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# **The Nexus Between Urban Crime and Poverty: The Case of Addis Ababa City Administration**

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## **List of Acronyms**

ACRR	Annual Crime Rate Report
BOFED	Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
CCE	Criminal Code of Ethiopia
ECJP	Ethiopian Criminal Justice Policy
EFPA	Ethiopian Federal Prisons Administration
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic Ethiopia
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
JSRP	Justice System Reform Program
MAUP	Modifiable Area Unit Problem
MESs	Micro and Small Enterprises
RTD	Real Time Dispatch
IPL	International Poverty Line
IHDI	Inequality Adjusted Human Development Index
IFAD	The International Fund for Agricultural Development
UNODC	United Nations office on drug and crime
UNESC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

## ***Abstract***

*The objective of this study was to investigate the nexus between urban poverty and property crimes which were committed in Addis Ababa city. To calibrate the nexus between urban crime and poverty in the city of Addis Ababa, a descriptive cross sectional study was carried out in the 10 sub-cities of Addis Ababa. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative approach of data collection and analysis. Structured questionnaires and key informant interview guide were administered in data collection. 200(Two hundred) property crimes offenders were sampled using random sampling technique. Whereas, non- random technique were used for selecting 6 key interviewees. Secondary data from annual crime report, performance reports, police investigation files and different legislations were also used. Analysis was done using SPSS version 24. The findings characterizes the offender respondents as poor and commission of property crime was their coping strategy for survival. This was evident from findings of the study where the demographic characteristics of offenders characterized by the a household more than six mebers, 48%, more number of dependent age, 51%, and a house hold which was dominated by the unemployed family members 62.5%. Economically the majority of the offenders were unemployed, 77, with no profession, 83%, and no employable skill. And also 23 % were below TPL and 49.5% were vulnerable to poverty. The majority of the offenders living and social characteristics was the a same as a typical poor. Benefiting the young, unemployed, unskilled and unofficial migrant residents of the city and who are at the risk of committing a crime by urban poverty alleviation programs is the recommendation of this study.*

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# CHAPTER ONE

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## INTRODUCTION

### **1. Background**

Attempts to explain the relationship between crime and socio-economic conditions, particularly poverty, have remained at the heart of crime research and criminological inquiry. Consequently, many crime theories have explored the extent to which individual and group characteristics as well as the environment influence crime. To explain the possible association between poverty and crime, there are three general sets of theoretical explanations. The first theoretical explanation provides that discrimination and the lack of legitimate opportunities which limits poor people's access to legitimate societal resources and widely shared goals. This situation therefore forces poor people to access these resources and goals using illegitimate means, and thereby committing crime. The second theoretical explanation contends that lower social controls, particularly those associated with disadvantaged neighborhoods, with lower levels of collective efficacy; enhance risks of violence and aggressive behaviors. The third theoretical explanation argues that tendency of people of low socioeconomic status to participate in crime as a results of their socialization experiences leading them to have attitudes that are conducive to crime (Pare and Felson, 2014 cited by Owusu, 2016).

The first theoretical explanation, discrimination and the lack of legitimate opportunities, is the foundation of economic theory of crime. According to this theory , low or no income increases the tendency to commit crime since the probable cost of getting caught is relatively low because low-income individuals view their legitimate lifetime earnings prospects negatively and they may expect to lose relatively little earning potential by acquiring criminal records; furthermore, if legitimate earnings are low, the opportunity cost of time actually spent in delinquent activity, or in jail, is also low (Fleisher1966, 120 as cited by Metz Fajnzylber and et al,1998).

The second theoretical explanation, lower social control, relates to control theory which posits that crime occurs as a result of an imbalance between impulse towards criminal activity and the social or physical controls that deter it. It is less interested in individuals motivations for carrying out crimes ; rather ,it is assumed that people act rationally and that given the opportunity ,everyone would engage in deviant acts .Many types of crime are a result of situational decisions –a person sees an opportunity and is motivated to act (Giddens,2006).

The third theoretical explanation, socialization, is among sociological explanation of crime. Differential Association theory is one of such theories and it was explained that criminal behavior is learned .A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violations of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law (Lilly and et al, 2007).

Explanation of crime in terms of discrimination, lack of legitimate opportunities, lower social control and socialization is more appropriate for urban setting than rural one. The world's urban population could reach almost 5 billion people by 2030 and 4 billion of these urban dwellers will be residents of cities in developing world (UN, 2003). There are two factors for the fact that urban growth in the worlds lesser developed regions so much higher than in the developed regions. The first factor is the rates of population growth are higher in developing countries than they are in industrialized nations. Urban growth is fueled by high fertility rates among people who are already living in cities. The second factor is there is wide spread internal migration from rural areas to urban ones. People are drawn to cities in the developing world either because their traditional systems of rural production have disintegrated or because the urban areas offer superior job opportunities. Rural poverty promotes many people to try their hand at city life. They may intend to migrate to the city only for a relatively short time, aiming to return to their villages once they have earned money. Some actually do return, but most find themselves forced to stay having for one reason or another lost their position in their previous communities (Giddens, 2006).

Uncontrolled urbanization makes it difficult for local authorities to provide urban security and to supply basic social infrastructure health, education, water, and sewage disposal facilities. It adds that this leads to a situation where slums or shanty towns grow, overcome and swallow the already crumbling infrastructures of the urban nucleus, further compounding the challenges of security and crime ( Owusu, 2016 ).

In the case of Ethiopia, annual urban population growth stands at 3.75 % while that of annual rural population growth is 1.75% which is the negative consequence of uncontrolled over urbanization and high migration rate from rural to urban (UN, 2013). As a result, there is widespread poverty, high youth unemployment and poor social services in the urban centers. The Oxford Poverty and Human Development Index calculate the poverty rate in Ethiopia to be 90 percent, the third highest after Niger and South Sudan of the 104 developing countries covered (Alkire and et al 2016).

Poverty and crime reinforce each other in three ways. Firstly, the prevalence of crime in an area discourages business, hence contributing to poverty. Secondly, high crime areas may also attract criminals because they find it easier to elude detection or because these areas constitute focal points for customers of illegal goods and services. Thirdly, individuals with a high predisposition for crime are likely to have unobservable traits (e.g., lack of discipline) that make them less employable and thus would make them poorer even if they did not resort to crime ( Fajnzylber and et al, 2002).

In the city of Addis Ababa, which is the focus of this study, there is high poverty level, high unemployment rate, inequality, pouring of migrants from the four corners of the country and poor social services .According to Ethiopian Federal Police Commission 2015/16 Annual Crime Rate Report (ACRR), Addis Ababa is only second to the Oromia National Regional State in terms of the number of crimes committed annually. Crime costs the society its life, property and person. And hence, it is essential to explain the nexus between the high crime rate and poverty in the city of Addis Ababa.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Criminal activity is characterized by several striking empirical features. It is subject to considerable temporal variation, it is geographically concentrated, and it exhibits wide dispersion across communities that possess ostensibly identical economic characteristics. Less affluent cities are disproportionately afflicted: in particular those characterized by chronic poverty, a poorly educated workforce and limited access to employment opportunities (Huang and et al, 2003).

There is a high crime rate in the cities of developing countries which are known for their high rate of rural to urban migration, high youth unemployment rate, extreme poverty, high inequality and poor social services. The case of Ethiopian capital, Addis Ababa, is not different. According to Ethiopian Federal Police Commission 2016 ACRR, Addis Ababa is only second to the Oromia National Regional State in terms of crimes committed annually. In the same budget year, the Addis Ababa City Administration Police Commission reported that 47,890 crimes have been registered. Property crimes of theft, robbery, fraud and breach of trust were the most frequently committed crimes (ACRR, 2016).

Other studies which were conducted in the setting of urban areas have shown a strong positive correlation between urban poverty and crime (Meti, 2016; Joseph and et al, 2014; Ngutu, 2014). Previous researches on the nexus between urban poverty and property crimes also affirmed that property crimes like theft were committed to get an income illegally which was impossible through legal means (Meti, 2016). The exposure of the youth to poverty and unemployment caused the deprivation of self worth and good relation among the society. And hence the youth commit property crimes like theft and robbery (Selamawit, 2014).

Given the negative impact it has on the socioeconomic development of the city, many researchers have studied the relation between poverty and crime. The study which was conducted by Meti (2016) mainly focused on the socioeconomic status of the offenders in general and recommended the better treatment of inmates who were serving their sentence at Kality Federal Correctional Administration. There was not a separate comprehensive analysis of the nexus between poverty and crime. The study was a qualitative research which conducted by interviewing 15 inmates only which raises the question of representativeness of the sample. The research conducted by Selamawit (2014) did not analyze the nexus between urban poverty and crime comprehensively. In a research entitled “Trends and Types of Crime in Addis Ababa” which was conducted by Nega in 2011 studied changes in the trends of crime and the social pattern of criminality. Issues of urbanization, demography and social class were analyzed by relating with crime (Nega, 2011).

There is clear evidence that well-planned crime prevention strategies not only prevent crime and victimization, but also promote community safety and contribute to the sustainable development of countries. Effective, responsible crime prevention enhances the quality of life of all citizens. It has long-term benefits in terms of reducing the costs associated with the formal criminal justice system, as well as other social costs that result from crime. Crime

prevention offers opportunities for a humane and more cost-effective approach to the problems of crime (UNESCO, 2002). Even though the Criminal Justice Policy was adopted in 2011, there is no crime prevention strategy which would materialize the objectives and goals of the policy effectively in coordinated manner. The policy is being implemented without a strategy for 7 years though the policy clearly requires the adoption of a Crime Prevention Strategy.

The relation between socioeconomic status of the offenders and crimes which were committed in Addis Ababa city has got the attention of researchers and positive correlation was proved to be existing. However, the nexus between urban poverty and property crimes were not treated separately and comprehensively. The 2011 Ethiopian Criminal Justice Policy (CJP) at number 1.4(d) clearly stipulates that studies on the causes of crime are the bases of crime prevention strategy (ECJP, 2011). Therefore, in line with the requirement of the policy, the researcher attempted to investigate the nexus between urban poverty and property crimes which are enacted under the 2004 the Criminal Code of Ethiopia (CCE) in greater depth and comprehensively.

### **1.3. Basic Research Questions**

The basic research questions of the study are the following:

- ❖ What is the socioeconomic status of persons convicted of property crimes and serving their sentences in the police stations of the 10 sub-cities of Addis Ababa?
- ❖ How does urban poverty influence offenders to commit property crimes in Addis Ababa City Administration?
- ❖ What are the policy impediments which contributed for the commission of property crimes in Addis Ababa City Administration?
- ❖ What are the policy options available for the policy makers to deal with urban property crimes ?

### **1.4. Objectives of the study**

#### **1.4.1. General objective**

- ❖ The general objective of the study is to investigate the nexus between urban poverty and property crimes which were committed in Addis Ababa city

### **1.4.2. Specific objectives**

- ❖ Assessing the socioeconomic status of persons convicted of property crimes and serving their sentences in the police stations of the 10 sub-cities of Addis Ababa
- ❖ Explaining the influence of urban poverty on offenders to commit property crimes in Addis Ababa City Administration
- ❖ Identifying the policy impediments which contributed for the commission of the property crimes
- ❖ To suggest policy options that might resolve urban property crimes

## **1.5. Methodology**

### **1.5.1 Description of the Selected Study Area**

Addis Ababa is not only the capital city of Ethiopia; it is a seat for many international and regional organizations. It is not only diplomatic hub, but also the economic and political center of the country. According to its profile prepared by Bureau of Finance and Economic Development (BOFED) in 2013, Addis Ababa lies 9°1'48"N latitude and 38°44'24"E longitude. The city is located at the heart of the country, at an altitude ranging from 2,100 meters at Akaki in the south to 3,000(9,800ft) meters at Entoto Hill in the North. This makes Addis Ababa the third highest city in the world, after La Paz and Quito in Latin America. Its time zone is categorized in East Africa Time (UTC+3). The city occupies a total area of 540 Sq.Km<sup>2</sup> (BOFED, 2013). The Addis Ababa City Charter, Proclamation 361/2003, organized the city into 10 sub-cities and 114 *woredas* (districts).

### **1.5.2 Research Design and Methodology**

The objective of this research is to investigate intensively the nexus and correlation between urban crime and poverty in Addis Ababa city administration. To examine the nexus, an explanatory cross-sectional design was used since it is suitable to explain the relationship between variables at a certain time in greater depth. In order to achieve the objectives of study, both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were executed.

### **1.5.3 The Study Population**

One of the reforms introduced by the Federal Democratic Republic Ethiopia (FDRE) Criminal Justice Policy is the adoption of the Real Time Dispatch (RTD) prosecution. According to provision number 4.3.4.2 of the policy, RTD justice system is applied to cases of flagrant offences in which the evidences are clear and simple. It is the power of the public prosecutor to prosecute or otherwise in the RTD bench as per the policy.

RTD benches are those criminal benches organized for the sole purpose of entertaining criminal cases of flagrant offences and other crimes in which the offender is under police control. Prosecution through RTD bench was mainly designed to expedite the criminal proceedings and reduce the cost and time of witnesses. The benches are organized in the Federal First Instance and High courts .There is one First RTD bench in each sub city's federal court bench. Whereas, there are only 5 federal high courts in Addis Ababa as a whole and each has its own RTD bench. Most of the offenders who are being prosecuted in RTD bench stay at the police stations of the 10 sub-cities of Addis Ababa until the disposition of the case. Although there are from five to eight jails within the sub-cities, each sub-city confines the arrestee at one central police station for the purpose of security, better service and ease of management. After the disposition of the case, the arrestees would be transferred to the federal prisons to serve their sentences. The study population of this study was offenders who were convicted of property crimes in the Real Time Dispatch (RTD) bench and held at the central police station of the 10 sub-cities.

### **1.5.4 Sampling Techniques of the Study**

According to the 2015/2016 ACRR crime report of the Addis Ababa City Administration Police Commission, 47,890 crimes were committed in Addis Ababa city in last Ethiopian budget year. Theft ,robbery ,fraud and breach of trust , which are property crimes as defined by the 2004 Federal Criminal Code, taken in aggregated were the top most frequently committed crime with 34% or 16284 of the total number of crime committed in the 2015/16 (2008E.C )Ethiopian Fiscal Year. Theft accounts for 56%, robbery accounts for 12%, fraud accounts for 21% and breach of trust accounts for 11% of the total property crimes committed. Therefore, convicts of these crimes were selected for the analysis.

As part of the Justice System Reform Program (JSRP) , the Criminal Justice System Sub – Program has gone through a number of reforms. Among such reforms was the introduction of

the RTD prosecution. The RTD prosecution is still operational with its own drawbacks. Most importantly, the establishment of the Federal Attorney General by proclamation number 980/2008 last year was the summit of the reforms. The Attorney General centralizes all prosecution powers including corruption crimes, tax and customs crimes in addition to its former prosecution jurisdiction. As per 6 months performance report of the Attorney General, there were 1247 offenders were convicted of property crimes. For descriptive research typically it is recommended that one should select 10-20 per cent of the accessible population for the sample (Sing, 2006). For this study 16 % of the population, 200, was determined as a sample size.

Proportional stratified random sampling was employed and the population of the study was divided into four strata by taking property of crimes of theft, robbery, fraud and breach of trust as a separate strata. Then further consideration was given for the place in which the crimes were committed and the offenders prosecuted which are most often the same. The offenders were further put into second strata of the 10 sub-cities and 20 offenders were selected from each sub- cities. The register of the offenders in each sub city police station was used as a sampling frame. Then, from each stratum, convicted offenders of property crimes were selected randomly based on the proportions of the four property crimes. Table 1.1 below describes the sampling size from each stratum.

**Table 1.1 Sample respondent offenders disaggregated by type of crime and place**

Sub-city	Type of Crime convicted				Total
	Theft	Robbery	Fraud	Breach of Trust	
Addis Ketema	11	3	4	2	20
Akaki-Kality	11	3	4	2	20
Arada	11	3	4	2	20
Bole	11	3	4	2	20
Gulelle	11	3	4	2	20
Kolfe-Keranyo	11	3	4	2	20
Kirkos	11	3	4	2	20
Lideta	11	3	4	2	20
Nifas Silk Laphto	11	3	4	2	20
Yeka	11	3	4	2	20
<b>Total</b>	110	30	40	20	200

Source: own survey, 2017

## 1.6. Data Collection Process

### 1.6.1 Sources and Types of Data

All necessary primary data was collected from offenders who had been convicted of property crimes and arrested at the police stations of the sub cities by means of structured questionnaire (see appendix 1). Key informant interviews were held with 1 federal first instance judge, 1 federal high court judge, 2 public prosecutors from the Federal Attorney General, 2 police officers from Addis Ababa Commission and one officer from Addis Ababa Labor and social Affairs bureau were held with the instrumentality of interview guide (see appendix 2). And both quantitative and qualitative data were collected with an outmost care.

### 1.6.2 Data Analysis Methods

The primary data were analyzed quantitatively by using the latest version 24 of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). And descriptive statistics was generated. Descriptive analysis was done for each variable in the study by running frequencies, percentage and cross

tabulation. Results are presented thorough graphical techniques to depict the picture of magnitude and relationships of various study variables. Cross tabulation was used to determine the significant of association between independent variables.

### **1.7. Significance of the study**

The Ethiopian Criminal Justice Policy (ECJP) at number 1.4(d) clearly stipulates that studies on the causes of crime are the bases of crime prevention strategy (ECP, 2011). And also it was proclaimed at article 1 of the Ethiopian Criminal Code (CCE) that prevention is the basic objective of the CCE. Understanding the nexus between urban crime and poverty will help for the prevention of crime by identifying potential offenders, structural impediments, gaps in the policy and legal frameworks in Addis Ababa city and to identify the necessary policy intervention. The findings of this study could be used as an input for the Crime Prevention Strategy which has not been adopted yet.

### **1.8 Scope of the Study**

The study is limited to crimes which was committed in Addis Ababa City Administration. And only those crimes which are categorized as property crimes under the 2004 CCE are included. Specifically, property crimes of theft, robbery, fraud and breach of trust are the subjects this research .Other crimes in the code and other proclamations are excluded.

### **1.9 Limitation of the Study**

The shortage of time for data collection was the most compelling limitation. The long chain of command to get access to the offenders was another significant challenge.

### **1.10 Organization of the Thesis**

This study is organized into four chapters. The first chapter is the introductory part of the study, which comprises of background of the study, the statement of the problem, general and specific objectives, research questions, significance, scope, limitation of the study, and organization of the thesis. The second Chapter deals with the review of relevant literature and the development of conceptual framework. The third chapter deals with data presentation and analysis. Chapter four deals the summary of findings, conclusions and a set of recommendations.

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## CHAPTER TWO

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### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2. Literature Review: Theoretical Framework

##### 2.1. Crime

##### 2.1.1 Crime Defined

Crime is a prominent issue in any society since it retards economic growth of a country as well as threatening the security in a society. Hence, governments have the jurisdiction in defining it with the main aim of apprehending the perpetrators. From the criminologist's point of view, crime is a violation of criminal laws of a state (Schmalleger,2009, as cited by Rwizi ,2015). Hence, crime is unique since it depends on the constitution of a country(Ibid).

Crime is not the same concept as deviance even though they overlap in most cases. Deviance may be defined as non-conformity to a given set of norms that are accepted by a significant number of people in a community or society. It has much broader concept than crime, which refers only to non-conformist conduct that breaks law. Many forms of deviant behavior are not sanctioned by law ( Giddens, 2006).

Crime could be categorized into types and the list is not exhaustive since new types of crime crop up as society changes. Based on the nature of the act crime can be classified as visible crime, occupational, organized crimes, Cybercrime ,Victimless crimes and Political crime. Property Crimes, which are the subject of this study, includes shoplifting, embezzlement and burglary are under the category of visible crimes (Cole, Smith and Jong, 2012, as cited by Rwizi , 2015).

### **2.1.2 Definition and Categorization of crime under FDRE Criminal Code**

This definition of crime provided by the 2004 Criminal Code of Ethiopia (CCE) is the working definition of crime in this study. The CCE at Article 23(1) defines crime as:

*“An act which is prohibited and made punishable by law. An act consists of the commission of what is prohibited or the omission of what is prescribed by law.”(Article 23 of the 2004 CCE)*

Generally crimes could be categorized based on seriousness or subject matter. The 2004 CCE categorize crimes based on the subject matter of the crime into eight broad groups and namely: Crimes against state, national or international interests, crimes against the public interest or the community, Crimes against the Public Interests or the Community, crimes against Crimes against the individuals and the Family, Crimes against property and Petty offences .Under crimes against property Theft, art.665, Robbery, Art. 670, Breach of Trust, Art.675, and Fraudulent Misrepresentation, art.692, are among the crimes which are classified as property crimes. These four crimes have a common element of the intention of unlawful enrichment in their definition which justifies their classification under property crime (CCE, 2004). In this study property crime refers to the above four property crimes and they are defined by the CCE as follows:

#### **Theft (Article 665(1))**

*Whoever, with intent to obtain for himself or to procure for another an unlawful enrichment, abstracts a movable or a thing detached from an immovable, the property of another, whether by taking and carrying or by direct appropriation, or by having it pass indirectly to his own property, is punishable according to the circumstances of the case, with simple imprisonment, or with rigorous imprisonment not exceeding five years.*

#### **Robbery (Article 670)**

*Whoever, with intent to obtain for himself or to procure for another an unlawful enrichment, and with a view to facilitate the abstraction of a movable object, the property of another, or to render useless any resistance offered during or after the act of abstraction, uses violence or grave intimidation towards a person or otherwise renders this person: incapable of resisting, is punishable with Rigorous imprisonment not exceeding fifteen years.*

### **Breach of trust 675(1)**

*Whoever, with intent to obtain for himself or to procure for a third person an unjustifiable enrichment, appropriates, or procures for another, takes or causes to be taken, misappropriates, uses to his own benefit or that of a third person, or disposes of for any similar act, in whole or in part, a thing or a sum of money which is the property of another and which has been delivered to him in trust or for a specific purpose, is punishable, according to the circumstances of the case, with simple imprisonment, or with rigorous imprisonment not exceeding five years.*

### **Article 692: Fraudulent Misrepresentation**

*Whoever, with intent to obtain for himself or to procure for a third person an unlawful enrichment, fraudulently causes a person to act in a manner prejudicial to his rights in property, or those of a third person, whether such acts are of commission or omission, either by misleading statements, or by misrepresenting his 'status Or situation or by concealing facts which he had a duty to reveal, or by taking advantage of the person's erroneous beliefs, is punishable with simple imprisonment, or, according to the gravity of the case, with rigorous imprisonment not exceeding five years, and fine.*

The common element in the above definition of property crimes is that the intent to get an unlawful enrichment. This means that the benefits from the commission of property crimes is financial or economic at the end of the day.

#### **2.1.3. Causes of crime**

What are the causes of a crime? There are many theories which are formulated by different scholars from different perspectives. Unlike biological and psychological theories which attribute criminality to biological and personality determinants, respectively, the sociological and economic theories of crime attribute criminality to the social and economic conditions of the criminal. Strain theory, sub cultural theory, opportunity and social disorganization theory are among sociological theories which reject individualism and relate crime to social structures and interaction. Economic theories threats criminal as a rational being who weighs cost and benefit before the commission of a crime. These theories of sociology and economics will be discussed in this section since they explain crime in terms of socioeconomic problems including urban poverty.

## **2.1.4 Sociological Theories**

### **2.1.4.1. Strain Theory and Sub-cultural explanations**

Functionalist theorists see crime resulting from structural tensions and lack of moral regulation within society. If aspirations held by individuals and groups in society do not coincide with available rewards, this disparity between desires and fulfillment will be felt in the deviant motivations of some of its members (Giddens, 2006). Strain theory which was formulated by Robert K. Merton and Sub-cultural Explanations which are the extension of strain theory are among functionalist theories.

Merton (1968) observed that when the social structure limits access to the goal of success through legitimate means (e.g. college education, corporate employment, family connections), members of the lower class are particularly burdened because they start far behind in the race for success and must be exceptionally talented or fortunate to catch up. The disjunction between what the culture extols (universal striving for success) and what the social structure makes possible (limited legitimate opportunities), therefore, places large segments of the population in the strain-engendering position of desiring a goal that they cannot reach through conventional means. This situation is not without important social consequences: It “Produces intense pressure for deviation” (Merton, 1968, P.199, as cited by Lilly and et al, 2007).

Merton (1957, 1968) delineated four deviant modes of adaptation (*innovation, retreatism, ritualism, rebellion*). He believed that much criminal behavior could be categorized as *innovation* because this adaptation encompasses those who continue to embrace pecuniary success as a worthy end but turn to illegitimate means when they find their legitimate prospects for economic gain blocked. The behavior of the robber barons, white-collar criminals, and scientists who report discoveries based on fraudulent research are examples of how the intense desire for success can produce innovation among the more affluent. Even so, this adaptation appears to be prevalent in the lower strata. Faced with the “absence of realistic opportunities for advancement,” the disadvantage are especially vulnerable to the “promises of power and high income from organized vice, and crime” (Merton, 1968, Pp. 199, as cited by Lilly and et al, 2007). The economic blockade, discrimination and inequality are much deep and higher for the poor who have less social and economic capitals. As a result they are more probable to commit property crimes to immediate financial gain and fulfill their dreams.

Merton's writings addressed one of the main puzzles in the study of criminology: at time when society as a whole is becoming more affluent, why do crime rates continue to rise? By emphasizing the contrast between rising aspirations and persistent inequalities Merton points to a sense of relative deprivation as an important element in deviant behavior (Giddens, 2006).

Sub-cultural explanations of crime emphasized collective response through Subcultures for the tensions between values and means unlike Merton who emphasized individual response. In *Delinquent Boys* (1955), Cohen argued that in the lower working class who are frustrated with their positions in life often join together in Delinquent Subcultures, such as gangs. These Subcultures reject middle – class values and replace them with norms that celebrate defiance, such delinquency and other acts of non-conformity (Ibid).

Strain theory and Sub-cultural Explanations have wider policy implications. If denial of opportunity generates criminogenic strains, then logic demands that the solution to crime lies in expanding opportunities. Most broadly ,therefore ,strain theory justifies ,programs rat attempt to provide the disadvantaged with educational resource (e.g. ,Head Start), job training , and equal access to occupations .The perspective also would support efforts to introduce rehabilitation programs that allow offenders to earn educational digress and acquire marketable employment skills (Lilly and et al, 2007).

#### **2.1.4.2 The Chicago School and Differential Association Theory**

As cities grow, it was held so, there would be a progressive and largely spontaneous differentiation of space, population and function that concentrated different groupings in different areas. The main organizing was zone , and the Chicago sociologists discerned five concentric zone shaping the city :The central business district at the very core ,the “Zone in transition” about the center, an area of stable working- class housing ,middle-class housing ; and the outer suburbia the “Zone in transition ” was marked by the greatest volatility of its residents .It is an area of relatively cheap rents ,weak social control ,internal social differentiation ,and rapid physical change .It was to the “Zone in transition ” that new immigrant groupings most frequently came, and it was there that they settled into what were called ‘natural areas ’,small communal enclaves that were relatively homogenous in composition and culture. Chicago sociologists plotted the incidence of social problems into census map of the city, and it was the “Zone in transition” that was found repeatedly to house

the largest proportions of the poor , the illegitimate , the illiterate ,the mentally ill , juvenile delinquents (Rock,2009).

Differential Association theory which was fully developed by Edwin Sutherland in 1947 contended that criminal behavior is learned .A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violations of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law. Much like other Chicago school scholars, he noted that, especially in the inner city areas there was culture conflict between the criminal and the conventional for the allegiance of the residents (Lilly and et al, 2007).

#### **2.1.4.3 Control Theories**

Control theory posits that crime occurs a result of an imbalance between impulse towards criminal activity and the social or physical controls that deter it. It is less interested in individuals motivations for carrying out crimes ; rather ,it is assumed that people act rationally and that given the opportunity ,everyone would engage in deviant acts .Many types of crime are a result of situational decisions –a person sees an opportunity and is motivated to act (Giddens,2006)

#### **2.1.5 Economic Theory of Crime**

The theoretical and empirical literature has considered the role of three types of economic conditions in determining the incidence of criminal activity, namely the average income of the communities involved ,the pattern of income distribution, and the level of education (Fajnzylber and etal,1998).According to Becker’s economic theory of crime , the relative benefits of committing a crime are greater in communities with greater income inequality compared with those with even income distribution. Thus, as the benefit of crime increase, holding all else equal, the level of crime increases (Metz and Burdina, 2016).

Fleisher (1966) was a pioneer in studying the role of income on the decision to commit criminal acts by individuals, and stated that the "principal theoretical reason for believing that low income increases the tendency to commit crime is that the probable cost of getting caught is relatively low because [low-income individuals] view their legitimate lifetime earnings prospects dimly they may expect to lose relatively little earning potential by acquiring criminal records; furthermore, if legitimate earnings are low, the opportunity cost of time actually spent in delinquent activity, or in jail, is also low" (Fleisher1966, 120 as cited by

Metz Fajnzylber and et al,1998). However, the level of legal income expected by an individual is not the only relevant 'income' factor; the income level of potential victims also matters. The higher the level of income of potential victims, the higher the incentive to commit crimes, especially crimes against property. Thus, according to Fleisher (1966, 121), "average income has two conceptual influences on delinquency which operate in opposite directions, although they are not necessarily equal in strength" (Fleisher 1966, 120 as cited by Fajnzylber and et al, 1998).

Together with the relationship between economic conditions and crime, one of the main issues in the pioneering studies of Becker (1968) and Ehrlich (1973, 1975b, 1981) was the assessment of the effects of police presence, convictions, and the severity of punishments on the level of criminal activity. Individuals who are considering whether to commit crimes are assumed to evaluate both the risk of being caught and the associated punishment. The empirical evidence from the United States confirmed that both factors have a negative effect on crime rates (Fajnzylber and et al, 1998). The policy implication of the economic theory of crime is then on deterrence of potential criminals by making the commission of a crime costly.

## **2.2 Poverty**

### **2.2.1 Defining Poverty**

Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being. But what precisely is deprivation? The voices of poor people bear eloquent testimony to its meaning. To be poor is to be hungry, to lack shelter and clothing, to be sick and not cared for, to be illiterate and not schooled. But for poor people, living in poverty is more than this. Poor people are particularly vulnerable to adverse events outside their control. They are often excluded from voice and power in those institutions and excluded from voice and power in those institutions (World Bank, 2000).

On its part, UNDP defined poverty in terms of human development. Since its launch in 1990 the Human Development Report has defined human development as the process of enlarging people's choices. The most critical ones are to lead a long and healthy life, to be educated and to enjoy a decent standard of living. Additional choices include political freedom, other guaranteed human rights and various ingredients of self respect-including what Adam Smith called the ability to mix with others without being "ashamed to appear in public". These are among the essential choices, the absence of which can block many other opportunities. Human development is thus a process of widening people's choices as well as raising the level

of wellbeing achieved. If human development is about enlarging choice poverty means that opportunities and choices most basic to human development are denied-to lead a long, healthy, creative life and to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity self respect and the respect of others (UNDP,1997).

The above two definitions departed from the traditional view which sees poverty only in monetary terms. Although income focuses on an important dimension of poverty, it gives only a partial picture of the many ways human lives can be blighted. Someone can enjoy good health and live quite long but be illiterate and thus cut off from learning, from communication and from interactions with others. Another person may be literate and quite well educated but prone to premature death because of epidemiological characteristics or physical disposition. Yet a third may be excluded from participating in the important decision making processes affecting her life. The deprivation of none of them can be fully captured by the level of their income (Ibid).

The multidimensional approach to poverty is to ask whether people are able to obtain a specific type of consumption good: Do they have enough food? Or shelter? Or health care? Or education?

In this view the analyst goes beyond the more traditional monetary measures of poverty: Nutritional poverty might be measured by examining whether children are stunted or wasted; and educational poverty might be measured by asking whether people are literate or how much formal schooling they have received (Haughton and Khandker, 2009).

Similar to the World Bank and UNDP, the Ethiopian government follows the multidimensional approach to define poverty. It defines poverty as a pronounced deprivation in well-being. Lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities, lack of access to education and other basic services, and vulnerability to adverse shock are the main causes of poverty (MoFED ,2013).This study adopts the multidimensional approach to poverty.

### **2.2.2. Poverty and other related concepts**

Poverty is closely related to inequality and vulnerability but not the same as the two concepts.

#### **2.2.2.1 Inequality**

Inequality is a broader concept than poverty in that it is defined over the entire population, not just for the portion of the population below a certain poverty line. It focuses

on the distribution of attributes, such as income or consumption, across the whole population. In the context of poverty analysis, inequality requires examination if one believes that the welfare of individuals depends on their economic position relative to others in society (Haughton and Khandker, 2009).

Inequality gives a clear and full picture of the quality of life in a country. To begin to understand what life is like in a country to know, for example, how many of its inhabitants are poor it is not enough to know that country's per capita income. The number of poor people in a country and the average quality of life also depend on how equally or unequally income is distributed (P. Soubotina, 2004).

To measure income inequality in a country and compare this phenomenon among countries more accurately, economists use Lorenz curves and Gini indexes. A Lorenz curve plots the cumulative percentages of total income received against the cumulative percentages of recipients, starting with the poorest individual or household. The deeper a country's Lorenz curve, the less equal its income distribution (Ibid).

Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI) was introduced in 2010 by the UNDP. It is a measure of the average level of human development of people in a society once inequality is taken into account. It captures the HDI of the average person in society, which is less than the aggregate HDI when there is inequality in the distribution of health, education and income. Under perfect equality, the HDI and IHDI are equal; the greater the difference between the two, the greater the inequality (UNDP, 2010). IHDI takes into account inequality in all three dimensions of the HDI by 'discounting' each dimension's average value according to its level of inequality. The IHDI is basically the HDI discounted for inequalities. The 'loss' in human development due to inequality is given by the difference between the HDI and the IHDI, and can be expressed as a percentage. As the inequality in a country increases, the loss in human development also increases (HDR ET, 2015).

Table 2.1 **Inequality in Ethiopia and other African Countries**

Country	IHDI Value	Overall Loss (%)	Human Inequality Coefficient	Inequality in life expectancy at birth (%)	Inequality in Education (%)	Inequality in income (%)
Ethiopia	.312	29.4	28.0	30.2	44.3	9.5
Rwanda	.330	31.6	31.6	30.2	29.4	35.2
Uganda	.337	30.2	30.2	33.8	29.4	27.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	.345	33.3	33.1	36.6	35.3	27.5
Low HDI	.343	32.0	31.7	35.0	37.9	22.0

Source: Human Development Report Ethiopia, 2015

#### **2.2.2.2 Vulnerability**

The other concept related to but different from poverty is vulnerability it is *Vulnerability* is defined as the risk of falling into poverty in the future, even if the person is not necessarily poor now; it is often associated with the effects of “shocks” such as a drought, a drop in farm prices, or a financial crisis. Vulnerability is a key dimension of well-being since it affects individuals’ behavior in terms of investment, production patterns, and coping strategies, and in terms of the perceptions of their own situations (Haughton and Khandker, 2009).

‘Vulnerability’ describes the reduced ability of some communities or households to cope with the events and stresses to which they are exposed. Such stresses can equally well be an ‘everyday disaster’ such as a death in the family, sickness, a robbery, an eviction, or the loss of a job or a crop, or a major event such as a drought or a conflict that affects the whole community. Both types of event can tip poor families over the edge into a downward spiral of increasing vulnerability and poverty. The risk that a poor individual or household faces can be understood as a simple formula:  $risk = hazard \times vulnerability$ . Risk can be the result either of extreme vulnerability to comparably minor events, or of a massive shock that sweeps even well-defended families before it (Sen, 2008).

Vulnerability characterizes poverty even though it is different from poverty. Sen (2008) explained that whether in cities or rural areas, in normal times juggling risk is a large part of what it means to be poor. Families are adept at diversifying their dependence: in rural areas,

they send young adults off to work in the city, grow multiple crops in different areas, sell and buy livestock to smooth their income, or collect and sell wild products. In the cities, they hustle a living in the informal economy, working as street vendors, maids, in construction, or recycling rubbish. If these strategies fail, they resort to more drastic measures that in effect mortgage the future, pulling children out of school, eating fewer meals, or selling off vital assets, even when this reduces future earning power (Ibid).

### **2.2.3 Types of poverty**

#### **2.2.3.1. Absolute Versus Relative Poverty**

The poor could be placed into three categories based on the degree of deprivation. Extreme poverty means that households cannot meet basic needs for survival. They are chronically hungry, unable to access health care, lack the amenities of safe drinking water and sanitation, cannot afford education for some or all of the children, and perhaps lack rudimentary shelter—a roof to keep the rain out of the hut, a chimney to remove the smoke from the cook stove—and basic articles of clothing, such as shoes. Unlike moderate and relative poverty, extreme poverty occurs only in developing countries. Moderate poverty generally refers to conditions of life in which basic needs are met, but just barely. Relative poverty is generally construed as a household income level below a given proportion of average national income. The relatively poor, in high-income countries, lack access to cultural goods, entertainment, recreation, and to quality health care, education, and other perquisites for upward social mobility (Sachs, 2005).

The World Bank by accepting the recommendation of the Commission on Global Poverty, it sets anew poverty line. The Bank on October 18, 2016 announced that:

*“Recommendation 1 calls for the extreme poverty line to be cited as “the International Poverty Line (IPL)”, and expressed in each country in terms of its local currency. We agree, and feel that this will help eliminate a recurrent past problem, which arose when journalists or others converted the IPL to national currencies using market (rather than PPP) exchange rates, hence providing an inaccurate description of the line in local currency units. Because we anticipate that people will continue to ask why the line is set at, say, a particular value in Naira per person per day, we envisage reference to its US dollar value (of \$1.90) in 2011, at 2011 PPPs, will continue to be needed as ancillary explanation”*(World Bank ,2016).

Therefore, poor people who have a daily income below the International Poverty Line (IPL) will be categorized as extremely poor. Knowing the exact number of people would help a lot for the appropriate policy intervention. Ashenafi asserted that identifying the poor as those with income (or expenditures) below a given line brings clarity and focus to policy making and analysis. Having a poverty line allows experts to count the poor, target resources, and monitor progress against a clear benchmark. Communicating the extent of poverty becomes easier, and explaining the notion of deprivation simpler (Ashenafi, 2008).

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 25 September 2015 and ending poverty in all its forms everywhere is Goal 1 of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2015). The UN disclosed that in 2015, 10 per cent of the world's workers and their families were living on less than 1.90 US dollars per person per day, down from 28 per cent in 2000. And young people aged 15 to 24 are most likely to be among the working poor: 16 per cent of all employed youth were living below the poverty line in 2015, compared to 9 per cent of working adults(UN,2016).

#### **2.2.3.2 Urban versus Rural Poverty**

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) reported that, poverty rates in rural areas still stand well above those in urban areas in most regions of the world (IFAD, 2016 Report). This is the manifestation of properly managed urbanization results in the reduction of poverty. Highly urbanized countries are associated with low levels of poverty. Urbanization has helped millions escape poverty through higher levels of productivity, employment opportunities, improved quality of life via better education and health, large-scale public investment, and access to improved infrastructure and services. If cities are not properly managed, cities keep sprawling, slums are expanding or consolidating, there is increasing poverty and sometimes inequality and cities can be very expensive for new migrants (HABITAT, 2016).

#### **2.2.4. Measurement of Poverty**

Defining an indicator of welfare, establishing a minimum acceptable standard of that indicator to separate the poor from the non-poor (the poverty line) and generating a summary statistic to aggregate the information from the distribution of this welfare indicator relative to the poverty line are the three steps which must be take taken in measuring poverty (Haughton

and Khandke, 2009). Accordingly, different measures of poverty have been devised to measure poverty based different indicators.

Measuring poverty has a number importance for the development actors. It permits an over view of poverty that goes beyond individual experiences. It aids the formulation and testing of hypotheses on the causes of poverty it presents an aggregate view of poverty over time. And it enables a government, or the international community, to set itself measurable targets for judging actions (World Bank, 2001).

#### **2.2.4.1 Monetary measure of poverty using income or expenditure**

A key building block in developing income and consumption measures of poverty is the poverty line-the critical cutoff in income or consumption below which an individual or household is determined to be poor. The internationally comparable lines are useful for producing global aggregates of poverty in principle they test for the ability to purchase a basket of commodities that is roughly similar across the world. But such a universal line is generally not suitable for the analysis of poverty within a country. For that purpose, a country- specific poverty line needs to be constructed, reflecting the country's economic and social circumstances. Similarly, the poverty line may need to be adjusted for different areas (such as urban and rural) within the country if prices or access to goods and services differs. The construction of the construction of country profiles based on these country-specific poverty lines is now common practice (Ibid).

#### **2.2.4.2 The headcount index (P0)**

It measures the proportion of the population that is poor. It is popular because it is easy to understand and measure. But it does not indicate how poor the poor are (Haughton and Khandke, 2009).

#### **2.4.4.3The poverty gap index (P1)**

It measures the extent to which individuals fall below the poverty line (the poverty gaps) as a proportion of the poverty line. The sum of these poverty gaps gives the minimum cost of eliminating poverty, if transfers were perfectly targeted. The measure does not reflect changes in inequality among the poor (Ibid).

#### **2.2.4.4 Squared Poverty Gap (Poverty Severity) Index**

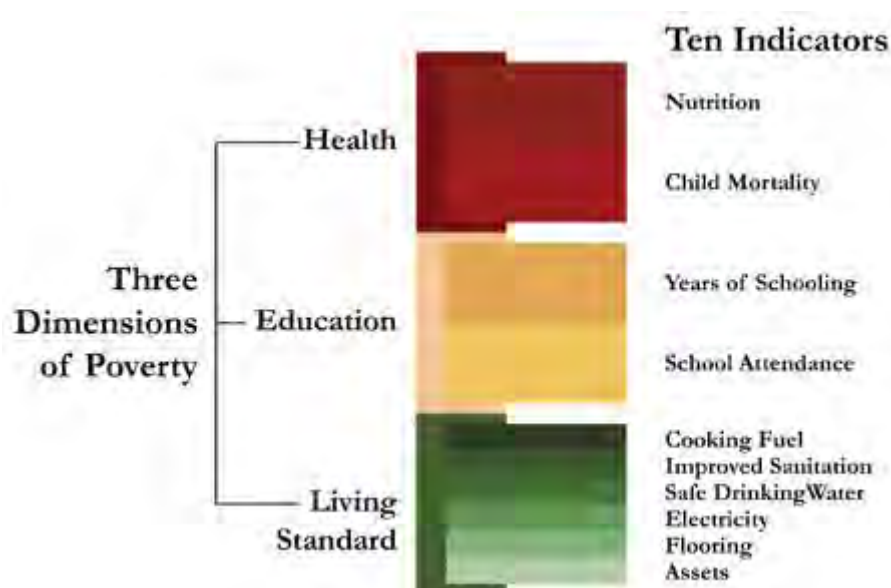
To construct a measure of poverty that takes into account inequality among the poor, some researchers use the squared poverty gap index. This is simply a weighted sum of poverty gaps (as a proportion of the poverty line), where the weights are the proportionate poverty gaps themselves; a poverty gap of, say, 10 percent of the poverty line is given a weight of 10 percent while one of 50 percent is given a weight of 50 percent; this is in contrast with the poverty gap index, where the gaps are weighted equally. Hence, by squaring the poverty gap index, the measure implicitly puts more weight on observations that fall well below the poverty line (Ibid)

#### **2.2.4.5. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)**

MPI completes the monetary measures of poverty by addressing the other non-income dimensions of poverty. The MPI identifies each person as deprived or not deprived using any available information for household members. The MPI then aggregates across all poor people. This approach is followed in large part because of data constraints and in part because it has a clear logic. Some variables reflect the sharing which occurs among household members – for example when educated household members read for others. Other variables such as sanitation or electricity are usually common across household members. In terms of data constraints, large scale internationally comparable surveys do not have individual-level information for all indicators in the MPI where this might be relevant – such as malnutrition. For example, if any household member for whom data exists is malnourished, all household members are considered deprived in nutrition. Also, some indicators, such as school attendance for children up to class eight, do not apply to all household members. The MPI reveals the combination of deprivations that batter a household at the same time. A household is identified as multidimensionally poor if, and only if, it is deprived in some combination of indicators whose weighted sum is 30 percent or more of the dimensions (Alkire and etal ,2011).

The Global MPI was updated in June 2016 and now covers 102 countries in total, which are home to 75 per cent of the world's population, or 5.2 billion people. Of this proportion, 30 per cent of people (1.6 billion) are identified as multidimensionally poor (Alkire. and Robles, 2016).

Fig 2.1. The Ten Indicators of MPI



Source : Alkire & Santos,2010, Page 13

A person is identified as multidimensionally poor (or ‘MPI poor’) if they are deprived in at least one third of the weighted indicators shown above; in other words, the cutoff for poverty (k) is 33.33%. If a person is deprived in 20-33.3% of the weighted indicators they are considered ‘Vulnerable to Poverty’, and if they are deprived in 50% or more (i.e. k=50%), they are identified as being in ‘Severe Poverty’. Those identified as ‘Destitute’ are deprived in at least one third of more extreme indicators (Ethiopia MPI, 2016)

## 2.2.5 Poverty and inequality in Ethiopia

**Table 2.2 Ethiopia’s MPI index and income inequality in terms of Gini Coefficient**

Multidimensional Poverty Index	0.564
Percentage of MPI Poor (H)	87.3%
Average Intensity Across the Poor (A)	64.6%
Percentage of Income Poor (\$1.90 a day)‡	33.5%
Percentage of Poor (National Poverty Line)‡	29.6%
Income Inequality (Gini index)‡	0.332

**Source:** Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (2016). “Ethiopia Country Briefing”, Multidimensional Poverty Index Data Bank. OPHI, University of Oxford

According to the 2016 OPHI Country Briefing (based on the 2011 DHS) , Ethiopia, 87% of the population is MPI poor although only 29.6% of the population are below the national poverty line. This makes the country the second poorest country of the world. This shows there that there is a deep rooted poverty in the country although there are progress in a number dimensions (Alemayehu and et al, 2015). Below is table 2 which summarizes the MPI index and income inequality in terms of Gini Coefficient.

Monetary measure of poverty uses income or consumption to set a value of money which will be used to identify the poor. Consumption was selected in the report prepared by MOFED on Development and Poverty in 2013 by arguing that consumption a better measure of longer-term household welfare because it is subject to less temporal variation than income (MOFED, 2013).

**Table 2.3. Total (absolute) and food poverty line in Birr (average price)**

	2010/2011
Kilocalorie per adult per day (Kcal)	2,200
Food poverty line per adult person per year (Birr)	1,985
General poverty line per adult person per year (Birr)	3,781

Source: MOFED,2013

Based on the national poverty line, MOFED reported that the headcount poverty rate stands at 29.6 % and in urban Ethiopia, significant decline in poverty gap and severity, while poverty gap remains the same and poverty severity increased for rural areas in 2010/11. The report also disclosed the fact that the number of people living in poverty has fallen, the indicator of severe poverty did not fall since 2004/5 and rather it increased. This means that the poorest of the poor are not significantly seeing the benefits of growth (MOFED, 2013).

Regarding income (consumption) inequality, between 2004/05 and 2010/11, inequality measured by Gini Coefficient has shown a slight decline from 0.3 in 2004/05 to 0.298 in 2010/11. Inequality as measured by the coefficient has declined in urban areas from 0.44 to 0.37, while rural inequality increased from 0.26 to 0.27 though inequality is still higher in urban than in rural areas(Ibid).

**Table 2.4 Poverty head count indices and inequality in 2010/2011**

	Total poverty	Food poverty	Gini-Coefficient. (inequality)
Urban	0.257	0.279	0.371
Rural	0.304	0.347	0.274
Total	0.296	0.336	0.298

Source: MOFED, 2013

### **2.2.6 Poverty and Inequality in Addis Ababa**

Urban poverty headcount ratio based on national poverty line for Addis Ababa stands at 25.7% in 2010 (World Cities Report ,2016).Regarding income inequality as it is measured by Gini-coefficient ,stands at 33.6%. It is less than the national urban income inequality rate which is 37.1%. But in terms of total inequality, it is only second to Tigray National Region with inequality rate stands at 33.4%. The rate of the total (Urban and Rural) national inequality stands 29.8%; which is less than Addis Ababa's rate of inequality by 3.8% (MOFED, 2013).

**Table 2.5 Inequality measured by Gini-coefficient by region and rural/urban**

Region	Urban	Rural	Total
Tigray	0.0375	0.295	0.344
Afar	0.333	0.262	0.305
Amhara	0.416	0.270	0.296
Oromia	0.368	0.262	0.283
Somali	0.301	0.276	0.286
Benishnagul Gumuz	0.380	0.299	0.319
SNNP	0.360	0.293	0.303
Gambella	0.381	0.211	0.289
Harari	0.309	0.189	0.266
Addis Ababa	0.336	na	0.336
Dire Dawa	0.332	0.187	0.292
National	0.371	0.274	0.298

Source: MOFED, 2013

### **2.2.7 The Nexus Between Urban Crime and Poverty:**

This study examined the relationship between selected poverty variables with those of property crimes for convicted offenders of the crimes. The complexity of the causes of poverty translates to the difficulties of coming up with poverty variables (Rwizi, 2015).

Haughton and Khandker (2009), described the poor in terms of region, community, household, and individual characteristics with two restrictions. The first one is the difficulty to separate causation from correlation. For instance, we know that poor people tend to have low levels of education; but are they poor because they have little education, or do they have little education because they are poor? A statistical association alone is not enough to establish causality, and additional information is likely to be required. The second one is , most of the “causes” of poverty that we identify in this chapter are immediate (or “proximate”) causes, but not necessarily “deep” causes. For instance, suppose that we can demonstrate that low levels of education do indeed increase the risk of poverty. This is interesting, but now begs the question of why some people have low levels of education in the first place: Were the school fees too high? Was there no school nearby? Was the quality

of the education abysmal? Were their parents unsupportive, or even hostile to education? Was there a concern that an educated woman could not find a husband?

Regional characteristics such as Isolation or remoteness, Regional governance and management, Inequality, Community characteristics such as Social structure and social capital, Household characteristics such as Size of household Dependency ratio (that is, unemployed old and young relative to working-age adults) Gender of head, or of household adults on average Assets (typically including land, tools, and other means of production; housing; jewelry) Employment and income structure (that is, proportion of adults employed; type of work—wage labor or self-employment; remittances inflows) Health and education of household members on average, Individual characteristics such as Age Education ,Employment status, Health status, and Ethnicity are identified as Main Determinants (Variables )of Poverty(Ibid).

Despite the complexity of poverty, it has been deduced from many researches that poverty is correlated with living conditions such as education, employment and health. Hence, in poverty analysis, gender, age, marital status and race have sizable effects on the likelihood of poverty of an individual. It also implies that poverty can be measured without the use of population's income level and food security (Rwizi, 2015).

Based on the findings of (Haughton and Khandker (2009) and other researches region-level characteristics, community-level characteristics, household and individual-level characteristics, demographic characteristics, economic characteristics, social characteristics are determinants (indicators) of poverty. however, region-level characteristics, community-level characteristics are held constant since the study is limited in one geographical area, Addis Ababa, and these characteristics assumed to be the same among respondents. household and individual-level characteristics, demographic characteristics, economic characteristics and social characteristics are selected as determinants(indicators) of poverty for the study .

### **2.2.8 Crime and Inequality**

In the economic theory of crime, individuals allocate time between market and criminal activity by comparing the expected return from each, and taking account of the likelihood and severity of punishment .In this model, inequality leads to crime by placing low-income

individuals who have low returns from the market activity in proximity to high-income individuals who have things that are worth taking (Kelly, 1999).

Empirical studies examining the relationship between inequality and crime return mixed results based on the type of crime committed (Metz and Burdina, 2016). For instance, Kelly (1999) found out that the behavior of property and violent crime are quite different. Inequality has no effect on property crime but a strong and robust impact on violent crime. And also Bourguignon et al., 2003, using time series and panel data over the course of fifteen years found out that it is the specific part of the distribution rather than the overall distribution as summarized by conventional inequality measures that is most likely to influence the rate of property crime in a given society ( Bourguignon et al., 2003). In addition to the zero effect result of income inequality on property crimes, there are researchers who found out negative and positive relationship between income inequality and property crimes (Metz and Burdina, 2016).

The lack of a consistent result between income inequality and crime is plausibly due to the Modifiable Area Unit Problem (MAUP) which has been an issue of interest in spatially oriented social research for decades. In choosing a geographic level to examine data, two possible problems arise. First, the unit of analysis may mask the true relationship between the variables of interest. That is administrative boundaries, such as Census boundaries, may not define neighborhoods properly and thus a true neighborhood or cluster of crime may overlap a Census boundary. Second, the level of aggregation may play an important role in the results.

To avoid the above two problems, Metz and Burdina (2016) uses Census block group data to explore the relationship between income inequality and property crime. A Census block group is typically one square mile in size and is the smallest geographic level for which the Census publishes income data.

In the Addis Ababa City context, which is the geographical area of the study, is very difficult to find income data on such a fine geographical area which would avoid the problems of MAUP and provide reliable finding. Therefore, due to this difficulty and since there are researches conducted by distinguished scholars who established a zero and/or negative correlations between inequality and property crimes, the relation between inequality and property crime is not tested in the context of Addis Ababa city in this study. And hence inequality is held constant in this study.

### **2.3 The UNESCO Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime**

The United Nations Economic and Social Council (UNESCO) recommend general guide line by resolution 2002/13. According to the resolution crime prevention includes the following:

- ❖ Promote the well-being of people and encourage pro-social behavior through social, economic, health and educational measures, with a particular
- ❖ emphasis on children and youth, and focus on the risk and protective factors associated with crime and victimization (prevention through social development or social crime prevention)
- ❖ Change the conditions in neighborhoods that influence offending, victimization and the insecurity that results from crime by building on the initiatives, expertise and commitment of community members (locally based crime prevention);
- ❖ Prevent the occurrence of crimes by reducing opportunities, increasing risks of being apprehended and minimizing benefits, including through environmental design, and by providing assistance and information to potential and actual victims (situational crime prevention);
- ❖ Prevent recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventive mechanisms (reintegration programs).

The resolution recommends Socio-economic development and inclusion for the prevention of crime. Crime prevention considerations should be integrated into all relevant social and economic policies and programs, including those addressing employment, education, health, housing and urban planning, poverty, social marginalization and exclusion. Particular emphasis should be placed on communities, families, children and youth at risk. According to the resolution Knowledge based crime prevention strategies, policies, programs and actions should be based on a broad, multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices. Government leadership, Cooperation /partnerships, sustainability/ accountability, human rights /rule of law/ culture of lawfulness, interdependency and differentiation based on the needs of men and women and consider the special needs of vulnerable members of society were recommend by the council for effective crime prevention (UNESCO,2002)

## **2.4 Literature Review: Empirical Evidence**

Related researches on the nexus between urban crime and poverty have been conducted by different scholars in Ethiopia and internationally.

A research conducted here in Ethiopia on the socio-economic factors which influence the commission of crime among convicted criminals who were serving their time in Kality correctional administration found out that poverty, unemployment and peer influence are the major causes for the commission of the crime (Mati, 2016). Another study conducted by Selamawit (2014) on the lived experience of delinquents and young offenders of the Addis Ababa police commission prisoners revealed that the major driving force of delinquency are substance abuse, peer pressure, economic problem (as a result of unemployment and poverty) and separation of family divorce.

A number studies have been conducted on the nexus between crime and poverty in Africa. The finding of a study on the relation between poverty and crime conducted in Emuhaya district of Western Province of Kenya indicated a significant relationship between poverty (financial standing, employment, family structure, social support, level of education and poverty) and tendency to commit crime among the people of Emuhaya district (Ngutu, 2014). Similarly, a study on the impact of poverty on criminal behavior among youths of Akpabuyo local government area, in Nigeria, revealed that poverty significantly influences the commission of crime. Another study conducted by Rwizi (2015) in Limpopo Province, South Africa, to find out the relationship between poverty and aggravated robbery, established a significant positive correlation of 0.219 ( $p$ -value = 0.025) between poverty which was categorized by gender, employment status, marital status, race, age and educational attainment and aggravated robbery at five per cent significance level (Rwizi, 2015).

From researches conducted in other parts of the world, a study conducted in India on the nexus between poverty and crime found out a positive and statistically significant impact of poverty, inequitable income growth and low quality of the legal system on incidence of total property-related crimes. Moreover, the elasticity figures suggest that poverty has the highest impact on robberies. Most convincing result comes from the figures of elasticity of education with crime where a 10% increase in per capita expenditure on education in India leads to a decline between 9.2-11.2% of overall property crime rates (Bharadwaj, 2014). Concerning the relation between unemployment which is one the characteristics of poverty, a study

conducted in Iran established a significant and positive relationship between unemployment rate and theft crime (Maddah,2013). In a similar way , a study in U.S.A. established apposite correlation between crime and low levels of educational attainment, long spells of unemployment, and poverty ( Huang and etal ,2003).

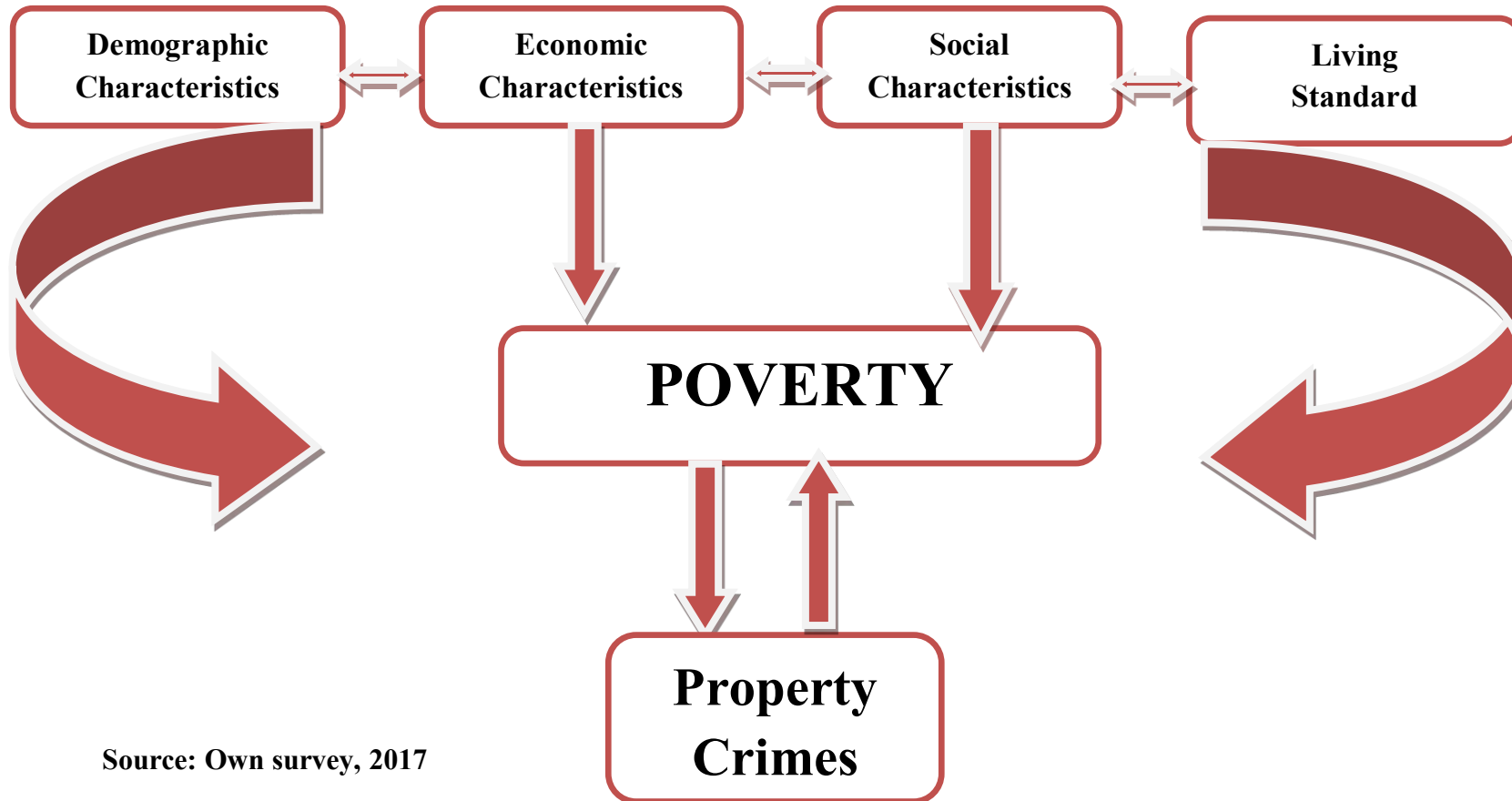
## **2.5 Conceptual Framework for the Nexus Between Poverty and Crime**

The theories on the causes of crime and empirical evidences on the nexus between crime and poverty ascertain direct relationship between crime and poverty. The literature review on poverty discusses the nature, measurement and characteristics of poverty. Based on the above theoretical and empirical evidence, characteristics of poverty namely: Demographic characteristics, Economic characteristics, Social characteristics and Living Standard of the offenders will be used as a determinant of poverty and their correlation with property crimes will be analyzed. Region-Level Characteristics and Community-Level Characteristics assumed to be the same among the respondents and hence are treated as constants.

## **2.6 Concluding Remarks**

There are different definitions of crime. The violation of a law is central to these definitions. Crime is defined by the 2004 CCE as an act which is prohibited and made punishable by law. This is the working definition of crime in this study. There are crimes against state, individual persons and property. An economic gain is the peculiar characteristic of property crimes. Theft, robbery, breach of trust and fraud are among the property crimes defined in the 2004 CCE. The sociological and economic theories of crime attribute criminality to the social and economic conditions of the criminal. Sociological theories relate crime to social structures and interaction .Economic theories on the other hand threats criminal as a rational being who weighs cost and benefit before the commission of a crime. Poverty is one of the socioeconomic conditions of the criminal which causes the commission of a crime. Demographic characteristics, economic characteristics, social characteristics and living standard could be used to characterize individual level poverty.

Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework



Source: Own survey, 2017

## Chapter 3

### Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

This chapter deals with the presentation of data collected from convicted criminals who have been serving their sentence at the police stations of the Addis Ababa police commission. Data is gathered from primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected through questionnaire and interview. The secondary sources of data include annual reports, relevant legislations and policies.

#### 3.1 Quantitative Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

##### 3.1.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

##### 3.1.1.1. Profiles of respondents in terms of sex, age, marital status and previous conviction

Table 3.1 Profiles of respondents

		Frequency	Percent
<b>Sex</b>	Female	26	13.0
	Male	174	87.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Age</b>	16-17	31	15.5
	18-24	93	46.5
	25-30	52	26.0
	31-34	13	6.5
	35- 40	5	2.5
	41-45	1	.5
	46-50	3	1.5
	above 50	2	1.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>	Married	50	25.0
	Unmarried	146	73.0
	Divorced	4	2.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Previous Conviction</b>	Yes	119	59.5
	No	81	40.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: own survey, 2017

The profile of respondents presented in Table 3.1 indicates that majority of the respondent offenders, 87%, were male and only 13% of them were female. The age structure of the respondents who were convicted of property crimes is dominated by the age group 18 – 24 with 46.5% and the age group 25 -30 with 27% of the respondents. Concerning marital status, the majority of the offenders, 73%, were unmarried. The majority of the offenders, 59.5%, were previously convicted regarding frequency of criminal activity.

The respondent offender's demography is dominated by male, young people below the age of 35 and unmarried. The fact that number of female offenders is less than male offenders does not mean females are less poor than men. But it means that females choose crime as coping strategy less than men. The number of young offenders below 35 is greater than those above 35. This suggests that as the unemployed population is dominated by the young in Addis Ababa (CSA, 2007), commission of property crime is used as a source of income and coping strategy. On the other hand, the unmarried offenders dominated the demography of respondents. Marriage helps to pool resources and to be less vulnerable to poverty than unmarried once. So, married people are less likely to commit crime as coping strategy. The majority of the respondents were previously convicted which shows that the adoption of criminal activity as a coping strategy.

### **3.1.1.2. Household characteristics of the respondent offenders**

Indicators of household size and structure are important in that they show a possible correlation between the level of poverty and household composition. Household composition the size of the household and characteristics of its members (such as age) is often quite different for poor and non-poor households (Haughton and Khandker, 2009). To find out from which household the respondents were from, poor or non-poor, they were asked about their household size and structure.

Below is Table 3.2 which presents the data on the characteristics of the household of the respondents in terms of household size, sex of head of the household, composition of the household in terms of sex, composition of the house hold in terms of age, composition of the house hold in terms of employment.

The majority of the respondent offenders, 48%, were from household with more than 6 family members, those from a household with 3 to 6 family members were 31% and those from a household less 3 members were 20.5% of the 200 respondent offenders. This shows

the majority of the offenders were from a household with more than six members. The poor tend to live in larger households, with an average family size of 6.6 persons in the poorest quintile compared with 4.9 in the richest quintile (as cited by Haughton and Khandker, Gibson, 2009). Since the majority of the respondents were from a household more than six, it could be taken as one indication which shows that the majority of the respondents were from a poor household.

The households of the respondent offenders with respect to sex of head of the household and composition of the household in terms of sex, it is presented in Table 3.2 that 81.5% of the households were headed by male and 18.5% of the household were headed by females. It is widely believed that households headed by women are poorer than those headed by men. However, the finding of this research did not subscribe to this assumption since the majority of the households of the offenders were headed by men. This means that since most of the respondents were from male headed household, it could be assumed that most of the offenders were not from a poor household according to this indicator.

The data on composition of the households of the respondent offenders in terms of age ,as it is presented in Table 3.2, shows that households of the offenders with an equal number of working and dependent age accounts for 6%, with more number of working age accounts for 43% and more number of dependent age accounts for 51%. This means that there were more dependent family members in the households of the respondent offenders than working age family members. Haughton and Khandker (2009) asserted poverty is directly proportional dependency ratio .And hence most of the respondent offenders could be profiled as a person from a poor household.

Regarding composition with respect to employment , it is presented in Table 3.2 that portion the household of the offenders with equal number of employed and unemployed was 6%, more number of employed is 34.5% and with more number of unemployed was 62.5%. This means that most of the respondent offenders, 62.5%, were from a household which was dominated by the unemployed family members. It is highly expected that a high dependency ratio will be associated with greater poverty (Haughton and Khandker (2009), Kidist, 2010)) .The fact that the majority of the respondent offenders were from a household which is dominated by dependent and unemployed family members; it is another indication that most of the respondent offenders were from a poor a household.

**Table 3.2. Household characteristics of the respondent offenders**

	<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Household size	less than 3 members	41	20.5%
	3-6 members	62	31%
	More than 6 members	97	48.5%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>
Sex of head of the household	Male	163	81.5%
	Female	37	18.5%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>
Composition of the household in terms of sex	Equal Number Male and Female	25	12.5%
	More Number of Female	107	53.5%
	More number of Male	68	34%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>
Composition of the household in terms of age	More Number of working age (From 18 to 65 years)	86	43%
	More number of dependent age (less than 18 and greater than 65)	102	51%
	Equal number of working and dependent age	12	6%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>
Composition of the household in terms of employment.	Equal number of employed and Unemployed	6	3%
	More number of Employed	69	34.5%
	More number of Unemployed	125	62.5%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source: own survey, 2017

### 3.1.2 Economic Characteristics of the respondents

#### 3.1.2.1 Job Status, Profession and Employable Skill

The job status and profession of the respondent offenders are displayed in Table 3.3 below.

**Table 3.3 Job Status and Profession of the respondent offenders before Conviction**

	Response	Frequency	Percent
<b>Job Status</b>	Employed	46	23.0
	Unemployed	154	77.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Profession</b>	Yes	33	16.5
	No	167	83.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Own survey, 2017

Table 3.4 below depicts the employable skill of the respondents. The 167 respondents who answered “No profession” for Question 12, “What is your profession?”, were asked what kind of employable skill they might have had and their response is presented below by Table 3.4.

**Table 3.4: Employable skill of the offenders**

	Frequency	Percent
Driving a car	23	13.8
Hair styling	13	7.8
Plumber	8	4.8
Painting	16	9.6
Carpentry and woodwork	2	1.2
cooking	8	4.8
car mechanic	5	3.0
no employable skill	92	55
<b>Total</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Own survey, 2017

As it is displayed in Table 3.3 , more than half of the respondent offenders, 77% , were unemployed and with respect to profession , 83% of them did not had a profession. The respondent offenders who had no profession were asked if they had any employable skill. As it is presented in Table 3.4, the majority of them, 55%, said they had no employable skill. It was presented in Table 3.1 that the majority of the respondent offenders, 46.5%, were in the age group 18 to 24 years of age. To establish the correlation between job status, profession, employable skill and age, cross tabulation was performed using SPSS Version 24 and the result is displayed below in Table 3.5 below.

From the cross tabulation result, it can be observed that from the seven age groups in the study, the age group 18-24 years is the most unemployed with 52.9 % , with the most no profession offenders with 54.2% and with most number of offender without employable skill with 58%. Therefore, a young person within an age group of 18 to 24 and who is unemployed, who has no profession and employable skill has low opportunity cost of committing a crime since the proceeds from the commission of property crimes would be greater than the risk of arrest and punishment.

The fact that the unemployed population is dominated by the young is not an endemic problem to Ethiopia. Sen (2008) asserted that youth account for a quarter of the world's working-age population, but almost half of it is unemployed. Besides the personal cost involved, youth unemployment has clear costs to society in terms of wasted talent, and the likelihood that disenchanted young people will turn to crime and violence. The majority of the respondent offenders who were unemployed, with no profession and employable skill were compelled to involve in crime as a coping strategy since they had little or no chance of employment low opportunity cost of committing property crime.

**Table 3.5: Cross Tabulation Result**

			Unemployed	No Profession	No Employable skill	
Age in years	16-17	% within Job status	<b>16.3 %</b>	....	....	
		% Profession	....	<b>13.9%</b>	....	
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>14%</b>	
	18-24	% within Job status	<b>52.9 %</b>	....	....	
		% Profession	....	<b>54.2%</b>		
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>58%</b>	
	25-30	% within Job status	<b>26 %</b>	....	....	
		% Profession	....	<b>25.9%</b>		
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>25.8%</b>	
	31-35	% within Job status	<b>0</b>		....	
		%Profession	....	<b>3.6%</b>	....	
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>2.2%</b>	
	36- 40	% within Job status	<b>3.8 %</b>	....	....	
		%Profession	....	<b>2.4%</b>		
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>0</b>	
	41-50	% within Job status		....	....	
		%Profession	....	<b>0</b>	....	
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>0</b>	
	above 50	% within Job status	<b>1 %</b>	....	....	
		%Profession	....	<b>0</b>	....	
		%Employable skill	....	....	<b>0</b>	
	Total			<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source : Own Survey ,2017

### 3.1.2.2 Average monthly expenditure by the offenders

The monetary measurement of poverty tests the command over commodities. The greater and the wider choice over resources is the lesser and a narrower chance of to be poor. Poverty is then measured by comparing individuals' income or consumption with some demarcated threshold below which they are considered to be poor. Poverty line may be thought of as the minimum expenditure required by an individual to fulfill his or her basic food and nonfood needs (Ibid). In Ethiopia, consumption is preferred for quantification of poverty to income. It was established in 2010/11 that the Total Poverty Line(TPL) to be 3,781 Birr per adult person per year (MoFED,2013).If TPL it is 3,781 Birr per annum ,then it is be 10.36 Birr per day (3781/365days) and it is calculated to be 311 Birr per month(10.4X30 days). This means an individual needs to get 10.36 Birr per day and 311 Birr per month if he is to be considered above the TPL and hence non-poor. Below is Table 3.6 which presents the average monthly expenditure of the respondent offenders.

**Table 3.6. Average monthly expenditure by the offenders**

Average Monthly Expenditure	Frequency	Percent
Less than 311 birr	46	23.0
312 birr – 600 birr	99	49.5
601birr-901birr	20	10.0
901 - 1200birr	24	12.0
more than 1200 birr	11	5.5
Total	200	100.0

Source: Own survey, 2017

As it is displayed in Table 3.6, the majority of the offenders were in the expenditure group 311 birr – 600 birr with 49.5% followed by the expenditure group less than 311 birr with 23%, respectively. Based on the TPL of 311 Birr per month and 3,781 Birr per adult person per year, 23% of those offenders in the expenditure group less than 311 birr per month and less than 3781 Birr per year((311X265=3781) ,were below the national TPL. In other words, they were relatively poor compared to the Ethiopian population. However, using the absolute poverty line which was raised to \$1.90 using US dollar value (of \$1.90) in 2011, at 2011 PPPs, would increase the percentage of offenders who would be considered as absolute poor.

The study of poverty focuses on those who are currently poor (or were poor in the past). This is because poverty can be measured only ex post. Such an approach has its merits: for instance, by using actual data one may measure the effects of past public interventions on the

extent of poverty; and it allows us to identify whose poverty needs to be alleviated. But governments and policy makers are typically more interested in the effects that their measures will have in the future. For this it would be valuable to be able to identify those who are expected to be poor ex ante (that is, in the future). Such households are considered to be vulnerable to poverty (Haughton and Khandker, 2009) .

The majority of the offenders, 49.5%, were in the expenditure group 311 birr – 600 birr who were barely above the national TPL and hence they are not relatively poor, the expenditure groups 601 to 900 birr, 901 to 1200 birr and above 1200 Birr expenditure groups are above the national TPL. An attempt was made to find the vulnerability of the expenditure groups by running cross tabulations. As per Sen (2008), the key assets or capitals with which the poor could manage and withstand shocks are human capital, social capital and natural capital.

To describe the vulnerability of the respondent offenders to poverty the job status , profession ,employable skill, membership in MSEs , registration for the currently launched Revolving Fund ,ownership of a house and education level was selected and cross tabulated with the expenditure groups which are above the national TPL of Birr 3,781 per annum. The expenditure group less than 311 birr which is calculated to be under TPL is excluded from the analysis and above Birr 1200 was also excluded from the analysis since it is well above from the TPL. Blow is Table 3.7 which displays the result of the cross tabulation for the expenditure groups 311 to 600 Birr and 601 to 900 Birr.

As it is presented in Table 3.7, the expenditure groups 311 to 600 Birr accounts for 59.2% of the respondents who were unemployed, 56% of those respondents without a profession, 58.7% of those without employable skill, 50.5% of those who were not a member of any MSEs, 49.5% of those who have not registered for the recently launched revolving fund and non of the respondents in this expenditure group owns a house.

From the fact that this expenditure group is right next to TPL ,more than half of the respondents were unemployed ,without profession and with no employable skill , it is highly probable that they are highly vulnerable to go below the national TPL and to be relatively poor since their chance of getting a decent job in the future is very slim .It is a slim chance because they had no profession and employable skill. In addition to this, half of the respondents in this expenditure group were not a member of any MSEs or they did not registered for the revolving fund. MSEs are the main policy focus of the Federal and Addis Ababa City governments in the poverty alleviation programs and projects . Indeed, MSEs

have been indispensable tools in the fight against urban poverty. Currently, the government allocated 10 billion Birr revolving fund to step up the fight against poverty. Those respondents in this income group did not involve in MSEs and yet they were unemployed and with no employable skill. This makes their probability of falling back into poverty very high if not certain.

After conviction, most of the offenders transferred to federal prisons. According to Growth and Transformation Plan I (GTP) performance report of Ethiopian Federal Prisons Administration (EFPA) for the years 2011(2003E.C) to 2015(2007E.C), it has given academic training for 10,717 inmates, technical and vocational training for 9,293 inmates, entrepreneurial and commercial skill training for only 1809 inmates. This shows the minimum attention given by the prison administration for entrepreneurial and commercial skill training which are crucial in preventing the offenders from committing a crime again. This is because these trainings would help the offenders to engage in gainful economic activity.

**Table 3.7 The result of the cross tabulation**

			Unem ployed	No Profession	No Employable skill	Not a member in MSEs	Not Reg. for Rev fund	No Private house
Expenditure group in birr	312 – 600 birr	% within Job status	<b>59.2</b> %					
		% Profession	-	<b>56%</b>				
		%Employable skill			<b>58.7%</b>			
		% Membership in MSE				<b>50.5%</b>		
		% Revolving Fund Registered					<b>49.5%</b>	
		%Ownership of a house						<b>0</b>
	601birr- 901birr	% within Job status	<b>8.7%</b>					
		% Profession		<b>9%</b>				
		%Employable skill			<b>6.5%</b>			
		% Membership in MSE				<b>8.4%</b>		
		% Revolving Fund Registered					<b>9.3%</b>	
		%Ownership of a house						<b>0</b>

Source: own survey , 201

### **3.1.2.3 Reason for the commission of the property crimes by the offenders**

The reasons behind the commission of a property crime which were claimed by the respondent convicts are displayed by Table 3.8 below.

**Table 3.8 Reasons behind the Commission of property crimes**

<b>The reason behind the commission of the crime</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
For basic needs(food, clothing, rent)	96	48.0
Alcohol/substance abuse	50	25.0
To improve my house hold	47	23.5
For education or Health	7	3.5
Total	200	100.0

Source: Own survey, 2017

As it is presented in the above table, the majority of the respondent offenders, 48%, said that they committed the property crimes to cover the expenses for a basic need like food ,cloth and house rent. This characterizes them as poor since one of the faces poverty is inability to meet basic needs. Commission of a property crime to meet a basic need shows commission of property crime was the offenders coping strategy.

### **3.1.3. Living standard**

#### **3.1.3.1 The Multidimensional Poverty Index**

In this section the non-monetary approach of poverty measurement, Multi- Dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) , will used to characterize the poverty level of the offenders. The MPI identifies each person as deprived or not deprived using any available information for household members on the three dimensions, education, health, living standard. In the MPI the three dimensions are equally weighted, so that each receives a 1/3 weight. The indicators within each dimension are also equally weighted. Thus, each indicator within the health and education dimension receives a 1/6 weight and each indicator within the living standards dimension receives a 1/18 weight ( $1/3 \div 6$ ). If there are fewer than 10 indicators, the principle of equal weights across dimensions and across indicators within a dimension still applies. For example, suppose there is a country whose dataset is missing one of the

living standard indicators (i.e. no information was collected on that variable). Thus, the total number of indicators is nine in this case. Then each of the four health and education indicators receive a 1/6 weight but each of the standard of living indicators receive a 1/15 weight ( $1/3 \div 5$ ). Similarly, if there is one missing indicator in the education dimension, then each of the health indicators receives a 1/6 weight, each of the standard of living indicators receives a 1/18 weight but the one education indicator receives a 1/3 weight(MPI, 2011).

In this study, the data on nutrition was not collected since the respondents were not asked. It is very difficult to tell whether a family member got proper malnutrition or not just by looking; it requires measuring the height and the body weight . Therefore, nine indicators were used and they are presented in Table 3.9 below along with their weight.

**Table 3.9: The MPI indicator and their weight for the MPI poor**

Dimension	Indicator	Deprived if....	Relative Weight
<b>Education</b>	<b>Years of Schooling</b>	No household member has completed five years of schooling.	1/6
	<b>Child School Attendance</b>	Any school-aged child is not attending school up to class 8	1/6
<b>Health</b>	<b>Child Mortality</b>	Any child has died in the family	1/3
<b>Living Standard</b>	<b>Electricity</b>	The household has no electricity	1/18
	<b>Sanitation</b>	The household's sanitation facility is not improved or it is improved but shared with other households	1/18
	<b>Safe Drinking Water</b>	The household does not have access to safe drinking water or safe drinking water is more than a 30-minute walk from home round-trip	1/18
	<b>Flooring</b>	The household has a dirt, sand or dung floor.	1/18
	<b>Cooking Fuel</b>	The household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal.	1/18
	<b>Asset Owned</b>	The household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck.	1/18

Source : MPI, 2016

To quantify the poverty level of the respondent offenders in terms of MPI , the 200 respondent offenders were asked a number of questions from the perspective of MPI indicators. One of such questions was their housing condition. Table 3.10 below displays the ownership of a house in which the respondent offenders used to live before conviction.

**Table 3.10 Mode of access to a house**

<b>Mode of access to a house</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
I own the house	5	2.5
I rented the house	164	82.0
I live on the street	31	15.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: own survey, 2017

As it presented in the above table ,31 respondents lived in the street was excluded and since it is impossible, specifically ,to assess the living standard indicator since those who live on the street did not have a house and only the rest 169 respondents were considered out of the total 200 respondent offenders. Table 3.10 below displays the characteristics of the house except the 31 offenders who lived on the street. The characterization is only for the rest of 169 respondent offenders and will be used for the computation of MPI index.

### **3.1.3.2 Characteristics of a living house of the respondent offenders**

Housing indicators include the type of building (size and type of materials), the means through which one has access to housing (renting or ownership), and household equipment. As it is displayed in table 3.11 below, the majority of the offenders used to live a house with a wall constructed from mud, a roof made of corrugated iron sheet and a floor which is dirt. And most of the households of the offenders cook with charcoal and shared a kitchen with others. Regarding access to a house most of the respondents access a house through renting. The majority of the offenders owned mobile phones next to television set. This shows the low financial capital of the offenders which in turn made their opportunity cost lower than the benefit obtained from the property crime. And also from the interview with the judges She explained that mobile cell phones which have a value ranging from birr 1000- to 6000birr, rear view mirror of a car , detachable car radio, clothes of both men and women ,laptops and construction materials were the common items. These items were sold in much lower prices.

Mobile phones from 500birr to 1000birr, rear view mirror of a car for 500 to 700 Birr, clothes from 50 birr to 100 birr. This means that the offenders risk their freedom for items that costs from 50 birr up to 1000. This shows that they have very low financial capital and commission of the property crime were their coping mechanisms and also as Merton (1957,1968) delineated, committing property crime is the mode of adaptation to get pecuniary benefit.

**Table 3.11 Physical Characteristics of the house of the offenders**

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Type of the wall	Mud	92	54.4
	Bricks	23	13.6
	Corrugated Sheet	46	27.2
	Plastic	8	4.7
	Total	169	100.0
Type of the roof	Corrugated Iron Sheet	155	91.7
	Plastic	14	8.3
	Total	169	100.0
Type of the Floor	Dirt	120	71.0
	Cement	49	29.0
	Total	169	100.0
Cooking Material	Wood/Charcoal	55	32.5
	Electricity	65	38.5
	No cooking	49	29.0
	Total	169	100.0
Kitchen	Private kitchen	28	16.6%
	Shared Kitchen	97	57.4%
	No Kitchen	44	26%
	Total	169	100%

Source : own survey ,2017

### 3.1.3.3 Basic Facilities of a House

Water supply, sanitation and energy facilities of the living houses of the 169 respondents are presented in Table 12 below. The 31 offenders who lived on the street were excluded since they did not have a house.

**Table 3.12: Basic facilities of the house of the respondent offenders**

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Supply of water	Private Tap	14	8.3%
	Shared Tap in one compound	91	53.8%
	Public Tap	64	37.9%
	Total	169	100%
Access to electricity	Electricity	162	96 %
	Other	7	4%
	Total	169	100%
Sanitation	Private flush toilet	8	4.7%
	Shared pit toilet	128	75.7%
	Private pit toilet	23	13.7%
	No toilet	10	5.9%
	Total	169	100%

Source: Own survey, 2017

As displayed in the above table, the majority of the respondent offenders' living house, 53.8%, got supply of water from shared tap in one compound and 96% of the respondent offenders had access to electricity. With respect to sanitation, the majority of the respondent offenders' living house, 75.7%, shared pit toilet. Sharing of basic facilities of water and toilet among households is one of the characteristics of poor households. Therefore, the respondent offenders were from a poor household. And poverty of their household compelled them to commit property crime to get financial gain. These basic facilities of the house of the respondent offenders will be used to quantify the poverty level by using MPI in section 3.1.3.5.

### **3.1.3.4 Assets owned by the Household**

Below is Table 3.13 which displays the most valuable assets owned by the households of the offenders. The 31 offenders who lived on the street were excluded.

**Table 3.13: Asset owned**

<b>Asset owned</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Radio	10	5.9
TV	52	30.8
Mobile Phone	65	38.5
Bicycle	2	1.1
Motorbike	27	16.0
Refrigerator	7	4.1
Car	6	3.6
Total	169	100.0

**Source: Own survey ,2017**

The majority of the offenders, 38.5% , owned mobile phone and 30.8% of them owned television set. This shows that the majority of the offenders had low financial capital which corresponds to poverty. This characteristic of financial capital of the respondent offenders will be used to quantify the poverty level by using MPI in the next section.

### **3.1.3.5. MPI poverty level of the offenders.**

The result of quantification of poverty level of the 169 respondent offenders using MPI methodology is displayed below in Table 3.14. As it can be observed from the table, 100% of the respondent offenders were not deprived in education and got 0 for each indicator in education dimension; years of schooling and child school attendance. In total they got 0 relative weights in education dimension. In the case of health dimension, the majority of the respondent offenders ,94%, not deprived and got 0 relative weight for the indicator child mortality. In the case of living standard dimension, the majority of the respondents offenders,96%, not deprived and got 0 relative weight for the indicator electricity , the majority of the respondents offenders ,82.2% , deprived and got 1/18 relative weight for the indicator sanitation , 100% of the respondent offenders not deprived and got 0 relative weight for the indicator safe drinking water , the majority of the respondent offenders ,69%,

deprived and got 1/18 relative weight for the indicator flooring , the majority of the respondents offenders,58.3%, deprived and got 1/18 relative weight for the indicator cooking fuel , the majority of the respondents offenders ,82.9% ,deprived and got 1/18 relative weight for the indicator asset owned. When relative weights for the deprived respondent offenders adds up ,  $1/18$  (sanitation) +  $1/18$  (flooring)+  $1/18$  ( cooking fuel)+  $1/18$  (asset owned)= $4/18$  which equals 0.22 or 22% .According to MPI methodology ,those persons deprived in 20% – 33.33% of weighted indicators are identified as ‘Vulnerable to Poverty’ (Alkire and Robles., 2016),.The majority of the respondent offenders were deprived in 22% weighted indicators and they are considered to be ‘Vulnerable to Poverty’ as per MPI methodology.

**Table 3.14 MPI poverty level of the offenders.**

Dimension	Indicator	Deprived if .....	Yes %	No %	Relative Weight	
					For Yes	For No
<b>Education</b>	<b>Years of Schooling</b>	There is at least one household member who completed five years of schooling.	100% Not deprived	0% deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived	<b>1/6</b> for deprived
	<b>Child School Attendance</b>	There is no any school child -aged 7 to 15 who is not attending school	100% Not deprived	0% deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived	<b>1/6</b> for deprived
<b>Health</b>	<b>Child Mortality</b>	Any child has died in the family	6% deprived	94% Not deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived	<b>1/3</b> for deprived
<b>Living Standard</b>	<b>Electricity</b>	The household has no electricity	3.9% deprived	96.1% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived
	<b>Sanitation</b>	The household's sanitation facility is not improved or it is improved but shared with other households	82.2% deprived	17.8% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived
	<b>Safe Drinking Water</b>	The household does not have access to safe drinking water or safe drinking water is more than a 30-minute walk from home round-trip	0% deprived	100% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived
	<b>Flooring</b>	The household has a dirt, sand or dung floor.	69% deprived	31% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived
	<b>Cooking Fuel</b>	The household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal.	58.3% deprived	41.7% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived
	<b>Asset Owned</b>	The household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck.	82.9% deprived	17.1% Not deprived	<b>1/18</b> for deprived	<b>0</b> for Not deprived

Source: Own Compilation, 2017

### **3.1.4. Social Characteristics of respondents**

In this section the social characteristics of the offenders namely education level , health status and their stock of social capital will be discussed .

#### **3.1.4.1 Education Level and health status**

As it is displayed in Table 3.15, the majority of the respondent offenders, 33.5%, were in grade 9 -10 . Respondents in grade 7-8 accounts for 31% and those in grade 1-6 accounts for 18 %.And 4% of them were in the read and write category. The qualitative data from interview with key informants also shows that the majority of the respondents were below grade 10.This means that the majority of the respondents were without any vocational or academic training. Literacy and schooling are important indicators of the quality of life in their own right, as well as being key determinants of poor people’s ability to take advantage of income-earning opportunities (Haughton and Khandker, 2009). Lower education level highly corresponds to low income level which correlates with poverty .The low income which results from low education level makes the opportunity cost for the commission property crime very low for the offenders since the proceeds from the commission of property crime is higher than the income they would get had been stayed free.

**Table:3. 15 Education level of the offenders**

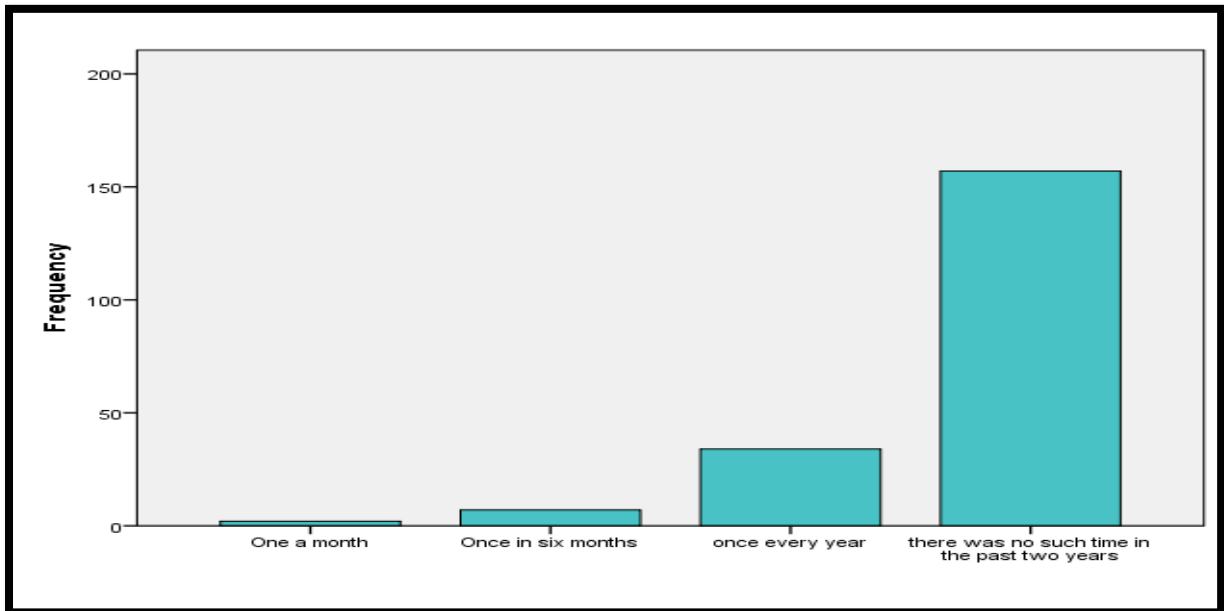
<b>Education level of the offenders</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Read and Write	8	4.0
From Grade 1-6	36	18.0
From Grade 7-8	62	31.0
9-10	67	33.5
Level 1 -2	10	5.0
Level 3-4	8	4.0
Degree	8	4.0
Second degree and above	1	.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Own Survey, 2017

### 3.1.4.2 Health status

As it is displayed in Fig. 3.1, most of the respondent offenders, 157 of them, said they were not seek and unable to work in the past two years. This result is in conformity with the result that most of the respondents, 94% , were not deprived in the MPI health dimension.

Fig. 3.1 Health Status of the respondent offenders

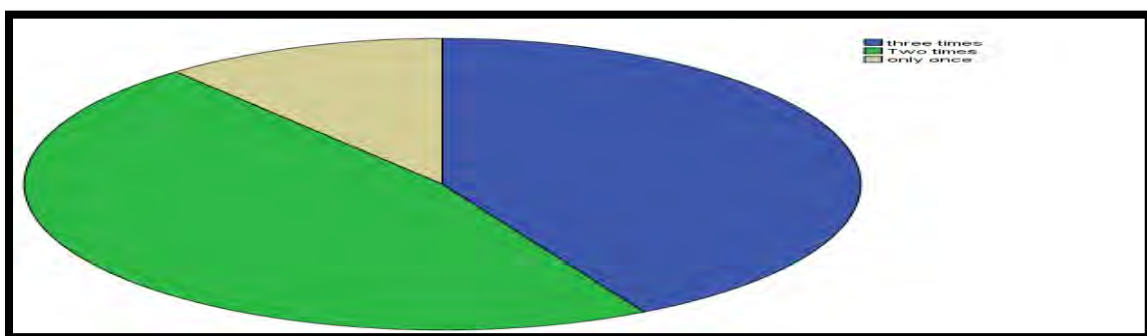


Source: Own Survey,2017

### 3.1.4.3 Daily Meals

As it is displayed in Fig.3.2 , most of the offenders took two meals per day .This means that most of the offenders use taking two meals instead of one as a coping strategy since getting money from the commission of property crime would not be always a success.

Fig.3.2 Meals per a day



Source: Own Survey,2017

#### 3.1.4.4. Social Capital

A social capital is one of the capitals which are used by a household to generate income and sustain its livelihood . Higher social capital corresponds to higher income .In this section participation in micro and small enterprises (MSEs), participation in the recent revolving fund , original residence ,migration, blood donation, years lived in Addis Ababa voting , self-description of well being will be used as indicators of social capital.

As it is displayed in Table 3.16, the majority of respondent offenders ,95%, were not a member of any MSEs.

**Table 3.16: Participation in MSEs and “Revolving Fund”**

	<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Participation in MSEs	Yes	10	5.0
	No	190	95.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Participation in the “Revolving Fund”	Yes	18	9.0
	No	182	91.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source : Own survey ,2017

Those who were not participated in MSEs and the “Revolving Fund” were asked why they did not take part. As it is displayed below in Table 3.17, the reasons for not participating in MSES were , 54.7% of the offenders were considered as non-resident of Addis Ababa city since they did not managed to get the residential identification of the city, for 19.6% of the offenders lack of loan was the reason , 18.9% of the offenders said lack of startup capital which is 20% of the total amount of loan which would be given to them from a micro finance institution and 6.8% of them were not interested to participate. Similarly, the majority, 69.2 % of the offenders were not registered for the revolving fund since they were considered as non-resident of Addis Ababa city and the rest 30.8% were not interested.

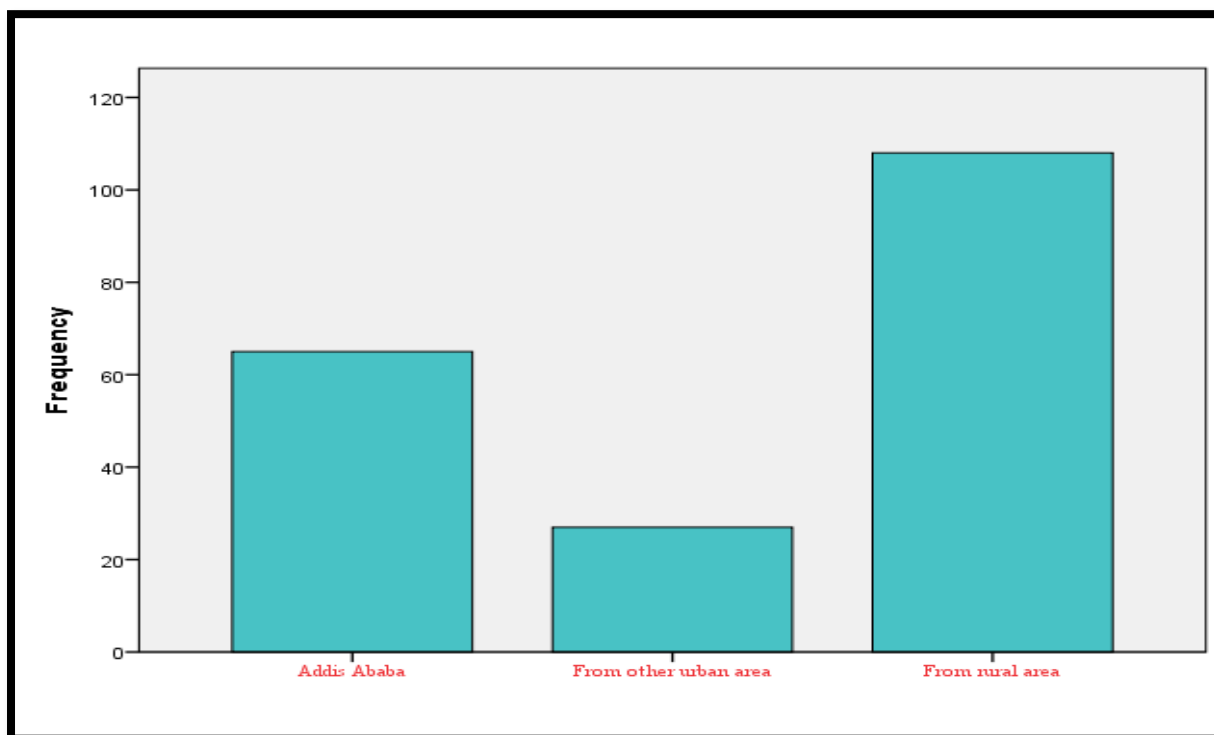
**Table 3: 17: Reason for not participating in MSEs& “Revolving Fund”**

	Response	Frequency	Percent
Participation in MSEs	Not interested	13	6.8
	No AA residential ID card	104	54.7
	No a start-up capital	36	18.9
	lack of loan	37	19.6
	<b>Total</b>	190	100.0
Participation in the “Revolving Fund”	Not interested	80	30.8
	No AA residential ID card	110	69.2
	<b>Total</b>	190	100.0

Source: Own survey, 2017

Concerning migration, Figure 3.3 below displays the original residence of the respondent offenders. The majority of the offenders were from other rural area.

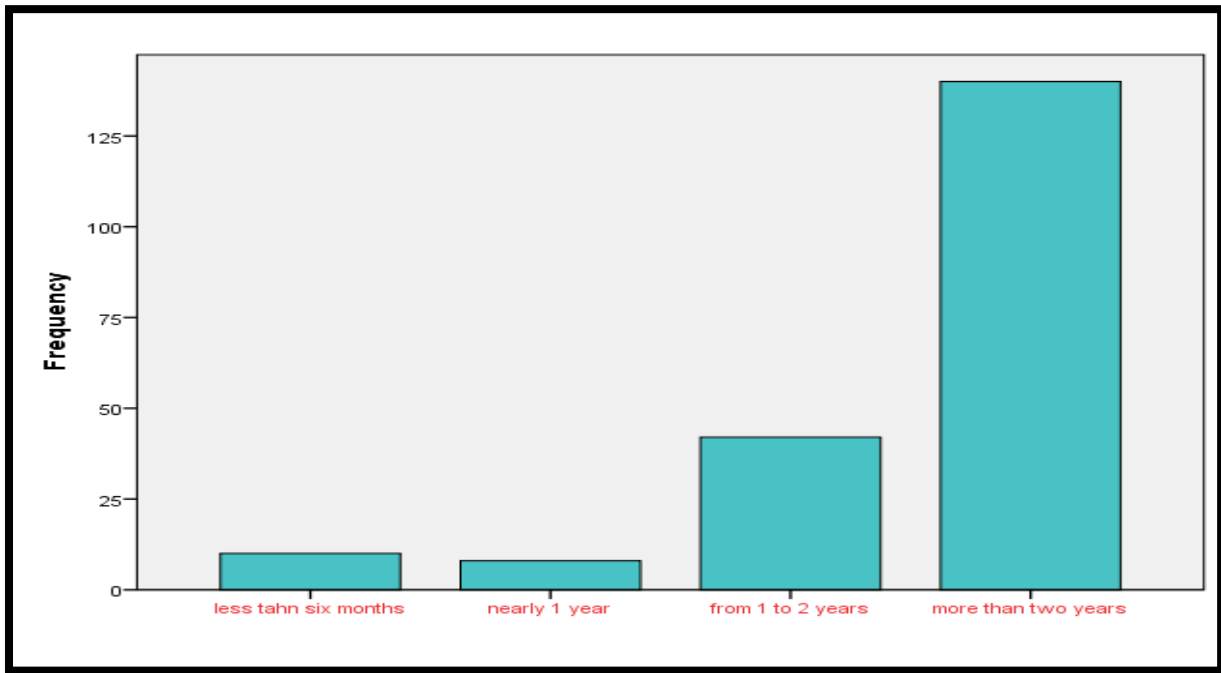
**Fig. 3.3 Original residence of the Offenders**



Source: Own survey , 2017

The length of time the respondent offenders lived in Addis Ababa is displayed by Fig 3.4 below. The majority of the offenders, Fig.7, were from other rural area and the lived in Addis Ababa for more than two years Fig.8. Migration caused their social bond and informal control to be very low since their social network of kinship back home is no more available.

**Fig 3.4 The length of time lived in Addis Ababa**



Source : Own survey ,2017

Regarding their altruistic behavior for the community , the majority of them ,93%,never donated blood in Addis Ababa in the past two years for any institution or person as it is presented in table 3.18 below.

**Table 3.18: Blood Donation**

	<b>Response</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Blood donation in the past two years	Yes	14	7.0
	No	186	93.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source : Own survey ,2017

As it is displayed in Table 3.19 below, the political participation of the respondent offenders was also very low. The majority of them, 90.5% , never participated. Lack of interest and inability to vote due to lack of Addis Ababa residential identification card were the two main reasons.

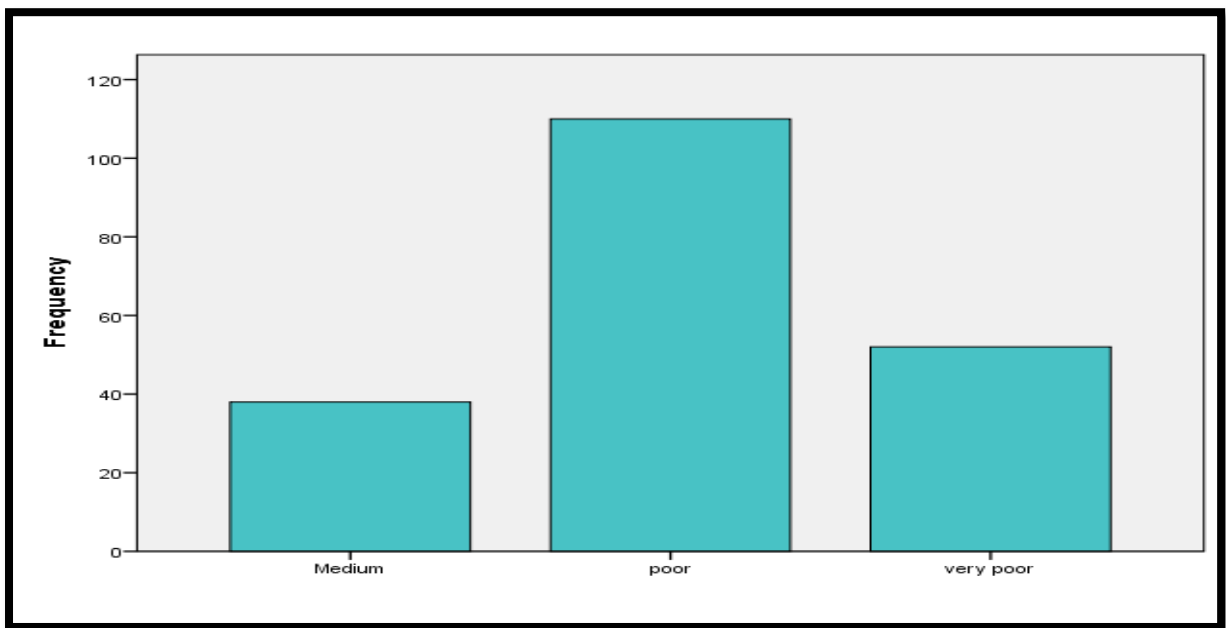
**Table: 3.19 Political Participation**

<b>Participation in election</b>	<b>Reason</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Yes	Interest	19	9.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>9.5</b>
No	lack of Addis Ababa residential identification card	153	76.5
	lack of interest	28	14.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>90.5</b>
	<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source : Own survey ,2107

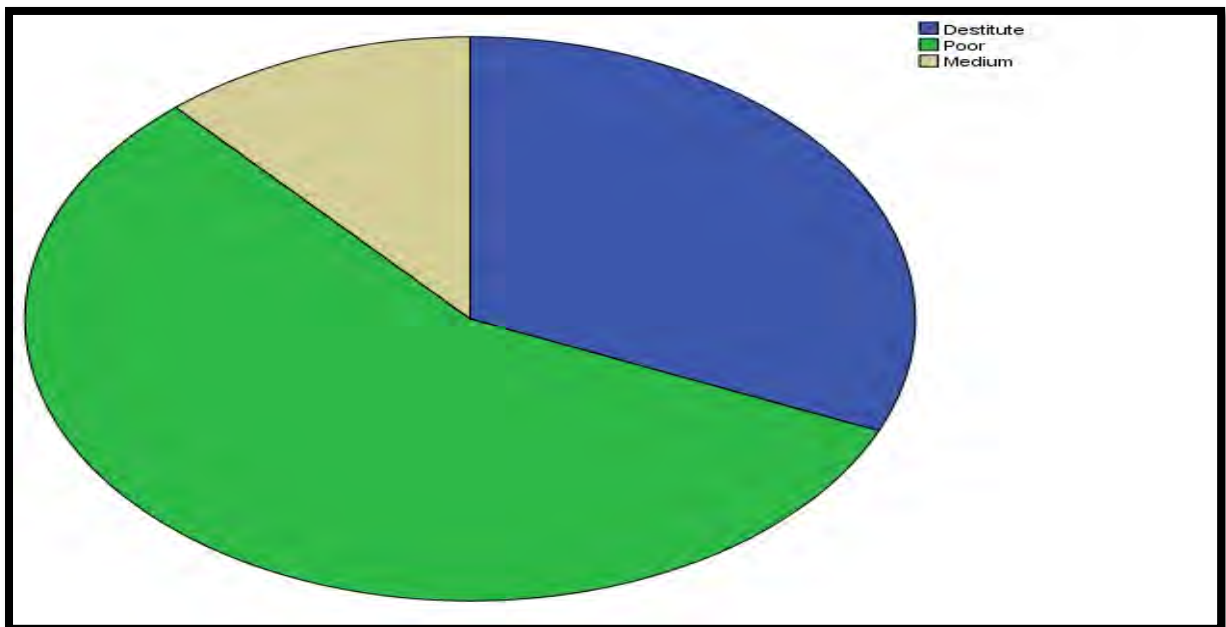
Given the low/no participation of the offenders in MSEs and the revolving fund , elections and blood donation in addition to their low educational level and with no social network of kinship in the city , it can be concluded that they had low stock of social capital. Low social capital characterizes the poor since low social capital corresponds to low human and financial capitals .In conformity with their low social capital , the respondents characterize themselves as poor in comparison with others in their community and generally as it is displayed in Fig.5 and Fig.6 below. The self-characterization of general wellbeing as poor by the majority of the offenders is an indication of the correlation between low social capital and poverty.

**Fig 3.5 Self-assessment of well-being compared to other**



Source : Own survey ,2017

**Fig 3.6 Self description of general wellbeing**



Source : Own survey ,2017

### **3.2 Qualitative Data Presentation and Analysis**

To substantiate the quantitative data, an interview with selected key informants was conducted. The key informant interviews were held with 1 federal first instance judge ,1 federal high court judge , 2 public prosecutors from the Federal Attorney General ,2 police officers from Addis Ababa Commission and 1 officer from Addis Ababa Labor and Social Affairs Bureau were held with the instrumentality of interview guide .

#### **3.3.1. Demographic, socio-economic characteristics and General well-being of the offenders**

The two judges who selected for an interview were judges from the RTD benches. It a routine work for any judge to ask the age , educational level , marital status , employment status, average monthly income and the reason why the offender committed the crime if he/she pleaded guilty at the criminal proceeding . These are an indispensable inputs for the determination of the amount of bail , the extent of punishment, for exonerating and aggravated circumstances and to reach at a sound judgment . They were asked to describe the socio-economic conditions of the property crime offenders. Federal First Instance Court has material jurisdiction over crime of theft and breach of trust. Whereas it is the material jurisdiction of Federal High Court to preside over crimes of robbery and fraud.

The judge from the Federal First Instance court was asked about the social and economic condition of those offenders who were charged with theft and breach of trust based on her observation and other information she would gather in the process of disposition of the case .She told me that most those offenders who were brought into her RTD bench were young people who people in the age range of 16 to 30 years of age . And, their education level, in most cases, was in grades 8-10 . Offenders with tertiary education level was a rarity and only in most cases the offenders of breach of trust . Regarding the marital status, the unmarried offenders were the most frequent once. Employment wise, offenders of theft includes students, cleaners ,domestic house workers ,day laborers ,guards and the unemployed. Whereas, offenders of breach of trust includes drivers , traders and government employees. The judge from the Federal High Court was asked about the socio-economic conditions of those offenders of robbery and fraud .He told me that offenders of both crimes were in the age range of 16- 35 and with a low education level of 7-8 grades in most of the cases. The unemployed offenders were the most common once in his RTD bench.

Young ,low education level, unemployed or employed with a monthly salary which is not sufficient enough to cover basic needs are the characteristics of the poor which compel the offenders to commit a property crime to meet their basic needs as it was presented in Table 3.8 (reasons for the commission property crimes)

The judge from the First Instance Court was asked about the most common items and their value which were the subject of the crime of theft and breach of trust. She told me that mobile cell phones , rear view mirror of a car , detachable car radio, clothes of both men and women ,laptops and construction materials were the common items. The Federal High Court judge came up with the same list but he add cash money and jewelry . The items which were subjects of the criminal act explains how minimum the opportunity cost of the offenders was. For instance , an offender who risks his freedom for a cellphone or a cloth , believed that he could not got more than the value of a cellphone or a cloth if he stays free from arrest.

A public prosecutor from Lideta Sub-city Attorney General told me that the socio-economic characteristics of the offenders could be generalized as low since most of the offenders of property crime are from the lower strata of the society. Considerable portion of the offenders could not afford for bail and kept in prison even though they were allowed to be on a bail. The inability to pay for a bail which is in most of property crime cases less than 2000 birr is manifestation of low financial capital and low opportunity cost criminal act . It is also additional explanation of the nexus between low opportunity cost and the commission of property crime.

A police offer from Addis Ketema Sub-city police commission told me most of the offenders of the property crimes have low educational level and specifically most of them were from grade 8. Economically , most of them are casual workers and day laborers .And most of them were not from Addis Ababa originally. Mobile cell phones, cash money and car accessories were the common items which were robbed or stolen. They would sell the items for a lower price to get rid of the items as much as quickly .They would sell mobile phones from 500birr to 1000birr, rear view mirror of a car for 500 to 700 birr , clothes from 50 birr to 100 birr. Regarding the general well-being, he characterized most of the offenders of theft, robbery and fraud as low. He characterized the offenders of breach of trust as middle income group. This means an offender who is willing to risk his freedom for a rear view mirror of a car which worth 500 birr or for a cloth which worth 100birr , there is no a legal employment or

means to get more or equal to 500 birr or 100birr. Therefore , committing a crime pays better for an offender with less opportunity cost.

### **3.3.2.The nexus between of Property Crimes and poverty**

The key interviewees were asked about in what way poverty could cause the commission of property crimes. An expert of social rehabilitation and support from Addis Ababa social and labor affairs, told me that commission of a crime is one of the coping strategies of the poor. And if a person has low education, no social networks and saving, the option of committing a crime is on the table. The elderly takes begging as a coping strategy .But for the youth begging as a coping strategy rarely taken. From this it could be concluded that poverty blocks the legal means of livelihood and the offenders committed property for survival.

A police officer from Bole sub-city police commission told me that crime requires a certain skills like identifying the potential victim, and physical strength. He told me that to escape away from the crime scene after snatching the victim and ability to apply a certain physical force on the victim makes the young unemployed from age group from 18 to 30 to take the option of committing a property crime a coping strategy. This explains the dominance of the respondents age structure by the young age which has low risk of apprehension than other age groups ; particularly , in the case of theft and robbery crimes.

A public prosecutor from Lideta Sub-city told me that given the low socio-economic status of the offenders committing a crime serves as a coping mechanism for two reasons. The first one crimes pays better and quickly than any manual work like day labour, car wash or shoe shining which could be done by the offenders. Secondly, apprehension is an exception. Which means the offenders strikes at time when the risk of being apprehension is very minimum. Thirdly, low income informal works are highly saturated because of the influx of migrants from the four corners of the country. Which makes the commission of a crime more probable and it becomes question of survival for the offenders. From this explanation it could be concluded that making the commission of crime costly and managing the influx of migration could reduce the rate of crime in the city.

### **3.3.3 Policy Gaps , Legal Impediments and Implementation Problems**

A public prosecutor from the head office of Federal Attorney General explained that although the Crime Prevention Policy incorporates prevention , retribution (punishment ) and rehabilitation approaches , its main focus is on retribution and rehabilitation approaches . Though offenders have the opportunity to get academic and vocational training , there is no any mechanism or procedure of deterring the youth at risk through empowerment and training .He explained the policy envisages coordination and integration between only actors of the criminal justice system. Currently, there is a committee which comprises of Federal Attorney General , Addis Ababa Police Commission , Federal Correctional Administration and Federal Courts .The committee is organized at high level which includes the Attorney General , the police commissioner , the director of the prison administration and president of the Federal High Court. At the second tier of the committee low ranking officials from the institutions are members. The main objective of the committee is to minimize the friction between these actors of the criminal justice system in their day to day activity and to bring about the efficiency, and effectiveness of the justice system. He was bold to say that currently the committees are not effective enough to live up the expectation of the policy. As a result of this, there are a number of criminal cases, specifically in RTD bench, which are discontinued. This gives the offenders to strike again and creates more potential offenders. Therefore, it is logical to conclude the gaps in the criminal justice machinery cause the commission of property crime attractive and less costly for the offender.

A police officer from Bole Sub-city police commission told me that the current system working together with public prosecutors is playing a positive role for the betterment of crime investigation and speedy trial .However , prosecution in the RTD cases ,in most of the cases , are not being effective because adjournment and release on bail of the offenders as a result. This is especially true in the RTD bench of the high court. This is encouraging others to a commit a crime; specifically theft and robbery .He also told me that the lower work benefit of the police should be improved in order to bring motivation and devotion of the police. Prevention without fulfilling the expectation of the police men and women would not be effective. Here again the friction between the criminal justice actors has made the risk of apprehension and punishment to be low for a rational offender who compares his opportunity cost and financial benefit from the commission of property crimes.

A public prosecutor from the head office of Federal Attorney General explained that since the adoption of the policy in 2011, a number of reforms which brought a positive change have been introduced. However; the Crime Prevention Strategy has not yet been adopted. And as a result, the policy objective specifically, prevention, has not been fulfilled. It is then apparent that the Criminal Justice Policy is not being fully implemented since the crime prevention strategy which could serve as a compass for the criminal justice system is not yet adopted.

The expert from the Addis Ababa Social and Labor Affairs Bureau explained that his office has in collaboration with the FRDE Metal Engineering Corporation and other stakeholders identified a number of youths who live on the street and provide them with training in Afar Regional State. And after the training the Bureau created market linkage for them. But he said that the Bureau has not done any such support for those who were released from prison or those who could potentially commit a crime out of poverty. He also explained that they do not have a formal working interaction with the criminal justice machinery with respect to the implementation of the Criminal Justice Policy. This shows that currently the crime prevention effort is not coordinated as it is envisaged in the policy between stakeholders.

#### **3.3.4 Recommendation by the respondents**

The interviewees recommends more job , employment creation ,creating a system follow up of potential offenders, more human power for the criminal justice system and adoption of Crime Prevention Strategy .

#### **3.4 .5 Concluding Remarks**

Based on the data gathered from the respondent offenders and key interviewees, the majority of the respondent offenders were from a household more than six members, more number of dependent ages and a household which was dominated by the unemployed family members. Economically, the majority of the offenders were unemployed, with no profession and no employable skill. The majority of the offenders' living and social characteristics were the same as a typical poor. As a result, the majority of them were vulnerable to poverty and also considerable percentage of the respondents was below national TPL.

The offenders who were young, unemployed, unskilled, vulnerable to poverty, below national TPL and unofficial migrant residents of Addis Ababa adopts crimes as a coping strategy .For the respondent offenders, the return from the commission of property crimes of

theft, robbery, fraud and breach of trust is greater than the opportunity cost as a result of apprehension, conviction and punishment.

The criminal justice system has been operating without a strategy which causes the coordination between the criminal justices actors and other stakeholders weak. As a result, the deterrence of potential offenders through concerted effort of empowerment and opportunity creation is a far cry from the expectation of the criminal justice policy.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendation**

#### **4.1. Summary of Findings**

The objective of research was to investigate the nexus between urban crime and poverty in Addis Ababa City Administration. To achieve this objective the study employed case study of offenders of property crimes of theft, robbery, fraud and breach of trust by administering structured questionnaire. Primary data were also collected from key informant interviewees. The main findings of the study are summarized as follows:

##### **4.1.1 Demographic characteristics of the offenders**

- ❖ The majority of the respondents were male (87%) , unmarried (73%), under the age of 35 years and from a household with more than 6 members.
- ❖ The majority of the households of the respondents were headed by male, 81.5% , dominated by dependent age ,51%, the unemployed, 62.5%.

##### **4.1.2. Economic Characteristics of the respondents**

- ❖ more than half of the respondent offenders (52%) were unemployed, the majority (83%) of them did not have profession and 55.4.% of them were without employable skill.
- ❖ From the cross tabulation result, it can be observed from the seven age groups in the study, the age group 18-24 years is the most unemployed with 52.9 % , the most no profession offenders with 54.2% and the most number of offenders without employable skill with 58%.
- ❖ A young person within an age group of 18 to 24 years old and who is unemployed , who has no profession and employable skill has low opportunity cost of committing a crime since the proceeds from the commission of property crimes would be greater than the risk of arrest and punishment. And committing property crimes serves as a coping mechanism.
- ❖ The majority of the offenders were in the expenditure group 311 birr – 600 birr with 49.5% followed by the expenditure group less than 311 birr with 23 % , respectively.

Based on the TPL ,the expenditure group less than 311 Birr per month and 3,781 Birr per adult person per year, were below the national TPL

- ❖ The expenditure group 311 birr – 600 birr which is right next to TPL ,more than half of the respondents were unemployed ,without profession and with no employable skill , it is highly probable that they are highly vulnerable to go below the national TPL and to be relatively poor .Those respondents in this income group did not involve in MSEs and yet they were unemployed and with no employable skill. This makes their probability of falling back into poverty to be very high if not certain.
- ❖ The majority of the respondent offenders, 48%, committed the property crimes to cover the expenses for a basic need like food , cloth and house rent. This characterizes them as poor since one of the faces poverty is inability to meet basic needs. As a result , committing a crime was their coping strategy.

#### **4.1.3 Living Standard**

- ❖ The majority of the respondent offenders were deprived in 22% weighted indicators and they are considered to be ‘Vulnerable to Poverty’ as per MPI methodology.

#### **4.1.4. Social Characteristics of respondents**

- ❖ The majority of the respondents were in grade 7-8 and 94% of them were not deprived in the MPI health dimension.
- ❖ The majority of the offenders used to live in a house with a wall constructed from mud ,a roof made of corrugated iron sheet and a floor which is dirt. And most of the households of the offenders cook with charcoal and shared a kitchen with others. Regarding access to a house most of the respondents access a house through renting. The majority of the offenders owned mobile phones next to television set. This condition could be characterized as poor living condition.
- ❖ The majority of the offenders took two meals per day .This shows that most of the offenders use taking two meals instead of one and committing property crimes as a coping strategy.
- ❖ Most of the offenders participation in MSEs, revolving fund, elections, blood donation was low coupled with low education level. Additionally , they are not from Addis Ababa originally and left their social network of kinship behind when they migrated to Addis Ababa. These variables show the offenders have low social capital. As a result they could be characterized as poor since low social capital corresponds to low human and financial capitals.

## **4.2. Conclusion**

This study has attempted to describe the nexus between urban crime and poverty in the context of Addis Ababa City Administration. A combination of monetary and non-monetary measures of poverty was employed in order to characterize the poverty level of the offenders and to uncover the nature of the nexus. In the analysis of poverty using non –monetary or welfare approach, demographic characteristics, economic characteristics, living standard and social characteristics of the offenders were analyzed in order to evaluate the extent of poverty of the offenders. The offender were characterized as poor by the above individual level welfare indicators. The MPI non monetary measure of poverty was also employed and most of the offenders were found to be vulnerable to poverty. Monetary measurement of poverty using the national poverty level of Birr 3781 was also performed. Considerable percentage of the offenders were below the national poverty and venerable to poverty.

The above measures of monetary and non-monetary measures of poverty indicated that the majority of the offenders were poor. From this premise it can be generalized that the majority of the offenders committed property crime to sustain their life and committing property crime was used as a coping strategy.

## **4.3. Recommendations**

Based on the above findings of the study, the following recommendations were forwarded:

**Knowledge based prevention of crime** : prosecution and confinement of criminals without addressing the root cause of crime is proved to be ineffective. A Crime Prevention Strategy (CPS) which is based on knowledge should be adopted. In addition to prosecution and confinement, crime prevention should including addressing the root causes of crime including poverty in collaboration with development actors .

**Prevention of crime should take the issue of urban poverty into account** :Urban poverty is the main cause behind the commission of property crimes .And hence urban poverty alleviation programmes should also take the issue of crime into consideration by benefiting the youth at risk of committing a crime .The rehabilitation and support package for street children and youth should be broadened to incorporate youth who are at risk of committing a crime .And also ,the Addis Ababa city government urban food safety net programme , which is expected to be launched soon, should also take the issue of crime into consideration by benefiting youth at risk.

**A holistic approach to prevent crime:** isolated effort of the criminal justice machinery to prevent crime would not address the issue of crime effectively. Rather the general public, government agencies including the Addis Ababa Social and Labor Affairs Bureau, Youth and Women Affairs Bureau, Education Bureau , MSEs Development Agency and civic societies should involve in the criminal justice system. The government bureaus , civil societies and the public should be included in the existing criminal justice actors committee which includes the Addis Ababa Police Commission , Federal Attorney General , Federal Prisons Administration and Federal Courts. This Committee at the city level would mainstream the issue of crime prevention and addresses the root causes crime including poverty.

**Participation in MSEs should be open to all equally :** A system of registration should be established by the city government to accommodate the interest of migrants from other part of the country and they should be benefited from urban poverty alleviation programmes including MESs .And participation in MSEs should not limited to those who have Addis Ababa residential ID and a system of accommodation for those who have stayed for long enough , for six months as it is provided in the Ethiopian Civil Code, in the city with the intention of living should be established.

**Market oriented and sustainable job opportunity :** The technical, vocational ,entrepreneurial and commercial skill trainings which has been administered by Ethiopian Federal Prisons Administration through Tesfa Technical and Vocational Training Institute should be market oriented. There should be synergy between industries and the institute so that the offenders would get market and employment opportunity upon their release. This would help the offenders to reintegrate with the society easily. The Institution should be upgraded to a college level to improve the quality of trainings, its capacity and the recognition in the job market which would benefit the trainee offenders .

**Urban poverty alleviation programs :** MSEs development and urban micro-financing are the two basic policy instruments the government adopts for urban poverty alleviation. The setbacks within the MSEs which includes lack of loan , workshop , sustainable market access , technology, failure to transform into medium level enterprise, low quality of goods and services should be resolved so that MSEs would help to reduce the poverty rate and achieve Goal 1, No Poverty by 2030, of the Sustainable Development Goals. Addressing the issue of

urban poverty is addressing the issue crime indirectly since urban poverty is the main cause for the commission of property crime in the city of Addis Ababa.

**Controlling migration through rural development :** The fight against poverty is lost or gained based on rural development achievements or failures. Therefore, development efforts should be directed to minimize migration to Addis Ababa by intensive rural development, resolving rural youth unemployment, landlessness and launching satellite city projects.

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## ANNEX 1

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS  
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT  
MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire to be filled by Convicted Offenders of Property Crimes

Dear respondents,

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to collect the indispensable information on Urban Crime and poverty with specific reference to the City of Addis Ababa for the partial fulfillment of master's degree in Public management and policy. Dear respondents, the information you will provide is very important for successful accomplishment of this research.

Furthermore, the information you give will be used for only the academic research. Therefore, you are kindly requested to read all the questions and fill honestly without any hesitation.

Thank you very much in advance!

Getahun Tesemma

Instruction:

1. Please do not write your name
2. Please Read the question carefully before providing your response
3. Please circle your appropriate response and kindly write your opinion briefly for the short answer questions on the space provided.

## **I . Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

**1. Sex:** A. Male B. Female

**2. Age in years:**      1A 16-17      2B 18-24      3C,25- 30      4D. 31- 34=1      5E.35-40  
6F.41- 45= 2      7G. 46- 50      8H.above 50=3  
1.16 -34      2.above 35

**3. Marital Status:** A, Married=1      B, Unmarried =

**4. House hold Size** A. less than 3 members B. 3-6 members C. More than 6

**5. Sex of Head of the House Hold is**      A Male      B Female

**6. .Composition of the House Hold in terms of Sex**

- A. If the number of male and female family members is equal
- B. If the number of male family members is higher
- C. If the number of female family members is higher

**7. Composition of the House Hold in terms of age**

- A. The number of family members  $\geq 18$  years and  $\leq 60$  years is equal to those below 18 and above 60
- B. The number of family members  $\geq 18$  years and  $\leq 60$  years is greater than those below 18 and above 60
- C. The number of family members  $\geq 18$  years and  $\leq 60$  years is less than those below 18 and above 60

**8. Composition of the House Hold in terms of employment**

- A. The number of employed and unemployed family members is equal
- B. The number of employed family members is greater than unemployed family members
- C. The number of employed family members is less than unemployed family members

**9 The Type of crime you are convicted of .....**

**A.** Theft/ Aggravated theft **B.** Robbery/ Aggravated Robbery **C.** Breach of trust /Aggravated Breach of trust **D** Fraudulent Misrepresentation /Aggravated Fraudulent Misrepresentation

**10 .** Have you ever been convicted of property crimes .....

1. Yes 2. No

**II. Economic Characteristics of the respondents**

**11 .Your Job Status** A .Employed B. Unemployed

**12. Do you profession**

a. Student B. Teacher C. Health professional D. Accountant E. Manager F. Lawyer G. Trader H. Driver I. Any other profession 10 I. do not have a profession

**13.** If you do not have a profession ,have got any skill which is employable?

a. Driving a car B. Hair Styling C. Plumber D. Painting E. Carpentry and wood work F. cooking G.car mechanic H. No employable skill I. Other

**14. Family members job status?**

a. There is no difference between the number of family members who has regular income and who has not

b. More of the family members has regular income

C. More of the family members has no regular income

**15. Your Average Monthly Income Birr\_\_\_\_\_**

1.Less than 311 birr 2. 312birr - 600birr 3. 601-900birr  
4. 901birr – 1200 5.More than 1285 birr 6. I did not have source of income

**16. Your average monthly expenditure Birr\_\_\_\_\_**

1. Less than 311 birr 2. Birr 312birr - 600birr 3. 601-900birr  
4. 901birr – 1200 5.More than 1200 birr

**17. Your average monthly expenditure for items other than food Birr\_\_\_\_\_**

1. Less than 400 birr 2. 401 birr – 900 birr 3. 901birr-1200birr 4. More than 1200birr

**18. How much money did you get or attempted to get from your criminal act?**

- a. Less than 500 birr B. Between 500 and 1000 birr C. between 1001 and 2000 Birr D. Between 2001 and 5000 birr E. Between 5001 and 10000 birr F. above 10000birr

**19. What was the most compelling reason which forced you to commit the criminal act?**

1. For basic expenses(food,cloth purchase or house rent) 2.. For alcohol /substance abuse 3 . For education/health 4. To improve my house hold 5. Other\_\_\_\_\_

**III Living standard**

**20. Owner Ship of a house /houses you are living in?**

- A. Owned B. Rented from government C. Rented from private owners D. Shared with other E. Pay on daily basis F. Belongs to a family/ relative G. family/relative rented H. I live on the street

**21. Wall type?**

1. Mud 2. bricks 3.Corrugated iron sheet 4. Plastic

**22. Roof Type?**

- A. Corrugated sheet B. Plastic C. not applicable d. other

**23. The Floor of your house**

- A dirt, B. Cement C. not applicable D. other

**24. Your House hold cooks with**

- A. wood /Charcoal. B. Electricity C. There is no cooking

**25. Which of the following Assets is the most valuable owned by your household?**

- A. radio B.TV, C. telephone, D bike, E. motorbike F. refrigerator G. car  
H. Jewel I. Bicycle J.No asset owned

**26. If you answered other than “No asset owned” for question 29 , Which of the following Assets is the second or most valuable asset owned by your household?**

- A. radio B.TV, C. telephone, D bike, E. motorbike F. refrigerator G. car  
H. Jewel I. Bicycle J. No asset owned

**27. Supply of drinking water**

- A. Private Tap  
B. Shared Tap in one compound  
C public tap which is within a distance of 30 minutes’ walk (roundtrip). compound  
D public tap which is more than a distance of 30 minutes’ walk (roundtrip).

**28. Electricity**            A. Yes                            B. No

**29 . Kitchen** A. Private kitchen B. shared kitchen C. no kitchen D. other\_\_\_\_\_

**30 . Sanitation(Toilet)**

A. No toilet B. Shared (pit) C. private pit D. Flush toilet (shared) E. Private (flush)

F. Other \_\_\_\_\_

**31.** How do you describe your wellbeing compared to others in your community?

A. Rich B. Medium C. Poor D. Very poor E. Specify other

**32.** How often you troubled to get your daily meals?

A. Every day    B once in three days    C. once in a week    d. once a month    e . not at ll

**33 .** How many meals did you eat per day on average ?

A. three times B. Two times C. One time D. No regular meal time

**34** How do you describe your wellbeing generally?

A. Rich B. Medium C. Poor D. Very poor E. Specify other

#### **IV. Social Characteristics of respondents**

**35. What is your educational level?**

A. Primary School            B. Secondary School            C. Vocational School D. Tertiary

**36. What is the highest educational level in your family?**

A. Illiterate                            B. Read and Write                            C. From Grade 1-6

D. From Grade 7-8 =                            E. Grade 9-10 =1                            F. Level 1 -2

G. Level 3-4    =2                            H. Degree                            I. second degree and above=3

**37.** No family member has completed five years of schooling.    A. yes    B. no

**38.** Is there a child in your family whose age is 7-15, and not currently attending school    A. yes    B. no

**39. What is the educational level of the head of the household ?**

- A. Illiterate
- B. Read and Write
- C. From Grade 1-6
- D. From Grade 7-8
- E. Grade 9-10
- F. Level 1 -2
- G. Level 3-4
- H. Degree
- I. second degree and above

**40 . Was there a child who has died in your family ?      A. yes B. No**

**41. How often you get sick and unable to work?**

- A. Once every week
- B. Once every 15 days
- C. One a month
- D. Once in six months
- E. once every year
- F. There was no such time in the past two years
- G. Other

**42. Originally you were from \_\_\_\_\_**

- A. I was born here in AA
- B. From urban area
- C. From Rural Area
- D. Other \_\_\_\_\_

**43 . how long you lived in AA**

- A. Less than six months
- B. one year
- C. From 1to 2 years
- D. More than 2 years

**44. Have you ever joined any Micro Small Enterprises**

- 1. yes
- 2. No

**45 .If you answered no to question 48, what was your reason?**

- 1. I was not interested
- 2. I was not allowed since I do not have Addis Ababa residential ID card
- 3. I did not have a start-up capital
- 4. I could not access the necessary loan since I did not have the guarantor
- 5. other.....

**46. Have you registered for the recent revolving fund job creation project?**

- 1. yes
- 2. No

**47. If you answered no to question 46, what was your reason?**

1. I was not interested
2. I was not allowed since I do not have Addis Ababa residential ID card
3. I did not have a start-up capital
4. Other .....

**48. Have ever voted in the past two years in Addis Ababa?**

- A. Yes    B. No

**49. Have you ever donated blood in the past two years in Ababa for free?**

- A. Yes    B. No

**50. Self Description of General well being ?**A. Rich B. Medium C. Poor D. Very poor

## **Annex 2**

### **Key Informants Interview guide**

The main purpose of this interview is to collect the indispensable information on Urban Crime and poverty with specific reference to the City of Addis Ababa for the partial fulfillment of master's degree in Public management and policy. Dear interviewees, the information you will provide is very important for successful accomplishment of this research. Furthermore, the information you give will be used for only the academic research.

#### **I. Identification**

1. Position.....

#### **II. Questions Urban Crime and poverty**

1. What are the socio-economic characteristics of offenders of property crime?
2. From which social strata are most of the offenders of property crimes
3. How do you describe the well-being of the offenders?
4. Is the commission of property is the coping strategy the offenders ? Why people commit crime in general and property crimes in particular?
5. Does poverty plays a significant role for the commission a property crime?
6. Which characteristic of poverty contributes more for the commission of property crime? (Demographic, Economic, social ,living standard)
7. What are the gaps in the criminal policy or other social policies which contribute for the rising number of property criminal in the city of Addis Ababa
8. What kind of strategies should be incorporated in the National Crime Prevention Strategy(which is under preparation)?
9. What are the policy and legal impediments which contributes the rising number of property criminal in the city of Addis Ababa
10. Are there any issues, questions, comments that you would like to raise or points that you want to add?

## **DECLARATION**

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sorts of materials used for this thesis has been duly acknowledged.

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GETAHUN TESEMMA TOLA ( June, 2017)