

# Understanding unsolved crimes hotspots: a spatial approach

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## Abstract

In this paper, unsolved crime hotspots are investigated through a spatial approach. Using data from more than 52,000 homicides, throughout the last decade, in the largest cities in the United States, common tests are carried out to detect the presence of spatial dependence, and later spatial mapping and modeling tools are used. The analysis carried out is intended to be useful to understand (and prevent) those crimes that are not solved.

## Introduction

Over the past few years, numerous studies have investigated the determinants and effects of crime hotspots. Many studies suggest that crime is not evenly distributed throughout space, but rather is concentrated in certain areas called “hotspots” ([L. W. Sherman, Gartin, and M. E. Buerger 1989](#), [D. Weisburd et al. 1992](#) and [Eck and D. L. Weisburd 2015](#)).<sup>1</sup> As defined by [L. W. Sherman 1995](#) hotspots are small places in which the occurrence of crime is so frequent that it is highly predictable, at least over one year. Given this definition, no doubt knowing which areas are hotspots can be used to fight crime. Therefore the analysis of these areas is very useful to reduce crime.

An important part of the literature on hotspots stick to the following structure: mapping crimes, identifying hotspots through a particular method, using some type of spatial dependency test and later using a particular approach, such as trying to model spatial dependency (see [Baller et al. 2001](#)). On the other hand, another part of the literature uses OLS models to see the impact of hotspots on some variable (see, for example, [Ceccato and Wilhelmsson 2020](#) where they see the impact of hotspots on property prices). Finally, there are those studies that try to see which variables can explain crime without explicitly including spatial dependence. An example is that of [Favarin 2018](#), where he shows that in Milan Italy there are hotspots, that they are stable and try to explain them through different factors using negative binomial regressions models.

Since hotspot phenomena are essentially spatial phenomena, it is difficult to find a study that omits tools of spatial econometrics entirely. Furthermore, all the studies cited here that have performed a Moran’s I or similar test obtained results that suggest spatial dependence, so ignoring spatial effect in this type of analysis is not very common.

As commented before, one of the reasons why investigating crime hotspots is relevant is because there is abundant evidence on the effectiveness of police interventions in hotspots (see for example [Kuo, Lord, and Walden 2013](#) and for a summary of the available evidence see [Braga, Papachristos, and Hureau 2014](#)).

In this work, the hotspots of unsolved crimes are investigated through spatial analysis. As said before, over the years, hundreds of papers have been devoted to analyzing the

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<sup>1</sup>Some authors write “hotspots” as “hot spots”.

hotspots of different types of crimes and their effects on other variables, but to date, no study has looked specifically at hotspots of those crimes that are not solved.

This paper contributes mainly to two pieces of literature. On the one hand, it analyzes crime hotspots like many other works. It will seek to replicate some stylized facts, such as showing that crimes are not distributed randomly but that there are clusters. On the other hand, this work contributes to crime prevention literature. Much of the criminology work focuses on crimes without discriminating whether they were solved or not. Focusing on unsolved crimes can be useful to dedicate resources precisely to avoid those crimes that for various reasons cannot be solved.

## Spatial Econometrics background

As [Herrera Gómez et al. 2017](#), p. 2 comments, the birth of spatial econometrics is located around 1979. In its early years, the models that explicitly incorporated space were focused on issues of geographic or urban economy, however, over the years, spatial econometric models began to be applied in other areas. Among the areas that were influenced by spatial econometrics is the study of crime.

Given that the phenomenon of hotspots is related to non-random distributions in space, the use of spatial tools to identify clusters is commonplace (for example, many of the examples used in spatial econometrics textbooks are related to criminology, see [Sarrias 2020](#), [LeSage 2015](#) and [Elhorst 2014](#)). One of the first steps in studies that analyze hotspots is to map these hotspots, for this, there are various methods as dot maps, line maps, ellipse maps, etc. Depending on the type of data and what you want to show, different methods are used. Line maps, for example, are useful when hotspots are along streets whereas Dot Maps, are used when hot spots are at specific addresses, corners, and other places. Ellipse and choropleth maps are used when the designated hotspots share the same risk level, so a specific location inside that area is irrelevant (see [Table 1](#) for more methods and examples).

As previously stated, hotspot analyzes begin through the use of some spatial dependency test, whether local or global. Some of these tests are Moran's I and Geary's C. These tests are generally computed through particular softwares, as an example, the CrimeStat spatial software includes the above tests ([Levine 2006](#), p. 44). Local Moran's I tests are common in the literature of crime hotspots; [Kerry et al. 2010](#) investigates car theft, [Murray et al. 2001](#) investigates property crimes, [Baller et al. 2001](#) turned their attention to homicides and [Cohen and Tita 1999](#) attempted to identify clusters in violent crimes.

When looking for jobs that include spatial analysis, it is convenient to review the most recent jobs because these tend to use particular tools of spatial econometrics. [Ahmed and Salihu 2013](#) investigate hotspots for various categories of crime in Nigeria through interpolation methods (particularly using the Inverse Distance Weighted method). In most papers, crimes are mapped, however, not many stop to analyze the predictive capacity of the method used. [Chainey, Thompson, and Uhlig 2008](#) show that it is not only relevant to be able to map hotspots but also to evaluate the predictive capacity of crime, since it is useless to find hotspots if they will disappear in the future. By comparing various methods, it shows how effective each one is in predicting crime.

As mentioned above, many works perform spatial dependency tests, [Chakravorty 1995](#),

Table 1: Tools used in crime concentration investigation

Methods	Example
<b>Mapping</b>	
Dot maps	Ceccato and Wilhelmsson 2020
Line maps	Telep and Hibdon 2019
Ellipse maps	Zhang et al. 2010
Grid thematic maps	Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig 2008
Choropleth/thematic maps	Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig 2008
Isoline maps	Telep and Hibdon 2019
Interpolation and continuous surface smoothing methods	Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig 2008
<b>Test for spatial auto correlation</b>	
Moran's I	Baller et al. 2001
Geary's C	Eck, Chainey, et al. 2005
<b>Local Indicators of Spatial Association (LISA) statistics</b>	
Gi and Gi*	J. H. Ratcliffe and McCullagh 1999
Local Moran's I	Rogerson and Kedron 2012
Local Geary's C	Anselin 2019
<b>Commonly used software</b>	
CrimeStat	Levine 2006
GeoDa	Leitner and Brecht 2007
ArcView	Brunsdon, Corcoran, and Higgs 2007
<b>Regression models</b>	
Spatial lag model (SLM)	Kubrin and Weitzer 2003
Spatial error model (SEM)	Miles-Doan 1998

Table 1 shows a summary of different tools used to detect and analyze hotspots and spatial interactions in crime related research. The table organization is mainly based on the works of Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig 2008 and Chainey and J. Ratcliffe 2013.

p. 57 through an analysis of Philadelphia, recommends that to locate hotspots it is advisable to perform LISA tests instead of global tests because LISA tests identify small local clusters when large heterogeneous areas are used. On the other hand, [Rogerson and Kedron 2012](#) suggests that due to the problem of using different weighting matrices it is necessary to adjust for the multiple tests performed, in the work a local Moran's I test is developed that adjusts by testing with multiple weighting matrices.

As mentioned before, there are works that explicitly model special effects. What is interesting about the work of [Baller et al. 2001](#) is that they use models that explicitly take spatial effects into account and compare them. The authors find that there is residual spatial autocorrelation in all the investigated periods, in addition to the fact that there are diffusion effects in which certain crimes in some counties of United States have an influence on crimes in others.

[Law, Quick, and Chan 2015](#) investigated about hotspots for violent crime in Toronto (2006-2007), through a Bayesian approach, they identify hotspots based on the trend from 2006 to 2007. An interesting aspect of this work is that it adopts a non-frequentist approach that according to the authors is convenient from a law enforcement perspective. This type of study is not very common.

It is also relevant to highlight that the works that analyze hotspots do so by selecting a certain time window (commonly months or years), these works then have panel data so it is also possible to perform spatio-temporal analyzes. Among those works that study crime hotspots with a spatio-temporal approach is [He, Páez, and Liu 2017](#) who study the temporal persistence of hotspots. The study shows that certain socio-economic factors manage to explain the presence of violent crimes in hot zones.

## Data

The data comes from a Washington Post work. The database contains more than 52,000 homicides in the past decade in the 50 largest cities in the United States. The database includes the location (latitude and longitude), if the case is closed and if there were any arrests among other basic data of the victim (race, sex, age). This database was built through data that comes from different sources. As the repository from Washington Post said, reporters worked for months to clean up the data and standardize it. In comparisons with FBI data, it was verified that the database is consistent with other sources.

A homicide is considered to be closed by arrest when police reported that to be the case. Cases were counted as closed without arrest if they were reported to be "exceptionally cleared". This means that there is enough evidence but an arrest is not possible, an example of this is when the suspect has died. All other cases were classified as having no arrest.

Some analysis of the database can be found at [Washington Post](#). More information on the database can be found in a [Github Repository](#).

## Descriptive statistics

Some descriptive statistics can be seen in [Table 2](#). Most of the variables are dummies. It is possible to see that the victims tend to be relatively young (around 30 years old) or



Figure 1: Evolution of solved and unsolved homicides

that the cases that are closed and not resolved are only 5%.

Some relationships that can be observed through this dataset is that the proportion of unsolved cases (open or closed without arrest) is approximately 51%. On the other hand, through the data of the victims we can see that in the case that the victim is a black person, it is more likely that the case is not resolved (54% for black people, compared to 37% for people white). Something similar happens with men, men's cases tend to be resolved less (53% compared to 42% in the case of women).

Table 2: Descriptive statistics

Statistic	N	Mean	Min	Max
open_or_no_arrest	52,179	0.508	0	1
closed_without_arrest	52,179	0.056	0	1
arrest	52,179	0.492	0	1
black	52,179	0.639	0	1
white	52,179	0.121	0	1
male	52,179	0.781	0	1
age	49,180	29.120	1.000	101.000

A temporal analysis shows us that over time, there was a greater increase in unsolved crimes than in solved crimes (Figure 1).

## Methodology

## Results

## Conclusions

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