

Developing an Analysis Process for Crime Hot Spot Identification and Comparison

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Abstract

This research focuses on using Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to identify crime hot spots using kernel density estimation (KDE) pertaining to residential burglary. Global statistical tests were applied prior to utilizing the KDE method to ensure valid, accurate results and limit the influence of factors that may cause misinterpretation or error. Considerations for parameter input into the KDE analysis were explored to enhance consistency with statistical tests and output accuracy. Additionally, KDE outputs were tested for predictive ability and compared with the prediction accuracy index (PAI). This process can provide a foundation for predictive analysis to be utilized by law enforcement agencies to develop crime prevention strategies.

Introduction

Law enforcement has a long history of mapping crime locations and has been performing crime analysis since their establishment (Groff and La Vigne, 2001). The utilization of GIS analysis plays an important role in identifying crime hot spots to predict future crimes for the purpose of police intervention and prevention (Groff and La Vigne).

This study focuses on developing a spatial and temporal analysis process to identify hot spots of crime and evaluate the hot spots' predictive capabilities utilizing statistics. The aim of this study was to produce statistically reliable crime information for law enforcement professionals to help develop strategies to reduce and prevent crime. The process will be applied to residential burglary crime data obtained from the Saint Paul Police Department (SPPD). The extent of the study area included the Western District

police sector of the City of Saint Paul, Minnesota.

Crime Hot Spots

Crime hot spots have become a popular subject within the crime analyst discipline but there is no established benchmark for defining a hot spot (Harries, 1999). Eck, Chainey, Cameron, Leitner, and Wilson (2005) concur there is no widely accepted definition, but offer a hot spot is "a place that has many crimes." A hot spot can be described as an area that has a greater than average number of crimes or risk of victimization (Eck *et al.*, 2005). Harries offers that a hot spot is a type of clustering within a spatial distribution, but not all crime clusters can be defined as a hot spot due to the characteristics unique to different geographic areas.

Chainey, Reid, and Stuart (2002) found global statistical tests can be applied to a crime cluster to determine if it can be

established as a hot spot. Eck *et al.* (2005) states it is advantageous to perform global statistical tests for a better understanding of the data, to visualize patterns within the data before they are mapped, and to support the validity of mapping outputs.

Crime Mapping Techniques

Chainey *et al.* (2002) suggests hot spot maps provide easy interpretation of crime occurrences, more precisely depicts spatial distributions of crime and requires less user input. According to Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig (2008), hot spot maps typically use retrospective data for the purpose of discovering high crime areas requiring additional police resources to address the crime problem. Chainey *et al.* (2008) states a multitude of techniques for hot spot mapping exist including point mapping, thematic mapping, spatial ellipses, grid thematic mapping, and kernel density estimation (KDE).

The point mapping technique is a wall pin crime map in digital format displaying individual crime incidents (Eck *et al.*, 2005). It is best suited for displaying small amounts of crime, but lacks the functionality to interpret patterns or hot spots (Chainey *et al.*, 2002).

Thematic mapping incorporates defined borders, such as political boundaries, census tracts, or police beats, with crime data (Eck *et al.*, 2005). This method allows for the quick interpretation of information, displaying the intensity of crime events for each border area within the study area (Chainey *et al.*, 2008). A disadvantage of thematic mapping is the potential for under or over-representation of crimes that occur near or across the boundaries within the study area (Eck *et al.*, 2005). Chainey *et al.* (2002) found the modifiable areal unit problem applies as another drawback to this technique.

Spatial ellipses are a technique used to identify and group crime clusters (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). Ellipses are created for each defined cluster of crime, and the size and position of the ellipse is aligned over the crime data points within the study area. A benefit of this technique is not being limited by boundaries, unlike thematic mapping. Eck *et al.* (2005) states spatial ellipses have multiple disadvantages: 1) their shape does not accurately represent the actual shape or spatial distribution of clusters, 2) parameter input by the user can greatly affect the output, and 3) any data outside the generated ellipses is not displayed, leaving all other data irrelevant.

Grid thematic mapping is a process of laying a uniform grid with a user-specified cell size over a study area, and each corresponding grid is shaded to represent the level of crime events within each cell (Chainey *et al.*, 2008). Eck *et al.* (2005) states this technique makes identification of hot spots easier and is more accurate than thematic mapping. Eck *et al.* (2005) established that grid thematic mapping is vulnerable to the modifiable areal unit problem, and spatial detail is diminished using the grid format, resulting in a digitized or “blocky” map output appearance.

The KDE method is widely accepted as the most appropriate visual crime data analytical technique (Chainey *et al.*, 2008). KDE creates a smooth surface map output, not limited by shape or boundary, continuously displaying the variations of crime occurrences throughout the study area (Williamson, McLafferty, Goldsmith, McGuire, and Mollenkopf, 1998). The advantages of KDE include readily identifiable crime clusters, preservation of different crime densities across the study area, and hot spot locations and spatial distributions are more

precise (Eck *et al.*, 2005). Williamson *et al.*, 1998 states KDE can additionally be utilized for “quantitative comparisons over time.” Tompson and Townsley (2009) selected the KDE method in their spatial and temporal study because of the level of predictive accuracy it offered over all tested hot spot methods. A drawback to KDE is it can produce misleading map outputs if the data is not statistically tested to determine the proper input parameters and the appropriate thematic range (Eck *et al.*, 2005).

Analysis Process

Global Statistical Tests

Global statistical tests for clustering and standard distance are helpful in determining patterns in crime data and can promote a higher level of validity for analysis results (Eck *et al.*, 2005). Chainey *et al.* (2002) developed a robust process for creating statistically accurate hot spot crime maps utilizing KDE analysis. The process contains three separate tests: 1) nearest neighbor test for clustering, 2) standard distance test for dispersion, and 3) nearest neighbor test to determine a k-value (Chainey *et al.*, 2002).

The nearest neighbor test helps create a more accurate mapping output using geocoded point data for analysis (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). Eck *et al.* (2005) offers that the nearest neighbor test for clustering compares a distribution of data with a sample that is randomly distributed. Eck *et al.* (2005) states the test produces a ratio of the average nearest neighbor distance of the data against a randomly distributed test sample. A test ratio number substantially lower than one indicates that clustering is present, near one indicates a random distribution, and substantially over one indicates a dispersed distribution

within the data tested according to Eck *et al.*

The standard distance test relates to the dispersion of crime data and should be used to compare two different crime types or the same crime type of different time periods (Eck *et al.*, 2005). Chainey *et al.* (2002) states the resulting figure has a direct correlation with the crime data dispersion, a smaller figure indicates less dispersion, a larger figure indicates more dispersion.

The nearest neighbor test to determine a bandwidth is used to set the variable for how the smoothing analysis is applied in the KDE tool (Williamson *et al.*, 1998). Williamson *et al.* (1998) states the test measures the distance between each data point and the user-specified number of nearest neighbors and averages them; resulting in a suggested bandwidth value. The user-specified number of nearest neighbors is referred to as the k-value (Williamson *et al.*, 1998). Selection of the proper bandwidth ensures that the smoothing performed during analysis nets the most accurate result (Williamson *et al.*, 1998).

KDE Analysis

Chainey *et al.* (2002) states, “The kernel density method creates a smooth surface of the variation in the density of point events across an area.” According to Ratcliffe and McCullagh (1999), during KDE analysis a grid is overlaid on the study area with the user defining the cell size within the grid. Next, a radius with its size defined by the user is placed over each cell weighting each point within the kernel (Ratcliffe and McCullagh, 1999). Finally, values for each grid cell are calculated by summing the circle surfaces for each location (Ratcliffe and McCullagh, 1999).

According to Chainey *et al.* (2002) two parameters are required to run the KDE analysis, bandwidth and grid cell size. The bandwidth parameter leads to the most variation of output, where a smaller bandwidth should be considered for a small study area and a larger study area requires a larger bandwidth states Eck *et al.* (2005). Bandwidth corresponds directly to the size of the radius or kernel.

The grid cell size parameter is variable according to the user's needs and the scale of the study area (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). A larger cell size creates a lower resolution, and requires less processing power (Harries, 2009). Chainey *et al.* adds a larger cell size will better support larger scale maps. A smaller cell size creates a higher resolution at the cost of more processing power according to Harries. Chainey *et al.* states a smaller cell size will create a smoother surface output.

Incremental Mean Approach

Displaying the results of KDE analysis is another flexibility of this technique. The thresholds for how the continuous surfaces of KDE results are displayed should be consistent and uniform in application across data sets to ensure reliable comparison of results.

A method to find the most applicable hot spot threshold grid cell size is the incremental mean approach (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). Grid cells within the study area with a value greater than zero are selected and the mean is calculated from that group of cells (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). Grid cell thematic thresholds are set at the following mean multiples: 1) 0 to mean, 2) mean to 2 mean, 3) 2 mean to 3 mean, 4) 3 mean to 4 mean, 5) 4 mean to 5 mean, and 6) greater than 5 mean (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). This approach, according to Chainey *et al.* is a

reliable method to define hot spots. Where values of the continuous surface exceed three multiples of the mean, a hot spot is identified with 99.9% significance (Chainey *et al.*, 2002). Eck *et al.* (2005) affirms that the incremental mean approach allows the mapping output to be compared with the global statistical tests to demonstrate their congruency.

Prediction Accuracy Index

An important element of crime mapping that has been overlooked from past studies has been evaluating the accuracy of the predictions and map outputs (Bowers *et al.*, 2004). Groff and La Vigne (2001) utilized a statistical method to test past known burglaries against their developed opportunity map and were able to determine which areas within their study were predicted with higher or lower accuracy. Bowers *et al.* states critical factors that determine map effectiveness and accuracy included hit rate, area, search efficiency rate, number of hot spots, and area to perimeter ratios. The hit rate is the number of new crimes captured, or essentially predicted, by a defined hot spot area (Bowers *et al.*, 2004).

Chainey *et al.* (2008) highlights the usefulness of the hit rate, but found a drawback in its application; a large hot spot could yield a high hit rate, but the hot spot area could be so large that it is useless for effective police deployment.

The prediction accuracy index (PAI) developed by Chainey *et al.* (2008) incorporates the hit rate, hot spot predictions, and area percentage figures into one formula. Chainey *et al.* (2008) defines the area percentage as the percentage of hot spot areas in relation to the whole study area. The advantage to using this method is the PAI results of different crime types or different temporal

groups of the same crime can be compared and any difference is linked to crime or temporal factors; not the “mapping technique, input, or measurement data” used (Chainey *et al.*, 2008). The PAI formula established by Chainey *et al.*:

$$\frac{\left(\frac{n}{N}\right) * 100}{\left(\frac{a}{A}\right) * 100} = \frac{HitRate}{AreaPercentage} = PAI$$

Where:

n = number of crimes within the hot spots

N = number of crimes within the study area

a = combined area of all hot spots

A = total area of the study area

The PAI formula was utilized in the work of Tompson and Townsley (2009) to test the accuracy of hot spot predictions, both spatially and temporally, and was found to provide a relevant and useful metric for hot spot comparison.

Burglary Crime

It is important to establish the elements that constitute a burglary crime. Minnesota State Statute 609.582 Burglary, defines the crime as, “Whoever enters a building without consent and with intent to commit a crime, or enters a building without consent and commits a crime while in the building, either directly or as an accomplice, commits burglary.” Residential burglaries, which are burglaries of dwellings, are the only crime type used in this study. Dwellings can consist of, but are not limited to, single-family homes, townhouses, duplexes, and apartments. Residential burglary crimes can further be classified as to whether the dwelling was occupied or unoccupied by a person at the time the crime was being committed.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to determine an appropriate and accurate procedure incorporating statistical tests and KDE analysis that will identify crime hot spots. The hot spot maps will then be compared to future crime data using the PAI to evaluate their predictive accuracy. This information can assist law enforcement in developing crime prevention strategies ranging from resource deployment to community education.

The analysis process used in this research could be applied to other crimes and this process may be used by other law enforcement agencies for their own crime analysis. However, agencies should consider their jurisdiction’s unique crime patterns, population demographics, and geographic layout before fully incorporating a similar procedure. This research also emphasizes the role law enforcement, GIS, and crime analysis have in creating safer communities through a more integrated approach.

The need for a standardized procedure for identifying crime hot spots for the SPPD has been recognized. This is the first time predictive analysis has been applied to this extent for burglary crime or any other crime for the SPPD.

Currently there is no consistent application of a predictive analysis method to supplement police intelligence within the SPPD. This research provides the SPPD with a flexible foundation for further predictive analysis efforts and research that can be expanded to other crime types and areas throughout the City of Saint Paul. It also provides additional intelligence to direct police resources to crime hot spots within the city.

Data

Most raw data needed for this research was collected from government agencies. Two types of data were gathered, primary, and supporting. The primary data obtained were residential burglary crime data for performing statistical, spatial, and temporal analysis. Supporting data for the development and production of base map images were the second type of data acquired.

Data Collection

Primary Data: Residential Burglary Crimes

Primary data were obtained from the SPPD Records Management System (RMS). The SPPD RMS is a database containing records of all calls for service, documented police activity and written incident reports for the SPPD. For each incident entry in the SPPD RMS database, many spatial and temporal attributes accompany the incident as well as other vital information about the incident. Only specific data attributes were required for each residential burglary crime incident for this analysis.

Primary data were collected over a five-year period, from January 2009 through December 2013. The SPPD RMS has complete records of all reported crimes within this five-year period. Pre-2009 crime data contained in SPPD RMS was incomplete and it is possible it could have introduced an unknown amount of error into the data set. The five-year period also contains the most recent crime data and was representative of current crime incidents.

A query of the SPPD RMS database was performed to acquire the needed data (Figure 1). The data were

exported from the SPPD RMS database to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet.

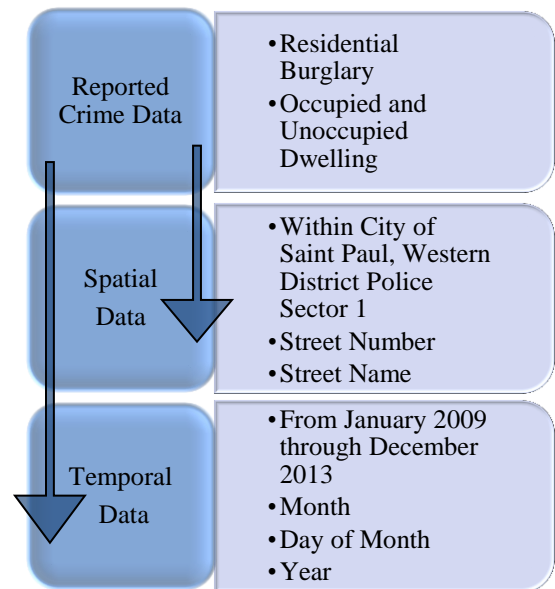


Figure 1. Crime incident data attributes for analysis derived from reported crime data originating from the SPPD RMS database.

Primary Data Preparation

The queried data contained 5,307 entries. Many duplicate entries were generated due to multiple police reports written for the same incident. Duplicate entries were eliminated to prevent over-representation of crime incidents and reduce analysis error. The cleansed data totaled 3,311 incidents and were validated against the SPPD RMS database count of 3,313 reported crimes during the five-year period. This equaled an accuracy of 99.94%, ensuring the two missing crime incidents would not significantly affect the results of the study.

These crime data were then given spatial reference for each data point by the geocoding process. This was performed by the SPPD to guarantee location accuracy using a database containing only valid and verified street addresses within the City of Saint Paul. A shapefile containing all of the geocoded residential burglary crime

data was created. All of the data was projected in UTM NAD83 Zone 15N.

The primary data was divided into three prediction periods in preparation for temporal analysis: 1) Entire data set, 2) One-Year data sets, and 3) One-Month data sets. In total, 66 separate data sets were assigned to one of the three prediction periods. Figure 2 describes the data content for each prediction period.

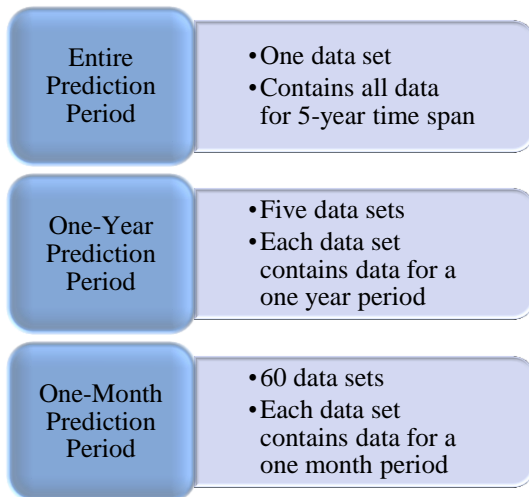


Figure 2. Organization and content of the 66 residential burglary datasets into three prediction periods for temporal analysis.

Supporting Data: Base Map Imagery

Supporting data for the development of a base map displaying the Western District police sector and its individual police grid boundaries were collected. The Western District borders and grid boundaries were created using ESRI ArcMap and ArcCatalog software referencing official documents and data from the City of Saint Paul and the SPPD (Figure 3).

Methods

This section describes processes undertaken during analysis. Four main stages of analysis were applied in this research: 1) global statistical tests, 2) KDE

analysis, 3) incremental mean approach, and 4) the development of the prediction accuracy index. ESRI ArcMap and ArcCatalog software were used for the analysis.

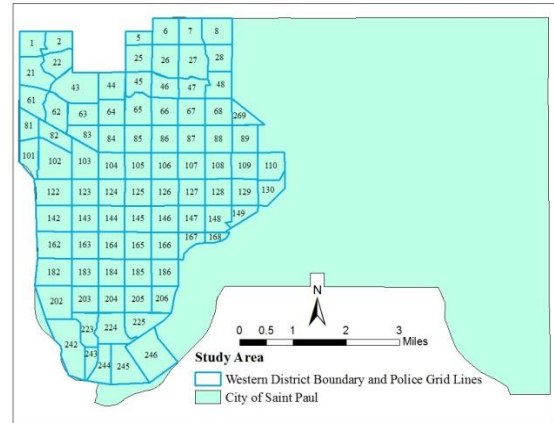


Figure 3. The Western District study area within the City of Saint Paul, Minnesota. District boundary and grid lines are highlighted in dark blue. The Western District is comprised of 88 police beat grids, and covers approximately 22.25 square miles.

Global Statistical Tests

All 66 residential burglary crime data sets were subjected to three statistical tests prior to running the KDE analysis. These statistical tests provide optimal input parameters for the analysis which increase the hot spot accuracy and minimize output error.

The nearest neighbor test for clustering was performed on each data set using the ArcGIS Average Nearest Neighbor tool. The test provided a report summary including the nearest neighbor ratio and a z-score that serves as a confidence indicator for the ratio (Figure 4). A z-score value of -1.65 or less indicated that there was less than 10% chance the distribution was random and confirmed clustering was present within a data set. Data sets without clustering were not included in the KDE analysis.

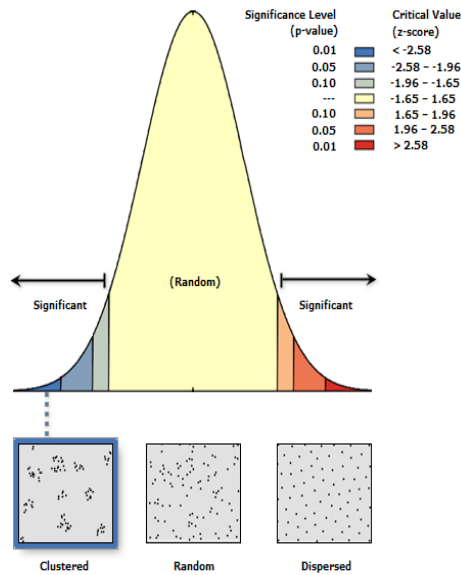


Figure 4. Example of ArcGIS Average Nearest Neighbor Tool summary report. Given the nearest neighbor ratio of 0.689 and z-score of -5.61 for the One-Month October, 2012 data set, there is less than one percent likelihood that this clustered pattern could be the result of random chance.

The standard distance test was applied to each data set with the ArcGIS Standard Distance tool using a circle size of one standard deviation. This test provides a way to test for dispersion and allows for the comparison between the data sets.

The nearest neighbor test to determine bandwidth was performed on each data set using the ArcGIS Calculate Distance Band from Neighbor Count tool. The 40 nearest neighbors were used for the Entire data set, the nearest 20 neighbors were used for the One-Year data sets, and one nearest neighbor was used for calculating the One-Month data sets. The distances returned by this test were used as the input for the bandwidth during the KDE analysis for each data set.

KDE Analysis

The KDE analysis was performed on the

Entire, One-Year, and One-Month data sets using the Kernel Density tool in ArcGIS. Bandwidth was set using the results from the ArcGIS Calculate Distance Band from Neighbor Count tool.

A cell size of five meters was chosen as this was the smallest cell size possible that generated exceptional smoothing accuracy and maintained a reasonable processing time. The selected parameters produced continuous surfaces with variation in their densities according to the input point crime data.

Incremental Mean Approach

The incremental mean approach was applied to each KDE dataset to determine the most accurate thresholds for viewing analysis results and hot spot identification. For each individual KDE raster dataset, the mean value of all cells within the study area were calculated, excluding all cells with the value of zero.

The mean for the Entire data set was calculated by itself as it was the only data set within the prediction period and the thematic thresholds were applied. To ensure a consistent thematic threshold was determined for the One-Year and One-Month data sets, the mean of each KDE raster was used to calculate an average mean within its respective prediction period. The average mean calculated for each prediction period was then applied as the basis for setting the thematic thresholds. The calculated thematic threshold values for all data sets are listed in Table 1.

Predictive Accuracy Index

The PAI formula was applied to the data sets where clustering of crime was present as determined by the global statistical tests and defined hot spot areas were identified

Table 1. Calculated thematic threshold values (TTV) for Entire, One-Year, and One-Month data sets generated from the incremental mean approach. TTV in bold indicate hot spot areas of 99.9% significance.

Mean Multiples	Entire TTV	One-Year TTV	One-Month TTV
0 to Mean	0.000058798	0.000011010	0.000003187
Mean to 2 Mean	0.000117596	0.00002202	0.000006374
2 Mean to 3 Mean	0.000176394	0.00003303	0.000009561
3 Mean to 4 Mean	0.000235192	0.00004404	0.000012748
4 Mean to 5 Mean	0.000293990	0.00005505	0.000015935
Greater than 5 Mean	0.000293991	0.00005506	0.000015936

by the incremental mean approach. The Entire data set, One-Year 2013 data set, and One-Month December 2013 data set were eliminated from analysis as there were no future crime data for comparison to these data sets.

PAI was calculated for the One-Year data sets using future crime data from the following year. For example, to test the predictive ability of the One-Year 2009 hot spot data, the 2010 residential burglary point data was used. Points landing within the hot spot areas were assumed to be predicted by the hot spots.

One-Month data sets had two comparison processes applying PAI. First, for a given One-Month data set, accuracy was tested by the future crime data from the following month. For example, the predictive ability of the One-Month August 2010 hot spot data was tested using September 2010 residential burglary point data (Figure 5). Points landing within the hot spot areas were assumed to be predicted by the hot spots.

Second, for a given One-Month data set, accuracy was tested by the same month of the following year. For example, the One-Month August 2010 hot spot data

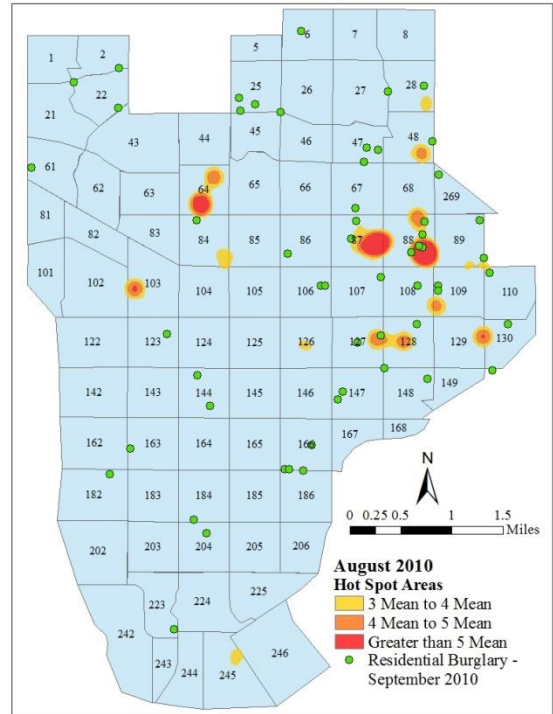


Figure 5. Hot spot area map for One-Month August 2010 Month to Next Month comparison with September 2010 residential burglary point data displayed.

was tested using the August 2011 residential burglary point data (Figure 6). Points landing within the hot spot areas were assumed to be predicted by the hot spots.

Results

The KDE analysis produced hot spot areas of statistical significance in data sets where clustering was present. Applying the PAI to the hot spot areas provided further comparison of the results. Residential burglary crime trends can be recognized in certain areas of the Western District over the Entire, One-Year, and One-Month data sets.

Entire Data Set

KDE analysis of the Entire data set

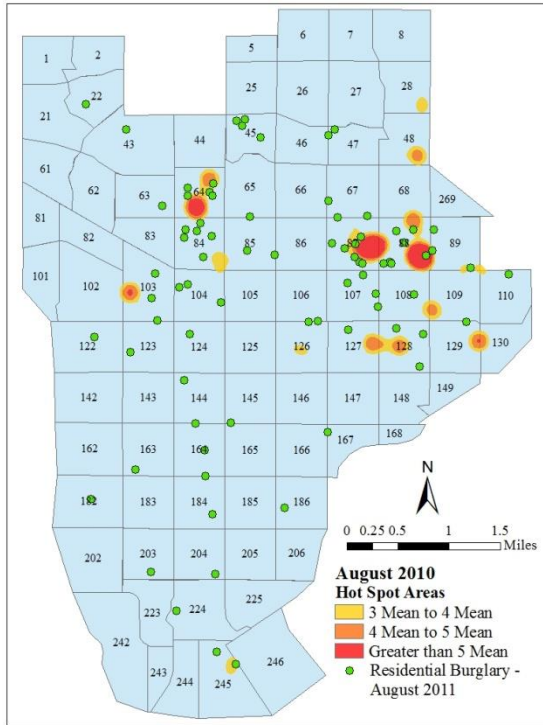


Figure 6. Hot spot map for One-Month August 2010 Month to Same Month Next Year comparison with August 2011 residential burglary point data displayed.

produced hot spots in 17 of 88 grids of the Western District (Figure 7). Hot spots were generally located in the eastern and north central areas of the Western District. The Entire data set was not subjected to PAI as there was no future crime data to apply to this data set.

One-Year Data Sets

KDE analysis of the One-Year data sets produced hot spots in 27 of 88 grids of the Western District (Figure 8). The hot spots were generally located in the eastern and north central areas of the Western District, comparable with the Entire data set.

PAI analysis was applied to the One-Year data sets 2009 through 2012 (Table 2). The One-Year 2013 data set was excluded from PAI analysis, as there were no future crime data to apply to this data set. PAI values for 2009 through 2012

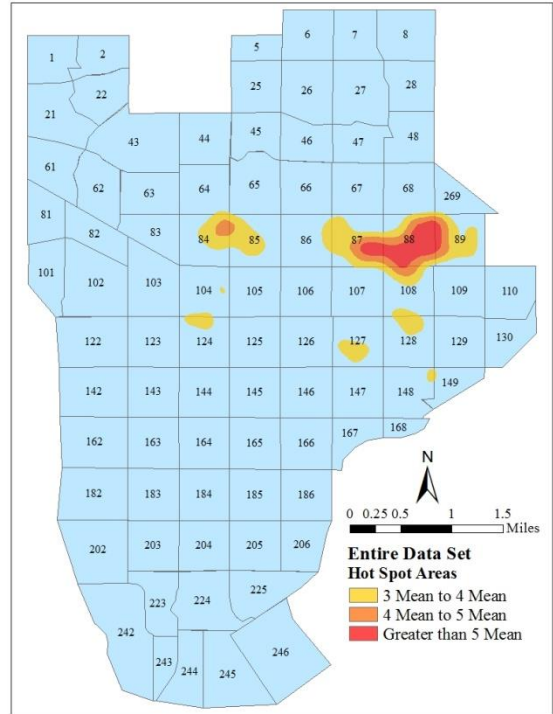


Figure 7. Hot spot map for Entire data set showing hot spot areas within the Western District.

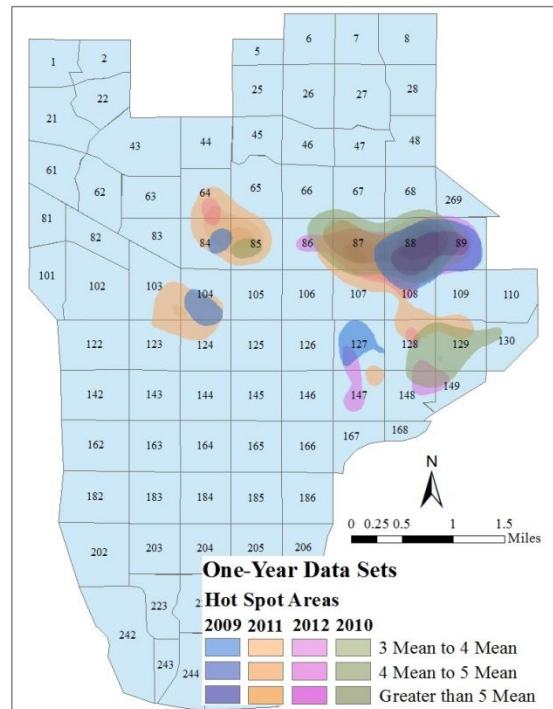


Figure 8. Hot spot map for One-Year data sets 2009 through 2012. The color of the hot spot corresponds to the year of data set it represents.

were consistent as the range between

values was 0.99.

Table 2. PAI statistics for One-Year data sets 2009 through 2012.

One-Year Data Sets	PAI Value
2009	3.53
2010	3.66
2011	3.16
2012	4.15
Mean	3.63

The One-Year 2012 data set achieved the highest PAI value of 4.15. The One-Year 2012 data set hot spots predicted 118 of the 609 residential burglary crimes of 2013.

The One-Year 2011 data set achieved the lowest PAI value of 3.16. The One-Year 2011 data set hot spots predicted 171 of the 710 residential burglary crimes of 2012.

One-Month Data Sets

KDE analysis of the One-Month data sets produced a wider variety of hot spot locations within the Western District compared to the Entire and One-Year data sets. The size of the hot spots for One-Month data sets were generally smaller in area than those of the Entire and One-Year Data sets, more dispersed, and were greater in number.

PAI analysis was applied to the month to next month comparison (Table 3). The PAI values for each data set in this comparison are listed in Figure 9. The average PAI value from the 42 One-Month data sets was 3.92. Ten One-Month data sets did not predict any next month residential burglary crimes and resulted in a PAI value of zero. The July 2012 One-Month data set produced the highest PAI value of 26.06.

PAI analysis was applied to the month to same month next year

comparison (Table 3). The PAI values for each data set in this comparison are shown in Figure 10. The average PAI value from the 42 One-Month data sets was 2.44. Ten One-Month data sets did not predict any same month next year residential burglary crimes and resulted in a PAI value of zero. The April 2012 One-Month data set produced the highest PAI value of 12.50.

Table 3. PAI statistics for One-Month data sets Month to Next Month and Month to Same Month Next Year comparisons.

	Month to Next Month PAI Value	Month to Same Month Next Year PAI Value
Mean	3.92	2.44
Std. Deviation	3.44	1.58
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	26.06	12.50

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to find an accurate method to produce hot spot maps using KDE analysis and compare the accuracy of the results. A secondary purpose was to bring the methodology to the SPPD as a tool to be used for decision-making for reducing and preventing crime.

Hot Spots

Hot spots produced by this study were consistently located in the same areas throughout the Entire, One-Year, and One-Month data sets although the size of the hot spots varied. This is an indication that the hot spots have identified long-term crime trends that have been occurring in the Western District throughout the five years of data that were analyzed. This insight could be used by law enforcement to develop a strategy to address residential burglaries in these problem areas.

The Entire and One-Year hot spots

differ from the One-Month hot spots as they are more appropriate for identifying long-term crime trends. Information on long-term crime trends would be useful for administrative personnel to develop a strategy to combat areas that are consistently plagued with crime.

The One-Month hot spot areas tended to be smaller in size and focused on neighborhoods rather than entire grids of the Western District. One-Month hot spots located pockets of crime throughout the Western District outside areas identified by the Entire and One-Year hot spots. This is an indication the One-Month prediction period has the ability to identify short-term crime trends that are not significant enough to be displayed as a hot spot by the Entire and One-Year data sets. The information produced by One-Month hot spots would be useful for patrol personnel for day-to-day operations at the street level.

PAI Value Comparisons

The PAI values for each of the One-Year data sets were similar, inferring areas with consistently high densities of burglaries were identified by the hot spots. This also

suggests the One-Year prediction period is a reliable temporal measure for the data and study area for this research. The consistency between the results of One-Year data sets can be attributed to the larger amount of data they contain versus the smaller One-Month data sets.

In contrast, the PAI values for the month to next month comparison were more inconsistent, ranging from zero to 26.06. PAI values for the same month to next year comparison were similarly inconsistent, ranging from zero to 12.50. This may be due to the One-Month data sets identifying short-term crime trends that change more rapidly than long-term trends.

The month to next month comparison PAI values in general appear to be higher than the month to same month next year comparison (Figures 9 and 10). This observation was statistically tested with the t-test for equality of means assuming equal variance. Data for the years 2009 through 2012 were used in the t-test for both comparisons. The t-test did not show a statistically significant difference between the mean PAI values for the two comparisons (Table 4).

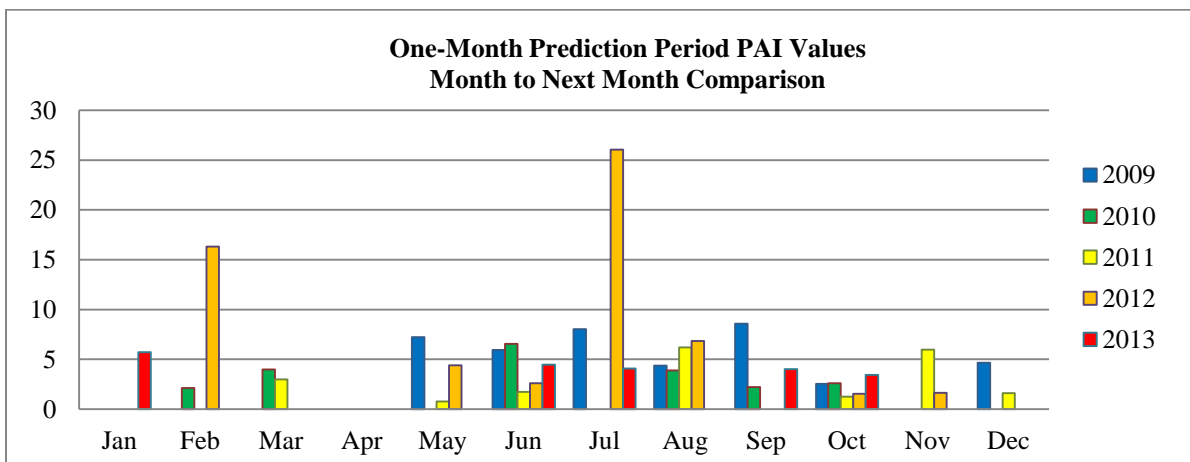


Figure 9. Actual PAI values for One-Month prediction period Month to Next Month comparison.

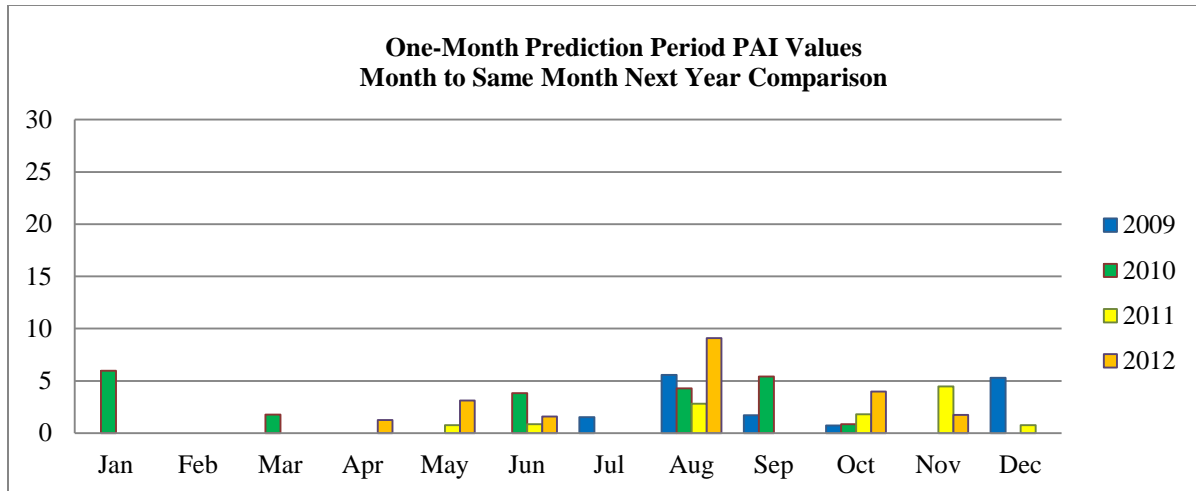


Figure 10. Actual PAI values for One-Month prediction period Month to Same Month Next Year comparison

Table 4. Results of t-test for equality of means of the One-Month prediction period comparisons.

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
F	2.076	
Sig.	0.155	
t-test for Equality of Means		
T	1.822	
Df	64	
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.073	
Mean Difference	1.889	
Std. Error Difference	1.037	
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower: -0.182	Upper: 3.960

Sources of Error

Determining a K-Value

One of the advantages of KDE analysis is the amount of flexibility the user has in setting the parameters affecting the output results. This has the potential to introduce error into results and create inconsistent results that cannot be used for accurate comparison.

For example, determining an appropriate k-value is an important step for KDE analysis due to its large influence on the results. Initially, a k-value of 20 was applied to all data sets in this study as suggested by Chainey *et al.* (2002). The k-value worked well for the One-Year data set,

but not for the Entire and One-Month data sets. The suggested k-value produced a result that was too small in area for the Entire data set and too large in area for the One-Month data sets. Appropriate k-values for each prediction period were determined utilizing the research of Williamson *et al.* (1998), finding larger data sets require a larger k-value and smaller data sets require a smaller k-value. A k-value of 40 for the Entire data set and one for the One-Month data sets produced acceptable results. This troubleshooting process highlights the need for the user to make adjustments to parameters based on their unique study area and data set.

Unreported Crime

It is recognized that crimes go unreported. This research does not account for any unreported crimes. There is no known method for accurately determining the amount of unreported crime. However, the actual number of residential burglary crimes within the Western District from 2009 to 2013 has the potential to be higher than the number of crimes accounted for in the data set used in this research. It is also unknown what impact, if any, unreported crime would have on the results of this study.

Future Directions

The KDE analysis method used for this research could be expanded to include other crime types. Results from this research could benefit from being compared to other crime types in order to determine if other crimes are more or less effectively predicted by this analysis method. Further temporal analysis could prove useful. Analyzing the data by day of week, week of the year, or seasons of the year could provide additional insight on crime trends (Figures 11 and 12).

An additional expansion of this research could be the creation of a crime awareness and alert system for the residents of the Western District. For example, when a crime hot spot is identified within a grid of the Western District, residents within that grid would be notified of the increase of criminal activity in the neighborhood. This would demonstrate that law enforcement is making a proactive effort to address communities that experience elevated levels of crime.

Conclusion

This study was able to accurately identify

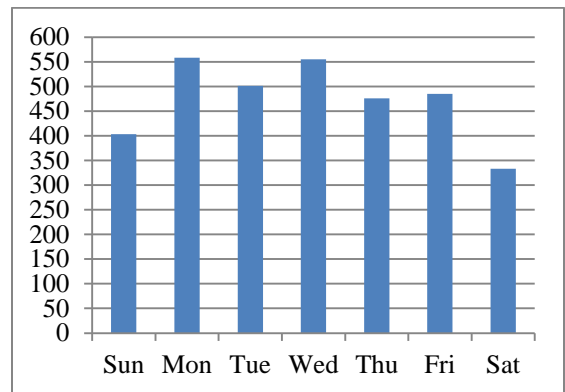


Figure 11. Number of residential burglaries by day of week from 2009 through 2013 within the Western District. Day of week temporal analysis could provide additional insight into crime patterns and trends

hot spots of crime within the study area by applying global statistical tests to the data prior to performing the KDE analysis method. The results provide an easily interpreted visual representation of where high numbers of burglaries occurred. Application of the PAI allows for the hot spot results to be tested for their predictive ability further enhancing the potential for the results to aid in reducing or preventing crime. The process can serve as a foundation for predictive analysis and can be expanded to further spatial and temporal analysis for

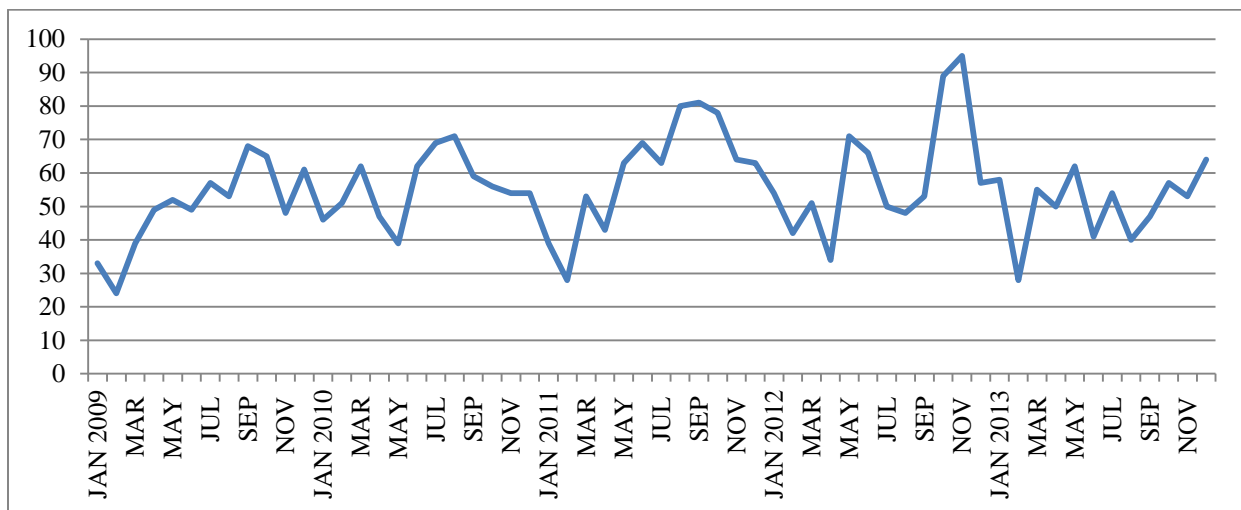


Figure 12. Number of residential burglaries over time by month from 2009 through 2013 within the Western District. Seasonal temporal analysis could identify unique crime trends or patterns.

other crime types by law enforcement agencies.

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