

Washington State Institute for Public Policy Benefit-Cost Results

Deploy one additional police officer with hot spots strategies Adult Criminal Justice: Police (results per-officer)

Benefit-cost estimates updated December 2023. Literature review updated October 2013.

Current estimates replace old estimates. Numbers will change over time as a result of model inputs and monetization methods.

The WSIPP benefit-cost analysis examines, on an apples-to-apples basis, the monetary value of programs or policies to determine whether the benefits from the program exceed its costs. WSIPP's research approach to identifying evidence-based programs and policies has three main steps. First, we determine "what works" (and what does not work) to improve outcomes using a statistical technique called meta-analysis. Second, we calculate whether the benefits of a program exceed its costs. Third, we estimate the risk of investing in a program by testing the sensitivity of our results. For more detail on our methods, see our Technical Documentation.

Program Description: This broad group of studies estimates the effectiveness of hot spots policing (compared to statewide average practices), primarily in urban jurisdictions in the United States. Hot spots policing concentrates policing in high crime areas or on specific crimes such as drug trafficking. This strategy differs from "traditional" policing, which typically relies on random preventative patrol or response to calls for service.

Benefit-Cost Summary Statistics Per Participant						
Benefits to:						
Taxpayers	\$78,568	Benefit to cost ratio	\$5.32			
Participants	\$0	Benefits minus costs	\$491,232			
Others	\$544,074	Chance the program will produce				
Indirect	(\$17,614)	benefits greater than the costs	100%			
Total benefits	\$605,028					
Net program cost	(\$113,796)					
Benefits minus cost	\$491,232					

The estimates shown are present value, life cycle benefits and costs. All dollars are expressed in the base year chosen for this analysis (2022). The chance the benefits exceed the costs are derived from a Monte Carlo risk analysis. The details on this, as well as the economic discount rates and other relevant parameters are described in our Technical Documentation.

Meta-Analysis of Program Effects											
Outcomes measured	Treatment age	No. of effect sizes	Treatment N	,	Adjusted effect sizes and standard errors used in the benefit-cost analysis First time ES is estimated Second time ES is estimated				Unadjus size (rand mo	adjusted effect (random effects model)	
				ES	SE	Age	ES	SE	Age	ES	p-value
Crime elasticity: property	28	n/a	0	-0.763	0.116	28	-0.351	0.123	28	0.000	0.001

Meta-analysis is a statistical method to combine the results from separate studies on a program, policy, or topic in order to estimate its effect on an outcome. WSIPP systematically evaluates all credible evaluations we can locate on each topic. The outcomes measured are the types of program impacts that were measured in the research literature (for example, crime or educational attainment). Treatment N represents the total number of individuals or units in the treatment group across the included studies.

An effect size (ES) is a standard metric that summarizes the degree to which a program or policy affects a measured outcome. If the effect size is positive, the outcome increases. If the effect size is negative, the outcome decreases.

Adjusted effect sizes are used to calculate the benefits from our benefit cost model. WSIPP may adjust effect sizes based on methodological characteristics of the study. For example, we may adjust effect sizes when a study has a weak research design or when the program developer is involved in the research. The magnitude of these adjustments varies depending on the topic area.

WSIPP may also adjust the second ES measurement. Research shows the magnitude of some effect sizes decrease over time. For those effect sizes, we estimate outcome-based adjustments which we apply between the first time ES is estimated and the second time ES is estimated. We also report the unadjusted effect size to show the effect sizes before any adjustments have been made. More details about these adjustments can be found in our Technical Documentation.

Detailed Monetary Benefit Estimates Per Participant							
Affected outcome:	Resulting benefits:1	Benefits accrue to:					
		Taxpayers	Participants	Others ²	Indirect ³	Total	
Crime elasticity: property	Crime	\$78,568	\$0	\$544,074	\$39,284	\$661,926	
Program cost	Adjustment for deadweight cost of program	\$0	\$0	\$0	(\$56,898)	(\$56,898)	
Totals		\$78,568	\$0	\$544,074	(\$17,614)	\$605,028	

¹In addition to the outcomes measured in the meta-analysis table, WSIPP measures benefits and costs estimated from other outcomes associated with those reported in the evaluation literature. For example, empirical research demonstrates that high school graduation leads to reduced crime. These associated measures provide a more complete picture of the detailed costs and benefits of the program.

^{3&}quot;Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the net changes in the value of a statistical life and net changes in the deadweight costs of taxation.

Detailed Annual Cost Estimates Per Participant								
	Annual cost	Year dollars	Summary					
Program costs Comparison costs	\$90,927 \$0	2011 2011	Present value of net program costs (in 2022 dollars) Cost range (+ or -)	(\$113,796) 20%				

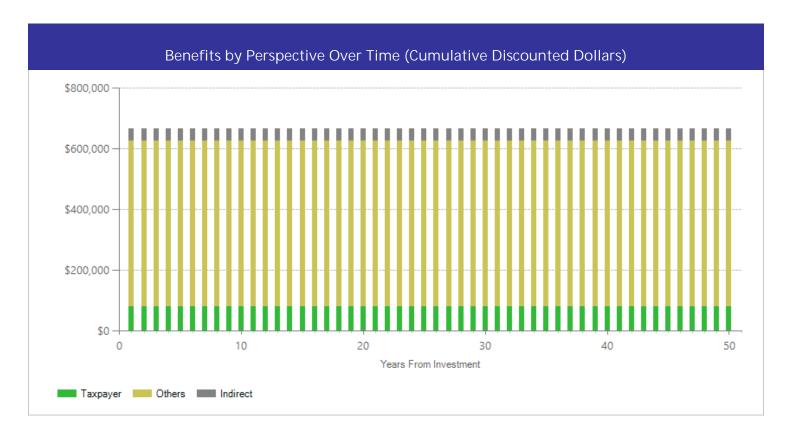
After consulting leading researchers in this area, we found that reliable estimates for the cost of hot spots strategies are not available. Therefore, we increased the cost of a police officer by 5% to capture the estimated additional costs associated with hot spots deployment.

The figures shown are estimates of the costs to implement programs in Washington. The comparison group costs reflect either no treatment as usual, depending on how effect sizes were calculated in the meta-analysis. The cost range reported above reflects potential variation or uncertainty in the cost estimate; more detail can be found in our Technical Documentation.

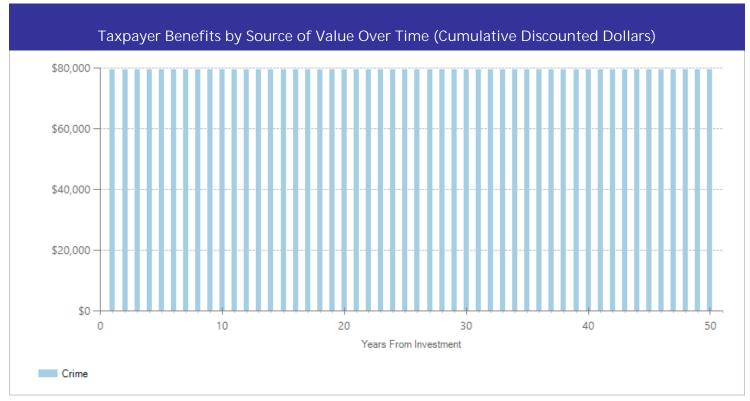
²"Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance.



The graph above illustrates the estimated cumulative net benefits per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. We present these cash flows in discounted dollars. If the dollars are negative (bars below \$0 line), the cumulative benefits do not outweigh the cost of the program up to that point in time. The program breaks even when the dollars reach \$0. At this point, the total benefits to participants, taxpayers, and others, are equal to the cost of the program. If the dollars are above \$0, the benefits of the program exceed the initial investment.



The graph above illustrates the breakdown of the estimated cumulative benefits (not including program costs) per-participant for the first fifty years beyond the initial investment in the program. These cash flows provide a breakdown of the classification of dollars over time into four perspectives: taxpayer, participant, others, and indirect. "Taxpayers" includes expected savings to government and expected increases in tax revenue. "Participants" includes expected increases in earnings and expenditures for items such as health care and college tuition. "Others" includes benefits to people other than taxpayers and participants. Depending on the program, it could include reductions in crime victimization, the economic benefits from a more educated workforce, and the benefits from employer-paid health insurance. "Indirect benefits" includes estimates of the changes in the value of a statistical life and changes in the deadweight costs of taxation. If a section of the bar is below the \$0 line, the program is creating a negative benefit, meaning a loss of value from that perspective.



The graph above focuses on the subset of estimated cumulative benefits that accrue to taxpayers. The cash flows are divided into the source of the value.

Citations Used in the Meta-Analysis

Evans, W.N., & Owens, E.G. (2007). COPS and crime. Journal of Public Economics, 91(1-2), 181.

Levitt, S.D. (2002). Using electoral cycles in police hiring to estimate the effects of police on crime: Reply. *The American Economic Review, 92*(4), 1244-1250. Lin, M. (2009). More police, less crime: Evidence from US state data. *International Review of Law and Economics, 29*(2), 73-80.

McCrary, J. (2002). Using electoral cycles in police hiring to estimate the effect of police on crime: Comment. *The American Economic Review, 92*(4), 1236-1243.

Shi, L. (2009). The limit of oversight in policing: Evidence from the 2001 Cincinnati riot. Journal of Public Economics, 93(1), 99-113.

Worrall, J.L., & Kovandzic, T.V. (2010). Police levels and crime rates: An instrumental variables approach. Social Science Research, 39(3), 506-516.

For further information, contact: (360) 664-9800, institute@wsipp.wa.gov

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