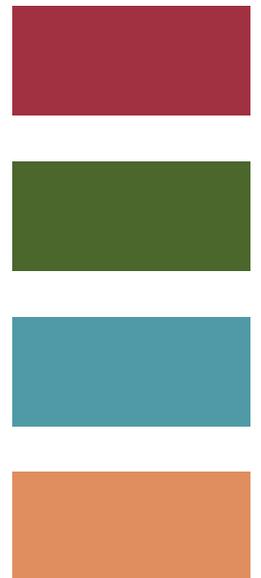# EUROPEAN CRIME PREVENTION NETWORK

EUCPN Toolbox Series

No. 3

Evaluation of crime prevention initiatives

In the framework of the project 'Towards a European Centre of Expertise on Crime Prevention'
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Evaluation of crime prevention initiatives

Preface

This third toolbox in the series published by the EUCPN Secretariat focuses on the main theme of the Irish Presidency, which is the evaluation of crime prevention initiatives. The theme is explored and elaborated in various ways through: a literature review; two workshops with international experts and practitioners during which the strengths and weaknesses of programme evaluation were discussed in detail; a screening of existing guidelines and manuals on evaluation; and finally, a call which was launched by the EUCPN Secretariat to the Member States to collect some practices on the evaluation of crime prevention initiatives.

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We also particularly like to thank the experts who participated in the workshops which took place in Dublin, 25 March 2013, and in Brussels, 6 June 2013 for their valuable input and contribution during the discussions: Ms. Ileana Bogatoniu (General Directorate of Bucharest Police, Romania), Mr. Alessandro Carini (Polizia di Stato – Direzione Centrale Anticriminelle, Italy), Mr. Barry Connan (An Garda Síochána Analysis Service, Ireland), Mr. Peter Colle (Local Prevention and Security, City of Ghent, Belgium), Dr. Yvonne Daly (Dublin City University, Ireland), Ms. Saskia De Clercq (Ministry of Interior – General Directorate Local and Integral Security, Belgium), Ms. Jenny Jakobson (Ministry of Interior, Estonia), Mr. Tomas Jansson (Police Halland, Sweden), Mr. Philip Jennings (Safer Blanchardstown, Ireland), Prof. Wolfgang Kahl (German Forum for Crime Prevention (DFK), Germany), Dr. Theo Lorenc (London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, United Kingdom), Dr. Aogan Mulcahy (University College Dublin, Ireland), Dr. Kieran O'Dwyer (Independent Consultant), Ms. Sarah O'Gorman (South Dublin County Council, Ireland), Mr. Robert Pawlak (Police Headquarters Łódź, Poland), Supt. Colette Quinn (Director Juvenile Diversion Programme, An Garda Síochána, Ireland), Mr. Sean Redmond (Irish Youth Justice Service, Ireland), Dr. Aiden Sidebottom (University College London – Department of Security and Crime science, United Kingdom), Mr. Gurchand Singh (Head of An Garda Síochána Analysis Service, Ireland), Dr. Helga Sneddon (Centre for Effective Services, Dublin, Ireland), Prof. Nick Tilley (University College London – Department of Security and Crime science, United Kingdom), Mr. Didier Vanbesien (Ministry of Interior – General Directorate Local and Integral Security, Belgium), Ms. Charlotte Vincent (Danish Crime Prevention Council, Denmark).

Finally, a special mention and thanks is for Prof. Mark Leys of the Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB) in Belgium, who provided extensive support to the EUCPN Secretariat all throughout the preparation of this toolbox and who also moderated the second workshop in Brussels.

The EUCPN Secretariat

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Introduction

One of the main goals of the EUCPN is to support crime prevention activities at the national and the local level. There are numerous examples of well thought of and inspiring local programmes and projects set up to prevent crime and improve the quality of life within certain neighbourhoods. In order to determine whether such a programme is effectively implemented and reaches its goals, evaluation should be an essential part of the programme planning. In reality, however, the practice of evaluating crime prevention initiatives is often lacking or shows deficiencies in its method and quality. Such shortcomings do not stem from the reluctance or incompetence of programme managers but rather are a result of many small or large barriers with which they are often faced in day-to-day practice.

This toolbox is developed to assist persons engaged in evaluation who have limited resources (human, financial, material), who often lack the internal expertise to conduct a robust evaluation or who have limited access to information and external support.

It aims to give the reader more insight into the evaluation of crime prevention initiatives and to provide a 'minimum standard' of knowledge and skills to those who are (about to be) involved in programme evaluation of small scale community-based crime prevention initiatives.

Toolbox elements

Like the first two EUCPN toolboxes on 'Local cooperation in youth crime prevention' and 'Community (oriented) policing'[2], the theme is approached from different perspectives and through various methods, bundling as much information and knowledge as possible in an easy-to-read document for local practitioners and policy-makers.

Thematic paper – the first part of this toolbox gives a general introduction to the principles of evaluation based on existing academic literature. Although this part of the toolbox is aiming at providing a broader background, it is closely linked to the second part of the toolbox, the practical guidelines, following the same structure, going more in-depth on certain issues, etc. Therefore, it is recommended to read the thematic paper in conjunction with the guidelines.

Practical guidelines – during the course of the Irish Presidency, two workshops were organised which brought together policy makers and practitioners, as well as academic experts on the theme. This more practical part of the toolbox was based on the discussions, suggestions and recommendations pronounced during these two workshops. It contains a range of practical steps, tips, examples and worksheets that can be used when planning, doing and using an evaluation.

Examples from practice – in the third and final part of the toolbox, an overview of concrete examples is given which are drawn from the practice of evaluation itself. In addition to these examples of evaluations, a list of existing manuals and guidelines is also provided. Many of these existing manuals were drawn on during the development of this toolbox and may provide a useful source of information and inspiration for readers.

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[2] See http://www.eucpn.org/library/results.asp?category=32&pubdate

Part 1 Thematic paper

Evaluation of crime prevention initiatives: the principles of evaluation

Citation

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Evaluation of crime prevention initiatives: the principles of evaluation

Introduction

The first part of this toolbox gives a general introduction to the principles of evaluation based on existing academic literature. Although this part of the toolbox is aiming at providing a broader background, it is closely linked to the second part of the toolbox, the practical guidelines, following the same structure, going more in-depth on certain issues, etc. Therefore, more than in the previous EUCPN toolboxes, the theoretical and practical part are complementing each other and it is recommended to read the thematic paper in conjunction with the guidelines.

The theme of this toolbox is explored in three sections on (i) planning an evaluation, (ii) data collection and analysis, and (iii) communication evaluation findings.

Section 1: Planning an evaluation

This section provides a more detailed outline of some of the topics which feature in section 1 of the Practical Guidelines (see p.29) along with a list of reading materials that may prove useful should further exploration of these topics be required.

Topics covered include:
• Evaluation designs
• Literature searching
• Developing evaluation questions

Evaluation types and designs

There are a number of different types of evaluation, which range from evaluations that focus on assessing as to whether a full scale evaluation is feasible to evaluations which examine the longer term impact of programmes. For the purposes of this toolbox we will focus on the two most common types of evaluation those being outcome evaluation and process evaluation.

Outcome evaluation

Outcome evaluations are often the most common form of evaluation called for by a programme's funders. This is primarily because outcome evaluations can help uncover to what extent a programme's objectives have been achieved, i.e. whether a programme actually works. To answer this question, outcome evaluations measure the change that has occurred in a relevant area, for example, anti-social behaviour, rates of reoffending, fear of crime etc, as a result of a programme.

An outcome evaluation examining a programme's attempts to reduce the number of burglaries in an area might focus on:
• Changes to people's risk taking behaviour following participating in the programme
• Changes in people's use of security devices
• Changes in people's participation in neighbourhood watch
• Changes in reports of suspicious activity to the police
• Changes in the occurrence of burglaries in a particular area
• Changes in the people's feelings of (in)security
• Whether these changes were more apparent in some sectors of the community than others
• Whether some aspects of the programme were seen as more beneficial than others

In deciding whether a programme has performed well or poorly, some criteria will need to be used, e.g., what level of decrease in reported burglaries would need to be evident in order for the programme to have achieved its target?

Such criteria may be contained in the original programme documentation. If it is not, then criteria should be developed on the basis of what is contained in the relevant literature and in consultation with stakeholders. Furthermore, some knowledge of the situation before the intervention of the programme is also vital for measuring any changes that take place.

Given that outcome evaluations are focused on trying to establish causes rather than describing what is happening, they are mainly quantitative in their approach. In this regard, usually one of three general methods is adapted, all of which try to guard against the extent to which other factors besides the programme are responsible for the change in the area of interest.

Approaches to outcome evaluations

Randomised control trials (Experimental design)
A randomised control trial involves setting up two or more groups and randomly assigning participants to each of these groups. Participants receive the same pre and post participation assessment. With a sufficient number of participants this randomisation process controls for pre-participation differences or other events that may influence the outcome of the trial. It is this ability to control for other possible explanations that has helped establish randomised control trials as a gold standard approach in research design. Nevertheless, these types of trials are complex and require the input of experienced evaluators with the relevant expertise; as such they are costly to design.

Intervention and control group (Quasi-experimental design)
The second approach, involves using a control group and an intervention group. In the context of the burglary example (for a full description of the example see Practical Guidelines, p.34), this may mean finding two areas which are similar in size, crime rate and social composition but only one of which receives the burglary reduction programme. The difference between this design and the previous example is that in this case the participants are selectively chosen. While any changes in relevant areas that occur in the intervention group but not in the control

group can be attributed to the programme, the degree to which other possible explanations can be eliminated depends on the context in question. As with the experimental design, this approach can also be complex and costly given that external input from experts will likely be required.

Pre-post design

The last of the approaches involves measuring the occurrence of a phenomenon before the intervention takes place and then measuring again after the programme has been delivered. *All things being equal*, any improvements or changes can then be attributed to the effect of the programme. The extent to which all things are indeed equal is difficult to answer and therefore other possible explanations for change are not easily eliminated. While not as scientifically rigorous as either of the two preceding examples, pre-post designs are simpler and easy to implement and can produce useful results.

Process evaluation

While outcome evaluations seek to establish whether a programme works, process evaluations are focused on examining how a programme works. Process evaluations assess how a programme is planned, implemented and delivered. Very often this type of evaluation is conducted in order to help verify that a programme is being carried out as originally intended and/or for the purposes of improving programme delivery.

Process evaluations can also be combined with outcome evaluation designs in helping to explain why a programme did or did not achieve its intended impact. This is important from a managerial perspective as it can also help answer the question of whether a programme was a good idea which was poorly implemented or simply just a bad idea. Good ideas which are poorly or incorrectly implemented are unlikely to achieve the intended effects. What's more, such an occurrence may lead to not alone the programme itself being rejected, but also the underlying philosophy of the programme may come to be seen as flawed. It is therefore of great importance that a good understanding of how a programme works in practice be obtained in addition to focusing on the effects of a programme.

There are a number of potential topics that a process evaluation can focus on including:
• To what extent is the programme's intended target group being reached?
• How engaged are service users with the programme (duration and intensity)?
• How satisfied are service users with the programme?
• Are services being delivered as intended?
• Are there sufficient staff numbers to deliver the service?
• Are members of staff appropriately trained to deliver the service?
• What are the members of staff views on the programme?
• To what extent are the relevant stakeholders involved with the programme?
• Have there been any changes to how the programme is implemented?
• Has the programme encountered any obstacles?

In order to answer such questions a wide range of information may be needed, much of which should be collected on an ongoing basis through monitoring. **Monitoring** should, however, be distinguished from evaluation as the former involves the systematic collection of data whereas the latter involves the analysis and interpretation of data.

The kind of information to be collected will depend on the programme in question. However, regardless of area of interest, a literature review involving an examination of the most relevant literature, academic journals and several good practices will provide a good indication of the kind of data to be collected. Stakeholders should also be consulted in this regard.

Examples of the kind of information that could be required may include:
• A description of the service/intervention that the programme provides
• Characteristics of the staff providing the service
• How often the service is provided
• How long the service is provided for
• What participation in the programme involves (intensity)
• Numbers using the service
• Numbers completing the programme
• How stable is service provision
• How satisfied providers and users are with the service
• How closely the original design/plan for the service was followed
• How the programme meets the needs of service users

In deciding whether a programme has performed well or poorly, some criteria will need to be used. This may be contained in the original programme documentation. If it is not, then criteria should be developed on the basis of what is contained in the relevant literature and in consultation with stakeholders.

On the basis of the kind of information needed to answer questions that arise in the context of process evaluations both qualitative and quantitative methods may be used during the course an evaluation. Quantitative methods may be used to measure how many people participated in a programme, the degree to which persons participated, the demographic characteristics of participants and how happy they were with the service. On the other hand, qualitative methods may be used to explore participants and staff views on the programme[3].

Searching for relevant literature

Why review the literature?

Conducting a successful evaluation of whatever kind requires that evaluators not only have a good grasp of evaluation methodologies but that they also have an understanding of the relevant topics in the area being evaluated. This requires evaluators to carry out a review of the relevant literature. There are a number of reasons for why this is important.

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3 For more information on evaluation design see: Rossi, P.H., M.W. Lipsey & H.E. Freeman (2007). Evaluation: A systematic approach. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Firstly, from a very practical perspective it is useful to be able to build on research that has already been done (previous research or evaluations) rather than having to start entirely from scratch. By building on what others have done and thereby seeing what has worked/not worked in the past, costly mistakes can be better avoided.

Secondly, evaluation questions can be made more meaningful as previous research/evaluations may highlight issues that merit further examination.

Thirdly, the findings of other evaluations can help contextualise the results of your own work by providing a backdrop to contextualise findings (Brophy, Snooks & Griffiths, 2008).

Searching for material

At present, thanks mainly to the internet, there is a large body of information available on almost any topic. While this certainly has benefits in terms of making information more easily available, it can also mean that it is much easier to be swamped by information, some of which may not be entirely reliable. It is therefore a good idea to adopt a number of simple methods when conducting a review of the relevant literature.

Firstly, a list of key phrases or terms related to your topic of interest should be developed. These are known as search terms and will determine the information that is found when searching the internet, databases, library catalogues etc. Keep a record of the searches conducted using these terms as well as the results that were found. This will save time in avoiding repeat searches of the same material. Google Scholar is a useful online resource in finding academic articles and other publications.

Furthermore, *The Rough Guide to the Internet* (Buckley & Clark, 2009) is also a useful publication in terms of advice on improving internet search techniques.

Secondly, a search can be refined by looking for material published during a particular timeframe, in a specific language or research published concerning a certain country.

Thirdly, for the purposes of ensuring quality control a search can be focused on peer reviewed articles and on particular journals.

Finally, it is always useful to consult, even on an informal, level with persons who have experience in the area being evaluated as this help highlight important information[4].

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4 For more information on conducting a literature search see: Brophy, S., H. Snooks & L. Griffiths (2008). Small-scale evaluation in health: A practical guide. London: Sage.

Developing evaluation questions

Why evaluation questions are important

Developing clear and useful evaluation questions is a vital aspect of planning an evaluation. Ultimately, it is the evaluation questions that determine the type of research approach that will be taken during the course of the evaluation (Eck, 2002). The merit of an evaluation question can be judged by how meaningful it is in relation to the programme being assessed and how relevant it is to the concerns of stakeholders (Robson, 2000).

Understanding the programme

Evaluation questions can be developed through reviewing both the programme's background documentation and the relevant literature. This will help highlight any pertinent areas that should be explored. In some cases evaluation questions may exist in a rudimentary form in terms of a project's goals and objectives; however these are often rather vague statements and likely to require further refinement before they may be used as evaluation questions (Maxfield & Babbie, 2010).

It is particularly important, especially in the case of outcome evaluation, that evaluators understand how participation in a programme is supposed to have a particular effect on clients. If there is no clear reason why there should be link between participation in a programme and a particular effect or outcome there would seem to be little point in investigating this in an evaluation.

For example, as part of its awareness raising activities, an organisation makes a small number of presentations regarding cyber crime over the course of a year. The organisation then decides that it wants to assess the value of its awareness activities by measuring awareness of cyber crime amongst the general public. Given the level of awareness raising undertaken by the organisation, is it realistic to expect that their efforts increased knowledge of cyber crime amongst the general population? The answer is most likely 'no'. A better way of approaching this issue may have been to examine the extent to which awareness was raised amongst attendees at the presentations.

In summary:
1. Examine the question in the context of the actual programme activities related to it.
2. Programme components, activities and personnel assignments that relate to programme performance should be identified. Evaluation questions should be formulated in a way that is reasonable given these characteristics.
3. Look at potential questions in the context of findings in relevant areas in the literature.

Developing evaluation questions with stakeholders

In regard to how the views of stakeholders can help in the formulation of effective evaluation questions, it is important to remember that evaluations must generate useable knowledge rather than knowledge for the sake of knowledge (Patton, 1997). It is not uncommon that evaluation findings go unused. There are a number of reasons for this, such as people not being clear about what information is needed or findings not being as useful as the stakeholders thought they would be at the outset (Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman, 2007).

The likelihood of having unusable findings can be reduced if stakeholders' views are taken into account during the development of evaluation questions. Nevertheless, it must be borne in mind that stakeholders may lack research expertise and may need assistance in developing useful evaluation questions. This process can also help increase positive participation by stakeholders as they will feel they have actively been involved in the design of the evaluation. The discussions focused on developing evaluation questions may also highlight differing and inconsistent views concerning what a particular project was trying to achieve or how it should operate. In some cases discussions may also indicate that there is a lack of clear understanding regarding what the programme is supposed to achieve. If such issues arise they will need to be addressed prior to the development of the evaluation questions.

How to make sure questions are answerable?

Anyone reading an evaluation report should be able to understand the evaluation questions in terms of what it is they are asking and what it is they are trying to measure.

In order to help ensure that evaluation questions have been formulated appropriately and are answerable the following factors should be considered (Weiss, 1997):
• Identify the group that is to be assessed
• Identify the specific measureable characteristics
• Give example of evaluation findings that might result
• Specify the evaluation criteria (i.e. the threshold that should be reached for success to be achieved, for example, a certain percentage reduction in reoffending rates)
• Have the evaluation sponsors/stakeholders agree that a finding meeting these criteria would answer the question

A useful way to approach the development of such questions is through a process of backward mapping. In other words, decide on the kind of answers that are needed and consider how these may be obtained (Elmore, 1979).

Organising evaluation questions

Once a draft of the evaluation questions have been developed they will need to be arranged by themes. It is likely that a large number of evaluation questions may initially be drafted, many of which may not be used in the end. In selecting the most useful questions focus on the main purpose of the evaluation and what the findings will ultimately be used for [5].

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[5] For further information on developing evaluation questions see: Davidson, E.J. (2005). Evaluation methodology basics: The nuts and bolts of sound evaluation. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.Maxfield, M. & Babbie, E.R. (2010). Research methods for criminal justice and criminology. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. Patton, M.Q. (2001). Qualitative research & evaluation methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Scriven, M. (1991). Evaluation thesaurus (4th ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage. Weiss, C. (1997). Evaluation: Methods for studying programs and policies. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Section 2: Data collection and analysis

The following section provides a more detailed outline of topics concerning both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection which feature in section 2 of the Practical Guidelines along with a list of reading materials that may prove useful should further exploration of these topics be required.

Topics covered include:
- Issues to consider when using quantitative methods
- Issues to consider when using qualitative methods

Issues to consider when using quantitative methods

Quantitative analysis can vary in complexity from calculating averages to more complicated statistical techniques exploring the relationship between different variables. While it is beyond the scope of this toolbox to explore even a small number of the issues pertaining to quantitative analysis, those covered below provide a very brief introduction into some of the main topics of relevance.

Probability - statistical significance

When evaluators or researchers want to compare two or more groups (people, areas, times) according to some variable of interest they are normally interested in discovering whether the difference between the groups, in terms of this variable, is a real or true difference (i.e. statistically significant) or is simply a product of random chance (i.e. not statistically significant). It should be noted then that 'significance' in the statistical sense does not mean 'important' as its use in everyday speech would seem to imply.

The starting assumption before any analysis is conducted is that there is no real difference between the groups. This is called the *null hypothesis*. A statistical test is then carried out to test the null hypothesis. If the test generates a *p-value* (i.e. probability value) equal to or less than 0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected and the difference between the groups is accepted as being almost certainly true. In statistical terms this means that there is a 95% (or more) probability that the difference found is real compared to a 5% (or less) probability that the difference is simply due to chance.

In calculating statistical significance there is a risk that the null hypothesis is rejected when it is in fact true. This is known as *Type 1 Error*. Conversely, there is also the risk that the null hypothesis is accepted when it is in fact false. This is known as *Type 2 Error*[6].

Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting a group of persons from a larger population, carrying out some form of analysis on this group and generalising the results back to the population from which the group was drawn.

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[6] For further information see: Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. Mahwah, N.J.: Lauwrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sampling is of concern to those who wish to generalise beyond the group of people directly participating in a study or programme. In most cases small scale evaluations are not interested in generalising beyond a particular programme and therefore issues concerning sampling are usually not a concern. However, in cases where evaluators are seeking to generalise, it is important that the relevant literature and experts working in this field be consulted as sampling is a complex process[7].

Response rate

The response rate of a survey is a measure of how many people actually completed (or in some cases partially completed) the survey when they were approached. The higher the response rate the better. A higher response rate makes it more likely that the results are reflective of the views of the population as a whole rather than a segment of the population who may hold a particular point of view not shared by the majority of the population. If only a small number of those approached respond to a survey, then the results are much more likely to be biased and it would be inappropriate to attribute the findings to the wider population.

Generally, the more interaction the person collecting the data has with the person being surveyed the higher the response rate will be. Therefore, surveys conducted in person or over the phone tend to have higher response rates than postal or internet surveys.

Reliability and validity [8]

Reliability and validity are issues pertaining to the evaluation of measures of concepts. For example, if as part of an evaluation on a programme aimed at improving neighbourhood security, evaluators wanted to measure residents' fear of crime before and after the intervention they would need to think about the reliability and validity of their measure of fear of crime.

Reliability
Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. This can include:

Stability - If the measure of a concept (e.g., fear of crime) was taken from the same sample on two different occasions and under the same circumstances the results should be highly correlated with each other if the measure is reliable or stable. Conversely, if the results are very different then the measure would seem to be unreliable. However, this may be a result of changes in the sample rather than the measure. This can be particularly problematic if there is a lengthy time lag between the initial and second test.

Internal reliability - If all of the items (questions) of which the measure (e.g., fear of crime) is made up of are in fact measuring the same thing the measure is said to be consistent. Conversely, if one or more of the items (questions) is measuring something else (e.g., fear of the dark rather than fear of crime) then the measure would be internally unreliable. The most common way to test for internal validity is to use a test known as *Cronbach's Alpha*. This test is available in any common statistical software packages such as SPSS, SAS or R. Scores for Cronbach's Alpha vary between 0 and 1 with a score of 0.8 seen as an acceptable level of internal reliability.

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[7] For further information see: Lorh, S.L (2010). Sampling: Design and Analysis. Boston, M.A.: Brooks/Cole.
[8] For further information see: Bryman, A. (2012). Social Research Methods. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Inter-observer consistency - If there is considerable subjectivity involved in categorising information for example from open ended questions or if there is more than one person involved in the categorisation process then there is a risk that data may be categorised inconsistently.

Validity (construct/measurement)
Validity refers to whether or not the measure we are using is measuring what it is supposed to be measuring and not something else (e.g., is the measure we are using to measure fear of crime really measuring fear of crime or something else?). There are a number of ways of checking validity, including:

Face validity - This involves looking at the questions and using common sense to judge whether the questions are measuring what they are supposed to measure. Other persons with expertise in the area in question should also be consulted when checking face validity.

Criterion validity - This involves taking the results of the measure and comparing them to some previously accepted criterion of what the new measure is suppose to be measuring. For example, if scores from a measure of intelligence were compared with results of school or university exams, it would be expected that those scoring high on the intelligence measure would also have also performed well academically. If this was found not to be the case then it is questionable if the new measure is in fact measuring intelligence and not something else.

Convergent validity - This involves testing the validity of your new measure by comparing it to the results attained from a different measure of the same construct.

Issues to consider when using qualitative research methods [9]

Qualitative approaches to research are far less structured than their quantitative equivalents. While this has the advantage of allowing for more flexibility, this does not mean that there are no quality concerns that need to be considered when using qualitative methods. Many of these issues relate to the reliability of findings stemming from in-depth interviews or participant observation etc. At this basic level issues relating to reliability are somewhat similar to those in quantitative research (see above).

Credibility

Qualitative research often stresses that there are multiple possible accounts of social reality. However, this does not imply that findings from interviews or observations are completely arbitrary. The credibility of the account provided becomes an important criterion for judging the value of qualitative research findings.

There are a number of means by which credibility can be established. Firstly, research should be conducted according to the relevant good practices. Another method is to ask the research participants if the findings reflect what they said or did. Finally, triangulation could be done which involves using a different method to access the same data. For example, a researcher might try and confirm what they noticed in an observation by follow-up interviews.

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[9] For further information see: Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Transferability

The degree to which qualitative findings can be generalised from one location, situation or time to the next is questionable. This is because qualitative research is focused on small samples and detail. Therefore, while qualitative research findings cannot be transferable in the same way as quantitative findings, those conducting in-depth interviews or observations should concentrate on providing as much detail as possible. This has the benefit of providing more information for other researchers working on similar topics.

Dependability

In order to ensure that qualitative findings can be relied upon it is important to keep good records of the research process from start to finish. This might include: field notes, audio recordings, interview guide, list of research participants, research questions, data analysis, etc. This allows others the opportunity to check that proper procedures were followed during the course of the research.

Conformability

Related to the idea of dependability is conformability. This involves the researcher/evaluator being able to confirm his/her findings on the basis of the information collection while at the same time showing that he/she has not allowed personal views to overtly influence research findings or that those findings have not been manipulated so as to conform to theoretical considerations.

Section 3: Communicating evaluation[10]

Effectively communicating the results of an evaluation is of vital importance given that the evaluation's real value lies in being able to act as an effective decision making aid.

Nevertheless, communicating the findings and recommendations of an evaluation can be complicated. The influence that an evaluation can have ranges from directly impacting on policy whereby specific changes are made as a result of an evaluation's findings, to more subtle forms of influence, such as drawing attention to emerging social trends which in turn influences the general direction of policy. The findings of an evaluation can also be used by lobby groups for the purposes of advocating a particular policy direction.

In order to ensure that an evaluation has maximum effect, consideration should be given to the factors that influence how evaluations are received by those who they are aimed at.

Presenting the report in a suitable format

The culture and structures of the sponsoring organisation can be an important influence on how an evaluation report is received and acted upon. In this regard consideration should be given to the type of data/information the organisation is most likely to respond to and what kind of information it is likely to ignore (Preskill & Torres, 1999).

Some organisations may take findings presented in a statistical format more seriously as they might see quantitative data as more scientific. However, even if sponsors are interested in quantitative results they may not have an in-depth understanding of statistical techniques and may simply be interested in what the data is saying in layman's terms. In such instances the report should tell the story of the data rather than relying on readers to figure this out for themselves. On the other hand, some organisations may prefer findings of a qualitative nature that sets out views of stakeholders and service users in thematic textual format. Even so, sponsors preferring this approach may not be particularly interested in or aware of qualitative approaches such as grounded theory or phenomenology. Again a report laden with technical jargon is less likely to be effective. This is not to suggest that the findings of a report should necessarily be presented in a simplistic manner as some sponsoring organisations may require more technical reports. Rather the point is that findings should be presented in a format which is appropriate and accessible to the target audience.

Understanding the usability of results

Another important factor to consider is the usability of an evaluation's findings and recommendations. Decision makers are likely to consider the practicalities and feasibility of implementing an evaluation's recommendations in the context of their own organisation in terms of how adapting a particular recommendation is likely to compliment or challenge existing policies. They may also think about what incentives, or indeed disincentives, are there for program staff to enact potential changes stemming from a report's recommendations.

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[10] For further information see: Preskill, H. & R.T. Torres (1999). Evaluative inquiry for learning in organisations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

It is likely that at least some stakeholders will be reluctant to change their current practices. There may be valid reasons for this or it may simply be a wish to continue with what is familiar. It is therefore important that evaluators provide some guidance as to how the recommendations presented in the report might be feasibly implemented in light of these potential difficulties. Recommendations made in the absence of such considerations may not be implementable in practice. This underlies the importance of including stakeholders in the evaluation process and having a good understanding of the sponsor or target organisation.

Reliability of the findings

The reliability of a report's findings is an important factor in how it is received. In this regard decision makers are likely to pay attention to (a) the quality of the information in the report, including the methodology used, the quality of the data collected, methods of analysis etc, and (b) the extent to which the findings conform with or differ from similar such studies in the area. This underlies the importance of carrying out well planned, high quality evaluations that can withstand thorough examination. This is particularly the case if the evaluation report contains recommendations that are likely to require significant organisational changes. In such circumstances it is probable that at least some stakeholders may query the validity of the evaluation in terms of the methods used and subsequent the findings. While no evaluation is perfect, those which have rather obvious flaws such as drawing bold conclusions on the basis of questionable or limited data are likely – and rightly so – to be less effective in influencing policy or processes.

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Part 2   Practical guidelines for evaluating crime prevention initiatives

Introduction

The second part of this toolbox aims to provide a user-friendly approach to evaluation[11] for individuals working in the area of crime prevention. It has been designed for people with minimal experience of evaluation in mind. In order to develop a useful tool for 'non-experts' in evaluation two workshops were organised – in Dublin and in Brussels – which brought together both policy makers and practitioners, as well as academic experts on the theme (see participants lists p.64-65). This manual was based on the discussions, suggestions and recommendations pronounced during these two workshops. It contains a range of practical steps, tips, examples and worksheets that can be used when planning, doing and using an evaluation[12].

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[11] More detailed information on the various topics covered by the manual can be found in part 1 of this toolbox which contains the thematic paper.

[12] Please note that cost-benefit analysis is not covered by this manual. For a practical guide on cost-benefit analysis of crime prevention projects, please see the recent publication circulated by the Danish Crime Prevention Council: Jacobsen (2013). Hands-on guide to cost-benefit-analysis of crime prevention efforts. Copenhagen: Centre for Economic and Business Research.

Contents

Why evaluate?

"There can surely be nothing more pointless and, ultimately, boring than simply repeating the same mistakes over and over again or, conversely, failing to make the best use of a successful technique because finding out whether it worked and why is dismissed as a distraction from fresh activity." [13]

Crime prevention is a very challenging field. Those working in this area are responsible for tackling very serious social issues while often operating with limited resources. This can mean that there is very little time available to reflect on the work being done or whether programmes are producing the intended results. However, there are a number of very positive reasons why those involved in crime prevention should evaluate their work.

- Evaluations can provide a useful opportunity to better understand whether and/or how a programme has achieved its goals in the short, medium or long term.
- Evaluations help identify any problems that might exist within a programme.
- Evaluations can improve effectiveness and efficiency by showing how resources might be best used.
- Evaluations can provide useful information for the future planning of a programme.
- Evaluations improve a programme's overall credibility when they show that a programme is working.
- Evaluations can help programme staff better recognise that their work is making a difference.
- Evaluations can help other groups interested in establishing similar programmes by providing valuable lessons about how interventions work and how they might be improved.

Don't be afraid to evaluate and don't be afraid to learn from what doesn't work!

Evaluation shouldn't be seen as something negative that simply highlights problems. Instead evaluation should provide the **opportunity to learn** *what is working well while also suggesting changes to areas that could be improved.*

Do not be afraid to evaluate (parts of) programmes which you have doubts about. Although generally people like to show and hear about 'success stories', it is even more useful and important to learn from what doesn't work!

What is evaluation? [14]

Put simply, evaluation is a useful way to think about the work that has been done on a programme, whether or not the desired results were achieved, and why (not). Evaluations are very practical activities. They aim to collect data designed to assess the programme in a systematic way.

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[13] Dixon, B. (2002: 97). Not rocket science: evaluating crime prevention. In Pelser, E. (ed.): Crime Prevention Partnerships: Lessons from Practice. Institute for Security Studies, Pretoria. – Chapter 8.

[14] See also: "Tip sheet 4: Monitoring and evaluating your project. How to measure progress." National Community Crime Prevention Programme, Attorney-General's Department, Canberra, Australia - http://www.crimeprevention.gov.au/NationalCommunityCrimePreventionProgramme/Documents/Tip_Sheet_4.pdf

Various approaches can be used (for example, surveys, interviews, etc. depending on what is being reviewed) however, the information is ultimately used to <u>provide feedback</u> to help with making decisions about a programme.

Ideally, planning an evaluation should be done at the same time as planning programme implementation. By building evaluation into your programme from the beginning you can set up routine ways of monitoring programme implementation and outputs. These performance measures will be a very useful source of information particularly during the data collection and analysis phase of the evaluation.

Useful = Successful!
The evaluation of any programme is more likely to be successful if staff see the results as providing useful information that can help them do their jobs better.

As this manual will show, there are various ways of assessing a programme (see below).

However, evaluation is often mistaken for other types of programme assessments which might lead to mistaken conclusions. These include, among others programme monitoring and audits.

What programme evaluation is NOT

Monitoring *is the systematic and routine collection of information during the implementation of your programme to measure its compliance with the original plan (e.g., number of persons successfully completed a probation programme in the last 6 months). However, if you are planning your evaluation in the planning phase of your programme you should considered setting up a monitoring system to collect data that can later feed into the process evaluation.*

Audit *is assessing how well a programme is managed, whether resources are efficiently used, and rules, regulations and processes are correctly followed (UNEG, 2005).*

Inspection *is a general examination that seeks to identify vulnerable areas and malfunctions and to propose corrective action (UNEG, 2005).*

Cost-Benefit analysis *is comparing the monetary costs and benefits of a programme in terms of financial and human resources, time investment, materials and infrastructure,… This is often looked at by decision makers to decide where to put scarce resources. In order to show the worth of a programme, it is sometimes necessary to look at cost-benefits.*

(Note: list not exhaustive)

Some 'myths' about evaluation

Although more and more it is recognised that evaluation forms an important part of a programme, there is still, nonetheless, some reluctance to undertake an evaluation. More often than not, this reluctance stems from various 'myths' about the difficulties related to evaluation. To list just a few [15]:

• *Evaluation is too difficult*
Although evaluation requires a minimum set of skills and it can be demanding work, it is not "rocket science". Remember that you are the expert on your own programme and that you probably already collect much of the **necessary data**. This manual wants to help you to take it a step further and work more systematically.

• *Evaluation is too expensive*
Although undoubtedly, a good evaluation which stands up to all (gold) standards will be expensive, in the long run knowing what works and what doesn't will mean substantial saving for everybody. Weigh up whether you need to do an evaluation *"that is much better than 'good enough'"* (Dixon, 2002: 97).

How to save money?

Instead of trying to do a little bit of evaluation of everything, it is better to choose a key number of projects and evaluate those properly.

Use, for example, university students (closely managed) or colleagues from other departments who have the skills but are cheaper than external evaluators and who are not dependent on the outcomes as internal evaluators might be.

• *Evaluation is discouraging*
Evaluation can sometimes be seen as a threat to a programme's existence as it may highlight flaws and inefficiencies leading to the conclusion that nothing works. However, the overall conclusion of an evaluation will almost certainly not be that nothing works but *"that some things work some of the time in some places, under some conditions"*.

Different types of evaluation[16]

There is no single way to carry out an evaluation. The method that is best for you will depend on your goals, your circumstances and on your budget. More complex evaluations may be conducted by an external team of evaluators, usually from a university or research institute. Simpler, smaller scale evaluations may be conducted effectively by project staff responsible for running a programme. While in some instances a combination of the two approaches might be used.

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[15] See also: Dixon, B. (2002: 92-98). Not rocket science: evaluating crime prevention. In Pelser, E. (ed.): Crime Prevention Partnerships: Lessons from Practice. Institute for Security Studies, Pretoria. – Chapter 8.
16 See also Part 1: Thematic paper p.7-10 for more detailed information on process and outcome evaluation.

Usually, a distinction is made between process evaluation and outcome evaluation. **Process evaluation** provides information on the implementation of your programme. It will tell you whether or not your programme has been implemented as planned, whether or not there were any difficulties or barriers, in what areas and under what circumstances the programme is or isn't working and whether or not there were any unexpected (positive or negative) side effects.

Outcome or impact evaluation provides information on the effectiveness of your programme. It will show you whether or not your programme is leading to the intended outcomes and to what extent. Without a process evaluation, however, you will not be able to tell whether the observed changes are related to an (in)adequate implementation of your programme.

It is important to note that both process and outcome evaluation will provide you with specific information on your programme and that both can be conducted simultaneously during or after the programme's implementation. In case your programme did not reach the expected outcomes, your process evaluation can help you to distinguish whether there was a 'mistake' in the underlying logic behind the programme or whether something went wrong during the implementation of your programme (or both).

Evaluation and participation

*Regardless of the approach you take to evaluation be sure to involve **all of the relevant stakeholders** throughout the **entire course** of the evaluation (see Section 1.A.2 Involving stakeholders, p.31). Evaluations that are seen as being imposed from the outside are less likely to be successful.*

Getting started with this manual

If you are thinking about or have been asked to carry out an evaluation, you may already have some basic idea of what you would like to achieve. For example, you may want to know whether your crime prevention programme is operating as planned. Alternatively, you may be more interested in understanding whether your programme has achieved its intended goals or perhaps some combination of the two. Whichever of these approaches you are interested in, this manual will help you in accomplishing your evaluation objectives by taking you through the three main stages of the evaluation process.

Section 1 will focus on the planning and development of your evaluation and will examine such topics as:
- being clear about the purpose of your evaluation
- involving stakeholders
- budgeting
- internal vs. external evaluation
- setting up an evaluation team and advisory panel
- conducting background research and developing evaluation questions
- choosing an evaluation design
- developing an evaluation plan

Section 2 will explore the practicalities of collecting and analyzing the data you need to answer your evaluation questions and will examine:
- quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and
- analyzing the data you have collected and interpreting the results

Section 3 will provide information on the reporting stage of your evaluation and will examine how to:
- structure your final evaluation report and
- disseminate and communicate the findings of your evaluation

Section 1: Planning your evaluation

A: Setting up your evaluation

1. Understanding what you want to achieve

The first step to conducting a successful evaluation involves developing a good understanding of what you want to achieve (or what is being asked of you). This may seem so obvious that it's not worth mentioning. However, knowing what you want from your evaluation is vitally important as this will focus the entire evaluation process and ultimately help you decide whether conducting an evaluation is a feasible idea in your case.

Your initial ideas about doing an evaluation will be further developed during the planning stage (see B: Developing your evaluation, p.35). Nevertheless, it is still important to have a good understanding about what you want from the outset.

In developing your initial ideas about evaluation think about the following:
 • What are the requirements of funders?
 • Who might be involved?
 • What is the available budget?
 • What might the evaluation involve (interviews, statistical analysis etc.)?
 • What expertise and skills are required?
 • What is the timeframe involved?
 • How might the potential evaluation findings be used to further develop your programme
 • ...
It is also a good idea to do some preliminary background reading to familiarise yourself with some of the issues you want to address in the course of the evaluation. More detailed information on background research will be discussed later in the development stage (see B.1, p.35).

Be clear, simple and precise!

Express the overall purpose of your evaluation in clear, simple and precise terms. Try to avoid vague statements which may contain multiple ideas.

For example, do young offender diversion programmes work? vs. Do young offender diversion programmes reduce re-offending among those exiting the programme over a two year timeframe?

Or, what are the strengths and weaknesses and areas that require improvement in the delivery of current young offender diversion programmes?

2. Involving stakeholders

Part of the process of developing your initial ideas should involve the participation of stakeholders. Stakeholders are individuals or organisations who are invested in your programme, who are interested in or affected by the results of your programme or who can exert influence on your programme. Therefore, involving stakeholders is vital if your evaluation is to be successful.

Good evaluations are not imposed from the outside but rather involve the participation of all of those with a stake in the programme being evaluated from the initial stages of its development until its completion. Stakeholders might include:
- programme staff (e.g., managers and frontline persons)
- those using or affected by the programme (i.e. target groups)
- users of the evaluation findings (e.g., funders)
- persons living in the local community (e.g., community leaders)
- persons with expertise in the area who aren't directly involved in the project (e.g., academics, inspectors, policy-makers, etc.)
- others (e.g., professional associations, the general public, the media, critics of the programme, etc.)

The degree to which these stakeholders will be involved in the evaluation will vary. Some may be involved in planning and implementation while it may be sufficient to simply update others on the progress of your programme on a regular basis. Whatever their level of involvement, understanding the views and interests of each of these groups will be helpful during all phases of the evaluation.

Stakeholders can have in-depth knowledge of a programme. Discussing your thoughts with them will help make the evaluation more robust. This can also help you to identify pertinent evaluation questions and importantly be able to find answers to such questions.

How to select stakeholders?

Choosing the relevant stakeholders can be difficult. When thinking of who to involve in your evaluation ask yourself:
- *Will they increase the evaluation's quality/ reliability?*
- *Are they involved in the day to day running of the programme?*
- *Could they implement, argue for or fund any changes the evaluation report may recommend?*
- *Are they affected by the programme (i.e. target groups)?*

(See worksheet 1.A.1, p.59)

3. Budgeting

An important factor in deciding how an evaluation will be conducted is the size of your available budget. Depending on the amount of funding you have available you may wish to hire an external evaluator to design the evaluation or employ a researcher to analyse data or to interview service users. Having a larger budget will also allow you to carry out a more complex evaluation using a wide range of data sources.

Budgeting plan

To keep track of the potential costs, create a budgeting plan. Go through each phase of the evaluation process and set out the costs involved.

(See worksheet 1.A.2, p.59).

Alternatively, if funding is limited you may wish to conduct the evaluation internally. Even so, you will need to be aware of the costs associated with each part of the evaluation from the design stage to publication of the final report.

4. Who should conduct the evaluation?

Once you have a good understanding of:
  • what you want to achieve,
  • what this is likely to involve and
  • how much you have to spend,
you can now think about whether the evaluation would be best conducted internally or tendered out to external evaluators.

In general, if an evaluation is being called for in order to justify the continuation of a programme (i.e. is the programme achieving its goals and does it warrant further funding?), external evaluators are usually hired in order to avoid any potential conflict of interest and to help guarantee objectivity. However, if the evaluation is focused on learning how to improve existing work practices or examining how programmes are being implemented, depending on their complexity, such evaluations can be carried out internally.

On the other hand, a combination of internal evaluation with input from external evaluators may be the most appropriate.

Table 1 below provides an overview of the advantages and disadvantages of various approaches.[17]

Type of evaluation	Advantages	Disadvantages
Internal evaluation (Evaluation is done by those running the programme).	Lower cost.	Possible lack of the necessary expertise to conduct interviews or data analysis.
	Easier access to data and people.	May not be seen as objective.
	More knowledge of the programme.	May not be suitable for justifying further funding.
	Helps organisations to better understand themselves and what they do.	May require programme staff to evaluate instead of doing their usual job.
External evaluation (Evaluation is done by external experts often from a university or research institute).	People with expertise and experience in conducting evaluation to a high standard.	Higher costs.
	Seen as the most objective type of evaluation.	No direct experience of working of the programme so perhaps less understanding.
	Good for showing how effective programmes are at achieving their goals.	

Table 1: Advantages and disadvantages of internal vs. external evaluations

Complex evaluations

If you intend to conduct a complex evaluation involving a variety of different methods and large numbers of participants it is preferable to hire external evaluators with the relevant technical expertise and experience. This will better ensure that the evaluation is sufficiently robust and that only conclusions supported by the available data are drawn.

(See also Section 2 – Paragraph B.1, p.54 for more information on validity and reliability of evaluations)

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17 See also: Australian Institute of Criminology (2006). Tip sheet 3: External and/or internal evaluation. Deciding what works best for your organisation.
[Developed for the National Community Crime Prevention Programme]. Canberra: Attorney-General's Department. http://www.crimeprevention.gov.au/NationalCommunityCrimePreventionProgramme/Documents/Tip_Sheet_3.pdf

If you decide to have the evaluation done externally you will need to develop a tender document with details of expected work, timelines, outputs and so on (See worksheet 1.A.3, p.59 for a checklist of what such a document might contain). You need to think carefully about the role, responsibilities and tasks of the external evaluator. Be aware that they might have competing priorities beyond the scope of the evaluation, e.g., the publication of (academic) journal articles.

Make clear agreements with external evaluators

Define the deliverables (i.e. output) you are expecting and be clear from the outset about the ownership of the collected data and the final evaluation report. Set clear deadlines!

5. Setting-up an evaluation team

Once you have decided who will have chief responsibility for carrying out the evaluation you should think about setting up an evaluation team.

Having an evaluation team will better ensure that your evaluation runs smoothly as responsibility for implementing the evaluation will be given to a specific group of individuals each with a specific set of tasks. These will include:
  • Overall responsibility for implementing the evaluation
  • Developing specific evaluation goals and objectives
  • Planning and budgeting for the evaluation
  • Collecting and analyzing data
  • Reporting findings
  • Working with consultants, stakeholders and others.

(See B.6, p.45 for more information on what an evaluation plan should contain)

Depending on whether the evaluation is to be conducted internally or externally (or some combination of the two approaches - see Table 1 above) the evaluation team may consist of internal programme staff, external stakeholders and possibly research consultants.
It may be a good idea to have one or more people supervising the progress of the evaluation team and keeping track of timelines and outputs, and managing problems if they occur.

6. Advisory panel

In addition to the evaluation team, it is also a good idea to establish an advisory panel to provide external oversight for the evaluation. This will consist of stakeholders **not directly involved** in conducting the evaluation but who have **expertise** in the area. Such persons might include:
• Local, regional, or national (academic) experts
• Representatives from law enforcement
• Relevant state agencies
• ...

B: Developing your evaluation

Having developed your initial ideas about evaluating your programme and having decided who will have chief responsibility for conducting the evaluation you can now start planning your evaluation in more detail.

1. Conducting background research

An important part of further developing your evaluation involves gaining a more in-depth understanding of the **programme** being evaluated and previous research and evaluations conducted in the area relevant to your crime prevention programme.

Understanding the programme
In terms of doing background research on the programme being evaluated, it is important to understand, among others:
  • *What* are the programme goals?/What was the programme supposed to achieve?
  • *How* was the programme supposed to achieve these?
  • *Which* activities will help to achieve these goals?
  • ...

Programme description

The programme's background documentation (mission & vision, strategic plan,...) could be a useful source of information in this regard. It may also be a good idea to speak with programme staff.
Be as comprehensive and detailed as possible when describing the programme you are evaluating. It will help you to focus your programme evaluation and to develop the right evaluation questions later.

(See worksheet 1.B.1, p.60 for a list – Source: US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide).

It is important to describe every step of the programme in terms of the *theory and mechanisms* behind the activities set up in the programme. *Why* do you (or the programme managers) expect these activities will work? *How* will these activities reach the expected outcome?

Adverse outcomes

Be aware of potential unintended effects or adverse outcomes, e.g., displacement effects in area-based interventions or increased fear of crime for informational interventions leading to greater awareness of crime, etc.

Although there are many ways to describe your programme, a **logic model** might be a very useful tool in thinking about and answering these questions [18].

In a logic model the relationship between the programme's activities and its intended outcomes are depicted showing the underlying logic behind the programme. By sequencing activities and outcomes and by drawing arrows to show **causal relationships** between activities and/or short-term, mid-term and long-term outcomes, the logic model helps to visualise the expected *'logical order'* of your programme.

For example, if a programme's intended outcome is to prevent and diminish domestic burglaries, there are several activities – causally linked - which might be undertaken in order to achieve this goal. Launching a nation-wide prevention campaign to raise public awareness could be one approach. Simply by listing activities and intended outcomes – which you will easily find if you take the time to make a detailed programme description as mentioned above – in a logical sequence, i.e. "we first need to do this before we can progress to that", you are taking the first step towards creating a logic model (see example in table 2 – based on table, p.29 in *US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide*).

Example - Prevention domestic burglaries			
Early activities	**Later activities**	**Early outcomes**	**Later outcomes**
Identify target groups.	Develop communication plan + tools.	More knowledge on how to prevent burglaries.	More precautions taken in family homes to prevent burglaries.
Assessment vulnerable areas.	Organise press conference.	More reporting of suspicious behaviour in neighbourhood.	Number of burglaries reduced.
Gather knowledge related to burglaries.	Launch information campaign.		Exchange of good practices with other areas.
…	…	…	…

Table 2: Example of sequencing activities and outcomes (See also worksheet 1.B.2a, p.61)

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[18] See also: Mayne, J. (2008). Contribution analysis: An approach to exploring cause and effect. Ilac Brief 16, 4p. http://www.cgiar-ilac.org/files/ILAC_Brief16_Contribution_Analysis_0.pdf

A basic logic model then could look like this:
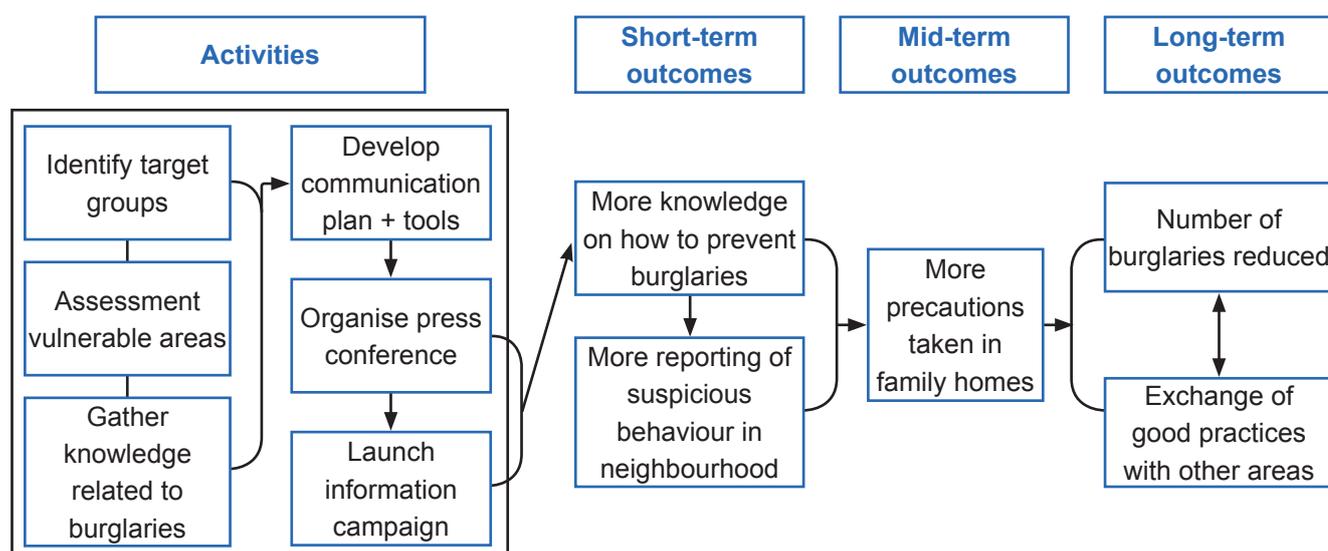
Figure 1: Example of basic logic model

Additionally, inputs and outputs of the programme can be added to complement the picture as shown in table 3 below.

Example - Prevention domestic burglaries					
Inputs	Early activities	Later activities	Outputs	Early outcomes	Later outcomes
Funding.	Identify target groups.	Develop communication plan + tools.	Communication report.	More knowledge on how to prevent burglaries.	More precautions taken in family homes to prevent burglaries.
Trained staff.	Assessment vulnerable areas.	Organise press conference.	Brochures, flyers, posters,...	More reporting of suspicious behaviour in neighbourhood.	Number of burglaries reduced.
	Gather knowledge related to burglaries.	Launch information campaign.			Exchange of good practices with other areas.
…	…	…	…	…	…

Table 3: Example of sequencing activities and outcomes with inputs and outputs (See also worksheet 1.B.2b, p.61)

Previous research and meta-studies related to your programme

Besides understanding the programme itself and before developing specific evaluation questions, it is important to find out what and how other/similar programmes have done. It is worth having a look at existing networks and/or databases where 'good practices' are being

shared to find evidence on similar programmes elsewhere. You can use your logic model to think about what evidence from other programmes might be relevant for you.

For example, returning to the previous mentioned example about the prevention campaign on domestic burglary, you could ask yourself: What is known about information campaigns directed at the public? Did these campaigns reach their intended outcomes?

Often it is possible to find various meta-studies or systematic reviews which aim to identify, appraise and synthesize what already exists related to a certain topic. Examining this previous research will allow you to learn from what others have done in this area while providing you with several comparisons for the results of your own evaluation (see worksheet 1.B.3, p.61 for composing a list of previous research).

Much of this information can be found in libraries and on the internet using, for example, Google Scholar.

Using on-line resources

There a number of good websites that provide useful information on existing crime prevention programmes. These include the following:

The Campbell Collaboration for systematic reviews
http://www.campbellcollaboration.org/

COPS/Community Orientated Policing Services
http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/

The Australian institute of Criminology
http://www.aic.gov.au/publications.html

The National Criminal Justice Reference Service
https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/Publications/AlphaList.aspx

Crime Solutions.Gov
http://crimesolutions.gov/

The International Centre for the Prevention of Crime
http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/en/publications.html

(Note: list not exhaustive)

2. Developing evaluation questions

Having conducted background research you can now move on to developing specific evaluation questions to be answered during the course of the evaluation. This will help ensure that the information generated by the evaluation will be of practical use rather than knowledge for the sake of knowledge.

Evaluation questions may already exist in a very basic form by way of the programmes goals and objectives. However, these will probably need to be further developed.

In developing evaluation questions consider the context of the programme being evaluated, the overall purpose of your evaluation and the interests of the stakeholders.

Developing evaluation questions

Good evaluation questions should be:
- *Answerable*
- *Based on specific programme objectives*
- *Clear and well defined*

(See worksheet 1.B.4a, p.62 – formulating evaluation questions)

Examples of process and outcome evaluation questions might include [19]:
- Did we reach our goal of admitting 1,000 service users into the programme per year? If not, why not?
- Do service users have higher levels of pro social behaviour attributable to the programme? Are there alternative explanations for the change in behaviour?
- Did we achieve an even spread of persons participating in neighbourhood watch across the entire locality? If not, why not? What barriers existed? What factors were related to success?
- Did increased participation in neighbourhood watch decrease theft of vehicles in the whole local area which was targeted? If only some areas were successful, what factors were related to this success? What barriers existed in other areas?

The key test of any evaluation question is whether it can be answered. Therefore, you will need to think where you might find the right information to answer your questions.

---

[19] For more examples see Table 1 in: Morgan, A. & P. Homel (2013: 3). Evaluating crime prevention: Lessons from large-scale community crime prevention programs. Trends & Issues in crime and criminal justice, No. 458. http://www.aic.gov.au/media_library/publications/tandi_pdf/tandi458.pdf

In this regard you should think about:
- What kind of information do you need? Where will you find the information? How will you collect it?
- What do you want to do with the information?
- What kind of information would satisfy the stakeholders?
- Do you have the time and the necessary budget to collect the information yourself?
- Do you have the expertise to analyse the collected information/data?
- ...

3. Types of information

There are essentially two main types of information or data that you will use to answer your evaluation questions. These are quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative data (e.g., administrative data, police records or other statistical data) can include:
- Demographic data (age, gender, ethnicity, etc.)
- Socio-economic data (income, access to resources, etc.)
- Criminological data (recidivism rates, rates of relevant types of crime in the local area, etc.)
- Data based on psychological or similar such scales (levels of empathy, risk taking tendencies, fear of crime, etc.)

An important decision in your evaluation plan is to determine whether you will collect the necessary data yourself, i.e. **primary data collection**, or whether there are existing data sources where you can find the information to answer your questions, i.e. **secondary data collection.** However, you must always be critical towards these existing data (Reliability? Bias? Validity?) and make sure they can be used for the purpose of your evaluation. For example, police-recorded crime figures may not be very reliable indicators of actual crime rates. Some crimes might be underreported and they often reflect police efforts and priorities rather than actual crime rates. Existing survey data, on the other hand, may not ask the right questions or may have too small sample sizes for your target population.

Qualitative data (e.g., data based on people's views/narratives rather than numbers) can include the views and opinions of, for example, service providers or service users.

Quantitative vs. Qualitative data

Generally, qualitative data is used for the purpose of theory development while quantitative data is used for the purpose of theory testing. Therefore, quantitative methods are more appropriate if you want to measure the effects of a programme.

It is important to realize that both qualitative and quantitative data have their own methodological rigour and people need the necessary skills to collect, analyse and interpret them. The results of qualitative data (e.g., the perceptions of target groups through in-depth interviews) can be very useful to support or refine your quantitative findings BUT they need to be distinguished from impact or outcome evaluation!

Qualitative and quantitative research approaches to inquiry have been traditionally been thought of as mutually exclusive and based on very different underling philosophies. However using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods can offer many potential benefits.

For example data collected during qualitative interviews can be used to inform the development of survey questions. Conversely, a subset of persons questioned as part of a survey can be selected for qualitative interviewing in order to explore their views in greater detail.

Some evaluation questions might require both kinds of data to be answered. However, this will probably require a bigger budget (see worksheet 1.B.4b, p.62).

Existing data sources

Some secondary data sources which can contain useful information for crime prevention programmes:

- *Data observatories or monitoring centres on local, regional or national level which often collect data on crime, public health or socio-economic measures, e.g. the Regional Observatory on Security Policies in Italy or l'Observatoire national de la délinquance in France. They also often construct Geographical Information Systems (GIS) that combine crime data with geographical location information.*
- *Justice and prison services are a source of information on offenders' and prison population's characteristics, type of sentencing and treatment, reoffending,...*
- *Victimisation surveys or self-report studies look at specific crime problems or target populations and are often conducted in a range of countries, e.g. the International Crime Victimizations Survey (ICVS) - http://www.unicri.it/services/library_documentation/publications/icvs/statistics/*
- *Other periodically conducted cross-sectional or longitudinal surveys can provide valuable information on demographic and socio-economic indicators but also on people's attitudes, perceptions or opinions on certain issues, e.g. the Trust in the Police & Courts Module of the European Social Survey (http://ess.nsd.uib.no/ess/round5/) or the Eurobarometer surveys conducted by the European Commission.*
- *Eurostat provides online access to demographic and socio-economic data (although the data often lags behind) http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/themes and on recorded crime and criminal justice http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/ crime/data/database for all European Member States and even on the NUTS 3 regional level.*
- *The European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) provides information and data on drugs and drug addiction in Europe.*
- *Other data sources can be schools, social services, civil society organisations, housing services, universities or research institutes, private organisations,...*

Make sure to check whether there are any existing databases in your own local/national context which might contain data you could use!

(Note: list not exhaustive)

4. Developing indicators

In order to answer your evaluation questions and collect the previously mentioned data you will need to develop indicators. Indicators provide very specific measurable information on your programme and as such, should be concrete and clear. The types of indicators you chose to use will depend on the programme in questions and on whether you intend to focus on processes or outcomes.

Examples of **outcome indicators** for a burglar reduction programme might include
- Changes in the occurrence of burglaries in the area,
- Changes in the peoples feeling of security

Examples of **process indicators** for a burglar reduction programme might include
- Information on numbers participating in the programme.
- Information on how satisfied providers and participants were with the programme.

Here it is easy to notice that **monitoring** your programme's output can support a process evaluation. However, remember that monitoring – which is just a systematic and routine collection of information – is NOT evaluating. Process evaluation goes a step further by analysing the collected data, interpreting the results and, if the programme is still running, identifying steps to correct certain processes if necessary (see worksheets 1.B.5a & 1.B.5b, p.63).

Defining these outcome indicators will also help you deciding on the evaluation design, type of information and data collection methods. For example, to be able to determine whether or not there has been an increase in the proportion of people that knows how to prevent burglaries, you need to know what proportion of people knew this before the implementation of your programme (see also the next paragraph on the *evaluation design*). You can opt to collect these data by, e.g., conducting a survey (see also section 2 on *data collection* and analysis). 'More reporting of suspicious behaviour in neighbourhood' could perhaps be analysed through police records (type of information); 'more precautions taken in family homes' (e.g., better outdoor lighting) could be observed (data *collection method*), etc. (See also Part 1: Thematic paper, p.7-9 for more information).

Success or failure?

In order to make sense of the information provided via the indicators you will need to develop criteria to judge whether the changes you find are evidence of success (increases in feelings of security) or failure (low rates of participation in the programme).

5. Choosing evaluation design to measure impact

If you have chosen to conduct an outcome evaluation it is because you are interested in knowing if your programme has caused a particular outcome. However, discovering whether a programme caused a particular outcome is a complex task.

To make any judgements on the outcome or the impact of a programme, you need to:
• Have information on the situation before the programme was implemented
• Have information on the change/progress in the situation after the programme was implemented
• Be able to attribute this change/progress to the programme

There are three approaches you can take to demonstrating that change has occurred as a result of your programme. The one you chose will depend on the information you want, what conclusions you want to be able to draw and how much time and resources (people and budget) you have available. All three approaches will be very shortly described in the following paragraphs (See also Part 1: Thematic paper, p.8-9 for more information).

Pre-post design
This involves measuring the situation before the start of your programme and then again after the programme has been completed. Changes evident in the post test are attributed to the programme. This type of design is the cheapest and easiest to implement, however, it is not possible to effectively eliminate the risk that another variable might be causing the change.
A basic evaluation design would look like this:

Pre-test	→	**Programme**	→	**Post-test**
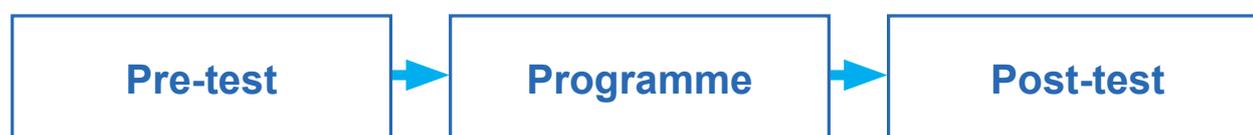
Figure 2: Example of a basic non-experimental pre-post design

For example, the number of burglaries has declined in the area where you launched your prevention campaign but during your campaign they also improved the street lights in that area. So, was it the impact of your prevention programme or the street lights (or both) which caused the decline?

Intervention and control group (Quasi-experimental design)

To find out what the actual impact of your programme is you have to know what would have been the situation if your programme wasn't implemented. Therefore, you have to include a control group/area in your design which has the same characteristics as the group/area in your programme in terms of size, crime rate and social composition to be comparable, but which was not included in the prevention programme.

In a quasi-experimental design you selectively place participants into a control or an intervention group. In this design the change/progress in both groups/areas can be compared. In our example the control group/area with similar characteristics was not included in the prevention campaign on burglaries but did get new street lights in the same time period. Change evident in the intervention group but not in the control group can be attributed to the programme. Unlike experimental designs (see next example) it is not possible to entirely eliminate the possibility that another factor may be causing the change though this risk can be reduced.

Avoid spillover effects

Try to select a comparable area which is NOT next to the target or experimental area to avoid spillover effects/contamination. For example, comparing the effect of a prevention programme in one, usually high-crime and disadvantaged, area of a city with the rest of that city will lead to serious limitations of your results.

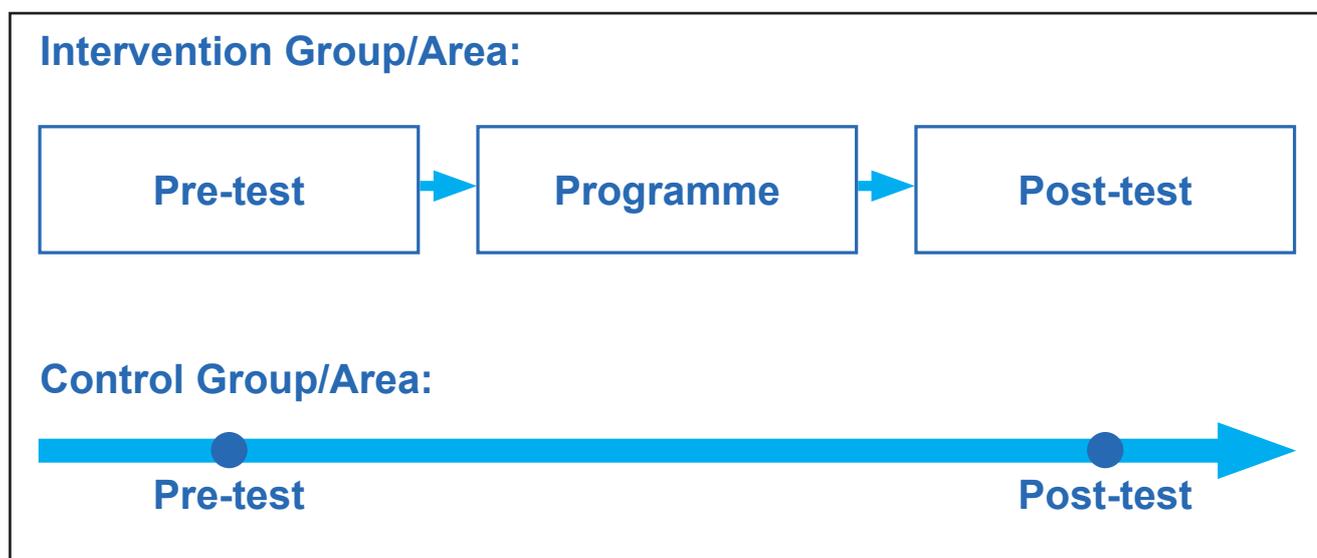The quasi-experimental evaluation design would look like this:

Intervention Group/Area:

| Pre-test | → | Programme | → | Post-test |

Control Group/Area:

Pre-test   Post-test

Figure 3: Example of basic (quasi-)experimental design

Randomised control trials (Experimental design)

This involves the random allocation of participants to either one or more experimental or control groups. All groups (experimental and control) are assessed before and after receiving an intervention (programme), controlling for any pre-programme differences or other events that may influence the outcome (e.g., new street lights). Any changes discovered can be attributed to the intervention (programme). Experimental designs are seen as the gold standard; however they are complex, costly and certainly require the input of persons with the relevant expertise.

> ### Short-, mid- or long-term outcomes
>
> *You will need to consider whether you want to measure short-, mid- or long-term outcomes. It might take time for a programme to be implemented and for changes to occur.*

6. Develop an evaluation plan

Once you decided on all of the previously mentioned steps the evaluation team will need to develop an evaluation plan to help you keep track of your progress. The plan should include:
  • Tasks that need to be done
  • Required outputs of the tasks
  • Who is responsible for what
  • Timeframe involved
  • The cost of each task

The evaluation plan should also include the evaluation's terms of reference. This document sets out what the evaluation will involve. It will need to be agreed upon before the evaluation begins. It should include:
  • The purpose of the evaluation
  • The evaluation questions
  • The requirements of the evaluators
  • Expected format of the final report
  • Budget

As mentioned before, it may be a good idea to have someone monitoring this evaluation plan and managing the evaluation team.

Having planned various aspects of the evaluation you may wish to revise or revisit some of these steps in light of the others.

Section 2: Data collection and analysis

A: Collecting data

There are a lot of different ways to collect data. The approach you take will be based on:
- the type of data you want/need to answer your evaluation questions
- how accessible the data you need is
- what is most feasible in terms of your budget, time and manpower

The following are some of the most common approaches or methods to data collection although there are a number of other approaches that can also be used.

Sometimes it is even recommended to use a combination of methods to complement and reinforce certain conclusions, i.e. triangulation[20]. For example, characteristics of burgled houses (quantitative) vs. the experience of the victims of burglary (qualitative). It is important to know that whatever method is used, each has its strengths but also its limitations which might influence data quality (for an overview of strengths and weaknesses of quantitative vs. qualitative methods see, e.g., Table 6.1 of *The Magenta Book: guidance notes for policy evaluation and analysis* - 2007 edition, p.6:3).

Further reading

Although this chapter will quickly go over some of the most common approaches or methods to data collection, it is beyond the scope of this manual to provide a course in research methodologies.

Therefore, if you do not have the right expertise in your evaluation team on, e.g. sampling, statistical analyses, the development of survey instruments, measurement errors or quantitative and qualitative research designs, you may need the help of a researcher/statistician.

Additionally, chapters 4 to 8 of The Magenta Book: guidance notes for policy evaluation and analysis - 2007 edition gives a good basic introduction to statistics and data collection: http://resources.civilservice.gov.uk/wp-content/uploads/2011/09/the_complete_magenta_book_2007_edition2.pdf

Remember your overall purpose and goals

*During the course of an evaluation it is easy to focus too much on data and the wide range of data collecting methodologies. Remember, whatever method you choose, **only collect information that you intend to use** to answer your evaluation questions.*

*You should also **know how you will use this** information **before** you collect it.*

---

[20] Triangulation means bringing together different types of data, or sometimes different ways of looking at data, to answer the research questions (Magenta book(2007), p.8:29).

1. Quantitative approaches

Surveys

Surveys are usually based on structured questionnaires. They can be used if you want to collect factual information, for example, gender and age, but also *behavioural* and *attitudinal* information, for example, how often does someone participate in the programme or how satisfied is he/she with a specific programme, or if you want to measure how much *knowledge* someone has on (the existence of) a certain programme. Surveys are a very good way to collect large amounts of standardised information in a relative short space of time.

Designing questionnaires
If you decide to design your own questionnaire the following steps will be helpful.
• Questions included in the questionnaire should be specifically related to the research questions.
• Keep the questionnaire as short as possible by avoiding 'nice to know' type questions.
• Think about how you are going to use and analyse the information you get from each question.
• Avoid or use as few open ended questions as possible.
• Keep the number of categories within closed questions as limited as possible and make sure that categories are not ambiguous or overlapping.
• Avoid double-barrels (i.e. asking two things in one question) or double-negatives.
• Practice the first draft of the questionnaire with a small number of people to see if any of the questions need to be changed.
• Make sure the questionnaire is clearly printed and well laid out.

Example: Open ended and closed questions[21]

Open ended question

What is best about the programme in your opinion?

....

....

....

(Space is provided to allow the respondent to write their answer in their own words).

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[21] For an overview of the pros and cons of open vs. closed questions, see Table 6.5 of The Magenta Book: guidance notes for policy evaluation and analysis - 2007 edition, p.6:12.

Closed question

How often do you attend the programme?
- Everyday
- A few times a week (but not daily)
- Once a week
- A few times a month (but not weekly)
- Once a month
- Less often than once a month
- Never

(Respondents have to answer with one of the pre-scripted alternatives).

Table 4: Example of an open and close ended question

Questionnaires can be conducted in person (i.e. face-to-face standardized interview), over the telephone, online (e.g., via survey monkey) or by post[22]. Each of these approaches has its advantages and disadvantages (see, e.g., overview in Table 4.2, p.60 of the *US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide - http://www.cdc.gov/eval/guide/CDCEvalManual.pdf.*).

Choosing survey approach

*Make sure to choose an approach that **best suits the circumstances of your evaluation**. For example, the purpose of the information you are collecting, the type and number of people you want to collect information from, your access to available resources: budget, time and expertise within or outside your evaluation team.*

Standardised psychological and attitudinal assessments can be used to measure a range of issues such as general health, mental health, social functioning and disability status etc. These assessments can be very useful when trying to measure the impact of programmes on services users. For example, if your crime prevention programme is attempting to reduce reoffending by improving pro-social functioning, service users can be assessed before and after participating in the programme to see what effect it had. Standardized questionnaires are developed by researchers and have the advantage of having been developed and field-tested.

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[22] Often the (personal, telephone or web) interviews are computer assisted: CAPI (computer assisted personal interview), CATI (computer assisted telephone interview), CASI (computer assisted self-interviewing), as opposed to PAPI (paper and pencil interviewing).

2. Qualitative approaches

In-depth interviews

In-depth or unstructured interviews are used to collect in-depth, qualitative information on complex subjects that can be difficult to measure in numeric terms on, for example, opinions or feelings about a programme. They are also often a good way to explore a new topic or area you are interested in which can be later followed up with a more structured quantitative approach. Therefore, qualitative interviewing tends to be associated with theory development rather than theory testing which is often the case with quantitative approaches. In qualitative interviews the quality of the information collected will depend on the skill of the interviewer and his/her relationship with the respondent.

Interviews can vary between having a set of very specific questions (semi-structured interviews) to essentially being an informal conversation (unstructured interviews). This gives interviewers a great deal of flexibility in how they approach the interviewing process in contrast to the structured approach taken in survey research. Interviews may be conducted on a one to one basis or in groups, i.e. focus groups.

When doing an in-depth interview the following steps will be helpful.
- Have a list of general topic areas that you want to focus on (i.e. an interview guide).
- Do not ask leading questions.
- Formulate your questions in a way that helps you answer your research questions but be prepared to be flexible in the interview.
- Formulate questions in a language that will be understandable to the respondent.
- Allow the interviewees to express themselves fully without letting them stray too far from the topic.
- Ask follow-up questions (i.e. probing) if the interviewee says something that is relevant and that you want to explore more in-depth.
- Make interview notes, including information about name, age, gender, time spent in the programme etc as this will be good for providing context.
- Record the interview on a tape or electronic recorder (but make sure to ask permission).
- Conduct the interview in a quiet location where you are less likely to be interrupted.

The number of interviews you need to conduct will depend on the circumstances of your evaluation. However, only a small number need to be carried out compared with survey research as the goal is to collect in-depth information and not to generalise from your sample to some larger group.

Focus groups

A focus group is a type of group interview in which there are several participants (with a maximum of about 10-12 persons in one group to make sure everyone gets involved in the discussion). The theme of the focus group is normally well-defined and the emphasis is placed on how the individuals in the focus group interact and answer questions in and as a group.

The individuals are normally selected on the basis that they have an important feature in common, for example they all participated in the same programme either as staff or clients with the discussion normally centred on this common experience.

Interviewing key programme staff and service users

In-depth interviews can be a good way to collect detailed information from key persons in a programme, such as a programme director or other such persons, who have particular expertise and understanding that is specific to their position.

Individual and/or group interviews are also a good way of exploring the views of smaller numbers of service users.

Observation

Data collected by observation can provide a good addition to information gathered by survey or interviews. It may be particularly useful if your goal is to collect information on the strengths and weaknesses in the operations of your programme by observing and documenting the activities of project staff and service users.

Observation is useful in the following ways:
• Gaining a better overall understanding of the context of the programme (the site, the staff, the service users, the general atmosphere, etc.).
• Allowing you to develop questions that you can later use in questionnaires or interviews.
• Allowing you to uncover aspects of programme operation that staff are unaware of or are unwilling to discuss.

If you decide to use observation as a data collection method it is worth remembering that people may act differently if they know that they are being observed. It is also important that you obtain the consent of the people that you are observing.

Reviewing programme documentation

Internal programme documents can be a valuable source of information for better understanding a programme. This documentation can include:

- Mission statements and/or strategic plans
- Organisational charts
- Annual reports
- Activity schedules
- Diaries
- Minutes of meetings
- Funding proposals
- Attendance records
- Promotional literature (brochures, newsletters, posters,...)

Use the observation and documentation review to formulate questions

Both observation and documentation review can provide information which may be used to help with the formulation of questions for surveys or interviews.

Individual and/or group interviews are also a good way of exploring the views of smaller numbers of service users.

Such materials can contain important information about the background of the programme, and outcomes of a particular project and may also provide information about how a programme has changed over time.

Other methods like the Delphi method, polls or expert workshops are also examples of qualitative approaches.

There are some issues to consider related to these quantitative and qualitative methods, such as response rates, probability, validity and reliability, etc. some of which are discussed in the thematic paper of this toolbox (see Part 1: thematic paper, p. 14-17).

B: Analysing and interpreting data

Once you have collected the data your next steps should be to:
  • Clean your data, i.e. organise the information and check for any errors
  • Describe what you find
  • Analyse and interpret the data in the context of what you are evaluating
  • Discuss your findings with the stakeholders

> **Interpreting data**
>
> *When interpreting data and reporting your results, be clear and open about the limitations of your data (i.e. internal and external validity and reliability) and do not try to overstate or exaggerate your conclusions. This will help ensure that your evaluation is robust and that invalid conclusions are avoided.*

The kind of analysis and interpretation that you carry out will depend on whether the type of data you have collected is quantitative or qualitative.

1. Quantitative data

Quantitative analysis can vary in complexity from calculating averages to more complicated statistical techniques exploring the relationship between different variables. Simpler quantitative analysis involving percentages and averages might be done by programme staff whereas more complex statistical analysis should be done by someone with the appropriate skills and research expertise.

When analysing and interpreting quantitative data the following steps should be taken:

Cleaning your data

Having collected your data your next steps should be to:
  • Organise the information by inputting the data into a statistical software package such as Excel or SPSS and
  • Check the data for any errors.

Analyzing your data

Depending on the research design (e.g., experimental, quasi-experimental or pre-post design) you have chosen you will be trying to discover:
• Is there a difference evident in the sample you have collected (i.e. is the intervention (or pre-intervention) group different from the control (or post-intervention) group for the variable of interest)?
• Although not common in small scale evaluations, in some cases you might also be interested in discovering whether this difference is likely to exist in the wider population (i.e. all of the people participating in the programme)?

• How likely is it that a mistake has been made (i.e. that you have detected a difference that isn't there or visa versa)?

The type of statistical tests that may be used to answer these questions will depend on the nature of the data you have collected. As mentioned before, it is not possible for an introductory manual to provide a detail explanation of the various techniques of analysis and interpretation.

Expertise

If you are not familiar with quantitative analysis always seek the assistance of a statistician or data analyst rather than try to carry out the analysis yourself.

Interpreting your data

When interpreting your results and before drawing your conclusions or formulating recommendations take the following into consideration (Source: *US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide, p. 77)*:
• Are there any alternative explanations for your results?
• How do your results compare with those of similar programmes?
• Are your results consistent with theories supported by previous research?

Neither of the previous questions should be too difficult to address if you have prepared your evaluation well by doing your background research in the planning phase of your evaluation (see B.1., p.35).

• Have the different data collection methods used to measure your progress shown similar results?
• Are your results similar to what you expected? If not, why do you think they may be different?

> **Causation and correlation**
>
> *Be aware of the difference between causation and correlation.*
>
> *Causation involves one thing causing another. For example, the more you exercise the more calories you burn. In this case physical activity causes your body to burn calories.*
>
> *Correlation on the other hand means two things happening at the same time that, while related, are not said to cause each other. For example, more people tend to swim on days when ice cream sales are higher. In this case going swimming does not cause people to eat ice cream (or vice versa), rather both of these activities happen on days which are hot.*
>
> *Similarly, you should be careful when directly attributing an effect (e.g., reduced rates of car theft) to your programme (e.g., awareness raising about car theft) without first considering other possible explanations.*

When interpreting the data, make sure to consider the limitations, i.e. the (internal and external) validity and reliability of the results.

Validity of the results can refer to the extent to which the results can be generalised or transferred to a larger group than the one from which the information is collected; or it can refer to the quality of the research design and/or the considerations regarding causality, i.e. attributing.

Reliability of the results refers to whether or not the results are consistent, for example the ability to replicate research methods and yield the same results. See also the thematic paper of this toolbox (p.15-16) for more information on validity and reliability

> **Validity**
>
> *As mentioned before, many qualitative methods are not meant to generalise results so conclusions on the impact of your programme should be avoided!*

2. Qualitative data

Interpreting qualitative data is rather different from analyzing numeric data as the analysis involves making sense of people's stories and developing these into different themes relating to your evaluation questions. This can often be a challenging process as qualitative research methods can generate very large amounts of data without there being any clear way to make sense of the information in question. However, while there is no single approach to coding and analyzing qualitative data the following steps can be followed to help make sense of the qualitative information you have collected [23].

---

[23] For more information on the analysis of qualitative data, see: The Magenta Book: guidance notes for policy evaluation and analysis - 2007 edition, p.8:36
http://resources.civilservice.gov.uk/wp-content/uploads/2011/09/the_complete_magenta_book_2007_edition2.pdf

- **Make an overview.** Read over your transcripts, interview notes etc, and make general notes on any themes, patterns or points of interest you come across.

> **Transcribing interviews**
>
> *Transcribing qualitative interviews can be a long and often challenging process. Allow plenty of time for transcription or if your budget allows consider hiring someone to transcribe the interviews.*

- **Begin coding the information**. Coding means categorising the information to distinguish overall themes, trends, patterns. Do not wait until all of the interviews have been completed. Instead, begin the process *as soon as possible* as this will mean working with a smaller and therefore more manageable amount of data. This will also help you to avoid the feeling of being swamped by data. Repeat this process, making more detailed and numerous notes. You are now coding your data.

> **Colour coding**
>
> *If you are working manually, a simple but useful way to code information from qualitative interviews is to use colours to code the interview transcripts. Each colour represents a different theme. Once you have finished colour coding the transcripts you can more easily group the themes together on the basis of the colour.*

- **Review the codes/categories**. What concept(s) do the categories you have distinguished relate to (see evaluation questions)? Are any of these ideas reflected in the literature? Are any of the categories related to each other?

- **Generating ideas**. At this point you should be able to generate some general ideas about your data. Try to outline connections between the concepts/themes that you are distinguishing and try to develop explanations for these connections.

3. Discussing findings with stakeholders

Once all of your data has been analysed and the draft findings developed, it may be a good idea to involve the stakeholders in the final redaction of the evaluation report. Several meetings between the evaluation team, the advisory panel and other relevant stakeholders should be held so that the evaluation results can be discussed and the reporting and dissemination of these results can be decided upon together.

Section 3: Reporting and communicating your evaluation findings

Having planned and carried out your evaluation it is important that you effectively communicate what you have discovered about your programme.

> ### Involve stakeholders
>
> *Remember, evaluations are carried out to help people make decisions about a programme. As such, all relevant stakeholders should be involved from the earliest possible stage in discussions regarding **how** best and **to whom** to communicate the results of the evaluation. This will help you to understand the requirements of the relevant stakeholders and to make it easier to tailor the final evaluation report to their needs.*
>
> *It may be a good idea to involve stakeholders in the final redaction of the evaluation report. Plan a few meetings with the evaluation team and the advisory panel where the evaluation results can be discussed and the reporting and dissemination of these results can be decided upon together.*

Regardless of the approach to evaluation you choose, the final evaluation report should:
- Be written in a clear manner.
- Accurately reflect the findings of the evaluation. Be clear on what is working and what is not (and why!), for whom and in what context or under which circumstances.
- Include the strengths but also the limitations of the evaluation.
- Be accessible to the target audience(s). This means that you should tailor it to the needs of the audience(s) you are targeting and use style, tone and language which they can easily understand **without technical jargon**.
- Contain information and/or recommendations that will help with decision-making.

Besides helping with the decision-making process, an effectively published evaluation report will have additional benefits such as, demonstrating accountability to funders and other relevant bodies, demonstrating the programme's positive effects to a range of different audiences, improving people's understanding of crime prevention, particularly in the local community, and generating increased support for similar such programmes.

1. The structure of the final report

While evaluation reports can be presented in different ways, the following sections and structure would be commonly used (Based on *US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide, p. 86*):

▶ An executive summary: should provide a quick overview of your main findings, starting with the most important and interesting results at the top. As an option, this part can be preceded by one page of main message bullets that have come from the evaluation (see 1:3:25 format in 'tips box' below) for the very busy reader.

▶ Background and purpose
- Programme background and description: content and context
- Stakeholder identification and engagement
- Evaluation rationale: an explanation for why the evaluation was done and what it hoped to achieve
- Key evaluation questions/focus

▶ Evaluation methodology
- Description of methodology (design, sampling, indicators, data collection procedure,...)
- Summary of the collected data
- Data analysis: explanation of the analyses carried out + limitations

▶ Results
- Findings and conclusions that can be drawn from the findings
- Recommendations based on the findings and 'lessons learned'

▶ Appendices: for any other relevant and useful information not contained in the main body of the report (e.g., questionnaires, interview guides and other documents used for the evaluation)

Highlight relevant information!

Those reading your report are likely to have a busy work schedule. As such, you should place the important information up front in easy to understand language (e.g. work with bullet points to highlight your main results).

This will better ensure that your evaluation report's findings and recommendations are taken on board.

The 1:3:25 format, which is used by the UK Home Office and Australian and Canadian Public Health Care, may be used as an example of how to write a reader-friendly report. 1 page of main message bullets, 3 pages of executive summary and 25 pages of presenting your findings in a language that is clear and accessible to the non-specialist (see http://www.hse.gov.uk/research/producing-reports-advice.pdf).

2. Communicating your findings

Depending on the size of your budget and the audience you want to reach, there are a number of ways that you can publicise the findings of your evaluation. These can include paper copies of the full final report, electronic versions that can be made available online, a brief summary report that describes the main findings of the evaluation in simple terms and/or even a brief film describing the programmes and the evaluation.

Make your report interesting and attractive

Reports that look interesting are more likely to be read by a wider audience. Use graphs, tables, and excerpts from interviews as necessary to make your reports more interesting and readable.

Communicate 'lessons learned'!

*Evidently, people like to show and hear about success stories. Therefore, it can often be difficult to highlight a programme's shortcomings or deficiencies. Nevertheless, it is **all the more important** to share these results so that future programmes can learn from any mistakes.*

Use several methods and channels to get the findings of your evaluation report to your audience, for example:
- Social media and other websites to highlight the key findings.
- Conferences and seminars where the findings of the evaluation can be discussed with other professionals and experts.
- Presentations to community groups, local organisations,...

Good practices & show-casing

Use interactive communication methods to increase the impact. For example, use good practices or show-casing when presenting your results to have more impact and to integrate evaluation in the standard way of working.

- Press conferences and interviews with members of the media (television, radio, newspapers,...).
- Newsletters of various (partner) organisations.
- Use personal network, databases and channels of programme managers to disseminate findings
- If appropriate, consider writing a peer-reviewed article in a recognised academic journal.
- Some relevant databases accept submissions of reports, for example:
  https://www.ncjrs.gov/library/contribute.html
  http://opengrey.eu/about/contribute

Annexes: worksheets

Worksheet 1.A.1 – Identifying relevant stakeholders

First make a list of all potential relevant stakeholders, using the following guiding questions:
- *Persons/organisations increasing the evaluation's quality (reliability)?*
- *Persons/organisations running the programme?*
- *Persons/organisations potentially using the evaluation results?*
- *Persons/organisations affected by the programme?*

Stakeholder worksheet		
Stakeholder	**Type of stakeholder/involvement**	**Area of interest related to programme**
e.g. Youth organisation	e.g. Increase reliability of evaluation e.g. Implement and advocate for change	e.g. Support for young offenders
e.g. Local authorities	e.g. Fund programme	e.g. Programme leads to fewer cases of re-offending
e.g. Community leaders	e.g. Increase reliability of evaluation e.g. Influence programme outcome	e.g. Support for young offenders and their families

Worksheet 1.A.2 - Budget

Budget worksheet			
Stage of project (planning, implemen-tation, reporting)	**Task**	**Estimated cost**	**Resource**
e.g. Planning	e.g. Stakeholder meeting	e.g. xxx EUR	e.g. Grant funding

Worksheet 1.A.3 – Checklist tender document

If you decide to tender out your evaluation to external evaluators the tender document you develop should include the following:
- Background of the programme/project you want evaluated.
- The purpose of the evaluation (what should the evaluation aim to achieve).
- How you want the evaluation to be undertaken (in-depth interviews with key stakeholders, survey of service users, analysis of pre-existing data, etc).
- The various tasks to be undertaken by the successful candidate (data collection, analysis, report writing, etc).

- The evaluation deadlines.
- The financial specificities (how much to be awarded, details of the relevant financial regulations).
- The details required from the applicant including:
  - ▶ Contact details
  - ▶ Relevant expertise in the area
  - ▶ CVs of applicant staff
  - ▶ Format of information required (e.g., presentation, written tender proposal)
- The criteria for selecting a successful applicant (experience, feasibility of proposal, value for money etc).
- Contact point for the forwarding of applications.
- The deadline date for close of applications.

Worksheet 1.B.1 – Programme description

(Source: US Department of Health and Human Services, 2011. Introduction to program evaluation for public health programs: A self-study guide)

Programme description worksheet	
Activity	**Description**
Need: what problem does the programme try to address?	
Targets: which groups/organisations need to change or take action to ensure progress on the problem?	
Outcomes: how and in what way do these targets need to change? What action do they need to take?	
Activities: what will programme do to move these target groups to change/take action?	
Outputs: what tangible products will be produced by the programme's activities?	
Resources/Inputs: what is needed from larger environment in order for activities to be mounted successfully?	
Relationship Activities – Outcomes: which activities are being implemented to produce progress on which outcomes?	
Stage of development: programme just getting started, in implementation stage or underway for quite some time?	
Context: What factor/trends in larger environment may influence programme success or failure?	

Worksheet 1.B.2a – Sequencing activities & outcomes

Activities		Outcomes	
Early activities	**Later activities**	**Early outcomes**	**Later outcomes**
e.g. Identify target groups	e.g. Develop communication plan + tools	e.g. More knowledge on how to prevent burglaries	e.g. More precautions taken in family homes to prevent burglaries

Worksheet 1.B.2b – Overview of inputs, activities, outputs & outcomes

Inputs	Early activities	Later activities	Outputs	Early outcomes	Later outcomes
e.g. Funding	e.g. Identify target groups	e.g. Develop communication plan + tools	e.g. Communication report	e.g. More knowledge on how to prevent burglaries	e.g. More precautions taken in family homes

Worksheet 1.B.3 – Previous research/evaluation

Previous research/evaluation			
Author (Name in alphabetical order)	**Title** (Title publication)	**Source + year of publication** (Journal/book/online resource)	**Key points/main results**
e.g. Verwee, I.; Ponsaers, P. & Enhus, E.	e.g. Burglar is my trade, texture and practice of burglary	e.g. Book (2007)	e.g. Necessity of integral and integrated approach

Worksheet 1.B.4a – Evaluation questions

Formulating evaluation questions	
Programme component (activity/outcome)	**Evaluation question**
e.g. 6 months after the programme has been implemented, the number of reports on suspicious behaviour will have increased by 25%	e.g. Did the programme reach its goal of increasing the number of reports of suspicious behaviour?
e.g. After one year service users' levels of fear of crime will have decreased by 40%	e.g. Do service users show lower levels of fear of crime after the programme compared to non-service users?

Worksheet 1.B.4b – Linking evaluation question to data

Linking evaluation questions to data collection			
Evaluation question	**Data type**	**Data source**	**Data collection method**
e.g. Did the programme reach its goal of increasing the number of reports of suspicious behaviour?	e.g. Quantitative	e.g. Police records	e.g. Secondary data analysed by research department
e.g. Do service users show lower levels of fear of crime after the programme compared to non-service users?	e.g. Quantitative & e.g. Qualitative	e.g. Victimisation survey (ICVS) e.g. Individual service and non-service users	e.g. Secondary data analysed by statistical experts from university e.g. Primary data collection: in-depth interviews conducted by trained volunteers and analysed by research department

Worksheet 1.B.5a – Process evaluation

Process evaluation			
Intended process (activity)	**Realised process (activity)**	**Reason for modification**	**Further change needed (recommendation)**
e.g. 25 voluntary local police officers will be trained to raise awareness on the subject	e.g. 10 police officers have been trained	e.g. lack of interest with local police officers	e.g. make training obligatory for all local officers

Worksheet 1.B.5b – Outcome evaluation

Outcome evaluation			
Intended outcome	**Actual outcome**	**(Possible) reason(s) for difference**	**Suggested modification**
e.g. 6 months after the programme has been implemented, the number of reports on suspicious behaviour will have increased by 25%	e.g. 10% increase	e.g. Flyers in local library do not reach target audience e.g. Not enough trained personnel to do door-to-door visits	e.g. Use different distribution channels e.g. make training obligatory for all local police officers

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Participating experts

Workshop I – 25 March 2013, Dublin, Ireland

Mr. Barry Connan, An Garda Síochána Analysis Service, Ireland

Dr. Yvonne Daly, Dublin City University, Ireland

Ms. Jenny Jakobson, Ministry of Interior, Estonia

Mr. Philip Jennings, Safer Blanchardstown, Dublin, Ireland

Prof. Wolfgang Kahl, German Forum for Crime Prevention (DFK), Germany

Dr. Aogan Mulcahy, University College Dublin, Ireland

Dr. Kieran O'Dwyer, Independent Consultant, Ireland

Ms. Sarah O'Gorman, South Dublin County Council, Ireland

Supt. Colette Quinn, Director Juvenile Diversion Programme, An Garda Síochána, Ireland

Mr. Sean Redmond, Irish Youth Justice Service, Department of Children and Youth Affairs, Dublin, Ireland

Mr. Gurchand Singh, Head of An Garda Síochána Analysis Service, Ireland

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Ms. Charlotte Vincent, Danish Crime Prevention Council, Denmark

Workshop II – 6 June 2013, Brussels, Belgium

Ms. Ileana Bogatoniu, General Directorate of Bucharest Police – Crime Analysis and Prevention Department, Romania

Mr. Alessandro Carini, Polizia di Stato – Direzione Centrale Anticriminelle, Italy

Mr. Peter Colle, Local Prevention and Security, City of Ghent, Belgium

Ms. Saskia De Clercq, Ministry of Interior – General Directorate Local and Integral Security, Belgium

Mr. Tomas Jansson, Police Halland, ECPA Winner 2012, Sweden

Dr. Theo Lorenc, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, United Kingdom

Mr. Robert Pawlak, Police Headquarters Łódź, Poland

Dr. Aiden Sidebottom, University College London – Department of Security and Crime science, United Kingdom

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Part 3   Examples from practice & other

Introduction

In this third and final part of the toolbox, we draw on the practice of evaluation itself. On the one hand, we included an overview of several selected examples of practices from different European Member States. These examples have been provided in alphabetical order according to the country of origin, all of whom have very different approaches and various budgets available but who all have undertaken evaluating and/or monitoring activities, internally and/or outsourced externally, using different methods and designs, etc. This overview is intended to provide a practical guide to 'real world' evaluations by setting out:
- How is evaluation, if any, done in practice?
- Who is involved? What are the costs?
- How are the results disseminated?

We avoid talking about best, good or inferior practice because without setting any prior criteria, it is impossible to make any judgements on the quality of the evaluation process. As Morgan and Homel (2013: 6) [24] rightly point out: "The practical difficulties facing community-based organisations in undertaking adequate evaluations have been widely acknowledged". Furthermore, even 'weak' evaluations can provide at least some insight (Morgan & Homel, 2013). Provided of course, that their limitations are acknowledged and no 'false claims' are made.

In addition to the examples of evaluations, a list of existing manuals and guidelines is also provided. Many of these existing manual were drawn on during the development of this toolbox and may provide a useful source of information and inspiration for readers. Obviously, this list is not exhaustive, as only manuals available in English were included. We certainly acknowledge that there are many (local) evaluation manuals focused on the general theme of crime prevention, and while such texts are not listed, we have nevertheless sought to incorporate their ideas into this manual. Finally, we also looked at other domains, like public health, where there already exists a longer tradition of programme evaluation.

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[24] Morgan, A. & P. Homel (2013). Evaluating crime prevention: Lessons from large-scale community crime prevention programs. Trends & Issues in crime and criminal justice, No. 458. http://www.aic.gov.au/media_library/publications/tandi_pdf/tandi458.pdf

Examples from practice

Outer Area's Safety: Multi-level community Network (HU)

Short description:

In Csongrád County one tenth of the inhabitants live in outer areas, kind of farms, called „tanya" in Hungarian. „Tanya" is a form of scattered and isolated settlement far from the towns and far from each other. The isolated world of these settlements is a unique phenomenon in Hungary, which needs lots of attention. The other big part of the crime prevention work is determined by the several students who study and live in the area.

The inhabitant's sense of security changed a lot in the last 15 years. The leadership of the Csongrád County Headquarters 15 years ago, according to the crime statistics and the needs of the citizens, determined the development of a special preventive program for outer areas. The project has been growing continuously during the last 15 years.

Considering these facts a complex, basically interpersonal system (consists of private and public organizations as well) was built up with the coordination of the police. The long term operation is based on the growing public need for crime prevention activities and it seems to be materialized by the training of the juvenile contemporary helpers and their active involvement to the program.

Start/duration:

Since 1997 and still running.

Type of evaluation:

Process and impact evaluation

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Internal: The Crime Prevention Department collects data on people's sense of security continuously.

External: The Faculty of Sociology of the University of Szeged conducts yearly impact evaluations since 2000.

Budget:

Funds for the project were provided by the Ministry of Interior in 2004 (3,8 million HUF – ca.12.800EUR), the Municipality of Csongrád County in 2010 (2 million HUF – ca.6.700EUR) and the TÁMOP project budget (EU financed) in 2012 (5 million HUF – ca.17.000EUR).

Background research:

Preliminary context analysis based on the results of a police survey in 1997.
Type of data collection method:
  • Secondary quantitative data: police records and municipal administrative data.
  • Primary quantitative data on citizens' satisfaction and sense of security through police surveys with local residents

Evaluation design:

Comparing data before and after project implementation. No comparisons with a control sample/area.

Communication of results:

  • A short evaluation report was written and circulated: www.archive.police.hu/data/cms976004/Tanyaprogram.doc (only in Hungarian)

  • Through electronic and written news by the media partners (www.delmagyar.hu/blog/charlie_angyalai/ in Hungarian only) and the webpage of the Preventive Short film Collection (www.mediatar-szeged.hu in Hungarian only).

Further information
  • General information on the project: http://www.eucpn.org/goodpractice/showdoc.asp?docid=334
  • Presentation of the project at the SELPE conference in Valencia, May 2013 http://www.policialocalvalencia.es/Documentos/2013_Seminario_Selpe_Valencia/OUTER%20AREA'S%20SAFETY%20-%20HU%20-%2011.30.pdf

Faustlos (LU)

Short description:

Faustlos (Eng: "Without fists") – a pedagogic prevention programme developed in Germany – is set up to be used for small children (< 4 years). It is composed of different modules, according to the age of the children. The Luxemburg Police has promoted this tool to be used by the elementary schools involved in the project, mainly in the policing region of Diekirch (LU).

The objectives are to show the children, from early age on, to develop empathy, to manage conflict situations and their own anger behaviour, and to control their impulsive reactions in case of a confrontation with other children.

Start/duration:

Since 2006 and still running.

Type of evaluation:

Process and impact evaluation

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Self-evaluation: In 2007 an informal questionnaire was circulated by the Police among the teachers involved in the project in order to collect first impressions and suggestions of the teachers using the program.

External: In 2010 the Luxemburg University launched a scientific evaluation on the impact of the project for the target group.

Budget:

A total budget of 50.000EUR was provided by the participating municipal authorities for the project itself (training costs and material) and 10.000EUR for the external evaluation by the Luxemburg University.

Background research:

Academic literature review and empirical results from the Health Behaviour study of school aged children (HBSC-Study).

Type of data collection method:

Mainly primary quantitative data through a standardized questionnaire with 77 teachers and an interview with 29 children at two measurement points in time.

Evaluation design:

Comparing data before and after project implementation and comparisons with a control sample

Communication of results:

- An evaluation report was written and circulated to the participating schools and internal police actors (regional crime prevention agents).
- In 2007, a start-up press conference was organized, presenting the first group of teachers participating at the training.
- In 2010, the results of the evaluation were presented to interested parties (teachers, Ministry of Education, parents association).

Further information

General information on the project: [link] or www.faustlos.de

"Don't lose!" (PL)

Short description:

"Don't lose!" is an awareness raising and educational campaign about threats of commercial sexual exploitation of children and youth.

The purpose of the campaign was to increase knowledge and raise awareness about the problem of sexual exploitation of children in order to reduce risk and prevent cases of child abuse, in particular in the perspective of an increased inflow of tourist during European Football Championships 2012. The campaign targeted potential offenders and child victims as well as the general public and was based on interdisciplinary cooperation between NGOs, authorities and professionals working with youth. It was the first campaign in Poland conducted to reduce demand for commercial sexual acts with children and against participation in child sex tourism.

Start/duration:

2011 - 2012.

Type of evaluation:

Ongoing process and impact evaluation

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Internal: The Polish ngo Nobody's Children Foundation (NCF) was in charge of the campaign, which followed on the research they conducted in 2011 on the problem of commercial sexual exploitation of youth in Poland and Ukraine.

Budget:

Funds were provided through the governmental programme "Safer together" by the Ministry of Interior: for a total amount of 250.000PLN or 60.000EUR.
The Ministry of Education co-founded the publication of an educational board game for children and youth "Don't lose" for the amount of 42.340PLN or approximately 10.000EUR.
The OAK Foundation provided funding of 50.000 US dollars or approximately 38.000EUR, which included evaluation costs: ex-ante, ongoing and ex-post: research, focus groups and online questionnaires.

Background research:

Academic literature review and problem analysis.

Type of data collection method:

Primary quantitative and qualitative data through surveys on representative samples of the population and through 4 focus groups with 15-18 year old youth.

Evaluation design:

Comparing data before and after project implementation. Impact evaluation is planned as part of the research programmes on child victimization in Poland.

Communication of results:

- The "Don't lose!" campaign experience was shared during an international expert meeting organized in June 2013 in Warsaw. This was the first meeting summarising experiences from countries which have conducted awareness raising campaigns in the perspective of big sporting events 2006-2012. The meeting involved 18 countries and was founded from European Commission funds and ECPAT France. http://stopwykorzystywaniu.fdn.pl/
- Results were shared through national media and websites as well as on international level.

Further information

- General information on the project: http://fdn.pl/en/dont-lose-campaign-against-commercial-sexual-exploitation-children
- Research report: http://fdn.pl/sites/default/files/file/handel/Raport_angielski_final.pdf
- Lesson scenarios, films and posters are available online and used at schools: http://fdn.pl/dla-nauczycieli-i-pedagogow
- The educational board game for children and youth: http://akademia.fdn.pl/gra-nie-prze-graj.

Old age without worries (RO)

Short description:

This small scale project aimed to prevent victimisation from burglaries of senior citizens in rural areas. Senior citizens living in rural areas often keep money at home. That is why they become vulnerable of burglary.

Policemen along with representatives of local bank units met senior citizens from 9 communes in order to inform them regarding the protection of their valuables. The banks' task was to make people trust and use modern methods of saving money.

Start/duration:

December 2010 – May 2011.

Type of evaluation:

Focus on monitoring of the process, based on predetermined indicators, as well as on process and/or impact evaluation.

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Internal monitoring of the process by the Braila County Police Inspectorate and assessment of the progress of the project by the various project partners.

Budget:

No budget foreseen for this project. Materials were made using Braila County Police Inspectorate's resources.

Background research:

A vulnerability study has been performed by the sociologist of the Braila County Police Inspectorate which led to the identification of the 9 most vulnerable communes in which the project was implemented. It also provided target groups and partner bank units in the rural areas previously identified.

Type of data collection method:

Primary qualitative assessment of the meetings through a questionnaire completed by the participants, as well as the partners' perception on the organization and development of activities, the meetings, the degree of partner involvement, population receptivity, the weak and strong points of the activities and their suggestions for improvements.

A final evaluation report was written which included the project design, organisation and implementation, the use of resources, the cooperation between partners and a final assessment of partner contribution to the project and beneficiaries' reactions.

Evaluation design:

Comparing police records on burglaries for the area before and after the project was implemented; comparisons were made with a control sample/area, i.e. the 9 communes in which the project was implemented.

Communication of results:

• A report was written and circulated (in written form in Romanian).
• Presentations at meetings with the various partners.
• Electronic and written news by the media: 24 press articles on 16 press sites.

Further information

• General information on the project: http://www.eucpn.org/RO/Old age without worries or http://www.arcasu.ro/E.O._Campania_de_prevenire_din_rural_bazata_pe_tehnici_vest-europene_id_1295616915.html (RO)
• Report: evaluation analysis by the sociologist of the Braila County Police Inspectorate in written form: http://www.eucpn.org/download/project final evaluation.pdf.

Neighbourhood Watch in Multi-Family Dwellings (SE)

Short description:

Neighbourhood watch is a method that focuses on preventing crime and increasing perceptions of safety and security by getting residents to assume responsibility for their own immediate environment.

The project Neighbourhood Watch in Multi-Family Dwellings has involved the local police in Halland working together with insurance companies and property owners to successfully reduce crime – first and foremost in the form of burglaries – in two socially disadvantaged neighbourhoods with multi-family dwellings, in which crime levels prior to the initiation of the project were high.

Start/duration:

2007-2010

Type of evaluation:

Process and impact evaluation

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Internal: Project steering group monitored the process and collected data before and throughout the implementation process

External: University of Halmstad evaluated the impact in 2010-2011

The evaluation was supported by the Swedish national council for crime prevention

Budget:

25.000EUR assigned to the evaluation of the programme (for the statistical analysis and qualitative research). However, this did not cover all the working hours invested in the whole evaluation process by the internal staff and the external evaluators.

Background research:

Systematic review

Type of data collection method:

- Secondary quantitative data: police records
- Primary quantitative and qualitative data through surveys and in-depth interviews with key persons and residents

Evaluation design:

Comparing data before and after project implementation and comparisons with surrounding (control) areas

Communication of results:

- A specific hearing at the University with about 60 invited guests.
- About 13 national newspapers published the results, two radio programmes and one television programme made interviews as well.
- The results were also presented at a national conference in Norrköping and is now spread as a "what works"-example around the country

Further information

- General information on the project: http://www.eucpn.org/download/Neighbourhood watch in multi-family dwellings.pdf
- Evaluation (summary in Eng.): http://www.eucpn.org/download/Evaluation Summary.pdf
- A guide for those who want to know how to initiate and implement neighbourhood watch programmes in multiple family dwellings: http://www.eucpn.org/download/Neighbourhood watch in multi family dwellings_A guide.pdf
- Systematic review - Effectiveness of neighbourhood watch in reducing crime: http://www.bra.se/download/18.cba82f7130f475a2f1800024107/1312464437577/2008_effectiveness_neighbourhood_watch.pdf

Repeat Victimisation – Road to Reduction.
Predictive Mapping and Super-Cocooning in Trafford (UK)
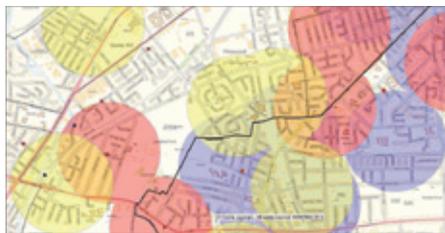
Short description:

The primary aim of the project was to reduce Burglary Dwelling by disrupting the 'Optimal Forager'. The results demonstrated a reduction in this offence type and through analysis of the location a disruption of this type of offender.

This project has used scientific research in a simple and cost effective manner to produce patrol plans with complimentary cocooning interventions. The established processes based on the scientific research combined with strong management have played a significant part in the 38.2% reduction in Burglary Dwelling offences over 2 years.

Start/duration:

Since 2010 and still running

Type of evaluation:

Process and impact evaluation

Actor conducting evaluation/timing:

Internal: the Trafford Division of Greater Manchester Police used internal expertise to create the predictive risk maps and evaluate the results analytically. Evaluations were planned at 3, 6 and 12 months to determine the future for the approach, whether there would be alterations made or simply a discontinuation.

External: After the initial phase a review was conducted in 2011 by the Jill Dando Institute of the UCL.

Budget:

No extra budget foreseen. The programme has been developed alongside other mainstream activity and as part of normal duties, using internal expertise and existing police and partnership resources more effectively.

Background research:

Academic literature review

Type of data collection method:

- Secondary quantitative data: police records and surveys
- Primary qualitative data from surveys of communities during neighbourhood forums, interviews with recent burglary victims and GMP's quarterly resident surveys.

Evaluation design:

Comparing data before, during and after project implementation and comparisons with (control) samples locally and nationally

Communication of results:

- A journal article was written to illustrate the cycle of academic research and effective application
- Presentations at conferences both Nationally and Internationally: International Crime and Intelligence Analysis (Manchester - http://www.ucl.ac.uk/jdi/events/int-CIA-conf), Best Practice Conference - EUCPN (Cyprus), Problem Orientated Policing Conference (USA), International Society for evidence-based policing (Cardiff), National Community Safety Network (Manchester)

Further information

- General information on the project: http://www.eucpn.org/download/Repeat victimisation - Road to reduction.pdf
- Evaluation reports: Initial evaluation: Fielding, M. (2010). Burglary Risk Mapping Evaluation. Greater Manchester Police.
  Evaluation Phase 1: Fielding, M. & Jones, V. (2011). 'Disrupting the optimal forager': predictive risk mapping and domestic burglary reduction in Trafford, Greater Manchester. International Journal of Police Science Management, 14(1), pp. 30-41.
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Biographies

Mark Leys graduated in sociology (Ma, 1985) and Social health sciences (PhD 2000). He was employed in different universities (Open University (1987-1991), Vrije Universiteit Brussel, (1985-1987; 1994-2014 Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam (2002-2004), and was employed at the federal health care knowledge centre of Belgium (KCE) (2003-2011).

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Mark Leys has particular expertise in evaluation research and methods and in *knowledge brokering*, referring to models and methodologies of translating research findings into policy making processes. He is regularly consulted for policy support at regional, national and international levels.

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