



Induction Package for
Crime Prevention Committees

Garner Clancey and Amanda Wilson - June 2007

Contributing to
a **SAFER**
COMMUNITY

Introduction¹

You've been selected / nominated / co-opted to join a Crime Prevention Committee. Now that you've joined this committee, how are you going to maximise your contribution? Too many committees (not just those focused on crime prevention) achieve little more than the exchange of information amongst members. Given the importance of Crime Prevention Committees, it is critical that every member contributes to their fullest capacity. This will require at least a rudimentary understanding of crime prevention tenets.

Crime Prevention Committees are often made of people from diverse walks of life. Members often come from the following organisations:

- Police
- Local government
- Health
- Housing
- Education
- Corrections and justice (including juvenile justice)
- Business
- Community

Many members will have much to contribute, but will at the outset have limited understanding of key issues relevant to crime prevention. Technical knowledge will be important to ensuring that there is a shared language across the committee and that there is a rigor to contributions and deliberations.

This simple package has been developed to overcome the relative lack of information available to new Crime Prevention Committee members on crime prevention. It is hoped that it will provide important contextual information to enable you to maximise your contribution to the Committee.

¹ Please note that much of the information for this package has been taken from specific fact sheets forming part of the CHD Partners' Crime Prevention Fact Sheet Series. The information from fact sheets developed by Garner Clancey and Amanda Wilson has been re-packaged for the purposes of developing this document. The Crime Prevention Fact Sheet Series can be found at www.chdpartners.com.au – Resources – Fact Sheets.

Purpose of Crime Prevention Committees

Committees will operate differently in different areas. However, Crime Prevention Committees are generally instituted to:

- Bring together relevant organizations and individuals in an area
- Prevent crime through a coordinated approach
- Pool limited resources through a united approach
- Identify and work on key crime problems

Local government is generally responsible for the organisation and management of Crime Prevention Committees. With their close relationship to the local community, local councils can identify key crime problems in the area and mobilise the resources to respond. However, it should be noted that there are limitations to what local government can achieve in preventing crime. The causes of crime are in many instances beyond the control of local government. Consequently, some Crime Prevention Committees seek to lobby higher levels of government to gain financial support and assistance in working towards the prevention of crime. Being aware of the limitations of what a Crime Prevention Committee can achieve is also important to effective functioning. There is little use dedicating unnecessary attention to an issue that is well beyond the reach of the Committee or its individual members.

There is no one perfect arrangement in relation to Crime Prevention Committees. In a study of Victorian Crime Prevention Committees, Cherney found the following variables were important to effective functioning of the committee:

- unambiguous objectives and a sense of focus
- participating agencies being clear about their role and what they are contributing
- open and transparent partnerships
- formal processes for conflict management
- dedicated support of a coordinator
- access to good quality data and protocols for data sharing
- members should ideally be drawn from senior levels
- commitment of and participation by all members²

These are just some of the factors required to make a Crime Prevention Committee function effectively. Your role and contribution should at least in part be guided by the above variables.

² Cherney, A. (2004) 'Crime Prevention / Community Safety Partnerships in Action: Victorian Experience', *Current Issues in Criminal Justice*, Vol 15, No. 3; page 237.

Defining Crime Prevention

There is often some confusion about the use of particular terms related to crime prevention. Crime prevention, community safety, crime control and crime reduction are terms often used interchangeably without any real distinction between each.

In a recent publication, Chainey and Ratcliffe have attempted to distinguish these terms. The following definitions have been adapted and/or replicated from Chainey and Ratcliffe³. They have been listed in descending order of specificity of focus. That is, the terms become increasingly more focused on responding to specific criminal incidents.

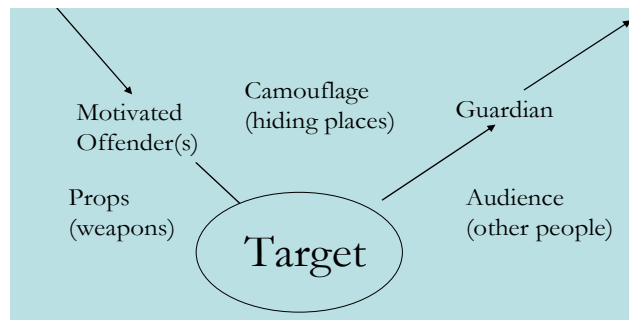
Term	Definition
Community Safety	“Community safety is realized through an integrated consideration of diverse harms to the public, and ‘refers to the likely absence of harms from all sources, not just from human acts classifiable as crimes’ (Wiles and Pease, 2000). Community safety also provides a strategic viewpoint on community harms by focusing attention towards the development of programmes that set targets to manage risks and aims to maximise public safety” (2005:17-18)
Crime Prevention	Crime prevention involves any activity by an individual or group, public or private, which attempts to eliminate crime prior to it occurring or before any additional activity results. By drawing on the public health model, some theorists have distinguished between primary crime prevention (universal), secondary crime prevention (at-risk) and tertiary crime prevention (known offenders).
Crime Reduction	“Crime reduction is concerned with diminishing the number of criminal events and the consequences of crime. Crime reduction is applied within the bandwidth of an available resource input (e.g. financial input) and needs to be considered as an action that brings net benefits, fear of crime and the impact of other programmes that may have contributed to any specific crime reduction activity. Crime reduction promotes a spirit of optimism that actions towards a problem will reduce crime or reduce the seriousness of criminal events ... it aims to intervene directly in the events and their causes” (2005: 19).
Crime Control	“Crime control considers that crime has already happened and that some management of these criminal activities is required to ensure that it does not spiral out of control. It points to the need for maintenance of a problem, one where crime is kept to a tolerable level, and not to a situation where crime can be prevented” (2005: 18-19).

³ Chainey, S. and Ratcliffe, J. (2005) **GIS and Crime Mapping**, John Wiley and Sons, England.

Ingredients of Crime

To prevent crime, one must have a good understanding of what causes crime and the ingredients of crime. One wouldn't accept a diagnosis for a health problem from a doctor who hasn't spent any time examining you. The same should be true for crime. Unfortunately, however, it is often the case that supposed solutions to crime are adopted without really understanding the basic conditions and circumstances contributing to crime in a local area.

For an offence to take place there must be the coming together of particular ingredients in time and space, as depicted below.



(This diagram, has been adapted from Felson, M (2002) Crime in Everyday Life, 3rd Edition, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks)

These ingredients of crime include:

- **A Motivated Offender** – there must be a motivated offender for a crime to take place. The motivated offender moves in and observes a suitable target.
- **A Suitable Target** – a suitable target could include a person, an item (including drugs, cars, mobile phones, etc.) or structure (fence, rail car, bridge, etc.). The motivated, rational offender decides whether there are risks involved in committing the offence.
- **Absence of Capable Guardians** – a motivated offender will offend against a suitable target in the absence of capable guardians. The loss of milk and bread home delivery personnel, ticket conductors and non-working parents, for example, have reduced the number of capable guardians in our communities and neighbourhoods. Security guards and rangers have in some instances, assumed the 'eyes and ears' role once played by these local citizens.
- **Presence of Props and an Audience** – the risk of crime is accelerated by the presence of props (i.e. weapons, spray paint, screw drivers) and an audience. An audience can goad a motivated offender to steal, assault, rob and damage property.
- **Presence of Camouflage** – the presence of camouflage can increase the likelihood of an offence occurring. Hiding spots, sheltered locations and poorly lit spaces will increase the chances of offending.

This provides some insight into the nature of the ingredients of crime. However, this model says little about the factors that contribute to a person's involvement in crime. Understanding what makes one person more likely to be involved in crime than another person in a similar situation or from a similar circumstance has been a source of considerable research and interest for many years. If we were able to accurately predict who would be most likely to engage in criminal activity, then we could help prevent their involvement in crime.

Unfortunately, we are not able to accurately predict who will get involved in crime. Some of the most successful business people engage in criminal activities, while some people who grow up in very difficult circumstances do not get involved in crime.

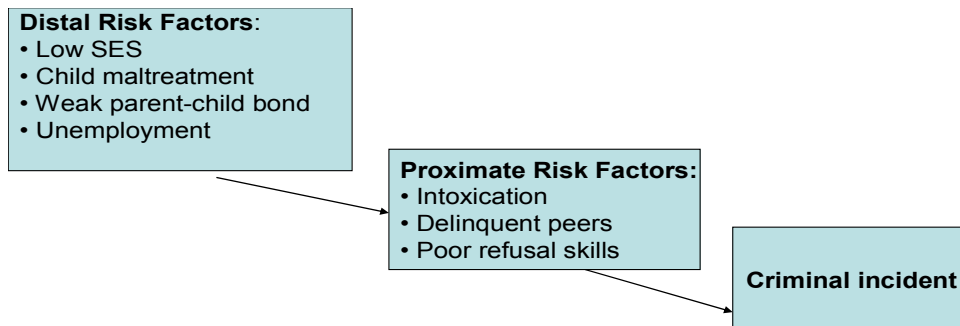
While we cannot accurately predict later involvement in crime, there is increasing evidence of factors that can increase the likelihood of involvement in crime. These factors are known as risk factors. Factors that reduce the chances of being involved in crime are protective factors. Both risk and protective factors tend to be clustered into the following groups:

- Child
- Family
- School
- Life events
- Community and cultural factors⁴

This means that personality, social circumstances, family environment, schooling experience and life events can either protect an individual against becoming involved in crime or increase their chances of involvement in crime.

Some risk factors can have a more immediate contribution to a crime; while others are important background factors, but have a less direct relationship with a crime. For example, many people will be in a position of being taunted by another person at some point in their life. Not all people react to a taunt with violence. If a fight does start, it might be because the person is not very good at controlling their emotions (proximate risk factor). Years of being exposed to violence in the home (distal risk factor) might have contributed to this short temper.

⁴ National Crime Prevention (1999) **Pathways to prevention: Developmental and early intervention approaches to crime in Australia**; National Crime Prevention, Attorney-General's Department, Canberra.



Tackling the immediate and long-term causes of crime will ultimately prove to be the most effective way to prevent crime.

Models of Crime Prevention

Armed with this knowledge, we can now begin to consider how we might tackle and prevent crime.

There are five key models of crime prevention. Each model employs different approaches to prevent crime. Some methods of crime prevention bring about quick results, while others can take many years to result in lower crime. Each model has strengths and weaknesses. Ideally, the best way to prevent crime is to use a combination of strategies from each model.

Model	Explanation	Examples
Developmental	Often known as early intervention, developmental crime prevention seeks to address the early causes of criminality. Reducing community and individual risk factors and increasing protective factors, help to prevent crime later in life.	The most celebrated examples of developmental crime prevention include parenting programs, school enrichment initiatives, pre-school regimes and improvements in transition to school arrangements.
Social	Strengthening neighbourhoods helps prevent crime. Local communities that have strong bonds and where people know each other are less prone to experience crime. Enhancing 'social capital' or the relationships between people can be beneficial in protecting people from crime.	Effective social crime prevention is difficult to achieve because it can involve so many different aspects. Community building activities, provision of welfare services and increasing community support groups all help to enhance the sense of community and prevent crime.
Situational	Stopping the opportunities for crime is an effective way of preventing crime. Increasing the risks of detection, reducing the rewards for offending and increasing the difficulty of offending are all ways to prevent crime.	Situational crime prevention can be as simple as installing locks and alarms, increasing surveillance through lighting and making buildings harder to enter, damage or hide near.
Criminal Justice	The form of crime prevention most commonly understood is associated with the criminal justice system: police, courts and prisons. Research tends to suggest that these measures are only partially successful. These measures work best when accompanied by the other models.	More police, improved arrest rates, harsher penalties and prison are some of the common strategies associated with the criminal justice system. Increasingly there is recognition that there are smarter ways to stop crime – these rely on all models of crime prevention working together.

Diversion programs	Programs or initiatives intended to divert people away from the criminal justice system are also a form of crime prevention. Often these programs are implemented and managed by government agencies or departments and involve the administration of targeted interventions to defendants, offenders or other “at risk” populations in order to reduce offending.	Many of the initiatives administered by state and territory crime prevention divisions fall into this category. Examples in New South Wales include: Magistrates Early Referral Into Treatment (MERIT); Drug Court; Youth Drug and Alcohol Court (YDAC); Rural Alcohol Diversion (RAD) pilot program; and Aboriginal Community Patrols.
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Generally speaking, a combination of models will be the most effective method of preventing crime. However, it should be noted that it will often be difficult for local governments to tackle all relevant features of each model.

This information helps to provide a context to attempts to develop local crime prevention strategies. Thus, it is now timely to review problem-solving models to help guide local crime prevention efforts.

A Crime Problem-Solving Model

There are different ways of conceptualizing the task of solving local crime. While the relative merits of different models are open for debate, the following model developed by Paul Ekblom does provide a very good guide to working through local crime prevention problems. Known as the 5Is, this model infers five steps in crime problem-solving:

- Intelligence
- Intervention
- Implementation
- Involvement
- Impact

INTELLIGENCE – gathering and analysing information on

- crime and disorder problems and their consequences
- offenders and modus operandi
- causes of crime and (with longer-term, developmental prevention) the ‘risk and protective factors’ in young children’s life circumstances associated with later criminality

INTERVENTION – blocking, disrupting or weakening those causes. The interventions cover the entire field:

- acting through both civil prevention and traditional justice/ law-enforcement
- addressing both situational and offender-oriented causes
- and tackling causation at different levels – immediate ‘molecular’ causes of criminal events, higher-level causes in communities, networks, markets and criminal careers, and remote ‘upstream’ causes influenced by manipulation of risk and protective factors in children’ early lives

IMPLEMENTATION – converting the intervention principles into practical methods that are:

- customised for the local problem and context
- targeted on offenders, victims, buildings, places and products, on an individual or collective basis
- planned, managed, organised and steered
- monitored and quality-assured, with documentation of inputs of human and financial resources, outputs and intermediate outcomes
- assessed for ethical issues

INVOLVEMENT – mobilising other agencies, companies and individuals to play their part in implementing the intervention, or acting in partnership, because crime prevention professionals must often work through or with others, rather

than directly intervening in causes of crime. In both cases specifying:

- who was involved
- what broad roles or specific tasks they undertook
- how they were alerted, motivated, empowered or directed (eg by publicity campaigns, financial incentives)
- how a broadly supportive climate was created in the community and how hostility was reduced

IMPACT - nature of evaluation (how the project was assessed, by whom; whether this was a reliable, systematic and independent evaluation; and what kind of evaluation design was used)

- impact results (what worked, how)
- cost-effectiveness, coverage of crime problem, timescale for implementation and impact
- process evaluation (what problems/ tradeoffs faced in implementation, how they were resolved at each stage)
- replicability (which contextual conditions and infrastructure are helpful, or necessary, to successfully replicate this project – or particular elements of it – at each of the 5Is stages)

learning points – both positive and negative (what to do, what not to do)⁵

This model provides clear guidance about how local crimes might be analysed and addressed. As will be shown, however, there are many challenges along the way.

⁵ The information in this box has been replicated from
http://www.designagainstcrime.com/web/5is_detailed_docs.htm

Crime Data

What we know about crime is often the result of analysis of crime data and statistics. Crime data and statistics come from various sources. The following are some of the most common and important forms of crime data.

Police Data – Police capture considerable information about crime, as they are the agency to which people report crime. Police will often be provided with information about location, time of offence and description of an offender. Police might also be provided with or gather information about the modus operandi of the offender and intelligence about particular activities.

Court Data – Court data provides information on the number of people appearing in the different courts (e.g. Children's, Local, District, Supreme) in a given period. Data from the courts can demonstrate sentencing patterns of magistrates or judges, the length of sentences imposed, the number of convictions for particular offences, characteristics of offenders and a range of other important information.

Prison Data – information is routinely captured about the number of prisoners in NSW and Australia. A range of variables are frequently captured, including status (remand or sentenced to imprisonment), sentence length, gender, age, and ethnicity. Other variables about previous offending history, mental health and suicide ideation, for example, might also be captured through surveys of inmates and detainees.

Self-report Studies – In recognition of the limitations of police, court and prison data in identifying the actual levels of crime in a particular jurisdiction or area, surveying of groups within the community has been used to find out what offences they committed over a given period. These surveys demonstrate the often low rates of reporting and detection of various offences.

Community and/or Victim Surveys – Another source of information about crime is via victim surveys. Typically, these surveys involve asking members of the community whether they have been the victims of particular crimes in a particular period and whether they reported this to the police. These surveys assist in demonstrating the differences between actual experiences of victimisation and recorded incidents of victimisation. These surveys also help to demonstrate changes in willingness to report particular crimes to police. Over time, trends can be monitored to determine if people are more or less willing to report certain crimes.

Third-party Data Sources – Official crime statistics are often supported with non-criminal justice data. Insurance agencies maintain accurate records of insurance policy claims; hospitals keep records of accident and emergency admissions which might provide an insight into the number of admissions for alcohol-related assaults; public transport authorities monitor particular crime incidents on their networks; and theft prevention officers watch for and apprehend persons committing shoplifting in their stores. These are just some of the agencies and individuals that will routinely collect data that either does not get incorporated into

crime statistics or is only partially reflected in crime statistics. Consequently, these data can be useful in constructing a 'true' picture of crime in a particular area.

Despite the potential volume of data, it is important to remember that there are a many factors that limit an understanding of the 'true' picture of crime. Some years ago, one researcher identified how the following factors contributed to the actual reporting and recording of a criminal incident.

1. **Social organisation of crime detection** – in its simplest, police receive information about crime in two ways: (1) the public report crimes and provide information and (2) police observe crime through their routine patrols. Police patrols will necessarily only observe particular (public) offences and given the tyranny of distance confronted by Australian policing agencies, the chances of being detected through routine police patrolling are small.
2. **Relationship between the victim and offender** - the reporting of crime is affected by the relationship between the victim and offender. Crimes committed by partners or parents, for example, might be less likely to be reported to police than those offences committed by strangers. This is one reason why crimes like domestic violence and sexual assault have low reporting rates.
3. **Legal seriousness** – the seriousness of an offence will determine the likelihood of a particular incident being reported. For example, minor damage to property might not be reported to police by property owners, because they do not believe that an offender will be apprehended or that it warrants someone being charged.
4. **Complainant status** – an incident reported to police will not always be recorded as a crime on a relevant database. For example, some people will request that police take no action against the offender or perhaps through previous involvement with the victim (or witness), police might not take a complaint seriously. For these reasons, a crime might not be recorded on the police database⁶.

These characteristics result in some crimes having higher reporting rates than others. Offences resulting in death or those that require reporting to police for insurance claims (stolen motor vehicle or break and enter of a residential premise) will have higher reporting rates than offences where the victim knows the offender (sexual assault and domestic violence, for example).

It is also important to understand that while some crimes will be reported, not all will end up with a person being charged and punished:

“When examining our [crime] statistics it must be remembered that not every crime is reported to the police, not every crime that is reported is recorded, not

⁶ Black, D. (1970) 'Production of Crime Rates', *American Psychological Review*, 35, pp 733-748.

every crime that is recorded is investigated, and not every crime that is investigated is cleared (solved), not every crime that is investigated yields a suspect, not every suspect is apprehended, not every apprehended person is charged, not every charged person is brought before the courts, not every person brought before the courts is convicted, and not every convicted person is imprisoned".⁷

Therefore, great caution should be exercised in analysing and interpreting any crime data.

Crime Prevention Committees should be frequently provided with relevant data from key organisations. This data, despite the limitations previously identified, will inform what are the most serious / significant problems and what should be done about them.

Crime statistics only tell us what crimes have been reported and recorded by police. They do not provide any insight into people's perceptions and fears of crime. People in high crime areas might not necessarily have to be an actual victim of crime to have their lives affected by local crime. They might not go out at night because of fear or they might change how they travel home to accommodate their fear.

The consequences of fear can often be as traumatic for people as the direct consequences of being a victim of crime.

Different sources can be employed to review people's perceptions of crime. One recent publication shows how the majority of respondents to a survey measuring perceptions of whether crime is increasing, decreasing or remaining steady, estimated that all crime types listed in the survey were increasing in NSW⁸. This is despite falls in many major crime categories in recent years.

Similar findings were found through the Australian Social Attitudes survey. The Australian Social Attitudes survey, conducted in 2003, asked people questions on various issues, including their perceptions of crime. Of the 4,123 people surveyed, the following table shows the percentages, according to age, of respondents who stated whether crime had increased, decreased or stayed the same.

⁷ Graycar, A. and Grabosky, P. (2002) *Trends in Australian Crime and Criminal Justice*, in Graycar, A. and Grabosky, P. (eds) **The Cambridge Handbook of Australian Criminology**, Cambridge University Press, Port Melbourne, Australia.

⁸ Weatherburn, D. and Indermaur, D. (2004) 'Public Perceptions of Crime Trends in New South Wales and Western Australia', Crime and Justice Bulletin: Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice, No. 80, NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research, Sydney.

	Increased	Stayed the same	Decreased
18-34	60	30	6
35-49	68	23	5
50-64	70	26	7
65+	81	16	4

Source: Indermaur, D. and Roberts, L. (2005) 'Perceptions of Crime and Justice', in Wilson, S.; Meagher, G.; Gibson, R.; Denmark, D. and Western, M. (eds) **Australian Social Attitudes: The First Report**, UNSW Press, Sydney.

These survey results shows that more people aged over 65 years think that crime is increasing than those people aged less than 65 years. This survey confirmed previous research findings, by identifying males, younger and more highly educated people as being most accurate in their perceptions of crime.

Reducing people's fear of crime and correcting inaccurate perceptions of crime are important social goals, given the negative consequences that can arise from people's fear.

Prioritising Crime Problems

Once good quality data is provided to the Crime Prevention Committee, decisions will have to be made about what priorities will be identified. It will be impossible to work on all crime problems simultaneously. Consequently, having a basis for determining priorities will be beneficial.

Don Weatherburn (Director, NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research) recommends the following schema for determining crime control priorities:

1. Problems attracting considerable public concern
2. Prevalence of a particular kind of crime
3. Whether the crime problem is becoming more prevalent
4. The level of harm caused to individuals or society by a problem
5. Potential harm caused by an unchecked law and order problem⁹

Ascertaining the relative size of each issue is a challenge. However, some support can be provided by a study that looked at the costs of crime.

Estimating the exact costs of crime is very difficult. There are many things to consider. For property offences, there will be the costs of repairing damaged or stolen goods, costs associated with the excess of insurance premiums and costs for retailers involved in generating further sales to cover the damaged or stolen items. Measuring the costs of these crimes, while difficult, is far easier than estimating a dollar figure for the loss of human life or for the trauma associated with sexual assault or the physical damage of an assault.

One study by the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC) has tried to measure some of the potential financial costs of particular crime categories. The following are the figures derived by the AIC:

- Homicide – total cost \$930m or \$1.6 million per victim
- Vehicle theft – total cost \$880m or \$6,000 per theft of vehicle
- Theft from vehicles - \$530 million or \$550 per theft from vehicle
- Shop theft - total cost \$810 million or \$110 per shop theft
- Criminal damage - total cost \$1.34 billion or \$700 per incident of criminal damage
- Assault – total cost \$1.44 billion or \$1,600 per assault
- Burglary - total cost \$2.41 billion or \$2,400 per burglary
- Robbery - total cost \$600 million or \$3,600 per robbery
- Sexual assault - total cost \$230 million or \$2,500 per sexual assault
- Fraud - total cost \$5.8 billion
- Drug offences - total cost \$1.96 billion¹⁰

⁹ Weatherburn, D. (2004) **Law and Order in Australia: Rhetoric and Reality**, Federation Press, Annandale; pages 205-206.

Local Crime Prevention Initiatives

In considering all of these issues regarding prioritisation of crime problems, it is necessary to consider the scope of local crime prevention initiatives.

The following table provides an overview of what role local government can play in the prevention of crime. From this table, it is apparent that a whole-of-council response to crime prevention is critical, given the numerous areas of local government with key responsibilities for aspects of crime prevention.

Function	
<p>Planning / Design</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - Local government has responsibility for aspects of the planning system. Through approval of development applications and establishing local design guidelines (i.e. Development Control Plans and Local Environmental Plans), considerable influence can be brought to bear on the built environment. Plans should incorporate crime prevention through environment design principles.</p>
<p>Examples</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produce a specific Development Control Plan on crime prevention. • Train relevant council staff in crime prevention through environmental design. • Develop a Memorandum of Understanding with the Local Area Command (NSW Police Force) regarding procedures for vetting development assessments.
<p>Amenity / Maintenance</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - Local government assumes a key role in the provision and maintenance of diverse local amenities. The provision of local infrastructure can help promote a sense of community and increase interaction between local residents. Effective maintenance of these amenities and the local area more generally will help prevent the decline of particular locations. It is generally accepted that rubbish and damage to property contribute to further degradation and crime.</p>
<p>Examples</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain local areas, through rubbish removal, rapid repair of damage and regular clean ups. • Initiate a rapid graffiti removal policy, including assistance to local businesses and residents. • Conduct a risk assessment on council properties and implement appropriate strategies to reduce malicious damage. • Seek to utilize art to reduce potential malicious damage to property.
<p>Social / Community</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - Commonwealth and state government's are responsible for the provision of key social, educational, welfare and health services. However, local government contributes to many of these services. Various community services that are managed and/or supported by local government contribute significantly to the quality of life of local residents. Furthermore, community building activities are frequently sponsored and initiated by local government.</p>

¹⁰ Mayhew, P. (2003) 'Counting the Costs of Crime in Australia', No. 247 Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra.

<p>Examples</p>	<p>Through this relationship with local residents, local government also acquires significant insights into the needs of residents. This information can be used to lobby other tiers of government and to respond to specific concerns, including fear of crime.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop relevant social policies and plans. • Provide social programs and services, including child care facilities, libraries and programs for young people / elderly, etcFund and conduct local community building activities, including markets, arts and cultural performances, sporting activities, etc. • Respond to emerging social needs through the coordination of the delivery of local services.
<p>Economic</p> <p>Examples</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - The economic conditions of an area can have significant consequences for local residents. Employment opportunities close to home and the quality of local amenities and infrastructure are just two positive consequences of a strong local economy.</p> <p>Work cooperatively with local business groups to maximise opportunities for economic improvement.</p> <p>Lobby relevant tiers of government to stimulate local economic growth.</p> <p>Coordination of the night time economy and establishment of Liquor Accords to prevent alcohol-related crime.</p>
<p>Governance</p> <p>Examples</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - The practices of local government will contribute to perceptions of good governance. Corrupt or inept local government practices might contribute to perceptions of permissiveness in an area. Such a milieu could be conducive to criminality more generally. Consequently, the overall performance of local government is important in building trust in the state and for promoting responsible government and business activities.</p> <p>Furthermore, local government assumes a significant role in the governance of crime prevention. Local government can be effective in coordinating crime prevention strategies through their coordination and management of local advisory groups. Information gathered from these advisory groups and resident panels can then be utilised to inform the work of various sections of local government.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eradicate local government corruption and mal-administration. • Establish, manage and review the operation of crime prevention advisory committees. • Provide opportunities for local residents and visitors to the area to voice their concerns about crime and the fear of crime. • Develop clear plans for the prevention of crime and ensure that these plans are integrated into other administrative functions. • Promote involvement of senior local government personnel in crime prevention. • Maintain good relationships with key stakeholders, including police, corrections, housing, health, education, transport, welfare and business representatives.

<p>Media / Perceptions of Crime</p>	<p>OBJECTIVES - Negative crime stories are frequently run in local (and other) media. These stories can in part contribute to fear of crime. Local government can take an active role in combating these perceptions of crime. Through coordinated responses to stories arising periodically about crime and the promotion of various activities associated with crime prevention, negative perceptions of areas (and communities) can be challenged.</p>
<p>Examples</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop media policies that result in rapid response to stories about local crime. This might involve participation of senior local government personnel or elected members, police, local business and community leaders. • Promote preventative strategies adopted in the local area. • Coordinate an annual campaign highlighting particular areas / issues being targeted. For example, behaviour of school students moving to and from school might be targeted at the commencement of the school year; licensed premises and alcohol-related crime might be targeted at the commencement of summer; graffiti reporting and removal campaigns be conducted twice yearly; illegal parking might receive specific attention periodically; etc. Through coordinated campaigns to address these common issues, regular stories could be run depicting these coordinated responses.

Program Logic Model

Once crime prevention strategies have been developed, attention then needs to turn to implementation. While implementation is unlikely to be the responsibility of the entire Crime Prevention Committee, it is beneficial for all committee members to understand the challenges associated with implementation. The program theory or program logic model can be helpful in guiding crime prevention strategy implementation.

Program theory, also referred to as program logic, is rapidly gaining popularity due to its ability to counteract the two main reasons for an unsuccessful program¹¹ :

1. **Implementation failure** – the failure of the program to put the intended activities into operation.
2. **Theory failure** – the failure of the theory or theories behind the program to bring about the desired effects.

Unlike evaluations which only focus on outcomes, program theory tells us how and why a program works/does not work. Program theory identifies and addresses the intervening ‘mechanisms’ between the administration of services (activities and events) within the program and the outcomes generated by those activities, as well as participant’s responses to program services¹².

There are seven key components to a program logic model:

1. **Situation** – the problem or issue that is being addressed by the program.
2. **Priorities** – the main goals which the program sets out to achieve in order of precedence.
3. **Inputs** – resources or investments which go into the program.
4. **Outputs** – activities, events, services or products of the program and the people they reach.
5. **Outcomes-Impact** – end results, effects or changes resulting from the program and who or what is impacted by those outcomes.
6. **Assumptions** – speculative thoughts we have about the program, its context, how it is going to work and the people the program affects.
7. **External Factors** – those factors that we cannot control which may have a positive or negative impact on the program.

¹¹ Weiss, C 1997, ‘Theory-based evaluation: past, present, and future’, in D J Rog & D Fournier (eds.) 1997, *Progress and future directions in evaluation: perspectives on theory, practice, and methods*, *New Directions for Evaluation*, no. 76, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, p.41.

¹² Ibid., p.46.

A program logic model clearly outlines the reasons for the program, its aims and objectives, what activities or events are taking place to meet those objectives, and the short, medium and long-term impacts of the program. This information can be used to identify problems and make informed improvements to the program in order to increase its overall efficiency and effectiveness. Additionally, it gives people involved in administering the program a clear idea as to how their contributions fit into the “bigger picture” which in turn gives them an increased sense of ownership.

For an online tutorial on how to develop and use program logic models effectively visit:

http://www.uwex.edu/ces/lmcourse/interface/coop_M1_Overview.htm

Evaluating Impact

Irrespective of what measures are adopted locally, it will be important to consider the impact of the crime prevention strategies implemented. There are several ways to approach crime prevention evaluation, depending on the nature of the program or initiative being evaluated. The following table outlines some of the main types of evaluation used in crime prevention.

Evaluation Type	
Experimental	<p>Description - Often referred to as “gold star” research, experimental designs involve the allocation of subjects to a treatment and control group in order to assess the impact of an intervention designed to reduce crime. The allocation of subjects can either be random (randomised controlled experiments) or non-random (quasi-experiments).</p>
	<p>Application - Randomised controlled experiments may be used to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions such as cognitive behaviour programs for prisoners, or a drug treatment program.</p> <p>A quasi-experiment may be used to assess the effectiveness of an intervention on larger units such as Local Government Areas.</p>
Realist	<p>Description - A realist evaluation seeks to explain ‘what works for whom and in what circumstances’¹³ by formulating, testing and refining Context-Mechanism-Outcome pattern Configurations (CMOCs).</p>
	<p>Application - A realist evaluation may be employed if wanting to investigate the effectiveness of an intervention. Such an evaluation would use CMOCs to identify what contextual conditions are necessary for the intervention to work. For example, an evaluation of citizen patrols may find that they are only successful in small, close knit communities.</p>
Process and Impact	<p>Description - Process and impact evaluations are the most common approaches to crime prevention evaluation. They seek to answer two questions: (1) Has the program been implemented as planned? (process) and (2) Is the program achieving its intended objectives? (impact)¹⁴</p>
	<p>Application - A process evaluation would be useful if you wanted to monitor/assess the delivery of a program or investigate participant experiences.</p> <p>Impact evaluations are normally carried out at the end of a pilot phase and tend to focus on both intended and unintended outcomes of the program.</p>

¹³ Tilley, N 2000, 'The rediscovery of learning: crime prevention and scientific realism', in Hughes, G & Edwards, A (eds.) 2002, *Crime control and community: the new politics of public safety*, Willan Publishing, Devon.

¹⁴ Maxfield, M G & Babbie, E 2005, *Research methods for criminal justice and criminology*, 4th edn., Thompson Learning, Victoria.

Economic	Description - Economic evaluations involve subjecting a program/initiative to a cost-benefit analysis to determine if it provides value for money. Most economic evaluations use the following calculation to determine the worth of a program: net benefits = tangible benefits + intangible benefits – program costs ¹⁵ .
	Application - An economic evaluation would be employed if the funding body wanted to know whether it would be worth funding or continuing to fund a program or initiative. For example, a Council might conduct an economic evaluation to determine whether it is worthwhile investing in CCTV cameras.
Theory-driven	Description - These evaluations seek to better understand how a program works by developing a program theory. This involves investigating the program's inputs, activities and short, medium and long term outcomes.
	Application - Ideally, theory-driven evaluations should be used to complement other evaluation designs, such as quasi-experiments. However, many evaluators will choose a theory-driven approach if they want to identify the 'intervening mechanisms' of an intervention ¹⁶ .
Action-oriented	Description - Often considered the most appropriate model for evaluating community crime prevention programs, action-oriented evaluations address the 'immediate information needs' of program managers ¹⁷ . This immediate information may include whether or not the program has been implemented correctly and whether it is/is not working.
	Application - The action-oriented approach is especially useful to program managers of community crime prevention programs. It enables them to both increase their knowledge about a program and make targeted improvements. This knowledge can then readily be applied to later programs.

Furthermore, it is important to consider any unintended consequences of crime prevention initiatives. A crime prevention strategy might not only have a direct impact on the crime and location that is being targeted, but also have other positive and negative consequences. Diffusion of benefits occurs when a crime prevention initiative has other positive outcomes. These might include preventing other crimes not directly targeted. If boom gates were installed in a shopping centre car park to prevent motor vehicle theft, but it was also found that their installation had caused a reduction in stealing from motor vehicles, then in the absence of other strategies having affected this change, the boom gates might have caused this diffusion of benefits.

¹⁵ Donato, R & Shanahan, M 1999, 'The economics of implementing intensive in-prison sex-offender treatment programs', *Trends & issues in crime and criminal justice*, no.134, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra.

¹⁶ Kent, D R, Donaldson, S I, Wyrick, P A & Smith, P J 2000, 'Evaluating criminal justice programs designed to reduce crime by targeting repeat gang offenders', *Evaluation and Program Planning*, no.23, pp.115-124.

¹⁷ English, B J, Cummings, R & Straton, R G 2002, 'Choosing an evaluation model for community crime prevention programs', in Tilley, N (ed.) 2002, *Evaluation for crime prevention*, Crime Prevention Studies, vol.14, Willan Publishing, Devon.

In contrast to the diffusion of benefits, a crime prevention initiative might also cause displacement. For example, access control measures (i.e. entry phones) installed in a housing complex might cause displacement of break, enter and steal offences into a neighbouring housing complex without entry phone technology. This form of displacement is known as geographical displacement, as the same crime is being committed in another area due to the original crime prevention initiative.

There are generally five potential types of displacement and diffusion of benefits. These are illustrated below.

Type	Definition	Diffusion	Displacement
Geographical	The offence occurs elsewhere	Reduction in target and surrounding area	Switch to another location to offend
Temporal	The offence occurs at a different time	Offences reduced at other times	Offences committed at other times
Target	The offender selects a different target	Various items protected rather than just one protected	Other items stolen
Tactical	The offender goes about committing the offence differently	Other tactics blocked	Other tactics used to achieve same result
Crime type	The offender is dissuaded from the original offence and elects to commit another	Other crime types also prevented	Other crimes committed instead

(Table adapted from Clarke, R. and Eck, J. Crime Analysis for Problem Solvers: in 60 small steps, Center for Problem-Oriented Policing)

By way of illustrating the above table, if security guards are deployed at a car park known for high rates of motor vehicle theft, then geographical displacement will occur if rates of motor vehicle theft increase at neighbouring car parks. Temporal displacement will occur if the thefts increase during daylight hours, as opposed to evenings, when the security guards are deployed. Target displacement occurs if bicycles are stolen rather than cars, while tactical displacement might include the apprehension of the guards while cars are stolen. Finally, crime type displacement would involve a rise in break, enter and steals, due to the offenders electing to commit different crimes.

Both diffusion of benefits and displacement should be considered during the formulation of crime prevention strategies. Often data will need to be captured prior to the implementation of a crime prevention initiative to determine if diffusion of benefits and / or displacement occurs.

Further Resources

With this basic knowledge, you should be able to contribute to your Crime Prevention Committee. However, not everything you will need to know has been included here. The following websites will help you to further expand your knowledge of crime and its prevention.

As a starting point, you might like to visit our website – www.chdpartners.com.au or the following renowned websites:

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime -

<http://www.unodc.org/unodc/index.html>

Australian Institute of Criminology - <http://www.aic.gov.au/>

National Crime Prevention - <http://www.ncp.gov.au/>

Sydney Institute of Criminology - <http://www.law.usyd.edu.au/~criminology/>

NSW Lawlink - <http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au>

Crime Prevention Victoria -<http://www.crimeprevention.vic.gov.au>

South Australian Crime Prevention Unit - <http://www.cpu.sa.gov.au/>

Office of Crime Prevention, Western Australia -

<http://www.crimeprevention.wa.gov.au>

Crime Prevention Queensland -

<http://www.communities.qld.gov.au/community/crimeprevention/index.html>

UK Crime Reduction - <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk>

UCL Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science - <http://www.jdi.ucl.ac.uk/>

National Crime Prevention Council - <http://www.ncpc.org/>

European Crime Prevention Network -

http://europa.eu.int/comm/justice_home/eucpn/home.html

New Zealand Crime Prevention Unit - <http://www.justice.govt.nz/cpu/>