*”

Many residents express a decreasing level of trust in the police regarding life and property protection. This highlights the urgent need to examine the impacts of policing practices and socioeconomic factors on trust in the police. A decline in crime reporting is often linked to a lack of confidence in the criminal justice system, as citizens feel their concerns are frequently overlooked. Building trust between community members and law enforcement is essential to encourage crime reporting and ensure effective handling of incidents. Furthermore, prevalent victim-blaming attitudes can discourage individuals from coming forward, underscoring the necessity for a deeper understanding of the complexities surrounding victimization.

Police Views on Diminished Public Trust

To assess citizens' trust in the police, community policing officers and police FGD participants were asked about their perceptions of public trust, factors influencing the trust relationship, the role of personal experiences versus hearsay, and whether they believe police exercise their authority appropriately. One of the police focus group participants expressed his views about the current state of public trust in the police:

In the past, citizens reported crime and security issues directly to the police and trusted them to resolve both civil and criminal cases. However, the public has recently shifted its focus towards political leadership to address crime and safety concerns and act as mediators between the public and the police. Citizens report crime and disorder issues directly to local politicians and administrators, who then relay the information to the police. As a result, the police are now held more accountable to political leadership than the general public.

Further, an officer at the community policing divisions of the Addis Ababa Police was asked about police and citizens trust relationships:

There is a lack of comprehensive city-wide studies on residents' trust in local police forces. Trust varies based on a police department's crime prevention, public safety, and community engagement efforts. For example, the Addis Ketema police department has built strong relationships with residents and local businesses, likely resulting in higher trust compared to other subcities. However, external factors beyond the police's control can also affect this trust.

The current study's findings indicate a lower level of trust in the police among residents. This observation is corroborated by recent data from the World Values Survey, which reveals that 40.8% of Ethiopians express low confidence in the police (Haerpfer, C., Inglehart, R., Moreno, A., Welzel, C., Kizilova, K., Diez-Medrano J., M. Lagos, P. Norris, 2022). In contrast, the public's trust in the judiciary and the political government is comparatively elevated. This disparity highlights the complex relationship between citizens and law enforcement institutions.

6.1.2 Trust in Police Effectiveness to Control Crime and Provide Services

Empirical studies have demonstrated that the effectiveness of police in preventing and mitigating criminal activities significantly influences the public's evaluation of their local police in terms of their credibility (Boateng, 2017). An efficient police force enhances public trust and collaboration, highlighting the role of law enforcement in fostering community relationships through effective crime control.

The present study used four items to measure the effectiveness of police in controlling crime and providing services in the study neighborhoods (See Table 6.2). Two of the items were proposed to measure the ability of police to control crime, while the other two pertained to the quality of services provided by the police. The proposed four-item scale to measure police effectiveness received negative feedback from 45% of the participants. On the other hand, 32.5% of the respondents believed that the police in their area are efficient in crime control and service provision. The remaining 23% of the participants were unsure about the effectiveness of the police.

Further, each item used to capture residents' evaluation of the police in its effectiveness to control crime has been described. A survey of 616 respondents showed that 45.5% disagreed with the idea that local police effectively arrest crime suspects, while 32.1% agreed and 22.4% were undecided. Similarly, about 45% did not believe police effectively combat burglary, 28.2% affirmed their effectiveness, and 22.4% remained undecided.

Table 6.2 Measures of Police Effectiveness in Crime Control and Service Provision(N=616)

What is your response to statements about police effectiveness in controlling crime and providing services?	Strongly agree/Agree % (n)	Neither agree nor disagree % (n)	Strongly disagree/
The police are effective at arresting crime suspects in your neighborhood	32.1(198)	22.4(138)	45.5(280)
The police are effective in controlling burglary in your neighborhood.	28.2(174)	26(160)	45.8(282)
The police promptly respond to emergency calls for assistance.	32.8(202)	18.5(114)	48.7(300)
Police do a good job of responding to people in the neighborhood after being victims of crime.	37.4(230)	24.4(148)	38.3(236)

Source: A household survey conducted in 2021

Survey results on police effectiveness to respond to emergency revealed that only about 32.8 % of respondents felt the police promptly responded to emergency calls, while 48.7% disagreed and 18.5% were undecided. Additionally, around 38.3% perceived the police as ineffective in responding to crime victims, compared to 37.4% who believed they performed well, with 24.4% undecided. Overall, local police received better ratings for service provision than for their crime control effectiveness.

It is relevant to recognize that in developing countries, citizens' knowledge of the police's performance and activities in preventing crime and providing services is inadequate. This situation can be partially attributed to the fact that the police do not have viable communication methods to tell the public about their efforts in responding to crime problems. Instead, citizens opt to rely on other sources to gauge police effectiveness, which has the potential to erode trust. For instance, the head of the police station in one of the study areas explained this fact:

Even though we [the police department] have decreased the crime rate over the years through various policing strategies, I don't think we have been able to communicate and convince the public that the police are doing a good job of preventing crime. Instead, the public's impression of the police force is shaped by what people believe, created by inaccurate media portrayals and instances of police misbehavior.

The above situation supports Goldsmith's (2005:15) observation that actual incompetence is not necessary to undermine trust; instead, believing that the police are ineffective or performing poorly

is a necessary condition for citizens’ negative ratings of the police. Moreover, the trustworthiness of the police depends equally on how fairly and appropriately they wield their authority and deliver services (O’Brien & Tyler, 2019).

6.1.3 Procedural Justice

Based on theoretical and empirical evidence, procedural justice was considered a relevant factor influencing public trust in the police(Sargeant, 2015). The study examined the fair treatment of citizens, police officers' legal knowledge, and the just use of authority to assess procedural justice. It found that only 36% of respondents believed police procedures were fair, while 55% felt the police were not acting procedurally fairly.

Table 6.3 highlights perceptions of local police regarding procedural justice. Only 25.6% of respondents feel that the police accurately understand and apply the law, while 50% disagree, and 24.4% remain undecided.

Table 6.3 Response to Observed Measures of Procedural Justice (N=616)

What is your response to statements about procedural justice?	Strongly agree/Agree %(n)	Neither agree nor disagree %(n)	Strongly disagree/Disagree %(n)
The police in your neighborhood or district accurately understand and apply the law	25.6(158)	24.4(150)	50(308)
Most police officers use only the amount of force necessary to accomplish their tasks.	25.3(156)	17.9(110)	56.8(350)
The police give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with.	22.4(138)	24.4(150)	53.3(328)
The police treat everyone in your neighborhood equally	20.8(128)	18.5(114)	60.7(374)

Source: A household survey conducted in 2021

The survey revealed that 53.3% of respondents believe the police do not give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with, while 56.82% feel officers rely on unjustified force. Over 60.7% think the police do not treat all neighborhood residents equally, indicating poor evaluations of procedural justice. Among socioeconomic neighborhoods, Addis Ketema scored highest in procedural justice, followed by Kirkos and Bole.

This study found that, albeit similar to the quantitative results of the present study, aspects of procedural fairness have a critical role in influencing public trust in the police. The head of the

community policing division of Addis Ababa Police was asked about the police's treatment of citizens and the level of trust citizens have in the police:

Police should treat citizens well, and how well we treat citizens shapes citizens' trust. Citizens are more impacted by how the police treat them on the street and at the station, how the police use force when they deal with suspects, victims, or ordinary citizens, or whether the police treat everyone equally with respect and dignity and how they participate in decision-making and community policing initiatives. Concerning practical realities, some officers treat citizens very well and respect the rights of citizens. While a significant number of officers mistreat, deny citizens' rights, and use inappropriate force.

Participants were asked if they believed the police used their authority properly and knew and applied the law. A resident business owner around Bole (Chichinia area, SSI 11), who also has a legal background, has provided a critical perspective:

Awareness of legal rights is vital for building trust between the public and law enforcement. Many individuals are unaware of their rights, leading to unnecessary arrests and violations. Enhancing legal literacy can empower individuals to assert their rights. Given the complexities of the law, law enforcement agencies must adequately train personnel to ensure they inform citizens of their rights and uphold the law appropriately.

Studies across various societies demonstrate that procedural justice significantly impacts trust in police (Murphy et al., 2014; Nix et al., 2015; O'Brien & Tyler, 2019). Citizens' acceptance of law enforcement as a legitimate authority largely hinges on their perceptions of police effectiveness in crime control and adherence to fair procedures. Qualitative interviews with both police and community members reveal that effective crime reduction and service provision are crucial for building trust. Additionally, a lack of communication and transparency from police entities regarding crime prevention efforts can negatively affect public perceptions. This research underscores the need for law enforcement agencies to enhance communication methods and implement fair practices to foster public trust, ultimately contributing to community safety and security.

6.1.4 Community-oriented Policing

Studies conducted in other contexts demonstrated that implementing community policing, or the extent of citizens' involvement in community policing, is established to impact citizens' trust in the police and their perception of crime and fear of crime (Crowl, 2017; Gill et al., 2014). In this study, community policing is evaluated using two indicators: the extent to which the police engage the community in discussions about crime problems, their causes, and potential solutions, and the effectiveness of the community policing program in the area in curbing crime and minimizing the fear of it. The household survey result shows that 58.5% of respondents agreed that police involve the community in addressing crime issues, while 25.6% disagreed, and 16% were undecided. Regarding the effectiveness of community policing programs, 46% believed they successfully reduced crime and fear, 34% felt they were ineffective, and about 20% were uncertain. About 32% of respondents agree that police effectively collaborate with residents to address crime and disorder, while approximately 29% disagree. The other item used to assess community policing was whether officers engage with individuals on the streets and in other locations to recognize and address issues. Only 15% of the participants responded affirmatively, while nearly 47% expressed disagreement.

Table 6.4 Response to Observed Measures of Community Policing (N=616)

Items measuring community policing	Strongly agree/Agree % (n)	Neither agree nor disagree % (n)	Strongly disagree/Disagree % (n)
The police involve the community to discuss crime problems, identify causes and provide solutions	58.5(360)	16.2(100)	25.3(156)
Community policing programs are effective in reducing crime and fear of crime	46.1(284)	19.5(120)	34.4(212)
The police effectively collaborate with residents to address local issues.	32%(258)	28.6%(176)	28.9%(178)
The police in the street talk with people to identify and solve problems	15%(92)	39%(240)	47%(290)

Source: A household survey conducted in 2021

A review of community policing in different socioeconomic areas showed that Addis Ketema residents had the highest positive ratings of the police, followed by Kirkos and Bole. This aligns with trust, effectiveness, and procedural justice assessments in the study neighborhoods.

6.2 The Relationship between Trust in the Police and Police Practices and Behaviors

A correlation matrix revealed significant relationships between trust in police and factors such as police effectiveness in controlling crime ($r=.791$, $p<.01$), procedural justice ($r=.755$, $p<.01$), and community policing ($r=.607$, $p<.01$) (See Table 6.5). The results suggest that increased perceptions of police effectiveness correspond to higher trust in law enforcement, indicating that improving these perceptions can enhance citizen trust.

Table 6.5 Correlations among Trust in Police and the Study Variables(N=616)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Trust in the Police	1												
Police effectiveness	.791**	1											
Procedural Justice	.755**	.729*	1										
Community Policing	.607**	.618*	.564*	1									
Crime Victimization	.004	.024	.102	.034	1								
Fear of Crime	-.026	-.059	-.043	-.043	.209*	1							
Perceived Crime Problem	-.131*	-.120*	-.182*	-.107	.313*	.354*	1						
Collective Efficacy	.299**	.341*	.258*	.364*	-.018	-.196*	-.266*	1					
Age	.117*	.047	.097	.085	.016	.145*	.121*	-.064	1				
Sex	-.117*	-.054	-.141*	-.061	-.148*	-.007	.038	-.047	.179*	1			
Educational status	-.212**	-.162*	-.184*	-.242*	-.055	.087	-.007	-.040	-.108	.089	1		
Duration of residence	.053	.053	.027	.189*	.127*	-.154*	.036	.283*	.417*	.150*	-.098	1	
Home Ownership	-.014	-.009	-.041	-.082	-.087	-.126*	-.042	.130*	.089	.053	.070	.253**	1

Note: ** $P < 0.01$. * $P < 0.05$

Further, the analysis indicates a strong link between procedural justice and trust in police, suggesting that citizens who view law enforcement as fair are more likely to trust them. To build trust and protect communities, police should demonstrate fairness, improve legal understanding, and respectful treatment of individuals.

From demographic characteristics, age is positively correlated with trust in the police ($r=.117$, $p<.05$), indicating that trust in the police increases as people get older. On the other hand, trust in the police is negatively related to sex ($r=-.117$, $p<.05$) and educational status ($r=-.212$, $p<0.01$) of the respondents. Specifically, male respondents and those with educational attainment beyond high school have lower trust in the police.

6.3 Trust in Police by Socioeconomic Areas in Addis Ababa.

In order to navigate variations in levels of trust in the police and factors affecting neighborhoods grouped into three sub-cities, ANOVA analyses, and effect size calculations were carried out. The statistical analysis showed significant differences among the groups ($F = 9.734$, $df: 2$, $p<.001$). A post hoc Bonferroni comparison was performed to assess the impact of each group, which showed significant differences in mean values between the various neighborhoods. This suggests differences in the levels of trust in the police among neighborhoods. The effect size calculations ($\eta^2 = .063$) indicate that the neighborhood variable accounts for 6.3% of the variance in trust in the police.

The second row of data shows the overall level of collective efficacy, which is the belief in a community's ability to work together to achieve common goals. The data indicates that neighborhood explains about 5.1% of the variance in collective efficacy, with a moderate effect size of .051. The ANOVA test was conducted to compare group differences, and the results were significant ($F=7.712$, $df=2$, $P<0.01$). After conducting a post hoc Bonferroni comparison, it was discovered that there were significant mean differences between the neighborhoods. This implies variations in the overall levels of collective efficacy between the neighborhoods.

Table 6.6: Neighbourhood-Level Variations in Aggregate Trust in the Police and Predictor Variables

	Bole (n=196)		Addis Ketema		Kirkos		F-score	P-value <	η^2
	Mean	SD	Mean	(SD)	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Trust in the police	2.571	.919	3.23	1.224	3.096	.114	9.734	.000	.063
Collective efficacy	3.997	.707	4.304	.555	4.269	.507	7.712	.01	.051
Police effectiveness	2.729	.635	3.038	.768	2.955	.773	4.753	.01	.032
Procedural Justice	2.49	.624	2.732	.845	2.711	.803	3.038	.05	.021
Police-community relations	2.799	.865	3.865	.955	3.347	.878	34.759	.000	.193
Fear of crime	1.428	.562	1.683	.544	1.729	.588	8.037	.000	.052

Note: η^2 (Eta squared) = effect size

The third row displays the overall data for police effectiveness in crime control, indicating that the neighborhood accounts for approximately 3.2% of the variation in police effectiveness. The ANOVA test revealed significant differences between groups ($F = 4.753$, $df: 2$, $p < .01$), and a post hoc Bonferroni comparison was performed to assess the impact of each group. The results of the analysis showed significant mean differences, implying variations in the aggregate police effectiveness levels in crime control among the neighborhoods.

The fourth row of data displays the overall results for procedural justice, indicating a small effect size of 0.21. Neighborhood was found to account for 2.1% of the variability in procedural justice. The ANOVA test demonstrated significant group differences ($F = 3.038$, $df: 2$, $p < .05$), and a Bonferroni comparison was conducted to determine each group's impact. The analysis revealed significant mean differences, indicating that the neighborhoods differ in their aggregate levels of procedural justice. Similarly, the neighborhood socioeconomic variations significantly impact police-community relations, explaining about 19.3% of the variance, as shown in Table 6.7's fifth row. The ANOVA test confirmed significant group differences ($F = 34.759$, $df: 2$, $p < .001$), with a post hoc Bonferroni comparison revealing that the neighborhoods have significant mean differences, indicating varying levels of police-community relations.

Finally, row six displays the collective data concerning fear of crime, with the neighborhood accounting for approximately 5.2% of the variance in fear of crime, as indicated by the effect size of .052. The ANOVA test established noteworthy group disparities ($F = 8.037$, $df: 2$, $p < .001$). The F-test's significance allowed for a post hoc Bonferroni comparison to evaluate the impact of each group. The analysis revealed significant mean differences, indicating that the neighborhoods differed in their overall levels of fear of crime.

Ordinary least square regression was undertaken across the socioeconomic neighborhoods clustered in three sub-cities, Bole, Addis Ketema, and Kirkos, to investigate the influence of several independent variables on trust in the police. These variables included police effectiveness, procedural justice, police-community relations, personal crime victimization, perceived neighborhood crime problem, fear of crime, and collective efficacy. Further, the analysis helps to identify which factors are relevant to the socioeconomic neighborhoods in influencing trust in the police.

Thus, the first analysis was conducted on the Bole sub-city, and the model was found significant, $F(7, 198) = 8.061$, $p < .001$, and accounted for 38.8% of the variance in trust in the police. However, among the policing variables, only police effectiveness in controlling crime and providing services was found to significantly influence trust in the police, with a positive slope of 0.606. This means that a unit increase in citizens' perception of police effectiveness in controlling crime corresponds to a 0.606 unit increase in trust in the police. In other words, a one standard deviation increase in perception of police effectiveness corresponds with over 83% increase in trust in the police. The results of this study provide valuable insight into the factors that influence trust in the police within the Bole sub-city neighborhoods.

In Addis Ketema, a similar analysis was conducted, and the results showed a significant model $F(7, 211) = 11.610$, $p < 0.001$) that accounted for 46.6% of the variability in trust towards the police. Additionally, it was found that police effectiveness in controlling crime had a noteworthy impact on trust in the police ($t = 3.343$, $p < .01$). The positive slope of .622 indicates that a unit increase in residents' perception of police effectiveness in crime control and service provision leads to an increase of 0.622 in trust towards the police. In addition to the police effectiveness variable, procedural justice was found to significantly influence trust in the police ($t = 1.998$, $p < 0.05$), with

a positive slope of .315. This means that a unit increase in citizens' perception of procedural fairness results in a corresponding increase of 0.315 units in trust in the police.

Finally, the same analysis conducted in Kirkos revealed a significant model, $F(7, 207) = 15.929$, $P < 0.001$, and explains 56.5 % of the variance in trust in the police. From the independent variables, police effectiveness and police-community relations factors were significant predictors of trust in police. Police effectiveness in controlling crime and providing service was again found to significantly influence trust in the police ($t = 4.754$, $p < 0.001$), with a positive slope of 0.799. The result implies that a unit increase in residents' perception of police effectiveness in controlling crime and providing services corresponds to a 0.799 increase in trust in the police.

The statistical model results indicate that police effectiveness or performance factors greatly impact trust in the police across all three neighborhood clusters. In addition, in Addis Ketema, procedural justice was also found to be a significant factor in trust towards the police. Meanwhile, in Kirkos, police-community relations played a significant role alongside police effectiveness in influencing trust towards the police.

The analysis conducted in Bole, Addis Ketema, and Kirkos provides valuable insights into the factors that influence trust in the police within these neighborhoods. The study results indicate that enhancing police effectiveness, implementing fair and just procedures, and community-oriented policing are critical factors in establishing trust between the police and the community. These insights help shape policies and practices to improve trust in the police, particularly in neighborhoods facing similar challenges. The study's findings are consistent with those of another research conducted in Ghana, which observed that the impacts of police performance and procedural justice varied depending on the residential areas in a particular town (Frimpong et al., 2019).

6.4 The Relationship between Crime Problem and Trust in the Police

The study employed OLS regression to investigate how police practices—specifically, trust in the police and procedural justice—impact neighborhood crime prevalence. Findings revealed that both factors are significant negative predictors of crime, with increases in trust and procedural justice leading to reductions in predicted crime problems by 36.64% and 41.95%, respectively (See Table 6.8). This indicates that higher perceptions of procedural justice correlate with lower concerns

about neighborhood crime, supporting the hypothesized inverse relationship between procedural justice and crime perception. The analysis found no evidence that perceptions of police effectiveness and community policing affect crime levels in the study neighborhoods, indicating these factors may not account for crime prevalence in that context.

Table 6.7. The Relationship between Crime Problem and Trust in The Police

Variables	Residents assessment of crime severity in their neighborhood.		
	b(SE)	T	(%StdX)
Trust in the police	-.613	8.053**	-36.64%
Police effectiveness	.133	.568	-
Procedural justice	-.544	9.304**	-41.95%
Community policing	-.067	.225	
Individual SES	.145(.382)	.144	
Community Level Socioeconomic disadvantage	-.861(.341)	6.382*	-57.72%
Age	.023(.012)	3.565	
Duration of residence	-.002(.008)	.068	
Sex	.104(.228)	.209	
<i>Model fit/F</i>		90.017***	
<i>Df</i>		10	
<i>Nagelkerke pseudo R²</i>		.258	

*** correlation is significant at the 0.001

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.5 Factors Influencing Public Trust in the Police in Addis Ababa

Ordinary least squares regression was used to analyze the impact of police practices and other social process in the community on trust in the police (See Table 6.6). The right-hand column of the table presents the first model that examines the impact of policing practices and behaviors on trust in the police. The model yielded a significant result, $F(11, 616) = 483.727, p < .001$, and accounted for 79.8% of the variance in trust in the police. The results of the ordered log-odds

analysis show that there is a positive association between individuals' trust in the police and their evaluations of police effectiveness ($b = 1.529, p < .001$), procedural fairness ($b = 2.515, p < .001$), and community policing ($b = .316, p < .05$). The coefficients suggest that as the evaluations of the areas above improve, trust in local law enforcement officers also increases. Holding all other variables constant, an increase in police effectiveness by one standard deviation leads to a more than 361% increase in the predicted likelihood of being more trusting of the police. Citizens are more likely to trust the police when they see them effectively controlling crime and providing quality routine services. The results of this study support the hypothesis that police practices and behaviors significantly impact people's trust in the police. This finding is consistent with previous research discussed earlier.

Procedural justice was also found to significantly influence trust in the police ($b=2.515, p<.001$). Holding all other variables constant, a one standard deviation rise in procedural justice raises the predicted odds of having greater trust in the police by more than 454%. The result is consistent with the hypothesis, and previous studies that confirmed procedural justice evaluations are a primary source of trust in the police (Nix et al., 2015). Research has shown a strong correlation between citizens' trust in the police and the quality of police practices and behaviors. When police officers demonstrate fair, respectful, and unbiased behavior towards the community, trust in the police will likely be established and maintained. On the other hand, when police officers engage in discriminatory or abusive behavior, it can erode trust in the police and undermine the legitimacy of law enforcement. Therefore, building trust between the police and the community requires a commitment to ethical and professional conduct, transparency, and accountability.

Further, community policing subscale was found to influence trust in the police significantly ($b=.316, p<.05$). A one standard deviation rise in community policing raises the predicted odds of having greater trust in the police by more than 37%. Effective implementation of community policing strategies by law enforcement agencies can improve citizens' trust in the police. In particular, when the police collaborate with community members to reduce the fear of crime and engage them in various community policing activities, citizens are more likely to perceive the police as trustworthy. Beyond policing variables, previous crime victimization ($b=-.647, p<.01$) and marital status of the respondents ($b=.454, p<.05$) influence trust in the police. Regardless of the practices and behaviors of law enforcement officials, individuals who have been victimized by

crime in their communities are less likely to trust the police. In addition, married individuals are more likely to have faith in the police than their unmarried counterparts.

Model 2 displays the parameter estimates results of an ordered logistic regression analysis, which investigates the impact of collective efficacy on trust in the police while controlling for other variables. Model 2 is designed to determine if perceived collective efficacy has a distinct impact on trust. To achieve this objective, the model omits police effectiveness, procedural justice, and community policing from the equation. The equation used in the study is quite effective in explaining the results obtained, as the statistical analysis shows ($F(9, 616) = 53.261, p < .001$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = .160$). The model explains 16% of the variance in trust in the police. The findings align with the theoretical argument made earlier, where the ordered log-odds coefficient (b) indicates a strong positive relationship between individuals' trust in local police and their perceptions of the collective efficacy in their neighborhood ($b = .929, p < .001$). An increase of one standard deviation in perceived collective efficacy is associated with a 153% increase in the predicted odds of trusting the police. This indicates that a lack of informal social controls and social cohesion in a neighborhood can lead to a lack of trust in the police.

By removing police practice and behavior variables from the ordered logistic equation, it became possible to observe other significant relationships. Three demographic variables, namely age, sex, and educational status of respondents, were found to affect the level of trust that citizens have in the police. Further age and trust in police have a positive correlation ($b = .026, p < .05$). This suggests that older individuals are more likely to have higher levels of trust in law enforcement compared to their younger counterparts. In contrast, sex ($b = -.455, p < 0.05$) and educational status ($b = -.849, p < 0.01$) of the respondents were negatively correlated with trust in the police. There is a negative correlation between male gender and higher education levels with trust in the police, indicating that males and those with education beyond high school are less likely to trust the police compared to females and those with education below high school.

Model 3 presents results from an ordered logistic regression equation that examines the additive effects of policing variables and collective efficacy on trust, net of controls. Several findings from the analysis merit attention. For starters, when compared with Model 2, the explanatory power of Model 3 is increased significantly (by 63%) with the inclusion of policing variables-police effectiveness, procedural justice and community policing (Likelihood ratio $\chi^2 = 485.20, p < .001$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = .799$). As per the baseline equation (refer to Model 1), assessments of police

effectiveness ($b = 1.497, p < .001$) and procedural justice ($b = 2.537, p < .001$) are positively correlated with trust in the police as anticipated.

Table 6.8 Analysis of Ordinal Logistic Regression on Factors Affecting Public Trust in Police.

Trust in the Police									
Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	b(SE)	t/F	(%StdX)	b(SE)	t/F	(%StdX)	b(SE)	t/F	(%StdX)
Policing variables									
Police effectiveness	1.529(.195)	61.699** *	361.35 %	-	-	-	1.497(.196)	58.451* *	346.82 %
Procedural Justice	2.515(.223)	126.899**	454.94 %	-	-	-	2.537(.224)	127.962 ***	465.06 %
Community policing	.316(.142)	4.932*	37.16%	-	-	-	.283(.146)		
Collective efficacy	-	-	-	.929(.176)	27.75 4***	153.19 %	.238(.193)		
Crime variables									
Fear of crime	.097(.126)			.049(.123)			.115(.128)		
Prior Crime Victimization	-.647(.231)	7.830**	- 47.63%	.447(.464)			-.661(.231)	8.152**	- 48.36%
Socioeconomic variables									
Individual SES	.457(.481)			-.225(.335)			-.150(.353)		
Community-level SE disadvantage	-.146(.353)			-.137(.218)			-.661(.231)		
Demographic variables									
Age of the household head	.008(.012)			.026(.011)	5.193 *	2.63%	.009(.0120)		
Sex of the household head	-.251(.234)			-.455(.223)	4.185 *	36.55%	-.246(.234)		
Educational level	-.488(.301)			-.849(.289)	8.633 **	- 57.21%	-.456(.301)		
Marital status	.454(.224)	4.108*	57.46%	.116(.214)			.475(.225)	4.444*	60.80%
<i>Model fit (F)</i>		483.727* **			53.26 1***			485.207 ***	
Nagelkerke R^2		.798			.160			.799	

Standard Errors are in parentheses, * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Individuals who believe the police are effective and treat people fairly and with justice are significantly more likely to trust officer motives. In the third model, trust in the police was not

influenced by the perception of community policing. The results show that procedural justice has the most significant impact on predicting trust in the police (%StdX = 465.06%), followed by police effectiveness (%StdX = 346.82%). A one standard deviation increase in procedural justice and police effectiveness is expected to increase trust in the police by a factor of almost four and three, respectively.

In the third model, it was observed that the impact of collective efficacy on trust in the police was not significant. While collective efficacy significantly affects trust, as seen in Model 2, its effect diminishes when combined with policing variables. In other words, in the absence of effective police service and procedural justice, collective efficacy plays a key role in fostering trust in the police. Overall, procedural justice and police effectiveness are the strongest predictors of trust in the police based on the available data. In other words, in neighborhoods where people have a lower evaluation of the police in terms of procedural justice and police effectiveness, they tend to have lower trust in the police force's ability to control crime and behave fairly. This lack of trust stems from a belief in procedural injustice and ineffectiveness, leading to less confidence in law enforcement's ability to make informed decisions for the community. Therefore, police effectiveness and procedural justice mediate the relationship between collective efficacy and trust in the police. There are no concerns about multicollinearity with the models used, as evidenced by both the correlation matrix (Table 6.5) and variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics (Appendix D). None of the correlation coefficients in the matrix is 0.8 or higher. In addition, none of the VIF values are exceptionally high; all are low and under 3.0.

6.6 Factors Affecting Public Trust in Police from the Police's Viewpoint

Participants in the study noted that the relationship between the police and politics impacts trust in law enforcement, as highlighted during the Police FGD discussions:

The police in Addis Ababa operate under the Peace and Security Bureau, a political entity. It executes its operations based on political interests or if it anticipates gaining more attention from political leaders.

The Police FGD results shed light on how political interference in the police is affecting public trust in the police. The police have a responsibility to uphold lawful orders from the government,

but it should be in accordance with legal mandates of the police. While illustrating the influence of politics in policing, one of the FGD participants (Police FGD Participant 6) said the following:

The government has shifted responsibility to the police for its own mistakes, as seen in the recent demolition of homes in Addis Ababa. After allowing citizens to build and providing services, it declared these homes illegal and ordered their demolition, leading to violent clashes and casualties among both police and civilians.

The current study's findings align with those from a previous study in Ethiopia, which demonstrated the government's utilization of the police as a multifaceted tool for normalization has implications for public trust and the legitimacy of the police (Di Nunzio, 2014; Toggia, 2008). However, a representative from the community policing department of Addis Ketema said:

Historically, the police have been utilized as a means of political control, leading to poor interactions with the public. Nevertheless, since the reform government took office, the relationship has improved; this foundation must be strengthened through actions rather than mere rhetoric.”

Additionally, the representative mentioned that a Community Advisory Board (CAB) along with local community policing committees that primarily involve the public, has been created. These initiatives aim to strengthen the bond between police forces and the communities they serve, promoting greater interaction between police officers and community members and encouraging participation in community events such as sports and civic education. Further research is needed to assess the functionality and effectiveness of the community advisory board and other organizational structures in fulfilling their intended purposes.

Interviews with police officers revealed that officer turnover and disciplinary problems affect building sustainable trust relationships. These issues are creating several challenges that can negatively impact the ability of the police to serve and protect the community, leading to a lack of continuity in policing services. When officers are constantly leaving and being replaced, it can be difficult for the department to maintain consistency in services. Additionally, new officers may lack experience and required discipline, making it difficult to serve the community effectively. This lack of consistency and experience can lead to a decline in the quality of policing services

and erosion of public trust in the police. One of the Police FGD participants indicated the relationship between police turnover and declining police effectiveness and trust in the police:

The decline in police capability to control crime and maintain order is partly due to a higher turnover of experienced police officers. The young police officers lack the required discipline and training that enable them to control crime, build trusting relationships, and win legitimacy.

Police disciplinary issues adversely affect the quality of policing, eroding community trust and cooperation, which complicates crime-fighting efforts. Such misconduct also damages the department's image, hindering recruitment and retention of qualified officers. A key informant interview with a police officer at Addis Ketema (Police KII 3) revealed the following:

There have been unethical behaviors among officers, such as disrespecting individuals and using excessive force. Incidents shared on social media contribute to a negative perception, leading people to generalize that all police officers behave in that way.

Disciplinary problems in policing often stem from poor management, inadequate training, and lack of oversight, leading to misconduct that harms service delivery and the reputation of police institutions. Preventing misconduct requires clear policies, accountability, and a culture encouraging reporting. In addition, police should apply community safety initiatives that incorporate subtle informal social control to regulate police deviance. The study also found that Police corruption significantly undermines trust in the police force. Practices such as bribery and favoritism lead to a perception of corruption, resulting in diminished community trust and cooperation. This lack of confidence makes it challenging to address crime effectively. While illustrating issues affecting the trust relationship between the public and the police, Police FGD indicated the issues of corruption:

The wider public believes that police, especially traffic officers, rely on bribes to fulfill their duties, although this perception may not reflect the reality for all departments. When one officer is caught in corruption, it tends to tarnish the reputation of the entire police force.

Another focus group participant challenges the idea that corruption is more of a perception than a reality and it exists in other departments, for instance, in the investigation departments:

Corruption among crime investigators is widespread...Every one of us knows this. Investigators often check the economic status of the victims or perpetrators and demand bribes to either expedite, drop, or lessen the charges.

Interviews with residents revealed that unprofessional behavior from few police officers has harmed the public's perception of the police force. Male participants who experienced vehicle-assisted robbery and reported it to the police shared similar sentiments:

I reported my case to the police, but the duty officer accused me of religious extremism due to my participation in demonstrations against government interference in religious affairs. He also demanded a bribe of 1000 birr to drop the case.

Accessibility and inclusion are vital for building trust in police services. When police are accessible and inclusive, community trust strengthens; conversely, inaccessibility can lead to distrust, particularly in disadvantaged neighborhoods. For instance, in Addis Ababa, marginalized areas often struggle to access police services, which can foster feelings of neglect and alienation among residents. Police focus group participants (Police FGD participant 4) expressed this concern as follows:

In some neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, like Autobis Tera and Mesalemia, the unplanned layout hinders police operations and community policing, as many areas lack roads, making it easy for suspects to evade arrest or attack officers. This limits our ability to serve the community effectively.

Research indicates that inclusivity is essential for building trust in the police. When police services are inclusive, they better meet the needs of all community members, which helps foster trust. However, findings from a Police Focused Group Discussion reveal that a lack of inclusivity erodes trust among certain community segments who feel underserved and unprotected by law enforcement “...Police services are not available in poor neighborhoods and outskirts; services are more concentrated around government offices and business districts.” Further, a Gojjam Berenda resident described the availability of police services to certain sections of society:

The police enforce justice unequally, favoring the wealthy and politically connected while disproportionately targeting the less fortunate. This reflects systemic biases rather than a predisposition to criminal behavior among lower socioeconomic groups.

Favoritism among some police officers towards their ethnic groups undermines trust relationships. Regarding favouritism and its impacts on trust relationships, police focus group discussion participant has said “*Partiality exists in various forms, as officers tend to favor individuals who speak their language, share their religion, or come from the same region or ethnic background.*” Police focus group participant highlighted how their relationship with the government impacts partiality (Police FGD Participant 5):

The public often views the police as serving the government rather than citizens. This perception arises from high-profile arrests of political opponents and journalists, which receive significant media attention, particularly the social media. Nonetheless, routine policing is typically impartial, although wealthy individuals or those with government connections often evade arrest or are released quickly, regardless of their offenses

Further, interviews with residents as well as police officers revealed that police brutality, abuse of power, and human rights violations are major issues that have affected the trust in the police. These issues have led to a breakdown in the relationship between the public and the police, leading to mistrust, fear, and even anger. Residents expressed concern over police excessive force, which negatively impacts trust. One resident from Gojjam Berenda specifically highlighted this issue:

It is common to see the police assaulting suspects in daylight on the street while many people are watching. Sometimes, it looks like a real-life cinema. As far as I know, there are many police stations; if these officers find the suspects deserve it or find it “appropriate to assault suspects,” they can do it in their stations.

Recent studies indicate that the absence of legal accountability diminishes public trust in law enforcement. The Ethiopian Criminal Justice Diagnostic study (Assefa et al., 2021) highlights that impunity among police leads to a climate of misconduct and abuse of power, leaving the public feeling vulnerable and powerless. This situation fosters resentment and undermines communication between the police and the community, hindering effective law enforcement. To restore trust and ensure the protection of citizens' rights, it is crucial to implement both internal

and external oversight mechanisms that hold police accountable for their actions. Further, addressing impunity is essential for fostering a safer, more just society.

6.7 Synthesis of Empirical Findings with Existing Evidence.

The study highlights the importance of procedural justice in policing, demonstrating that fair treatment by police can reduce residents' fear of crime and perceptions of crime severity. Key elements include citizens' involvement in decision-making, appropriate use of force, understanding and applying the law, and giving honest explanations for actions taken. Improving procedural justice can enhance safety and crime control and enhance trust in the police. This finding aligns with Boateng's (2019) research in urban Ghana, reinforcing the influence of police fairness on citizens' perceptions of crime.

The other key finding of the study highlights that citizens' assessment of their local police performance in controlling crime, as well as its level of visibility and accessibility, does not correspond with their assessment of the prevalence of crime, such as robbery, assault, or burglary, in their communities. Empirical evidence from Trinidad and Tobago, a developing country, corroborates the finding that there is no direct association between the assessment of police service quality by residents and the prevalence of crime and disorder (Kochel, 2013). Furthermore, findings from a developed country also support the findings of the present research (Gill et al., 2014). Gill et al. (2014) noted that police service quality, community relations, and crime reduction efforts have little impact on residents' assessment of crime problems in their vicinity and their level of fear. However, recent studies highlight the need for police to improve communication with the public about their crime prevention strategies and successes, despite the unclear link between police effectiveness and crime rates (Sargeant, 2015).

The study found no evidence that community policing reduces perceptions of crime or personal victimization, a conclusion aligned with previous research in developed countries. In contrast, a study in the Amhara region found that community policing reduced recorded crime, although the data is considered unreliable (Denny & Demelash, 2013). Whereas, in the context of developed countries, a comprehensive review by Gill and his team evaluated the impact of community policing on crime, disorder, and fear of crime (Gill et al., 2014). They found that community policing has limited effects on crime reduction and fear of crime. In the Korean context, however,

a study revealed that the perceived risk of crime was indirectly and significantly associated with community policing. Those who perceived more community policing activities were found to feel a lesser risk of crime (Roh et al., 2013). Thus, more research is needed to accurately articulate the impact of community policing on both actual and perceived crime.

The study also highlights that perceptions of police performance, procedural justice, and community policing significantly impact trust in the police. Citizens who viewed police as effective in crime control and service provision tended to have higher trust, while those who found them ineffective showed lower trust levels. This finding was consistent across all neighborhoods, regardless of socioeconomic differences. Further, the results are consistent with the study's hypothesis and previous research studies conducted in emerging and developing countries (Boateng, 2017; Lim & Kwak, 2022; Sun et al., 2014; Tankebe, 2008).

The performance theory forms the basis for the assumption that the level of trust in the police is affected by police performance (Bouckaert et al., 2002). Accordingly, people who believe that government institutions meet acceptable standards are more likely to have higher trust and confidence in those institutions (Boateng, 2017; Bouckaert et al., 2002; Ndevu, 2019). More empirical research from advanced societies shows a direct relationship between citizens' trust in police and law enforcement effectiveness (Sargeant, 2015; Telep & Weisburd, 2012). While many studies find a strong link between police performance and public approval, some researchers express differing viewpoints. For instance, Tyler (2005) argued that procedural justice plays a more significant role in shaping citizens' trust in the police.

This study has proved that procedural justice is positively linked to increased trust in law enforcement agencies. Citizens who perceive the police as fair, knowledgeable, cautious in force, and honest tend to have a positive view of law enforcement. Conversely, those who see the police as unfair, uninformed, excessive in force, dishonest, and unequal typically hold a negative opinion. This conclusion is well supported by prior studies (Mazerolle, Bennett et al., 2013; Nix et al., 2015; Tyler, 2011).

The other finding of the study relates to community policing, which is positively linked to residents' trust in the police, especially when officers engage with the community to address crime issues and develop solutions. Further, residents who perceive the community policing program as

effective in reducing crime and fear of crime are more likely to view the police favorably. This conclusion is consistent with prior studies (Crowl, 2017; Gill et al., 2014). After a comprehensive review of the community policing literature, for instance, Crowl (2017) noted that community-oriented policing (COP) interventions positively impacted citizen perception of the police in 66.7% of the comparisons examined.

Comparisons of policing variables revealed that procedural justice is the most significant factor affecting trust in law enforcement, followed by police effectiveness and community policing. This finding aligns with a previous studies conducted in South East Asia countries (Lim & Kwak, 2022; Sun et al., 2014).

The study highlights that collective efficacy positively influences trust in the police, but this effect diminishes when considering policing factors like police effectiveness and procedural justice. These elements are the strongest predictors of trust, indicating that lower perceptions of collective efficacy in neighborhoods correlate with decreased trust in police. This lack of trust arises from beliefs in procedural injustice and ineffectiveness, which undermine confidence in law enforcement. The above results are partially supported by a study conducted in developed countries where police-based models are stronger predictors of trust than collective efficacy (Nix et al., 2015; Yesberg & Bradford, 2021).

Furthermore, the study revealed a strong negative impact of personal crime victimization on individuals' trust in the police. Specifically, those victimized in the past 12 months were inclined to evaluate the local police unfavorably. Conversely, those who had not experienced victimization tended to view the police favorably. The current observation aligns with previous studies (Berthelot et al., 2018; Singer et al., 2019). However, the influence of crime victimization diminishes when combined with collective efficacy or excluding from police practices and behaviors. Thus, the influence of crime victimization experience is overridden or mediated by collective efficacy and policing behaviors. The study found that fear of crime did not statistically impact citizens' trust in the police. This means that the data did not support the hypothesized inverse relationship between fear of crime and confidence in the police. Despite the current study's results, previous research by Reisig and Parks (2000) and Weitzer and Tuch (2005) revealed a negative correlation between fear of crime in a neighborhood and individuals' perceptions of law

enforcement. The more individuals experience fear due to crime in their neighborhood, the less they trust and have confidence in the police, thus leading to a lower rating of law enforcement. Variations in community characteristics contribute to differing levels of trust in the police across neighborhoods, with some exhibiting significantly higher trust than others.

The qualitative portion of the study, alongside quantitative data, provided insights into factors influencing trust in the police. Interviews indicated that trust is affected by the police's crime prevention and community engagement efforts, as well as external factors such as political interference, negative media portrayals, police misconduct, and concerns about accessibility and sustainability. The legal and other policy documents promote that the Ethiopian police force should serve and protect all Ethiopians equally, but it has been subject to political interference for many years (Assefa et al., 2021). Various academic studies indicate that political intervention in police work and institutions has been a persistent problem, with politicians exploiting the police force to further their own interests (Assefa et al., 2021; Fiseha, 2022; Toggia, 2008). Research documents, even some of them funded by the government, revealed that the police have often been involved in utilizing force to silence and intimidate political opponents, use excessive force against peaceful protesters, and arrest journalists and activists criticizing the government. It is evident that the above practices and undue interventions also undermine the accountability and transparency of the police force and tarnish its public image.

In addition, limited knowledge of police performance and activities was also found to contribute to the erosion of trust among citizens. The study also reveals that decreased citizen participation in crime reporting, coupled with an increased reliance on mob justice, signifies a decline in trust in the police. When citizens perceive unfairness or incompetence in handling criminal cases, their willingness to report crimes, either as victims or witnesses, diminishes. Factors such as victim-blaming and a lack of understanding from law enforcement, all mentioned by residents, further complicate trust relationships and the inclination to report crime. Additionally, the absence of accountability for offenders, often exacerbated by bribery or biased treatment based on ethnicity or religion, discourages crime reporting and undermines trust in the criminal justice system.

Effective policing depends on the public's trust, which ensures public compliance and collaboration and empowers police to execute their jobs effectively (Sargeant, 2015). Further, it

has been determined, with considerable consistency, that the public's support, respect, and mutual trust are essential for cooperation and effective law enforcement (T. R. Tyler & Fagan, 2008; T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003). Thus, the trust relationship should be dualistic and mutual, with the police needing the public's trust as much as the public needs the police's trust.

Chapter Summary

This chapter examines the relationship between public trust in police and crime prevention, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative data. It highlights that trust enhances residents' collective efficacy and informal social control, a finding consistent with international research. However, citizens across different socioeconomic backgrounds generally have low trust in police effectiveness, crime control, decision-making, and transparency. Positive factors influencing trust include police effectiveness, procedural justice, and community policing, with procedural justice being the most significant. Additionally, experiences of victimization tend to diminish trust, corroborating the study's hypotheses and past research. Interviews with police officers revealed a decline in public support, leading to a decrease in crime reporting and witness assistance. Factors undermining trust in the police include communication gaps, political interference, favoritism, high turnover, corruption, misconduct, lack of inclusiveness, excessive force, and impunity.

Chapter Seven

Integrating Procedural Justice and Collective Efficacy in Crime Prevention and Community Safety Initiatives

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the study's findings showed that collective efficacy and procedural justice are strong predictors of neighborhood crime. Furthermore, the study's evidence suggests that integrating collective efficacy and procedural justice can enhance community safety, reduce crime perceptions and the fear of crime, and improve trust and cooperation with law enforcement. By fostering shared responsibility and social cohesion, communities are more likely to comply with laws, resulting in a safer society. This chapter summarizes key findings related to community safety and crime prevention, focusing on neighborhood factors and effective policing strategies.

7.1 The Impact of Collective Efficacy and Procedural Justice on Crime: A Review of the Evidence.

The examination of data at the neighborhood level revealed that collective efficacy contributes to lower levels of crime, as measured by residents' evaluation of the severity of crime problems in their neighborhood, personal crime victimization, and fear of crime. This means that higher social cohesions and willingness among community members to engage in social control activities in the study neighborhoods of Addis Ababa predicts lower levels of crime. The study found that collective efficacy affects how residents assess crime in their neighborhoods; lower collective efficacy is associated with a higher perception of crime, while higher collective efficacy correlates with reduced crime issues. This finding of the study aligns with research from both developed and developing countries, confirming collective efficacy as a reliable predictor of crime rates (Hipp & Wo, 2015; Kochel, 2013; Frimpong et al., 2018; Sampson et al., 1997). Kochel (2013), in the developing country context, revealed that collective efficacy can reduce crime levels, and its crime depressive effects can be replicated in the developing country context. Interestingly, statistical comparisons indicate that collective efficacy serves as a stronger predictor of both crime rates and citizens' feelings of safety than police practices. This highlights the critical role of social cohesion and informal social control in mitigating crime and enhancing community safety.

The study reveals that procedural justice significantly influences residents' perceptions of neighborhood crime and their overall fear of crime. When police actions are perceived as arbitrary or discriminatory, lacking fairness, individuals tend to feel less safe, view crime levels as higher, and are less inclined to engage in crime prevention efforts. Previous research has emphasized the importance of procedural justice in fostering trust between citizens and the police (Weisburd et al., 2022); however, its specific role in shaping perceptions of crime remains less well understood. The current study found that procedural justice contributes to crime prevention by enhancing citizens' trust in the police and improving police-community relations.

Integrating the two distinct but related predictors of neighborhood crime, enhances public safety and lowers crime at the community level. The study also demonstrated that collective efficacy and procedural justice positively impacted public attitudes toward the police. Fostering collective efficacy and procedural justice in policing enhances community safety initiatives and builds trust between police and citizens. However, no research has investigated the potential synergy between collective efficacy and procedural justice in comprehending neighborhood crime and trust in the police. Integrating these two concepts can help reduce crime and enhance safety.

Furthermore, despite robust evidence demonstrating the relevance of collective efficacy in reducing crime and improving safety, no study in Addis Ababa has suggested enhancing collective efficacy as a viable option for policing at the community level. The current study found that effective police services and community policing strategies can enhance collective efficacy. Similarly, Kochel's (2013) research highlights that minimizing police misconduct and improving service quality contribute to further crime reduction by strengthening community ties.

It is relevant to showcase how integrating two separate yet interdependent facets of social control can substantially reduce crime and improve the safety of communities. Hence, law enforcement agencies and other concerned governmental and nongovernmental entities can work together to implement practical actions and programs to enhance community collective efficacy and procedural justice. These efforts can help prevent crime, improve safety, and build trust between citizens and the police, resulting in a more efficient and effective criminal justice system. The following subsections establish the significance of collective efficacy in policing and procedurally just policing in shaping crime problem and trust in the police.

7.2 Promoting Collective Efficacy for Crime Prevention

Empirical research indicates a strong correlation between increased collective efficacy and a decreased incidence of criminal activity. This finding has been consistently replicated across diverse contexts and geographies, thus suggesting its robustness and applicability (Kochel, 2013; Mazerolle et al., 2010; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997; R. J. Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). Strong sense of collective efficacy is linked to lower crime rates, as empowered individuals and communities are better able to mobilize against crime (Gearhart, 2022). Further, these studies noted that collective efficacy attenuates the adverse effects of structural disadvantage, ethnic heterogeneity, residential instability, and family disruption on the level of crime and disorder. Simply put, a community with strong collective efficacy can help reduce crime even in disadvantaged areas.

Collective efficacy contributes to crime prevention by fostering social cohesion, social capital activation and utilization and informal social control, reducing criminogenic features of the environment, and mediating the effects of neighborhood characteristics on crime. As a crime prevention strategy, collective efficacy emphasizes the role of community empowerment and empowerment of the police. It involves fostering a sense of shared responsibility among community members toward preventing crime and promoting safety. By working together to identify and address potential risks and vulnerabilities, communities can create a safer environment for everyone. This approach effectively reduces crime rates and improves the overall quality of life in many neighborhoods.

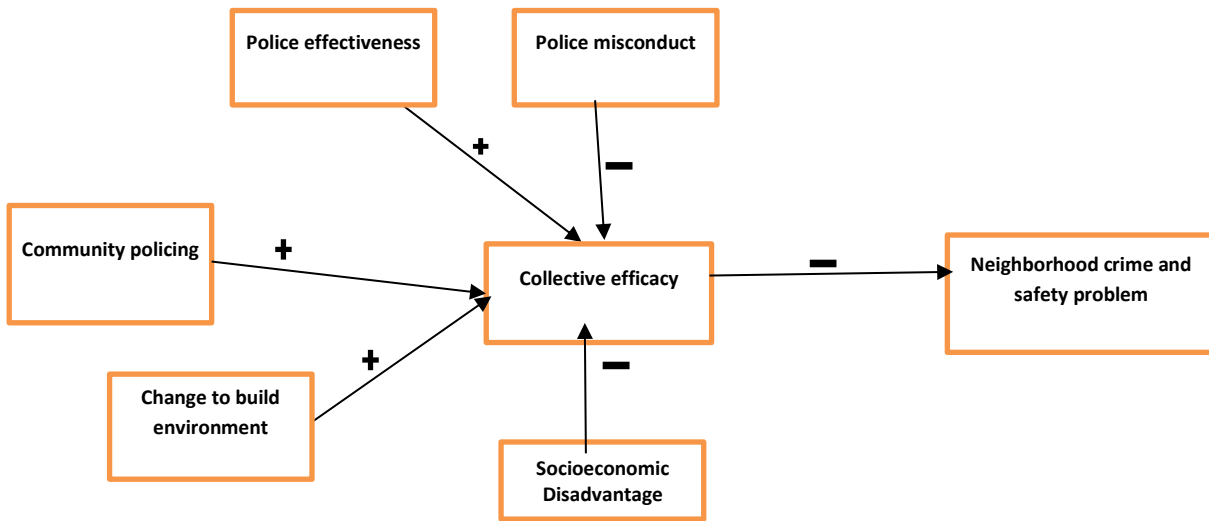
This study advocates for leveraging collective efficacy as a strategy to prevent crime by enhancing social cohesion and informal social control. Improving social cohesion and fostering both direct and indirect informal social control increases the community's capacity for social regulation, leading to reduced crime rates and heightened safety and security for residents. When residents monitor each other and intervene in suspicious activities, this creates an environment that discourages potential offenders. Further, collective efficacy enhances communication and cooperation between community members and law enforcement, fostering trust and transparency through initiatives like neighborhood watch programs. This social cohesion empowers residents

in crime prevention, making communities safer. By strengthening social ties, communities can effectively collaborate to reduce crime.

Research has identified various policing elements that enhance collective efficacy, which aligns with the findings of the current study (Kochel & Weisburd, 2019; Kochel, 2013; Yesberg & Bradford, 2021). One significant finding is that police performance in crime fighting and community policing directly influences collective efficacy. Kochel and Weisburd (2019) conducted a randomized field trial demonstrating that an increased police presence in crime hotspots can enhance collective efficacy within those communities. Furthermore, Kochel (2012) highlighted that the quality of police services and the occurrence of misconduct significantly affect neighborhood collective efficacy. Residents who feel a stronger sense of collective efficacy tend to report better police service and encounter fewer instances of misconduct. Additionally, Yesberg and Bradford (2021) found that trust in the police, coupled with community policing practices such as increased visibility and engagement, plays a crucial role in fostering collective efficacy. Sargeant (2015) further emphasized that trust in police effectiveness and procedural justice are key variables in explaining collective efficacy. Research in the United States has demonstrated that community policing initiatives enhance informal social control (Lombardo & Donner, 2017).

In accordance with the results of the present study, the findings highlight the important role that police play in strengthening collective efficacy within communities. When law enforcement builds strong community relations, it encourages residents to engage in informal social control, preventing crime and enhancing public safety. Effective policing not only boosts collective efficacy but also improves neighborhood perceptions of crime, thereby fostering community cohesion and reducing safety concerns. Diagram 7.1 illustrates how policing practices impact collective efficacy, which aids in crime control and neighborhood safety. Police misconduct, such as excessive force or racial profiling, undermines community trust in law enforcement, leading to reluctance in crime reporting and cooperation. To maintain collective efficacy, local police departments must address misconduct and rebuild trust with the community.

Figure 7.1 Proposed Model of Collective Efficacy Role for Neighborhood Crime Prevention



Research suggests that collective efficacy can impact crime rates by increasing the likelihood of residents contacting law enforcement (Sampson, 2012, p. 152; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). The present study identified that community policing and perceptions of police effectiveness are the strongest predictors of collective efficacy. Strengthening the relationship between police and the community, along with improving police performance, can enhance collective efficacy, foster social cohesion, and encourage citizen action against crime and disruptive behavior.

7.3 The Contribution of Procedural Justice to Crime Prevention.

Enhancing procedural justice in policing is crucial for improving crime control, increasing community safety, and fostering trust between the police and the public. To support this approach, it is essential to provide both empirical evidence and practical experiences demonstrating its effectiveness. Research highlights numerous benefits associated with procedural justice in policing. For instance, it has been shown to increase respect for police during personal interactions (Reisig et al., 2004) and reduce challenges to police authority (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Furthermore, procedural justice leads to better compliance with police directives (Tyler, 2006), greater cooperation (T. R. Tyler & Fagan, 2008), and enhanced trust in law enforcement (Murphy et al., 2014). The positive impacts extend to institutional support for police agencies (Mazerolle et al., 2012; Murphy et al., 2014) and greater acceptance of necessary but intrusive police tactics (T. R. Tyler & Huo, 2003). Additionally, procedural justice contributes to lower crime rates (T.

Tyler, 2017), reduced legal cynicism (Hagan et al., 2016), and a decrease in severe crimes such as murder, rape, robbery, and assault (Higginson & Mazerolle, 2014). Notably, it also enhances safety for both officers and citizens (Tyler, 1990). For instance, a randomized controlled trial by Weisburd and colleagues demonstrated that intensive training in procedural justice can foster more procedurally just behavior, decrease disrespectful treatment of individuals, and ultimately reduce crime rates in high-crime areas (Weisburd et al., 2022).

A significant study by Higginson and Mazerolle (2014) further illustrates that implementing policing interventions with a spatial focus—coupled with a dialogue perceived as procedurally just—can lead to measurable reductions in crime and disorder in the targeted areas. This evidence underscores the importance of adopting procedural justice principles in policing practices to create safer and more cooperative communities. Residents who view police as practicing community policing and procedural justice are more inclined to implement crime prevention measures (Madero-Hernandez et al., 2020). Higher perceptions of procedural justice in policing correlate with greater community involvement in crime prevention (Reisig & Lloyd, 2009). Additionally, procedural justice can improve the quality of life for crime victims by alleviating negative emotions in interactions with legal authorities (Brakworth et al., 2016).

The current study aligns with previous research, highlighting that police procedural fairness significantly influences citizens' perceptions of neighborhood crime and disorder. Notably, procedural justice negatively impacts these perceptions, even when considering collective efficacy, which is a key predictor of neighborhood crime. Residents who believe police act fairly—by understanding and applying the law, justifying their actions, using minimal force, and treating everyone equally—report lower crime and disorder levels. Fair policing enhances public trust in law enforcement and reduces the perception and fear of crime.

7.3.1 Strategies for Enhancing Procedural Justice in Policing

In the present study, procedural justice was positively and directly influenced by the quality of police services and police-community relations (see Table 7.1). Further, numerous studies have identified the importance of implementing procedural justice policing. According to the study results, the effectiveness of controlling crime and providing services affects how citizens perceive police procedural fairness. Specifically, the study showed that police officers' capacity to control

crime and provide services impacted citizens' perception of procedural fairness in law enforcement. When citizens perceive the police as capable of reducing crime and delivering vital services, they view them as being procedurally fair. In other words, citizens are more likely to believe that the police treat everyone equally, follow the law when making decisions, and provide reasons for stopping individuals.

Furthermore, the implementation of community policing, i.e., the involvement of citizens in community policing activities such as identifying problems and coproducing solutions, fosters procedural justice. These findings are consistent with existing research(Myhill & Bradford, 2013). Myhill and Bradford (2013) found that process-based policing, such as community policing, can enhance citizens' perceptions of procedural justice.

The findings presented in Table 7.1 reveal that various demographic and socioeconomic factors and crime victimization influence procedural justice. Specifically, citizens who have been victimized by crime tend to have a more negative perception of procedural justice. Additionally, the duration of one's residence and gender negatively correlate with procedural justice. In contrast, respondent age positively influences procedural justice. This information highlights the importance of considering factors such as crime victimization, age, length of residency, and gender when evaluating the effectiveness of procedural justice in a given context.

Moreover, research on procedural justice has shown that organizational justice can enhance the implementation of procedural justice when interacting with the public or providing equitable treatment to citizens(T. Tyler, 2017; van Craen, 2016; Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). Van Craen (2016:290) coined "fair policing from the inside out" to describe the relationship between external and internal procedural justice. According to his "work relations framework," trust in supervisors who treat employees fairly leads to trust in citizens and fair treatment by police officers. These findings suggest that police managers who are committed to implementing process-based policing policies may need to ensure that their organizations also implement procedural and fair internal policies and practices (Myhill & Bradford, 2013). The research suggests that enhancing organizational justice within the police department can lead to better procedural justice for the public. However, it was not the scope of the current study to back this assertion with empirical evidence.

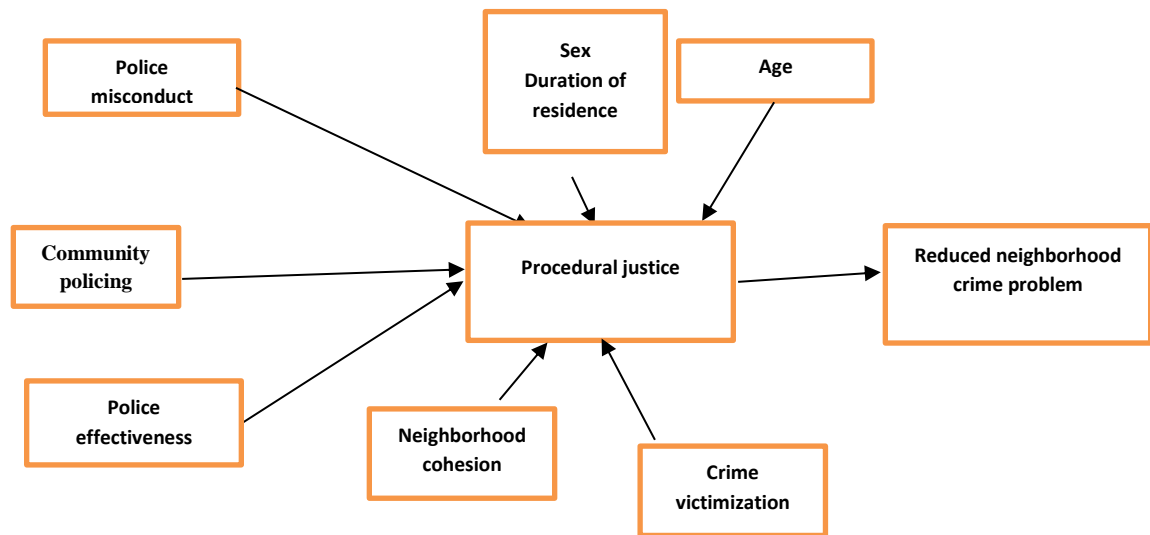
Table 7.1. OLS Regression Estimates of Factors that Influence Procedural Justice (n=616)

Procedural Justice							
Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
						Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.395	.304		1.299	.195		
Community Policing	.177	.046	.195	3.842	.000	.561	1.781
Police effectiveness	.583	.048	.595	12.097	.000	.597	1.676
Collective efficacy	.001	.066	.001	.014	.989	.747	1.339
Individual Socioeconomic	.036	.128	.012	.283	.777	.864	1.157
Neighborhood Level Socioeconomic Disadvantage	.080	.111	.029	.719	.473	.868	1.152
Age of respondents	.011	.004	.117	2.633	.009	.726	1.377
Sex of the household head	-.172	.075	-.091	-2.284	.023	.910	1.099
Duration of residence	-.006	.003	-.096	-2.042	.042	.649	1.541
Prior Crime Victimization	-.171	.075	-.092	-2.281	.023	.884	1.131
Fear of Crime	-.050	.042	-.049	-1.185	.237	.860	1.163
<i>Model fit/F</i>				39.677*			
				**			
<i>Df</i>				10			
<i>Nagelkerke pseudo R²</i>				.57			

*** p<.000

Advocates of procedurally just policing highlight four key pillars: transparency and public engagement, organizational justice, positive officer-community interactions, and targeted procedural justice (Quattlebaum et al., 2018). These pillars can enhance procedural fairness and strengthen community trust in law enforcement. Following these pillars, Quattlebaum and colleagues identified 41 principles of procedurally just policing, emphasizing transparency, public engagement, organizational justice, and external procedural justice. Key aspects include community involvement in policy creation, clear communication, respect for officers, and implementing justice measures during police stops. A focus on treating all individuals with dignity, fostering positive interactions with ethnic minorities, and engaging youth in public safety efforts are central to external procedural justice(Quattlebaum et al., 2018). By incorporating the qualities mentioned above into police procedures, it is possible to establish a fair and just system of policing that is based on procedural justice.

Figure 7.2. Proposed Procedural Justice Policing Model



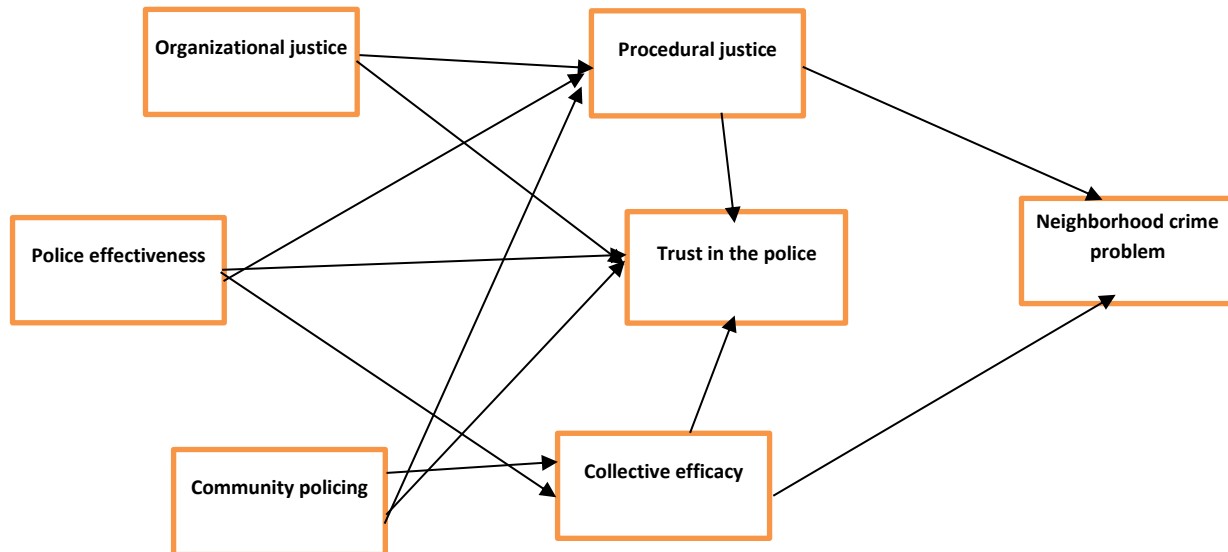
Further, data from the qualitative study shows that the level of neighborhood cohesion has a noteworthy positive impact on procedural justice, boosting its effectiveness. Conversely, police misconduct and crime victimization have a negative influence on procedural justice. To enhance procedural justice, it is essential to foster social cohesion, reduce crime victimization through effective crime-fighting strategies, and address police misconduct via various mechanisms, including subtle informal social control in community safety initiatives.

7.4 Integrating Collective Efficacy and Procedural Justice for Crime Prevention

To remind, the study's key finding indicates that collective efficacy and procedural justice are strong predictors of residents' evaluation of the severity of crime in their neighborhood. Hence, more collective efficacy and procedural justice in policing contribute to crime reduction. A literature review supports the study's findings on the roles of collective efficacy and procedural justice in crime reduction, making a strong case for their utilization. This study suggested that a practical approach to crime prevention and community safety should consider enhancing collective efficacy and procedural justice. Research that already exists corroborates that collective efficacy and procedural justice bring about benefits such as reducing crime and empowering communities for crime control and community safety.

It is possible to combine collective efficacy and procedural justice, as demonstrated by a model that examined their role in mediating the effects of neighborhood contexts and other policing practices on residents' evaluation of neighborhood crime seriousness.

Figure 7.3. An Integrated Approach to Reduce Neighborhood Crime and Disruptive Behavior



Crime has been a persistent issue in urban Ethiopia, and it continues to pose a severe threat to the safety and security of residents. To effectively address this problem, adopting a multifaceted approach involving various actors and response strategies is crucial. By diversifying the response to crime, police can better equip themselves to address this issue head-on and create a safer environment for all its residents. One way to expand and improve the response to crime is to involve community members in crime prevention efforts and introduce community safety initiatives. Community-led, bottom-up safety and crime prevention initiatives in the Western world have effectively reduced crime and improved community satisfaction (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). These initiatives prioritize active community involvement and participation to create a safer and more secure environment.

Studies indicate that a lack of trust in the police and feelings of procedural injustice can undermine the effectiveness of community safety initiatives (Kahn et al., 2019). Further, the efficacy of community safety programs can be hampered by the top-down approach taken by the police or government in their implementation. In Ethiopia, community policing efforts are hindered by top-down approaches that rely too heavily on the police and lack proper ownership (Denney &

Demelash, 2013). Mostly, the policing program established by the police would not intentionally incorporate measures for regulating their conduct, such as subtle informal social control. Public engagement with police or government programs increases when these initiatives are seen as procedurally just, ethical, and legitimate (Lai et al., 2023; Mazerolle, Bennett, et al., 2013; O'Brien & Tyler, 2019; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). Thus, scholars recommend installing procedural justice with subtle informal social control to police the police, which is critical when striving to institutionalize community safety initiatives.

Community-led safety projects are generally more effective than those led by outsiders (Maguire et al., 2019; Skilling & Rogers, 2017). These initiatives should focus on enhancing collective efficacy and empowering citizens. Their sustainability depends on community commitment and resource investment; when residents contribute resources, the likelihood of success increases compared to relying on external support. Community-generated resources reflect investment and motivation to meet local needs and expectations, but this can challenge poorer neighborhoods (Kahn et al., 2019). For instance, community safety and crime prevention initiatives in Ethiopia face limitations regarding their viability for crime prevention, sustainability, and resource mobilization, lacking effective strategies to engage and motivate residents to support the police (Daniel, 2014). In addition, public suspicion and mistrust and challenges of overcoming resistance from communities to engage in partnership with the police hindered the success of community policing (Yeshiwas, 2014). Further, community safety initiatives in Ethiopia are directed from a police unit rather than being a broad departmental effort, which also affects its sustainability and viability.

Crime prevention requires a multifaceted approach, with formal social control and collective efficacy serving as vital tools to enhance safety and combat crime. The willingness and ability of community members to work together to solve problems and maintain order is vital. This phenomenon is often called collective efficacy and embodies trust and shared responsibility among residents (Sargeant, 2015; Yesberg et al., 2021). Community safety initiatives that enhance collective efficacy can reduce crime rates, as these communities are more likely to intervene in crime and disorder, ultimately improving overall safety.

The research suggests using community collective efficacy and procedural justice to enhance crime prevention and safety. It suggests that these measures can also boost citizens' confidence in

law enforcement, address mistrust and misconduct, and improve public perceptions of the police. According to the findings of the current study, key measures include providing effective police services, ensuring clear communication, and engaging in activities that strengthen police-community relations. When citizens are aware of the police's proactive measures against criminal and disruptive behaviors, they are more likely to adopt informal social control practices and report incidents promptly. Therefore, effective communication of police effectiveness is essential. Additionally, organizing community events, establishing resident-led neighborhood watch programs, and participating in initiatives that foster closer interactions between residents and police can further promote collective efficacy and procedural justice. Trust-building is a crucial element in this process, as it enhances cooperation, reduces crime, and improves overall safety in the community. By nurturing a partnership between the police and the public, rather than fostering a confrontational dynamic, police can achieve greater harmony.

Studies suggest that enhancing collective efficacy and procedural justice can be achieved by building trust in police, implementing fair decision-making, and providing training to improve police-community relations and commitment. Specifically, strategies to enhance collective efficacy in crime prevention include community empowerment, collaboration with police, building trust in law enforcement, and encouraging social controls through community engagement and volunteerism (Gearhart, 2022; Yisberg et al., 2021; Kochel, 2013). Moreover, research indicates that intensive training in procedural justice for law enforcement personnel can lead to more equitable behavior, decreased disrespectful treatment, a reduction in complaints against police, lower instances of force, and ultimately, decreased crime rates in high-crime areas (Weisburd et al., 2022; Skogan et al., 2015; Wood et al., 2020).

Empowering residents to take ownership of their community is essential for building a safer and more cohesive environment. Providing them with the necessary tools to address local issues and make informed decisions about their neighborhood fosters a sense of responsibility and initiative. Additionally, mobilizing resources and offering support to community organizations play a crucial role in developing and implementing programs aimed at crime prevention while nurturing a strong community spirit. By enhancing collective efficacy and promoting formal social control, communities and police can effectively work together to prevent crime. These strategies require time and commitment, but the positive, lasting impacts on the safety and well-being of the

community are well worth the effort. Overall, a united community can create meaningful change and ensure a better quality of life for all its residents.

7.5 Overcoming Challenges of Community Safety and Crime Prevention Initiatives

Community safety initiatives in Ethiopia are currently struggling to effectively prevent crime, primarily due to a range of challenges faced by law enforcement. These challenges include inadequate resources, difficulties with citizen engagement, political unrest, and widespread public mistrust of the police. Additionally, the reliance on top-down policing methods dampens community involvement and undermines collective efforts in preventing crime (Denny & Demeleash, 2013). Consequently, these factors contribute to the overall ineffectiveness of community safety initiatives in the region.

Moreover, there is a notable lack of mechanisms to monitor police conduct, which has resulted in ethical dilemmas and instances of misconduct. Police issues, such as excessive use of force and corruption, further erode the legitimacy of law enforcement agencies. These concerns have been consistently highlighted by participants in the current study as well as in prior research, underscoring the barriers to successful local crime prevention initiatives. To address these challenges, it is essential to establish oversight mechanisms that empower citizens to monitor police behavior effectively. Strengthening subtle informal social controls is vital for regulating police conduct and minimizing deviant actions. Although these controls may not always be readily visible, they play a crucial role in promoting conformity and maintaining social order within communities (Skilling & Rogers, 2017).

The relationship between the community and the police is further complicated by a lack of trust and confidence, which often leads to less effective policing strategies. Research indicates that communities are more willing to collaborate with and support police when they perceive them as legitimate (Sargeant, 2015; Tyler & Sunshine, 2003). Therefore, incorporating principles of procedural justice is essential to enhancing community-police relations in Ethiopia, and should be a fundamental component of any community safety and crime prevention initiative. This study reveals a significant gap in policing within certain neighborhoods, fostering residents' cynicism towards the law and justice system. This mistrust pushes individuals to seek immediate resolutions through mob justice. Skilling and Rogers (2016) describe this collective violence as a form of

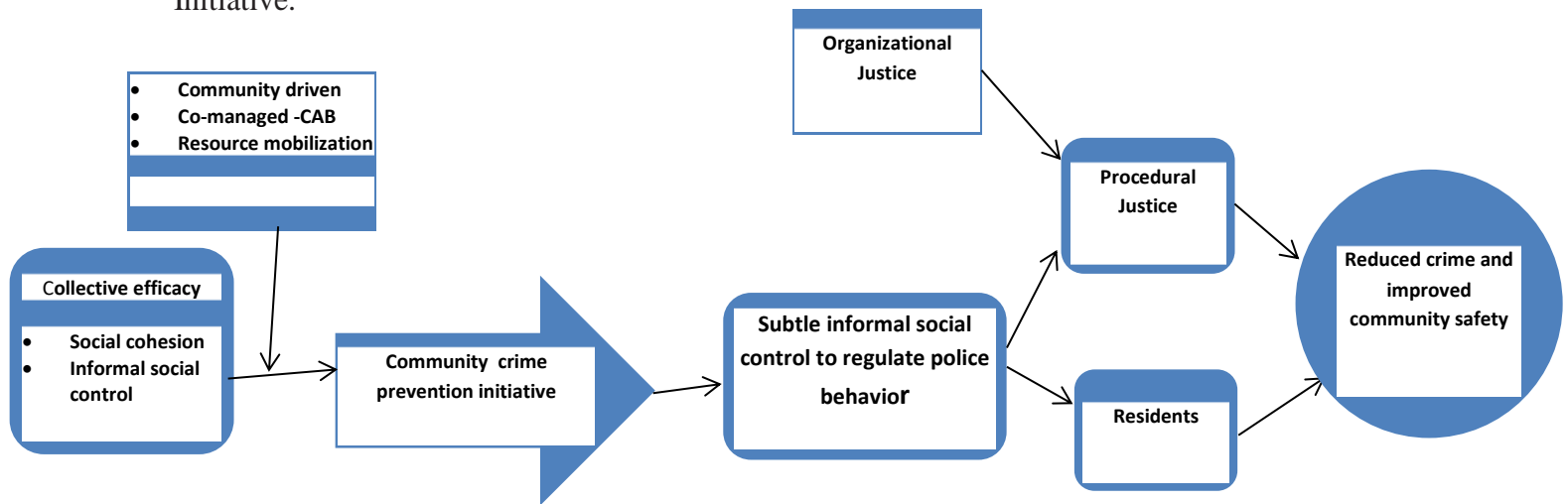
social control that emerges when the legal system is perceived to be weak, particularly in informal settlements, bus stations, and markets. While these areas may have informal social contracts to address deviant behavior, they often resort to mob justice for minor offenses, yet resist such actions for serious crimes like rape. Mob justice tends to be spontaneous and involves individuals driven by a shared belief that certain behaviors are unacceptable, rather than by established communal ties.

Community-led initiatives aimed at establishing safety projects can reflect a robust sense of collective efficacy among residents (Skilling & Rogers, 2017). Evidence suggests that these projects have a higher likelihood of success when they are spearheaded by local community members rather than external organizations. Nevertheless, the sustainability of these initiatives is closely linked to collective investment and resource allocation among community members. When residents contribute time, money, or materials, it signifies a shared commitment to addressing local issues, thereby enhancing the project's chances for success. Initiatives thrive when they rely on internal community resources rather than external funding. For example, community policing efforts in Ethiopia, initially funded by the UK government, declined as financial support faded. Later, police sought to mobilize local resources to run community policing centers and officers, demonstrating the value of community-generated support. Inadequate resources and poorly trained community policing officers have weakened the sustainability of community policing, especially in mobilizing resources from impoverished neighborhoods in Addis Ababa. As economic challenges in urban areas persist, voluntary resource mobilization will become increasingly difficult. Therefore, a structured and sustainable funding source is essential for community crime prevention initiatives.

Community policing can foster positive relationships between the public and police, enhancing police legitimacy (Skogan et al., 1999). However, its implementation is challenging in a police service transitioning from a context of widespread corruption, misconduct, and suspicion (Togia, 2008). A broader approach to crime prevention is recommended to enhance the safety of citizens, especially those in lower-income communities. The prevailing distrust in law enforcement and skepticism toward the criminal justice system underline the urgent need for alternative crime prevention strategies. Successful community safety initiatives often intertwine elements of procedural justice and informal social control to guide law enforcement conduct effectively. The

key components for effective crime prevention in neighborhoods of Addis Ababa are illustrated in figure 7.4, highlighting the potential for community-driven solutions to address crime and enhance public safety.

Figure 7.4 Proposed Key Components for an Effective Community Crime Prevention and Safety Initiative.



(Source: Author, 2024)

Chapter Summary

The study has demonstrated that collective efficacy and procedural justice are essential predictors of neighborhood crime problems. It has been shown that higher levels of collective efficacy lead to greater willingness among community members to engage in social control activities. Moreover, procedural justice significantly impacts citizens' evaluation of neighborhood crime problems. By combining these two elements, community safety can be enhanced, crime problem can be reduced, and public trust and cooperation with law enforcement can be increased. The study's findings also highlight the importance of contextual factors at the neighborhood level and the relevance of policing strategies that are pertinent to these factors in advancing community safety and crime prevention.

Based on the study's findings, it is recommended that policymakers and law enforcement agencies consider incorporating collective efficacy and procedural justice policing into their community safety initiatives. It is crucial to establish effective community policing programs that foster a sense of shared responsibility and improve social cohesion, informal social control, and fairness

in the administration of justice. Additionally, future research studies should focus on the potential synergy of collective efficacy and procedural justice in comprehending neighborhood crime and exploring the viability of collective efficacy policing as a viable option for policing.

Chapter Eight

Summary, Implications, and Conclusion

Introduction

The rising crime rates in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, underscore the need for research into the social, economic, cultural, and legal factors contributing to the issue. Despite the challenges, evidence-based interventions have received limited attention. This study examines neighborhood-level social processes and policing practices, investigating their impact on crime prevalence and their contribution to community crime prevention and safety. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena and capture residents' perspectives.

Throughout the paper, the study argues the importance of collective efficacy and procedural justice in crime prevention and enhancing trust in law enforcement; tailored crime prevention strategies based on these findings can enhance community safety and well-being and trust between citizens and the police. This chapter provides a concise overview of the key findings, synthesizes the qualitative and quantitative findings, and highlight the implications of the findings.

8.1 Summary of Key Findings

The first objective of the research was to describe criminality and response to crime in selected neighborhoods of Addis Ababa. Like previous studies (Alelegn et al., 2024), the present study indicates a significant and consistent crime problem across all of the study neighborhoods. The study found a clear pattern in crime prevalence measured by residents' evaluation of crime seriousness in their neighborhood, fear of crime, and victimization across neighborhoods, aligning with police crime data. The study found that Addis Ketema residents reported higher levels of crime perception, fear, and victimization compared to those in Kirkos and Bole, consistent with police data.

The study reveals that areas with greater socioeconomic disadvantage experience higher crime rates and personal victimization. It also finds that homeownership and socioeconomic status decrease crime victimization, while a longer duration of residence increases it. Further, fear of crime is influenced by both duration of residence and socioeconomic status, with longer residency correlating negatively and higher education correlating positively with fear of crime. Due to the

increasing problem of crime, residents utilize different informal responses to crime and criminality.

The study found that collective efficacy is negatively correlated with residents' evaluation of crime in their neighborhood and personal victimization experiences. Socially cohesive neighborhoods engage in informal and formal crime prevention activities, while neighborhoods lacking social cohesion perceive crime as a more significant problem. Collective efficacy among residents can foster 'eyes on the street,' mobilize resources and promote informal social control. These findings are consistent with prior research conducted in developed sociocultural settings (Armstrong et al., 2015; Burchfield & Silver, 2013; Gerell & Kronkvist, 2016; Hipp & Wickes, 2017; Mazerolle et al., 2010; R. J. Sampson et al., 1997) as well as in some developing countries (Kochel, 2013; Frimpong et al., 2018). Lower crime rates occur in communities with strong social cohesion among neighbors and their willingness to use informal social control for the common good (Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). Collective efficacy theory, originally developed and tested in Western societies, is a relevant perspective for addressing neighborhood crime and enhancing safety in the Ethiopian context.

The study's quantitative results indicated stable collective efficacy, but qualitative findings showed a decline over time due to weakening personal and social relationships, resulting in decreased collective social control. The rising gentrification, coupled with the decline in community parenting and the erosion of adult civic behavior, can be attributed to strained personal and social relationships. These issues stem from a climate of distrust and suspicion, as well as the negative consequences that arise from attempts to uphold societal norms. According to Bursik and Grasmick (1993), private sanctions are most effective when the person imposing them is held in high esteem by those affected. The study found that enforcing community norms, like disciplining children or intervening in domestic disputes, can create conflict and weaken informal social control in the community.

The study found that neighborhoods with higher crime rates face issues like poor infrastructure, significant poverty, and social disorganization. In a similar vein, some deviant behaviour could be tolerated by residents in spite of stronger social ties and networks as long as such behaviour would not interfere with community goals. Despite these socioeconomic issues, residents maintain strong

social ties, which help foster a sense of solidarity and collective efficacy in addressing their challenges.

The study's findings align with previous research in poor neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, highlighting that traditional institutions, social networks, and informal social control aid these communities in tackling economic and social challenges, including safety and security (Kassahun, 2015; Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). Traditional institutions and social networks also assist poor urban communities in dealing with economic and social problems (Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). This result supports the findings of other African countries, such as Ghana and Kenya (Owusu et al., 2016; Skilling & Rogers, 2017), showing that high social cohesion and guardianship are present in underprivileged communities and depress criminal intentions. Thus, the current study refrains from supporting the strict categorization of neighborhoods as “safer” or “incubators,” which Western literature established based on empirical evidence in different contexts (Sampson et al., 1997; Sutherland et al., 2013). Therefore, the assumption that underprivileged areas are short of collective efficacy for self-regulation, as established by literature from developed countries, is impractical, given the evidence from the current study. In simpler terms, the present study did not find evidence suggesting lower collective efficacy in lower-income neighborhoods.

The finding of the study shows that some low-income neighborhoods demonstrate strong collective efficacy and other social and crime-preventing characteristics than better-off areas. For instance, some neighborhoods in Addis Ketema with higher levels of socioeconomic disadvantage, also reported higher crime rates and strong collective efficacy. In other words, despite facing greater adversity, community members strongly believe in their ability to work together to address local problems. A prior study conducted in poor neighborhoods of Addis Ababa also revealed the existence of various traditional institutions and social networks that assist urban poor communities in dealing with economic and social problems (Kassahun, 2015; Kebede & Butterfield, 2009). Neighborhoods can reduce crime rates and deter intruders by relying on informal social control methods, fostering strong community bonds, and maintaining a constant presence of people looking for each other.

Collective efficacy is a valuable approach to addressing crime, but it is insufficient alone; a comprehensive understanding of crime control requires considering additional contextual factors. Thus, the concept of collective efficacy deserves reevaluation, particularly in Ethiopia's

impoverished neighborhoods. While these neighborhoods may exhibit social cohesion and a willingness to enforce informal social control, they often lack the necessary resources to invest in crime prevention and community safety. It's important to consider not only the willingness to mobilize for common goals but also the ability to mobilize resources effectively. Therefore, understanding collective efficacy in this context requires a nuanced approach that takes into account both social dynamics and economic limitations. The study proposes a refined conceptualization of collective efficacy that incorporates stronger social ties, shared values, social capital, activation and utilization of social capital towards achieving social goals.

In high-crime neighborhoods, housing often consists of slums and shacks near busy markets, attracting migrants seeking affordable housing and food. A lack of social control and the presence of offenders contribute to crime concerns. While improving collective efficacy can reduce crime, it doesn't fully address the issue. The built environment in these areas is criminogenic, increasing vulnerability and hindering formal social control efforts. For instance, a study by Lanfear (2022) suggests that reducing criminogenic features in the built environment, along with enhancing collective efficacy, can help lower crime rates and improve community safety.

Policing practices play a crucial role in crime control and neighborhood safety. The study revealed that residents rated police effectiveness in crime control, procedural justice, and community policing less favorably. Further analysis revealed that procedural justice affects residents' perceptions of crime problems in their communities. Neighborhoods with fair police practices and minimal force perceive lower crime and disorder rates. However, residents' evaluation of the crime problem in their community does not align with their assessments of police effectiveness in controlling crime and police-community relations. Kochel's (2013) empirical evidence from Trinidad and Tobago, supports the finding of the current study that there is no direct correlation between residents' perceptions of police service quality and the prevalence of crime and disorder. Further, this research indicates that while police effectiveness has little effect on crime rates, effective communication about crime prevention can enhance trust and cooperation between police and the community.

The other key finding of the research indicates that residents in most neighborhoods studied have a lack of trust and confidence in the police. It is clearly apparent from the responses of participants that residents are reluctant to report crimes to law enforcement. Due to diminishing trust in police

effectiveness and procedural justice, community members have turned to alternative coping mechanisms, including collective violence against criminals. This approach is seen as more effective than relying on inadequate policing, as it provides consequences for offenders amid widespread skepticism about the legitimacy of law enforcement and the criminal justice system. However, trust in the police is crucial for collective efficacy and crime prevention, as evidenced by this and prior research (Yesberg et al., 2021). Further, Sargeant(2016) suggests that trust in police effectiveness and procedural justice are key variables explaining collective efficacy, suggesting that police can encourage collective efficacy and potentially reduce crime.

The present study also examined how policing practices affect public trust in law enforcement, highlighting that a positive police-citizen relationship can reduce crime and enhance community well-being. Key factors influencing trust included procedural justice, police effectiveness, and community policing, with procedural justice having the strongest impact. To enhance public trust, hence, it's crucial to improve procedural justice, police performance in crime fighting, as well as police-community relations. The conclusion aligns with prior research conducted in developing and emerging nations (Boateng, 2017; Frimpong et al., 2019; Lim & Kwak, 2022; Sun et al., 2014; Tankebe, 2008).

Beyond policing variables, previous studies indicate that individuals who have not experienced victimization tend to have a more positive view of law enforcement compared to those who have(Singer et al., 2019). Victimization can lead to distrust in the criminal justice system. This study highlights that, past victimization or fear of crime significantly reduces trust in law enforcement. Qualitative evidence indicates that trust in the police is influenced by factors such as political interference, negative media portrayals, police misconduct, and accessibility issues. Additionally, a lack of knowledge about police performance impacts public trust in the police. Weitzer and Tuch (2004) highlight that the media significantly influences public perceptions of the police. High levels of media coverage, especially of police misconduct like brutality or corruption, correlate with decreased public confidence in law enforcement. Therefore, strategies to improve trust in the police must consider these negative media impacts. Overall, the study suggests that boosting collective efficacy, trust in police, and procedural justice can effectively reduce crime. Implementing community crime prevention initiatives focused on these areas can lead to sustainable crime reduction.

8.2 Conclusion

The conclusion of the study highlights the key arguments that have been identified after a thorough analysis and discussion of the findings. These arguments are reflective of the researcher's position and have led to main findings. The following six key findings are extracted to highlight the contribution of the study.

Key finding 1: Collective efficacy in tandem with procedural justice has a positive impact on community safety and crime prevention. Further, the study highlights the protective role of collective efficacy against crime in Ethiopia, demonstrating the applicability of collective efficacy theory in this context.

Key finding 2: Cohesive neighborhoods are effective in both informal and formal crime prevention. The study argues that fostering collective efficacy can be a vital step towards improving citizens' involvement in neighborhood crime control and safety efforts. The study has suggested various ways to foster collective efficacy, which can be beneficial in reducing crime rates in neighborhoods.

Key finding 3: Quantitative results indicate that stable collective efficacy, whereas the qualitative finding show collective efficacy declining due to weaker social ties, explained by rising gentrification of neighbourhoods, declining community involvement, erosion of civic behaviour, and distrust among neighbourhood residents.

Key finding 4: The study challenges or critical of the binary categorization of neighbourhoods as “safe” and ‘crime incubators’ (i.e, dangerous neighbourhoods) based on the level of collective efficacy. Thus, it is important to exercise caution, as analysis at the neighborhood level revealed that neighborhoods with high crime rates also attribute higher levels of collective efficacy. This indicates that other factors contribute to increased crime vulnerabilities besides social processes, which direct to the revisions and cautious use of collective efficacy assumptions.

Key finding 5: Socioeconomically disadvantaged neighbourhoods (i.e, impoverished neighborhoods have greater collective efficacy. However, they lack resources (time, money, and assets for collective efficacy.

Key finding 6: Lack of public trust towards the police, hence, weaker formal social control, and

rising collective violence, i.e. vigilante justice, and residents taking the law into their own hands. The study argues that procedural justice is the most relevant aspect of policing that shapes citizens' feelings of safety. This aspect is also considered a crucial ingredient in enhancing trust in the police. Police at the local, regional, and federal levels must prioritize procedural justice by implementing measures that include officers treating all citizens with fairness, impartiality, and respect. Furthermore, police should enhance their understanding of the law and apply it appropriately, using force only when necessary to perform their duties. They should also improve accessibility and enhance citizens' trust by effectively communicating the effectiveness of crime control measures.

Further, the study highlighted the significant rise in crime and multifaceted consequences, but a lack of attention given to crime research. It points out that crime prevention strategies often lack evidence-based guidance, leading to unreliable responses. The study advocates for a data-driven approach, crime prevention supported and informed by community-level knowledge and expertise, which can enhance understanding of crime patterns, improve resource allocation, and enable more effective prevention strategies, ultimately making communities safer.

Overall, the study provides compelling evidence to support the idea that collective efficacy and procedural justice can be integrated as a crucial factor in reducing crime rates, improving safety, and fostering positive police-community trust relations. By promoting a sense of collective efficacy and ensuring that procedural justice is followed in law enforcement activities, communities can feel more empowered and invested in their safety. This, in turn, can lead to greater trust in law enforcement and a crime reduction. Finally, the study argues that promoting policing strategies that prioritize and jointly enhance collective efficacy and procedural justice can serve many purposes, including reduced crime, better legitimacy, and cooperation.

8.3 Recommendations

The study presents key recommendations for research, policy, and crime prevention, particularly for law enforcement agencies. It highlights the potential of neighborhood-level crime models, originally developed in Western societies, to effectively predict crime patterns in diverse contexts. These insights can aid policymakers in reducing crime, improving community safety, and fostering

trust between citizens and the police. The following discussion outlines the study's main recommendations.

8.3.1 Crime Prevention and Community Safety Recommendations

The study emphasizes that responses to crime and violence should be informed by the knowledge and expertise existing at the community level. However, it also acknowledges that many community contexts and social processes that could support crime prevention remain undocumented and unknown. This study aims to fill those gaps in the literature by highlighting the significance of community characteristics and policing practices that play a role in crime prevention and community safety. Ultimately, it seeks to enhance police-community relations and build trust within the community.

The study recommends that crime prevention policies in low-income, high-crime neighborhoods in Addis Ababa focus on enhancing collective efficacy. It emphasizes the need for police services and community policing initiatives to foster neighborhood cohesion and empower residents for effective crime prevention collaboration. Positive police-community relations and high-quality police services are crucial for increasing collective efficacy. Conversely, complaints about police misconduct correlate with lower collective efficacy. To foster this effectiveness, residents must view the police as knowledgeable and helpful problem solvers. By improving service quality and reducing misconduct, police can help lower crime rates through enhanced collective efficacy.

Research shows that concentrated disadvantages and poor physical environments contribute to criminal behavior and weaken social control. To combat this, strategies should focus on development, training, and skill-building to improve residents' employability and reduce criminal reliance. Community dialogues can help identify and challenge norms that support criminal tendencies. Additionally, government and community collaboration can enhance the built environment through measures like better lighting and cleanliness, which improves collective social control and reduces crime opportunities.

To enhance neighborhood relationships and self-policing, police must demonstrate competence, professionalism, and collaboration. Promoting collective efficacy can improve perceptions of police effectiveness and build trust, but efforts may falter in areas with high distrust. Current trust

levels are insufficient for effective policing, necessitating quality services and a commitment to procedural justice and community policing. Whereas, Trust relationships between the police and the public enhance safety, reduce distrust, and foster social cohesion. Police should focus on improving crime reduction, ensuring procedural justice, and engaging communities in safety initiatives while considering police perspectives on trust issues. To foster trust and cooperation between citizens and law enforcement, the Ethiopian Federal Police and regional forces should focus on reforms that enhance performance, procedural justice, and community relations. Engaging citizens in crime prevention is essential for building trust and improving collective efficacy, which contributes to community safety.

An important finding from the current study, along with previous research, highlights the necessity of implementing subtle informal social controls through community safety initiatives to effectively regulate police misconduct. Studies conducted in other countries suggest that these subtle social control mechanisms are more effective in promoting proper police behavior compared to more overt, apparent controls(Lai et al., 2023; Skilling & Rogers, 2017).

8.3.2 Recommendations for Further Research

The study highlights the benefits of collective efficacy and trust in the police in reducing crime and enhancing safety and quality of life. It recommends further research in Ethiopia to strengthen understanding of collective efficacy's role in combating crime and socioeconomic issues.

The study emphasizes that trust in the police enhances collective efficacy and citizen involvement in crime prevention, improving safety. However, there is limited academic literature on the factors influencing trust in the police. Future research should explore the context and strategies for building this trust. Additionally, there is a need for further research to accurately identify the positive and negative perceptions of police officers toward the public that ultimately affect their activities and overall performance. By conducting such research, we can gain a better understanding of the factors that influence trust in the police and work towards improving it.

The current research suggests that adopting collective efficacy and procedural justice in police operations can help achieve various objectives, such as reducing actual and perceived crime rates, minimizing fear of crime, strengthening trust between the public and law enforcement, and increasing citizen participation in preventing disruptive behavior and criminal activities. However, there is a need for comprehensive research to examine the feasibility of adopting these policing

practices in Ethiopia, including technical details on how they can be effectively implemented within the Ethiopian law enforcement system.

One limitation of the current study was its small sample size (N=616) and the homogeneity of its urban communities, which mainly relied on data collected in Addis Ababa. Therefore, it is unclear whether the study's results apply to other cities and towns in Ethiopia, limiting the generalizability of the findings. For example, police officers are more favorably perceived in rural towns and other cities than in the metropolis of Addis Ababa. Furthermore, community policing initiatives in Addis Ababa face challenges in addressing crime and ensuring community safety, while research conducted in other regions of the country shows successful implementation of community policing, resulting in crime reduction and improved community safety.

Thus, in areas where community policing is established and incorporated as a fundamental aspect of policing practices, it has the potential to decrease crime rates and the perceived severity of crimes, foster citizens' trust in law enforcement, and enhance collective efficacy among communities. Future research should strive to improve the study design by including larger sample sizes and a wider range of communities, such as rural and urban areas from low-, middle-, and high-income categories to provide more comprehensive and generalizable findings.

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- Melkamu, M.T., & Teshome, W. (2023). The Impact of Collective Efficacy and Policing Practices on Perceived Crime Problem: Evidence from Neighborhoods of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*.
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Annex 1: Household Survey Instrument

Introduction: Thank you for taking your time voluntarily to this interview. I am Medareshaw Tafesse, a Ph.D. student at Addis Ababa University, Department of Sociology. Currently, I am undertaking a data collection activity for my dissertation work. The title of my dissertation is “Neighbourhood Context and Crime Problem: Unpacking the Influence of Collective Efficacy and Trust in the Police in Selected Neighbourhoods of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.” Hence, the purpose of the interview is to gather data from people with good knowledge of local social mechanisms and crime. Your involvement in this research is greatly appreciated and I request your answer to be genuine, as the results of the study will largely depend on the quality of information that you provide me.

The information you provide will be kept confidential and will be used for this research purpose ONLY. Your identity will not be revealed in any publications that result from this study. Individual data will be stored securely and will be available to people involved in this research. If you have questions, suggestions, or concerns at any time about the study or procedure, you may ask the researcher. Thank you very much for your participation.

Now it is time to obtain informed consent. Please read out the oral statement to the respondent and answer any questions. Does the selected respondent in this household give informed consent?

- a) Yes b)NO

A. Basic information

1. How old are you?
 - a) [Numerical, in Years]
 - b) Don't Know
 - c) Refuse to Answer
2. What is the Gender of the household head?
 - a) Male b) Female
3. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?
 - a) None/no formal education

- b) Primary school (started without completing)
 - c) Primary school (completed)
 - d) Lower/junior secondary
 - e) Upper/senior secondary
 - f) Tertiary (Bachelors)
 - g) Tertiary (Masters)
 - h) Tertiary (PhD)
 - i) Other(Please specify)
4. Marital status of the household head
- a) Married, b) Single, c) Divorced, d)Widowed Other(Please specify)_____
5. How many people live in your household? How many members does the household have?
- a) [Numerical]
 - b) Don't Know
 - c) Refuse to Answer
6. What is your own current work situation? Are you...
- a) Employed and receive a salary
 - b) Day labourer/ casual work
 - c) Farming or rearing animals
 - d) Working on your own account or running a business
 - e) Studying
 - f) Unemployed
 - g) Doing unpaid housework, looking after children or other persons
 - h) Doing something else (Please specify)
7. How much you approximately earn per month?
- a) [Numerical]
 - b) Don't Know
 - c) Refuse to Answer
8. Thinking about your household's current financial situation, would you say your household is ...
- a) Finding it difficult to get by

- b) Coping, or
- c) Living comfortably
- d) Donot know

9. How long have you been here in this neighbourhood?

- a) [Numerical, in Years]
- b) Don't Know
- c) Refuse to Answer

B. Social cohesion and Social trust (mutual trust, solidarity, and sense of community)

Now I'm going to ask you some questions about social cohesion and social trust in the neighbourhood that you are currently residing.

1. Is the household head involved with or a member to any of the social institutions in the neighbourhood?
 - a) Ikub
 - b) Idir
 - c) Mahiber (religious or neighbourhood based)
 - d) Other(Please specify)
 - e) The household don't involve in any of the above institutions
2. (Only if B1 is NOT 'e') How valuable is the involvemnt in the selected institution been for your household? Would you say that it is/was:
 - a) Very valuable
 - b) A bit valuable
 - c) Not valuable?
3. During the past year, have you participated in any kind of volunteering or community group?
 - a) No
 - b)Yes

Prompt: This could include mutual support groups, education committees, security committees, neighbourhood committees, NGOs etc.

4. Now, I am going to read statements that reflects social cohesion and trust in your neighborhood. For each of these statements, please tell me whether you 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'neither agree or disagree' 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'.

Statement	Strongly agree'	agree'	neither agree nor disagree'	'disagree'	'strongly disagree'
a) People in this neighborhood can be trusted.					
b) People in this neighborhood share confidential information.					
c) People in this neighborhood Do not get along with each other.					
d) Adults in this neighborhood know who the local children are.					
e) Neighbors would get together to deal with problem.					
f) People in this neighborhood Visit in each other's homes or talk on the street					

C2. Now, I am going to read some additional statements about informal social control and responses from members of the neighborhood, not you. For each of these statements, please tell me the likelihood of people in your neighbourhood would intervene or act in the following manner.

Rate the probability that residents in this neighborhood will intervene if:	(‘very unlikely’	unlikely	Somewhat likely	‘likely’	‘very likely’
a) If a child is showing disrespect to an adult, how likely is it that the people in your community will scold that child?					
b) If there was a problem in the community, how likely that neighbors would get together to deal with the problem?					
c) How likely is it that someone would intervene if neighborhood children are seen at the wrong place at the wrong time (say out of school)?					
d) How likely is that a neighbors would intervne if disrespectful husband bits his wife?					
e) How likely is that neighbors would intervene if there was a fight in front of your house and someone was being beaten?					
f) How likely are your neighbors to form a neighborhood watch or participate in round-the-clock patrols in reaction to the crime and disorder?					

C. Crime victimization and perception of crime problem in the neighbourhood.

1. In the past 12 months, have you or anyone in your household experienced theft, burglary or robbery?

- a) No
 - b) Yes
 - c) I don't know
 - d) Refuse to answer
2. If you answered yes, could you tell me where the most recent crime took place?
- a) In the house,
 - b) In the neighborhood,
 - c) In this district,
 - d) In this sub-city,
 - e) In this city, or
 - f) Other(Please specify)
3. In the past 12 months, anyone in your household experienced theft, burglary or robbery?
- a) No
 - b) Yes
4. Now, I am going to read some additional statements about crime problem in your neighborhood. For each of these statements, please tell me how much a problem is people being robbed, people being assaulted and beaten up on the streets, houses being burglarized.

How much a problem is:	Not a	Somewhat	A problem	A big
a) People being robbed in your neighborhood				
b) People being assaulted and beaten up on the streets in your neighborhood				
c) Houses being burglarized in your neighborhood				

D. Trust in criminal justice institutions defined in terms of residents trust with police effectiveness to prevent crime and maintain order

E1. Now I am going to read some general questions about your views of police effectiveness in preventing crime and maintaining order in your neighborhood. For each statement, please tell me whether you: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree

Statement	Strongly	Agree	Don't	Disagre	Strongly
1. The police is doing a good job in preventing crime.					
2. The police is effective in catching criminals					
3. The police promptly respond to emergency calls for assistance					
4. The police promptly respond to non-emergency calls for assistance					
5. The police are not able to maintain order on the streets and sidewalks in the neighborhood”					
6. The police in your neighborhood are helpful to people who have been victims of crime.					
7. Overall, the police are effective in dealing with the problems that really concern people in your neighborhood.					

E2. Now I am going to ask you some general questions about your views of the relationship between police-community in your neighborhood. For each statement, please tell me whether you: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree

Statement	Strongly	Disagree	Don't	'Agree	'Strongl
1. The police is doing a good job collaborating with residents to tackle local problems.					
2. The police involve the community to discuss crime problems, to identify causes and provide solutions.					
3. The police do a good job dealing with residents in a fair manner.					
4. The police deals with residents in a courteous manner.					

5. Most police officers use only the amount of force necessary to accomplish their tasks					
6. Community policing program is effective in reducing crime and fear of crime.					

E. Socioeconomic information

F1. We'll now ask you a few questions regarding your family's financial position.

1. Is your home...
 - a) Owned by someone in the household
 - b) Rented, or is there
 - c) Another arrangement
 - d) Don't know
 - e) Refuse to answer

I'm going to read a list of several aspects of the dwelling's quality. Could you please tell me if your household possesses any of the following characteristics?

2. Is your household connected the sewerage system?
 - a) No
 - b) Yes
 - c) Don't know
 - d) Refuse to answer
3. Is your household has an indoor bathroom,
 - a) No
 - b) Yes
 - c) Don't know
 - d) Refuse to answer
4. Whether the household share a toilet with others
 - a) No
 - b) Yes
 - c) Don't know
 - d) Refuse to answer
5. What kind of toilet does your household have?

- a) Flush toilet (linked to sewerage)
- b) Pit/latrine
- c) Pan/bucket
- d) Other
- e) No toilet

Annex- 2: Key Informant Interview Guide (A semi-structured interview guide for key informants)

Introduction: Thank you for taking your time voluntarily to this interview. I am Medareshaw Tafesse, a Ph.D. student at Addis Ababa University, Department of Sociology. Currently, I am undertaking a data collection activity for my dissertation work. The title of my dissertation is “Neighbourhood Context and Crime Problem: Unpacking the Influence of Collective Efficacy and Trust in the Police in Selected Neighbourhoods of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.” Hence, the purpose of the interview is to gather data from people with good knowledge of local social mechanisms and crime. Your involvement in this research is greatly appreciated and I request your answer to be genuine, as the results of the study will largely depend on the quality of information that you provide me.

The information you provide will be kept confidential and will be used for this research purpose ONLY. Your identity will not be revealed in any publications that result from this study. Individual data will be stored securely and will be available to people involved in this research. If you have questions, suggestions, or concerns at any time about the study or procedure, you may ask the researcher. Thank you very much for your participation.

Place of interview: _____

Interviewer Name: _____

Time (Start and End): _____

• Profile of the Key Informants

Gender: _____ Age: _____ Educational level: _____ Occupational Category: _

Position: _____ Duration of residence in the current neighbourhood: _____

Target respondents: Community leaders (including *Edir* leaders, women and youth representatives), neighborhood watch guards, private security guards, business owners

Questions

- **Questions on the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics of the community.**
 - How do you describe the overall living conditions of people in this neighborhood or community? (*Probing: in terms of basic household goods, dwelling quality, welfare assistance, average household size, residential mobility, homeownership*).
 - How do you describe the neighborhood you live in?
 - How do you evaluate the effectiveness of societal values and norms that regulate the conduct of individuals in the area you live?
- **Questions on types, prevalence and perceived victims and perpetrators of crime in Addis Ababa study.**
 - What are the most frequently occurring crime types that community members exposed to?
 - How do you describe your neighborhood in terms of crime problem?
 - What crimes have occurred within the community in the past year and how often
 - Who are the victims and perpetrators of crime are in the community?
 - Have you observed changes in crime types over time? (let's take the last five years as a frame). What do you think are the reasons for changes in crime type over time?
 - Within the past five years, does the volume of crime committed in your area increased or decreased? What do you think are the reasons for the increase or decrease?
 - What do you think are the major sources of crime in the area you live?
- **Questions on components of collective efficacy:- social cohesion and informal social control**
 - Base on your experience as a community member, how do you evaluate the cohesiveness of the residents living in your area?
 - How do you describe the helpfulness of residents in your neighborhood? Can you describe trust among residents of the neighbourhoods for instance to share confidential

- information or leave their child with neighbours? How do you evaluate your neighbors' willingness to work together for the common good?
- Can you identify aspects or occasions where people support each other in your neighborhood? For instance, if someone gets sick, can he count on his neighbors to bring him food or take him to the hospital? Give me more examples of mutual support experiences in your area.
 - Tell me how close-knit is your the neighborhood you are currently live in? What is the nature of trust among people? To what extent that people get along or friendly with each other? Please tell me whether residents share the same values for instance concerning upbringing children and the need for a safe and secure neighborhood?
 - What needs to be done to enhance trust among residents to address problems that influence common goals such as living in a safe and secured environment?
 - How do you evaluate the willingness of neighborhood residents to get together and deal with collective problems such as crime and disorder? Please provide instances of residents coming together to address community problems such as crime and safety issues.
 - What is the response of residents when a child disrespects an adult or seen at the wrong place at the wrong time (say out of school)?
 - In your area, would people intervene if suspicious persons are seen doing something illegal? What is the reaction of a resident when someone being beaten up in the streets?
 - What do you propose to improve the willingness of residents to intervene for a collective goal such as to reduce crime and build a safer neighborhood?
 - **Questions on trust in the police**
 - How do you describe the reactions or acceptance among the people to decisions made by legal authorities such as the police?
 - How do you evaluate the strength of the law and its agents to prevent crime and maintain order?

- What is the perception among the people whether courts guarantee a fair trial? For instance, if you were a victim of a robbery or assault, how much faith do you have that the judicial system to punish the guilty?
- Do residents turn to the police or call the police for assistance? How likely is that someone in this community would make a report to the police about the activities of individuals involved in criminal activities?
- Based on your experience as a community member, how effective are the police in preventing crime and maintaining order?
- What is the tendency among the people who take justice into their own hands to address grievances? Please explain this.
- Anything you would like to add?

Annex- 3: Focus Group Discussion Guide

Introduction

Thank you for taking your time voluntarily to this discussion. I am Medareshaw Tafesse, a Ph.D. student at Addis Ababa University, Department of Sociology. Currently, I am undertaking a data collection activity for my dissertation work. The title of my dissertation is “Neighbourhood Context and Crime Problem: Unpacking the Influence of Collective Efficacy and Trust in the Police in Selected Neighbourhoods of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.” Hence, the purpose of this FGD is to discuss major issues concerning the present study. Your active participation is greatly valued and I request your answer to be genuine. This discussion will be kept confidential and the information will be used for this research purpose ONLY. No reference will be made in the written reports that could link you to the study.

To use our time effectively, we set rules; one of which is the switching off of mobiles. Although some dialogues are allowed, interventions while some group participant presents his/her case, are prohibited.

Thank you very much for your participation

I. General issues

1. Setting/Neighborhood site_____
2. Date: _____
3. Place where the FGD conducted:_____
4. Time started: _____time ended _____ total hours use:_____
5. Number of the group discussants: Male: _____Female:_____ Total:_____
6. Type/representation of the group discussant _

II. Target Participants

- Mixed-gender and age group selected following inclusion criteria
- Knowledgeable residents of the study neighborhoods

III. Profile of the Group Discussants

Discussant Code	Age	Gender	Educational level	Marital status	Occupational category/Sources	Duration of residence in
P-1						
p-2						
P-3						
P-4						
P-5						
P-6						

Questions

1. Questions on the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics of the community.

- How do you describe the overall living conditions of people in this neighborhood or community? (*Probing: in terms of basic household goods, dwelling quality, welfare assistance, average household size, residential mobility, homeownership*).
- How do you evaluate the effectiveness of societal values and norms that regulate the conduct of individuals in the area you live? Compare the strength of societal values and norms that regulate the conduct of individuals over time?

2. Questions on crime types and trends in the study areas.

- How much a problem is people being robbed, assaulted and victimized by theft up on the streets, people being killed, and houses being burglarized?
- What are the most frequently occurring crime types in the neighborhood?
- Within the past five years, does the volume of crime in your area increased or decreased? What do you think are the reasons for the increase or decrease?
- What are the major root causes of crime in the area you currently working?

3. Questions on collective efficacy

- How do you describe the helpfulness of residents in your neighborhood? Can you describe trust among residents of the neighborhoods for instance to share confidential information or leave their child with neighbors?
- Would you identify aspects or occasions where people support each other in your neighborhood? For instance, if someone gets sick, does he could count on his neighbors to bring him food or take him to the hospital? Tell me more examples of mutual support experiences in your area.
- How do you evaluate the extent of people joining resources to address the crime problem?
- What needs to be done to enhance trust among residents to address problems that influence common goals such as living in a safe and secure environment?
- In your area, would people intervene if suspicious persons are seen doing something illegal?
- What do you propose to improve the willingness of residents to intervene for a collective goal such as to reduce crime and build a safer neighborhood?

4. Questions on trust towards the police

- How do you feel about the reactions or acceptance among the people to decisions made by legal authorities such as the police?
- How effective are the police in preventing crime and maintaining order in your neighborhood?
- How do you evaluate the responsiveness of agents of the criminal justice system, such as the police, to residents' needs and calls for assistance?

- How do you evaluate the tendency among residents to take justice into their own hands to address grievances? What does this imply to you?
- What should be done to improve citizens' acceptance of decisions by criminal justice institutions?
- Anything you would like to add?

Annex 4: Residents interview participants

	Age	Education	Gender	Occupation	Location	Subcity
1.	35	4 grade	Female	House lady	Sebategna	Addis
2.	41	11 grade	Male	Chat seller	Karamara area	Bole
3.	39	12+1	Male	Merchant	Gojjam Berenda	Addis Ketema
4.	26	Grade 8	Female	Coffee shop	Hayahulet Waka Jimat	Bole
5.	72	Grade 6	Male	Retired/Pensioner	Cherkos	Kirkos
6.	63	Grade 12 completed	Male	Shop owner	Hayahulet areas	Bole
7.	46	Grade 8	Male	Retail business	Gojjam	Addis
8.	34	10+1	Female	Shop owner	Autobis Tera	Addis Kirkos
9.	42	BA	Male	Fast food and Drink business owner	Gotera Condominium	Kirkos
10.	53	12	Male	Own business	Gotera Condominium	Kirkos
11.	34	BA	Female	Public employee	Gerji Condominium	Bole

12.	36	Diploma	Female	Beauty salon dresser	Sebara Babur area	Kirkos
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Annex 5: Police KII participants

	Rank	Gender	Service year	Position	Police station/jurisdiction
1	Commander	Male	21	Community Policing division Head	Addis Ababa Police Commission
2	Deputy Inspector	Female	16	Community Policing department head	Bole Sub-city
3	Inspector	Male	18	Community Policing department head	Addis Ketema Sub-city
4	Deputy Commander	Male	20	Community Policing department head	Kirkos Subcity

Annex 6: Police FGD Participant

	Rank	Gender	Service year	Position	Police station/jurisdiction
1	Deputy Inspectors	Male	17	Head of community policing office	Gojjam Berenda Community Policing Center
2	Sargent	Male	13	Community Policing officer	Autobis Tera Community Policing Center
3	Deputy Sargent	Male	11	Community policing officer	Karamara Police Station
4	Assistant Inspector	Female	15		Karamara Police Station
5	Chief Sergeant	Female	10	Community Policing officer	Gerji Area Community Policing Cneter
6	Inspector	Male	19	Community policing officer	Gottera Condominium Community Policing Station

