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Criminology & Criminal Justice

Dissertation

Alley-gates: Do they work?

An evaluation of the Blackpool Alley-gating scheme

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ABSRACT

The introduction of the alley-gates became prominent across the UK and many see it as a cure for reducing crime and anti-social behaviour. This study is an examination of Blackpool's alley-gating scheme. It takes into consideration its impact upon crime statistics and the overall perception of the local community.

THE AIM

The aim of this research is to examine the impact of Blackpool's alley-gating scheme, both on the crime rate and how the local community perceives the impact of the alley-gates.

KEYWORDS

Alley-gates, crime, anti-social behaviour, fly-tipping, littering

INTRODUCTION

Alleyways at the back of the terraced houses are very common in British industrial cities and were particularly popular in the Victorian era. They are also known as ginnels, entries, backways, snickets, passages, paths and walks depending on different parts of country. Originally the back alleys were designed to allow access to the rear of properties by coalmen and refuse collectors. Nowadays they still allow the residents to access the rear of their properties without having to access it through the house. Alleys can also be used as a shortcut, especially if there is quite a long row of houses built together. There are many studies that show, that alleys provide an easy access to the

properties for potential offenders. National crime statistics for England and Wales suggest that for all burglary offences (including attempted burglary), 46 percent of properties were accessed via the rear and 45 percent were accessed from the front. The results from the 1998 British Crime Survey showed that 55 percent of burglaries with entry occurred through the rear in terraced and semidetached houses.

Although both of these suggest that offenders are more likely to access a property via the rear, an evaluation from Merseyside shows that in terraced houses this figure could be as high as 72 percent.

Alley-gating is a crime prevention measure which involves the installation of the lockable gates across these alleys, by denying access for those without keys. It is suggested that even though it is predominantly a crime reduction initiative, alley-gating can also increase community confidence, improve the aesthetic appearance of an area, improve the social capital and reduce levels of worry and fear about crime and anti-social behaviour.

BACKGROUND OF BLACKPOOL COMMUNITY GATING PROJECT

The crime analysis conducted in 2002 highlighted that at least 21% of domestic burglaries in Blackpool had taken place as a result of offenders gaining access to property via back streets and alleyways (BSafe website). This project was started and managed by the Blackpool Community Safety Partnership, now known as BSafe Blackpool. A more detailed history is included in the Appendix of this document. Also included is a copy of The Clean Neighbourhoods and Environment Act 2005, which contains guidance relating to the making of the gates.

HOUSING IN BLACKPOOL

When considering household tenure in Blackpool it is important to take into consideration that this town is characterised by the high transit population and due to this fact the figures below are more than likely constantly changing.

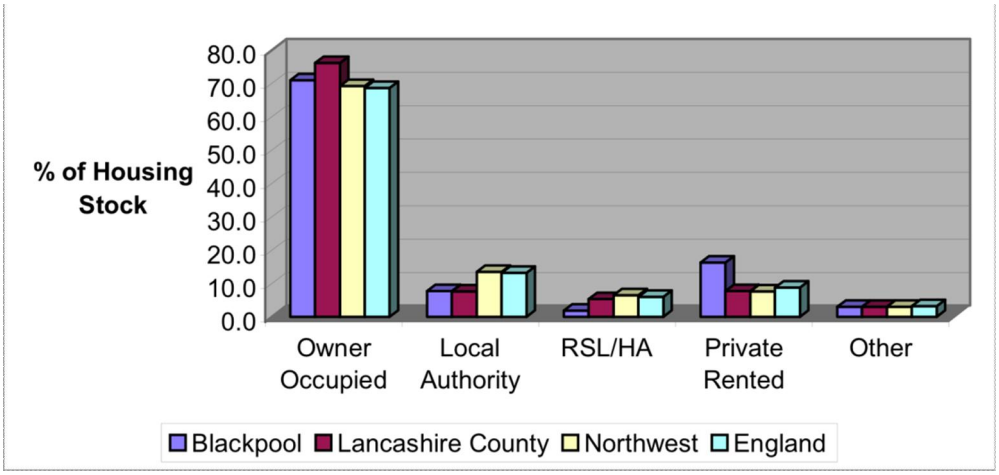
This information is also very important as some studies suggest that the type of tenure can influence the perception of crime and anti-social behaviour. Staunton (2008) suggests that house tenure could be the main determinant of fear for residents. Study in Wirral found that those who reside in the private rented sector express more concern for safety issues and crime than those who are owner-occupiers or rent from registered social landlords. Staunton argues that two main factors that can influence this are the length of residence in the community and financial resources to fund security measures. He suggests that these are the main causal factors for a higher margin of fear with private renters.

In 2001 at the time of the last Census 71% of Blackpool householders were owner-occupied, which is comparable to that in the Northwest region (69.3%) and nationally (68.9%). (2001 Census, ONS)

16.3% of Blackpool households resided in privately rented accommodation, which is approximately double the size of the private rented sector for the region (7.7%) and nation as a whole (8.75). (2001 Census, ONS)

The 2007 Private Sector House Condition Survey estimated slightly lower proportion of owner occupation in Blackpool (67%) than at the time of the 2001 Census (71%), and a higher level of private renting (225) compared to 16.3% at the time of the Census. (2007 Private Sector House Condition Survey, Blackpool council and CPC, 2008) Private renting in Blackpool is estimated to be (22%) in the Private Sector House Condition Survey 2007. This is double the figure shown for England (11%) in the English House Condition Survey 2005 whereas owner occupation in Blackpool (67%) is much lower than for England (71%). (2007 Private Sector House Condition Survey, Blackpool council and CPC,)

Chart 1



Source: Census of Population 2001, Table KS18, ONS (Crown Copyright) – Next update on release of 2011 Census

Table 1

	Blackpool	Lancashire County	Northwest Region	England & Wales
All households	63,940	468,868	2,812,789	21,660,475
Owner Occupied:	**71%**	**76.3%**	**69.3%**	**68.9%**
Owned Outright	32.3%	34.5%	29.8%	29.5%
Owns with mortgage/loan	38.0%	41.2%	38.9%	38.8%
Shared Ownership	0.7%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%
Rented:	**29%**	**23.7%**	**30.8%**	**31.1%**
Local Authority	7.8%	7.6%	13.6%	13.2%
Social Landlord	1.9%	5.4%	6.5%	6.0%
Private Landlord	16.3%	7.7%	7.7%	8.7%
Other	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.2%
Source: Census of Population 2001, Table KS18P, ONS (Crown Copyright) – Next update on release of 2011 Census				

Table 2

Tenure in Blackpool varies by ward. The wards included in this study (Source: Census of Population 2001):

Ward	Owner Occupier	Private Rented
Hayes side	73%	12%
Talbot	55%	39%
Tyldesley	76%	16%
Bloomfield	46%	42%
Layton	78%	13%
Stanley	84%	7%
Marton	88%	8%
Claremont	50%	32%
Brunswick	59%	21%
Victoria	75%	16%
Bispham	82%	14%
Warbreck	74%	22%

LITERATURE REVIEW

Crime and the fear of crime are widespread and persistent concerns in modern post-industrial society and criminal justice systems. Interventions that are aimed at reducing crime take many shapes and forms.

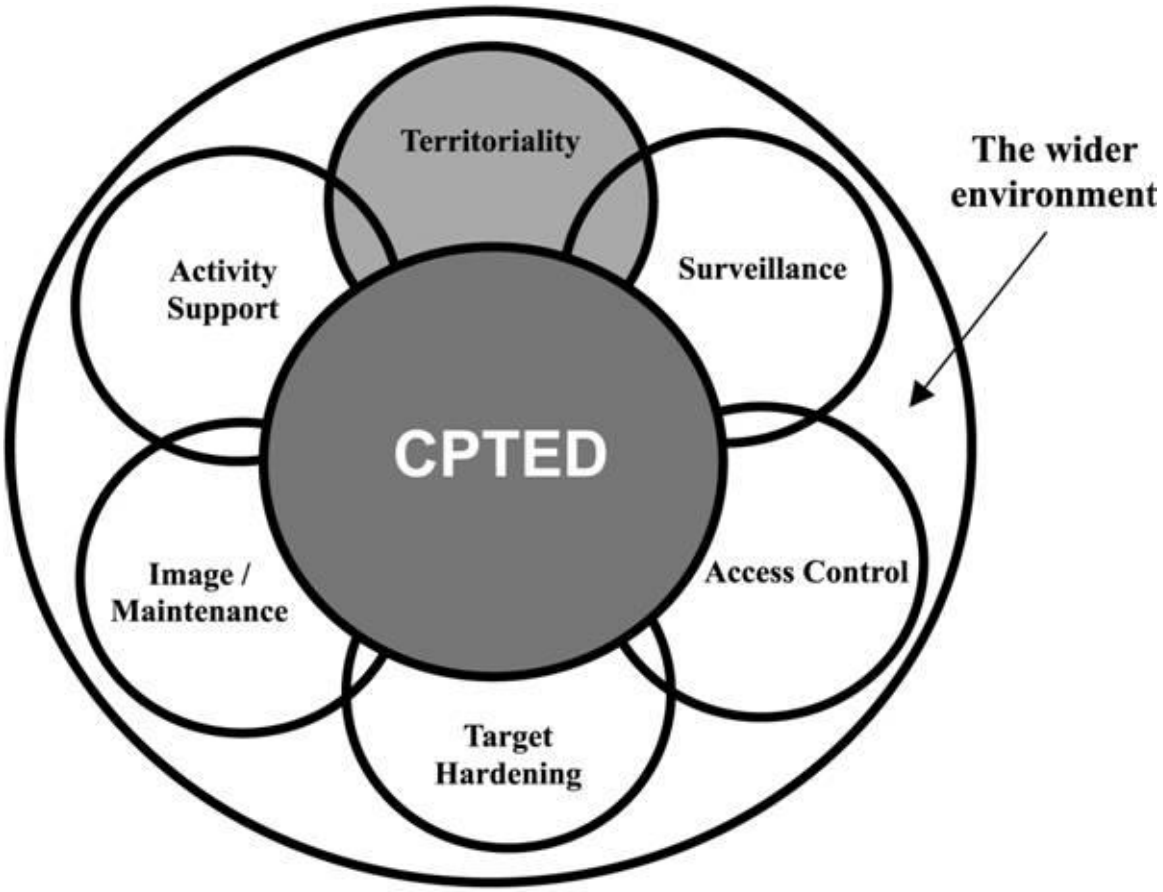
Brantigham and Brantigham (1991) argue that there are four extents to crime and these include the law, the offender, the target and the location. Crime reducing interventions include those that seek to change the behaviour of the offenders and those at risk of offending, the prevention of offending behaviour through harsh penalties or other consequences on conviction and, the reduction of opportunities for crime through crime prevention.

The focus of place-based crime prevention tactics is aimed at the crime site and the spatial characteristic of a target and the specific location of crime. It is argued that the spatial distribution of offences and offenders is not randomly distributed and due to this fact "hot spots" have been acknowledged since the mid-nineteenth century (Guerry, 1883; Fletcher, 1849; Mayhew, 1862). This recognition is mostly linked with the changes associated with the Industrial Revolution, which produced a new and previously unconsidered scale of urbanisation, which led to different approaches when considering crime and criminal deterrence.

Due to all the changes associated with the urbanisation a new place-based crime prevention strategy, crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) became known as an independent theory and is now increasingly popular and is being implemented worldwide (Cisneros, 1995). Crime prevention through environmental design has been attributed to the concept that it increases the sense of awareness of how people are using a given space for lawful and unlawful purposes.

The idea behind this theory is that it emphasizes the plan that the proper design and effective use of the built environment can lead to a reduction in the fear of crime and incidence of crime, as well as an improvement in the quality of life (Crowe, 2000). Crowe developed the Newman's idea and due to his experience on different CPTED projects from 1970s, he created a system to categorize CPTED solutions. He established this methodology to match the functions of the crime area and later Moffat (1983) proposed six discrete criteria, which he believes underpin CPTED initiatives, namely territoriality, surveillance, access control, image/maintenance, activity programme support and target hardening. (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. First-generation CPTED – the key concepts



Source: Adapted from Moffat (1983, p. 23)

It is suggested that the principal theoretical foundation for the introduction of alley gates are territoriality and access control. By clearly defining borders and implementing access control procedures and protocol, it is believed, that the management of such access routes will discourage and prevent offending (Rogers, 2007). However it must be remembered that both concepts overlap.

Rogers suggests that the concept of territoriality is used to reinforce the idea of proprietor concern, provide a sense of ownership and the management of space by legitimate users. This is then consequently reducing the opportunities for offending by potential offenders.

Brown and Altman (1983) have suggested that territoriality is more effective when employed at a local level. This finding has been supported by other studies (Taylor, 1988 and Ratcliffe, 2003). Despite the controversy, especially in terms of definition and interpretation, a link has been shown between the enhanced levels of territoriality and reduced levels of recorded crime and the fear of crime (Taylor, 1985).

When discussing access control, the centre of attention is on the reduction of criminal opportunities by controlling or denying access to potential targets. Access controls can create a greater sense of the risk of detection, apprehension and eventual prosecution in the minds of would-be offender.

Crowe's CPTED design involves the use of physical space in the context of the needs for both legitimate users of the space, the normal and expected use of the space and the predictable behaviour of both the legitimate users and offenders (Sorensen, 2003). Due to this fact the proper function must match a space that can support it, but also the design must assure that the intended behaviour has the opportunity to function well and support the control behaviour (Crowe, 1991).

Crowe (1991) suggested three main basic classifications to crime prevention through environmental design measures. The first are the mechanical measures that are also referred to as target hardening. These focus onto hardware and technology systems such as, gating, fencing, locks, windows, access control system, closed circuit television

and other physical barriers. Secondly there are organizational or human measures. These approaches emphasize an education of individuals and groups and show how they can protect themselves and the spaces in which they live and/or work. These methods include neighbourhood watch, security and police patrols, designated or capable guardians and other strategies using people as the source of security. Natural measures are initiatives where it is important to make the overall environment work more effectively for the intended users and at the same time to ensure a deterrence of crime. It is crucial to make good use of space planning and architecture. Example of these types of scheme is the use of security zones. The idea behind the access control strategies is to deny access to a crime target and create in the offender, a perception of risk and detection (Crowe, 1991).

When considering mechanical access controls such as gates, which have proven to be very effective in the reduction of auto theft, burglary and drive by shooting it is important to take into an account both the ways that the criminals enter the crime scenes but also exit. Using obstacles such as doors, fences, shrubbery, and other man-made and natural barriers can limit access to many defined spaces.

Oscar Newman (1978) suggested that apartments should have one or two common entrances, so that residents get to know each other and so that access is controlled. That way the intruders can be more easily identified. He also argues that the same idea

applies to residential neighbourhoods where the gates and street closing can similarly achieve a control effect (Sorensen, 1998).

Crime prevention is an intervention into the causes of crime, which is aimed at the reduction of its occurrence but can also have an impact on factors such as the fear of crime. These crime reduction interventions can take place at either personal level or situational level.

When considering the situational level, then it is important to take into account the situational crime prevention which is a pre-emptive technique and simply reduces the number of opportunities for crime, rather then attempting to change society or personalities.

These types of methods have been evolving over the past 15 years, in response to advances in our understanding of crime, crime reduction theory and the changes in crime itself (Home Office).

Studies conducted in the 1970s-1990s suggest that certain environments tend to encourage informal social gatherings, and contract crime, and in particular can increase the fear of crime (Randall, 21st).

According to the rational choice theory approach, criminal behaviour occurs when a criminal decides to risk breaking the law after the consideration of personal factors such as the need for money, cheap thrills, entertainment, revenge and situational factors, which could include potential police response, availability of target, lighting, surveillance, access to target, skills and tools needed to commit crime (Clarke R.V., 1997). This theory is supported by the problem analysis triangle (see Figure 2.), which is used in the analysis of a crime problem by reference to the three parameters of victim, location, and offender.

Figure 2 – Crime Analysis Triangle

Before committing a crime, the majority of offenders will evaluate the risk of apprehension, the seriousness of the expected punishment, the potential value of gain from crime, and how serious is the need for immediate criminal gain (Clarke, 1997). The decision to commit a specific type of crime is for this reason a matter of personal

decision making based on an evaluation of numerous variables and the information that is available for the decision making process. It is argued that the criminals will not continue with the burglary if they perceive that the home is too great a security challenge, that the value or rewards of the goods to be taken are not worth the effort, and the target might be protected.

The same idea has been also backed up by Newman (1973) and is being highlighted by the simplistic approach, which is currently adopted by many crime prevention agencies.

Siegel (1999) also points out that the decision to commit crime is structured by factors that include: where the crime occurs, the characteristics of the target and the means and techniques that are available for the successful completion of offence. All these aspects are being taken into an account when considering different types of deterrence.

The Routine Activity Theory assumes that three distinct dimensions contribute to a crime or an anti-social behaviour. By altering the circumstances surrounding any of these factors, the chance of the crime or anti-social behaviour taking place is being reduced.

Situational crime prevention was developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s in Great Britain. Its invention has been influenced by the work of Jeffrey and Newman however

the CPTED and Defensible Space theory were more focused on the design of the buildings and places. The centre point of situational crime prevention (SCP) is on the reduction of crime opportunities in all the behavioural contexts. It hasn't got its roots just in environmental criminology but it has also made use of social and environmental psychological theory. Due to this fact a number of approaches have increased as a consequence. Most criminological theories try only to explain why some people become delinquent or criminal. O'Malley (1992) claims that situational prevention is one of the fastest-growing techniques of crime control in the world, and is a very different approach from that of focusing on the offenders, as was previously the norm. The theory of SCP focuses on crime as an act that can be explained in terms of interaction between the "criminal motivation" and the situation that provides the opportunity for crime to take place (Clarke, 1995).

Wortley (2001) argues that situations offer more than just "opportunities" for crime as they also provide temptation, inducement and provocations. It is up to an offender whether he or she decides to commit a crime as this decision is made by two main factors, which are motivation and situation. Walton and Young (1973) pointed out many years ago that nobody is forced to commit crime as everybody has got to make a decision to do so. They argue that people commit crime, as they believe this will bring them certain benefits. The decision to commit crime usually depends on a calculation of the chances of getting the reward and the risk of failure and possible consequences. Clarke (1995) suggests that those who choose to commit crime will decide to avoid it

when the circumstances are not favourable. Creating circumstances which are supposed to disadvantage the offender are the main objectives of SCP.

This definition suggests that situational prevention consists of opportunity-reducing techniques that are focussed on very specific forms of crime. It comprises of management, design, or manipulation of the immediate environment in a systematic and permanent way as possible to increase the effort and risk of crime and reduce the rewards as perceived by a wide range of offenders (Atlas, 1991). In the late 1980s a research caused a shift in the focus of the practical crime control policy from attention on the offender and his or her personality or background, to the general influences of the surrounding environment that contribute to practical situational crime prevention by developing crime prevention techniques that can generally be applied to almost any situation.

Clarke (1995) suggests that it is a very highly practical and effective means of reducing specific crime problems. He argues that it seeks to alter the situational determinants of crime so as to make crime less likely to happen.

In 1993 Clarke proposed 12 methods as situational measures, which were first developed to prevent a variety of "street and predatory crimes".
These were later modified to 16 and in 2006 Clarke and Cornish expanded the procedure further to 25.

Clarke also points out the importance of the opportunity for the crime to occur and many environmental criminologists argue that opportunity is an important cause of crime. There is a suggestion that even generally law-abiding individuals can be drawn into committing specific forms of crime if they regularly encounter easy opportunities for these crimes (Clarke, 1995). Clarke argues that also the setting for crime plays a major role and stresses that it is important to change the "near", situational causes of crime, rather then the "distant" dispositional causes. He suggests that it is essential to prevent the occurrence of crime, rather than its detection and punishment of the offenders as this can result in immediate reduction in crime. Clarke disregards the idea that crime can only be prevented if the "root" causes are also removed, as he believes that often it is enough to remove one small but key thing, which is opportunity. For example, we might all believe that lack of parental love is an important cause of delinquency, but as James Q. Wilson (1976) pointed out, nobody knows how to make parents more loving. That means if parental love cannot be manipulated through policy it has no importance for prevention. So as Wortley (2001) suggests that it is not necessary to study the causes of delinquency. As for example, if traffic engineers want to stop speeding on a stretch of road, they do not need to mount detailed studies of the causes of speeding, all they need do is introduce speed bumps to reduce the speed (Wortley, 2001). In many similar cases like this the perpetrators of crimes are not caught and their motivations are never revealed but as Clarke and Newman point out these straightforward opportunity-blocking measures eliminate future offences.

It is argued that situational crime prevention will succeed only when it is focused on a specific category of crime. It is also suggested that this is because the situational determinants of any specific category of crime differ from other ones. Also the motives and offenders will vary depending on different resources and skills.

These ideas can be illustrated in the study of residential burglary, which was undertaken by Poyner and Webb (1991) in one British city. Their research shows the difference between the burglaries committed in the city and in the suburb. Poyner and Webb suggest that city-centre burglaries, were committed by offenders on foot. Due to the fact that most of the housing was built in terraces they could only get in through the front door or the front window.

As shown in the above study, access control is a very important feature and many others (Newman, 1973; Coleman, 1985) have indicated an association between design features and the levels of crime. In particular, focus is on the features that enable unrestricted pedestrian movement through residential complexes.

Eck (1997) suggests that the restriction of access can have possible beneficial effects in large residential areas. His research suggests that areas with unregulated access have more crime than areas with street layouts with more restricted access (White, 1990).

Newman's study of the changes to a grid street layout in Ohio (Newman, 1996) found that total recorded crime in the city rose 1 per cent while in the target neighbourhood recorded crime declined by 26 per cent and violent crime declined by 50 per cent. It has also been noticed that the residents' fear of crime had been reduced. Newman also points out that housing value had increased.

In London, two attempts to reduce street-level prostitution used road closures, rerouting and an increased police presence. After road closures in Finsbury Park, soliciting and kerb-crawling virtually disappeared, with little recorded displacement, and reported crime fell by 50 per cent (Matthews, 1992). In Streatham a similar project reported a decline in traffic flows along major thoroughfares, a reduction in arrests of kerb-crawlers and residents reported a decline in prostitution at street level (Matthews, 1993).

A traditional American study (Lasley, 1996) in Los Angles reported on the installing of barriers on 14 streets with high levels of drug trafficking, shootings and homicides. This was a part of a larger initiative and the barriers were designed to make the drive to and purchase of drugs more difficult and to prevent drive-by shootings. Lasley (1996) compared reported crime for one year before installation, the two years during installation and for the four years afterwards, along with reported crime in four adjacent control areas. The net effect was a 65 per cent decline in homicides. Although Eck (1997) observes that no significance tests were conducted for this study, he

concludes that street closure evaluations have been conducted with greater rigour and appear to be promising.

Similarly Ekblom (2002) reports on an alley-gating project in Birmingham where 80 per cent of burglaries were committed using access from rear alleys. After erecting 62 alley-gates, steel palisade fencing, the distribution of 400 ultraviolet property-marking kits and stickers and a local newsletter, a significant 53 percent decline in burglaries was reported. However it is argued that it is impossible to isolate the impact of alley-gating due to the multiple interventions which took place at the same time.

It is suggested that target hardening increases the efforts that the offender must use to commit a crime. Target hardening is directed at denying or limiting access to a crime target through the use of physical barriers such as fences, gates, locks and electronic alarms.

Newman suggests that in combination with natural surveillance it can effectively reduce crime and anti-social behaviour. He points out that natural surveillance involves the design of buildings and their immediate surroundings so as to maximize the ability of residents to routinely inspect nearby interior neighbourhood (Rogers , 2007).

In summary, the review of the CPTED components of surveillance, access control, territorial reinforcement, activity support, image/management, and target hardening

intimates that they have all individually contributed to reducing crime and the fear of crime in a broad range of studies. Due to this fact it has been found that this could increase property values and investment in the area.

However as with all the crime prevention strategies, there are limitations to this approach.

There is an argument that "irrational" offenders (e.g. those intoxicated by alcohol or drugs) are potentially less likely to be deterred by some of the CPTED strategies.

Secondly, some negative socio-economic and demographic changes can also reduce the effectiveness of this type of strategies. It is suggested that social factors may nurture fear, reduce the inclination to intervene and result in the withdrawal of the individual into the home (Merry, 1981).

Third, displacement has been a major criticism of most of the CPTED and especially alley-gating initiatives. Hakim and Rengert (1981) suggest that there are five different types where the introduction of crime prevention measures in one area caused occurrence of the existing crime. This can differ depending on location, time, tactics, target and types of crime. On the other hand Saville (1998) suggests that displacement can be adopted as a positive tool rather then a negative consequence. He argues that this can be achieved by monitoring the wider environment and planning in advance, while pre-emphasizing possible negative consequences.

Saville (1996) also points to the idea of the ecological threshold or as he calls it, the "tipping point" of a neighbourhood. By applying the original social ecological

formulations of CPTED, neighbourhoods are treated as social ecosystems. Environmental decline and increasing rates of openings may result in the out-migration of residents, decline in social capital and economic resources and cause a decline in the neighbourhoods. Saville and Cleveland (2003) argue that under such conditions all crime prevention strategies are likely to be limited in their effectiveness.

Finally it is very important to apply community participation and involvement when applying any crime prevention initiative. It has been suggested that being overly reliant on target hardening can result in a "fortress mentality" where citizens and neighbourhoods withdraw behind walls, fences and gates (Saville and Hillier 1996). This then undermines the concept of CPTED which is designed to support social interaction and promote activity.

This idea has also been backed up by Rogers (2006) who argues that alley-gating schemes could contribute to more exclusive and visibly divided societies. Rogers point to the importance of a responsible implementation of such schemes throughout towns and cities in Britain and a proper involvement of planners, the police, local authorities, politicians and particularly whole wider community.

As previously discussed the last 20 years have seen some significant changes in the perception of how crime reduction should be achieved and also who should be responsible for this. Historically it was the police who had been seen as the primary reduction initiators but major changes in policy, legislation and criminological theory have proven that this approach is misguided and unfair. As Barclay and Tavares (1998)

point out it is only 45% of all the offences that are actually reported to the police and only 3% will result in punishment. Although the changes in legislation have introduced The Crime and Disorder Act (1998), which places a statutory responsibility upon local authorities, fire authorities, police authorities and Primary Care Trusts to deal with these issues.

It is also important to highlight that most offenders spend most of their time as non-offenders and that it is the opportunities that influence crime levels.

As most criminals select their targets based upon rational decision influenced by risk and reward it is also very vital to point out that crime can be reduced through the reduction of opportunities. In simple words, crime can be reduced through increasing the risk and effort, and reducing the potential rewards offered to the offender (Clarke and Newman, 2005).

According to the Routine Activity Theory; by altering and amending the physical environment and introducing controlled access, which in this case are the gates to the areas immediately behind terraced houses, then we should make a significant difference to the levels of domestic burglary, non-domestic burglary and other criminal behaviour. Rogers (2007) suggests that this is possibly a simplified version of events in what is a complex social interaction.

Armitage (2006) argues that as well as evidence that suggests the effectiveness of alley-gates it is also important to understand why and how the reduction in crime takes place. She points out that there are four main ways in which alley-gates reduce crime and disorder.

As mentioned earlier offenders like non-offenders spend much of their time engaging in non-criminal activities. It is believed that offenders select targets that they are familiar with and therefore properties along the pathways are more likely to become victims of crime. Closing alleys through the introduction of alley-gates removes those properties from offenders' awareness space, as they are less likely to become familiar with the properties that are protected by these gates (Armitage, 2006).

It is also argued that offenders select targets that provide the greatest reward for the lowest effort and risk. They often use alleyways as it enables them to avoid confrontation but at the same time they provide easy access or escape routes. Gated alleys ensure an offender enters or exits a property without anonymity and this imposes a greater risk (Armitage, 2006).

It is also argued that as well as easy access and escape routes for offenders, alleyways are also secluded and they provide opportunities for offenders without surveillance from neighbours and passers by. Previous research shows (Rogers, Armitage, Newman) that such places attract drug use and drug dealing, prostitution, arson, litter

and general anti-social behaviour. Residents are then forced to avoid this area and this can later on attract offenders and further criminal behaviour. By closing alleys these parts are then inaccessible to potential offenders (Armitage,2006).

Lastly Armitage points out that alleyways enable the possible offenders to walk next to a property, which could be a potential target. This enables them to survey the property and assess the risks. Also due to the high number of people that are passing by it is hard to distinguish between the potential offenders and non-offenders. With the installation of the alley-gate it is easier to clarify who should and who should not enter the area.

PREVIOUS ALLEY-GATING STUDIES

There has been significant positive media coverage both on local and national level regarding the implementation of alley-gating schemes. However it is important to look at as many studies and research cases as possible, to be able to see the whole picture and recognise all the advantages and disadvantages associated with this type of initiative.

Home Office study:

The first alleys gating schemes in the UK took place between 1998 and 2001 and were part of the Home Office Reducing Burglary Initiative. This provided funding for Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships, which developed and implemented different

strategies. As the project was subject to an intense three-year evaluation, only seven areas that seceded in installing the gates.

The findings from this research are very valuable but it is important to point out that nowadays the results could be different due to the changes in both policy and legislation since 1998.

In three separate evaluations by Hamilton-Smith and Kent (2005) the results of the National Scheme show and conclude that areas which implemented alley-gating saw a net reduction in domestic burglary of 15%. The initiatives included in the evaluations were Safer Cities (Ekblom et al, 1996), Crime Reduction Program (Homel et al, 2004) and Reducing Burglary Initiative, which was the largest.

The importance of tackling crime has also been reinforced by studies that have quantified the financial costs of the offence, including costs to the victim as well as costs to official agencies. The total cost in 1990-2000 for England and Wales was £2.7 billion (Hamilton-Smith, Kent). Hamilton-Smith and Kent suggest that alley-gating schemes were found to be cost-beneficial with £1.17 saved for £1 spent.

Merton, London

Reed and Nutley (1998) report the findings of an evaluation of an alley-gating scheme in one particular ward in Merton, London. In this case a Crime analysis of the area had shown that burglary was 50% higher than in the next highest ward. Later on 170 gates

were installed and an independent evaluation following a year later revealed that rear entry burglaries had been reduced by 50%. Reed and Nutley (1998) point out that in that one year period there were reports of burglaries via back alley.

Liverpool, Merseyside

Young et al (2003) report on the impact of Alley-gating in Liverpool between 1999 and 2001. Bowers et al (2004) discussed the same scheme but covered the period up to June 2003. Later on Johnson et al (2005) added to this evaluation by highlighting the effects of the scheme on residents' perceptions of safety and awareness of crime and disorder. In 2007 Armitage presented further findings that were obtained by an examination of the sustainability of Liverpool 's Alley-gating scheme during the period from 2002 to 2006.

It is suggested that the first three studies were by far the strongest evaluations of Alley-gating to date (Armitage, 2006). Armitage points out that evaluation should compare crime and disorder data pre and post-gating. Precise evaluations should also consider perceptions of safety as well as recorded crime data and ideally should include a cost-benefit analysis of the scheme.

In June 2008 Rogerson, Newton and Hirschfield presented the final crime analysis supplement of an evaluation of the sustainability of this Liverpool's Alley-gating scheme.

The evaluation from Young (2003) reports on 208 gates covering 3442 properties in Liverpool. Crime data for the pre-gated period April 1995 to April 1998 is compared with the implementation period (post1998) where gates were being introduced. The results show that Alley-gating appears to have been effective in reducing the recorded burglary rate by up to 50% compared to the years when the gates had not been installed. However Young (2003) points out that there has been some geographical displacement of burglary.

When Bowers (2004) conducted the evaluation on a larger scale he compared the crime data for the gated areas for period's pre, during and post implementation of the gates. He was also looking for displacement and selected buffer zone areas in the near neighbourhood. Young was also looking for changes in offending patterns.

Young's results show that burglary in the gated areas reduced by 37% but also the scheme had a positive impact on the surrounding areas. This evaluation concluded that the alley-gating intervention had prevented 875 burglaries.

Johnson, Bowers and Hirschfield had expanded these evaluations as the results from their study compliment those presented above as they included the impact of the alley-gating schemes on residents' perceptions of safety rather than just the police records. Their results show that the presence of alley-gates, not only reduce the number of burglaries but they also increase the perceptions of safety in the home, in the alley and

on the street or neighbourhood. Their study shows that the burglary levels within the gated areas were reduced by up to 37%, and that the changes were statistically significant.

By taking into an account a rudimentary cost benefit analysis it has been shown that the cost benefit ratio was around 1.86 which indicates that there was a substantial financial saving. This suggests that the interventions should be seen as long-term solutions in areas that have been affected by high burglary rate.

The most significant evidence that the reductions in crime were characteristic to the scheme comes from the analyses of the point of entry used in the burglaries committed in the gated areas. The results show that there was a significant reduction in the number of burglaries for which access was gained via the rear of the property. It has also been suggested that no other intervention had impacted on the results due to the nature of the alley-gating initiatives which rationale is to reduce burglary.

Later findings however raise the possibility that there may have been an increase in the number of burglaries for which access was gained via entry points at locations other than the rear of the property. Later analysis revealed that there was an increase in the proportion of burglaries for which access was gained at the front of the house, or elsewhere. Despite the occurrence of this type of displacement there has been a significant reduction in burglaries within the action area.

In relation to geographical displacement, in line with the findings of other research (Bowers and Johnson, 2003) there was evidence of a diffusion of benefit. This means that there was a noticeable reduction in crime in a nearby area, in this case this was within 200m of the scheme boundary.

During the study it was also noted there was limited evidence of displacement within buffer zones, which were slightly further away from the main scheme. Closer analysis revealed that there was increase and changes in the crime within 1.2 km radius but not any further. It can be suggested that this is relevant with Eck's (1993) concept of familiarity decay. He argues that when deterred from offending at one particular location, offenders will choose the next most similar target.

However in this study it is important to restate that there was more evidence of a diffusion of benefit than displacement, which suggests that overall, the scheme had a positive effect on properties in the surrounding area.

The findings from Armitage (2006) resident survey show that the Liverpool alley-gating scheme had a wider impact rather that just the reduction on crime, which is usually the only outcome measured when evaluating the impact of alley-gates. Armitage points out that her findings indicate that alley-gates have led to an increased satisfaction within the area, reduction in reported ASB and also increased feelings of safety. The most important finding was the one that ASB was reduced in the gated areas as this

type of behaviour usually takes place in the back alley. Armitage's findings also suggest that there was also an increase in the confidence in gated areas.

It is also important to ensure the maintenance of the gates and their proper use.

Armitage also argues that the long-term efficiency of alley-gating depends largely upon co-operation of local residents, and the scheme will not work if the residents leave the gates open or lend their keys to inappropriate non-users.

Another vital point is to ensure that the residents want the scheme and is not imposed upon them simply because their area meets the specific funding requirements (Armitage, 2006).

The findings of this study provide not just support for the sustainability of alley-gates but also recognise a number of limitations associated with this type of research.

Firstly it has been recognised that the positive reduction in crime, ASB and fear of crime have been maintained over the period 2002 and 2006 but it is also important to acknowledge that there could be an alternative explanation for this outcome. This could be influenced by different variables other than alley-gating. It is noted that during the evaluation period different police initiatives were taking place (Armitage, 2006).

Secondly Armitage points out that it has not been possible to use the same comparison group in 2006 as was used in 2002. This was due to the fact that the majority of suitable alleyways had been gated. As a result, a different comparison area had to be identified.

When Rogerson, Newton and Hirschfiled published their results in June 2008 it had to be pointed out an earlier evaluation of the alley-gating schemes were so dramatic, it was unlikely that the pattern could be sustained. The supplement shows that whilst the reductions of crime and ASB have not continued on such a large scale in alley-gated areas, burglary and criminal damage have remained stable and have not returned to pre-alley-gating levels.

As the more recent alley-gating schemes have not produced the same dramatic reductions in crime as the original group of schemes it is important to look for several different reasons, which could have caused this. It is suggested that for example, newer schemes may be situated in areas with different characteristics, less suitable for Alley-gating or they may have been implemented in a different way or they may have lacked the publicity surrounding earlier schemes.

The overall results of this study show that there is a reduction in burglary and criminal damage in the alley-gated areas compared to the comparison area but no net change in anti-social behaviour.

The reduction in crime seen in the original evaluation, which analysed the period 1998 – 2003 revealed such a large reduction that it is unlikely that this pattern of reduction could be sustained. Research suggests that many crime reduction measures and particularly situational crime reduction measures follow a finite life cycle (Berry and Carter, 1992) with the positive effects susceptible to fade unless managed closely (Hirschfield, 2007).

The findings from this research suggest that for each of the crime types analysed, the results have revealed a split between those that have experienced net reductions and those that have experienced net increases. That is why it is important to understand the differences in context and or the nature of alley-gating initiatives between successful and unsuccessful schemes and then be able to apply this in the future operation of alley-gating schemes.

Cadoxton, South Wales

One of the recent studies of alley-gates is research conducted by C. Rogers in 2007. The area for this study was a ward in Cadoxton, South Wales. More than 41% of the whole housing stock has terraced houses and the area has significantly deteriorated over the last decade.

The findings from Rogers study shows that the alley-gating had immediate impact on the official statistics for burglary but also had influenced residents' perceptions about

levels of crime, anti-social behaviour and the character of the immediate area in which they live. There were also other specific concerns that were resolved after the installation of the gates.

However Rogers' points to some knock on effects that have occurred since the alley-gates were erected. He suggests that there are now increasing environmental issues regarding the random dumping of litter and furniture by residents and there has also been an increase in dog excrement on the street and in the alleys. These results disprove all of those findings from previous studies and shed different light on the impacts associated with alley-gating.

Rogers' findings also indicate that those responsible for the initiative have neglected to get the community directly and repeatedly involved. This had caused flaws, such as the gates being left open and communities remaining vulnerable to all the problems that had previously existed.

HYPOTHESES

After a close examination of the above studies and their findings I've decided to state these hypotheses:

1. The introduction of alley-gates in the specified areas has led to a reduction in crime.
2. The introduction of alley-gates in the specified area has led to a reduction in anti-social behaviour.
3. The introduction of alley-gates in the specific area has led to a reduction in littering and fly-tipping.
4. There will be a positive correlation between attitudes to alley-gates and perception of safety in the area.

METHODOLOGY:

When considering a suitable subject for my research and dissertation project I went and asked Blackpool Bsafe team whether there was anything that I could do that would also benefit them.

I was then approached by the alley gating team with the suggestion to do an evaluation of the effectiveness of the Blackpool's alley-gating scheme.

The main results that were expected from this study were whether the alley-gating initiatives have reduced crime and anti-social behaviour in particular areas, whether there has been a significant reduction in fly-tipping and littering and whether there is a link between the alley-gates and the reduction in the fear of crime.

To be able to achieve this and get all the data required for the evaluation I have been examining and comparing the quantitative data in the form of crime reports obtained from the Lancashire Constabulary. I have also been comparing qualitative data obtained from residents' surveys prior to the installation of the alley gates. Finally to complement the approach that has been used I constructed questionnaires which were then used for a deeper and more precise analysis.

As the primary objective of alley-gates is to reduce crime it was important to compare the number of reported crimes in the designated areas prior and after the installation of the alley-gates. To do this 50 different alley-gating schemes from around Blackpool have been selected. These have then been, for various reasons, reduced down to 46 (see Appendix). In this case it was required that schemes had been implemented in the alleys for more than a year.

When the project was originally initiated each alleyway has been given a unique name and the geographical information system (GIS) has been used in conjunction with the database to map the areas and assist in identifying the alleyways.

To examine the effectiveness of the scheme and the first hypothesis it was necessary to compare the crime ratios in the selected areas. For the purpose of this research crime figures have been obtained and taken into consideration for a period of 12 months prior to installation. Due to the unforeseeable circumstances I was only able to compare data recorded for 23 schemes (see Appendix). These data was abstracted from the Police Crime Recording System and Modus Operandi was examined for the word "alley". The criminal activities that occurred in the month that the alley-gates have been erected have been disregarded, as this would provide us with an inaccurate picture. The first batch of data had been then compared with the crime figures that have been recorded during a period 12 months after the implementation of the schemes. It is important to

stress that each scheme had a different start date and that is why the data recorded in here covers the period for over 3 years.

The advantage of using the secondary data for this research has been selected as it has proven to be the most straightforward one when examining changes in crime. To keep an ethical prevention the crime data has been depersonalised and only the date, times, cross reference number and log or crime number have been included.

The disadvantage of using this type of data is that all of the data recorded in Blackpool is affected by seasonality, which is due to the nature of the town as a holiday resort and this can provide an inaccurate picture. To minimise this a whole 12-month period has been taken into an account.

Another factor influencing the police data is the fact that prior to the installation of the gates a letter is sent to each resident, informing them that a request for the alley-gate has been received. This can result in over-reporting by those who are in favour of this initiative. The main cause of this is the need of supportive evidence, which is required prior to the erection of each scheme.

Some of the quantitative data that were used for this study were acquired from the residents' surveys that were done prior to the installation of the alley gates. Each of the residents living in the area was sent a letter informing them that a request for alley-gate

has been made (see Appendix). The applicants were also being informed that as well as crime statistics it is also the written statements of evidence from residents that are being taken into an account. By doing though it was possible to observe the perception of crime and anti-social in the areas prior to the installation of the alley-gates.

To get an accurate picture which would reflect the true perception of crime and anti-social behaviour I have counted the number of occurrences of particular crime and anti-social behaviour as were being mentioned in the statements of evidence that were received from residents. The themes that were being taken into an account included burglary and attempted burglary, drug dealing and drug use, alcohol misuse, youth nuisance, criminal damage, arson and fly-tipping and littering. It is important to state that in the first category (burglary and attempted burglary) the words "beak in" were also accounted for. In the second category (drug dealing and drug use) the words "needles" and "syringes" were also considered. In the fourth category (youth nuisance) the words that were taken into consideration included "children, kids, boys, girls, juveniles and youngsters". The word "fire" was included in the sixth category arson. The last section covered the statements that included also the words "rubbish, mess, refuse, bin bags and dumping). Due to the nature of this type of analysis it is important to point out that that there are a number of other names given to these variables, which have not been examined. This effectively means that the numbers involved could be much greater.

Out of all the letters that were received prior to the installation of the gates I have randomly selected 52 statements and compared the occurrences of themes to the results that were obtained from the information send back with the questionnaires that I created. At the back of each questionnaire that was sent out after the erection of the gates I have added a section where the respondents could add any additional comments. Comments from 52 random replies have been taken into consideration and the occurrences of the themes have been counted. These results have been then compared.

This method has an advantage of presenting the opportunity to capture information on crime and disorder that are not reported to the police. However as crime is a low frequency event, large sample sizes are usually required to generate reliable results.

One of the disadvantages of using this technique is that there was very low number of occupants that have replied to the letters and included the evidence in their replies.

All the final data obtained from this method have been used to test the first, the second and partially the third hypothesis.

To test the last hypothesis and to observe the views of the residents living in areas protected by alley-gates a questionnaires have been conducted (see Appendix). A pilot study (see Appendix) has been carried out to test the strength and weaknesses of the

questions asked and also to determine whether this would be conducted as a face to face interview. The final questionnaire comprises of 17 questions and is in the form of inventory statement. The Likert scale has been used so the specific levels of agreement or disagreement can be expressed. The first 15 questions were positive as from Pilot study it was being observed that this would make the filling in of the questionnaires more straightforward.

The questions in this survey were focused on the residents' perception of the area in which they live, fear of crime and attitudes towards alley-gates.

The first 9 questions have been designed to observe the perception of the area that the residents live in. The next 6 questions are representing the attitudes of the residents towards the alley-gates. By using these two variables it was possible to look for the correlation and either prove or disprove the hypothesis.

The overall impact of the scheme has been measured by using the last two questions and by measuring the overall satisfactions prior and after the installation of the gates. Both of the statements where the residents didn't fill the question 16 have been disregarded.

After the construction of the questionnaires these have been hand delivered to all the properties that are included in the schemes selected for this research. The total number

of questionnaires sent out, was approximately 1,500. To enable a proper analysis and certain distribution of demographic variables a quota sample technique has been selected. This means that only participants that have been living in the areas where the alley-gates have been for more than a year have been included.

To maximise the number of replies the information regarding the addresses has been optional. This helped to keep the ethics within this research as it gave an option of the anonymity. In the accompanying letter (see Appendix) it has been stated that an evaluation is being conducted and by returning the questionnaires it can be assumed that the residents gave consent to use the information that they provided. To avoid any extraneous variables standardised instructions were included.

With the letter and the questionnaire a pre-paid envelope was included. This was supposed to enable a faster response rate and save time by not having to collect all the questionnaires. However the response rate was higher than anticipated and an evaluation of all the questionnaires was very time consuming.

The final overall number of all the participants included in this research is 412.

All of these were then included when comparing and displaying the overall results. However due to such a large scale only 52 random participants have been selected to observe a correlation between attitudes to alley-gates and perception of safety in the

area. It is believed that one variable in this case, the erection of the gates, will change in the same direction as the other variable, the perception of the area.

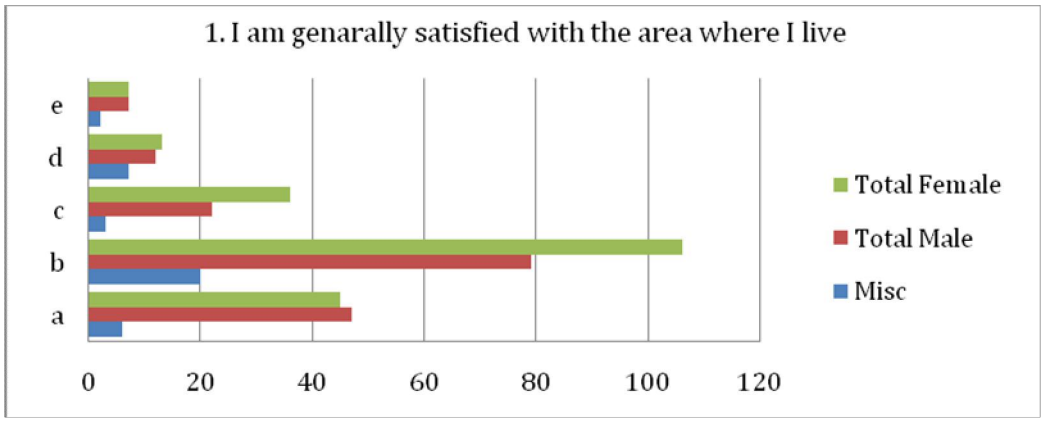
FINDINGS

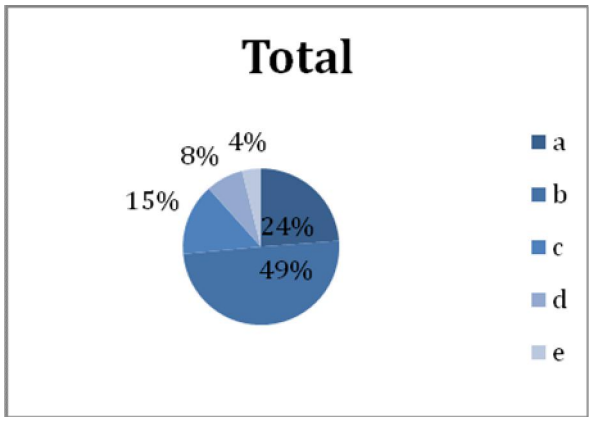
RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONAIRES

The data accumulated during this study were subject to four stages of analysis. The first stage involved displaying of all the data obtained from each question and their categorisation into groups and also the presentation of the findings in percentages.

KEY FOR EACH QUESTION:
a = strongly agree
b = agree
c = neither agree or disagree
d = disagree
e = strongly disagree

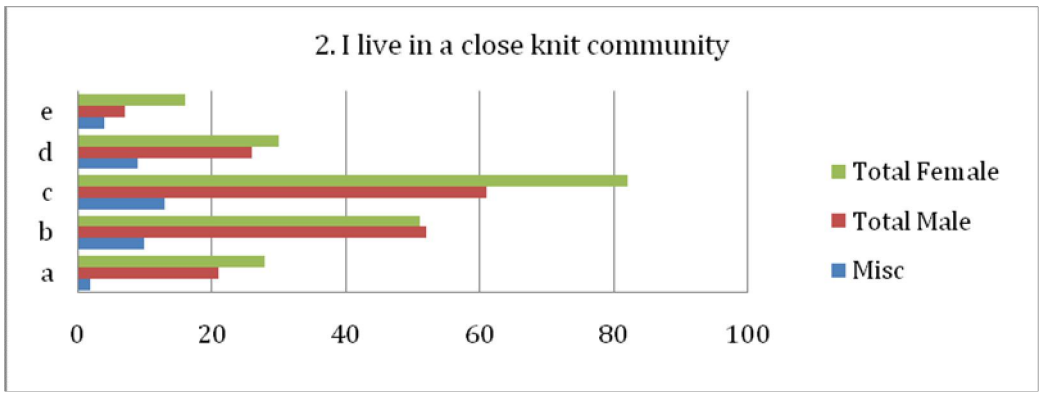
Q1:

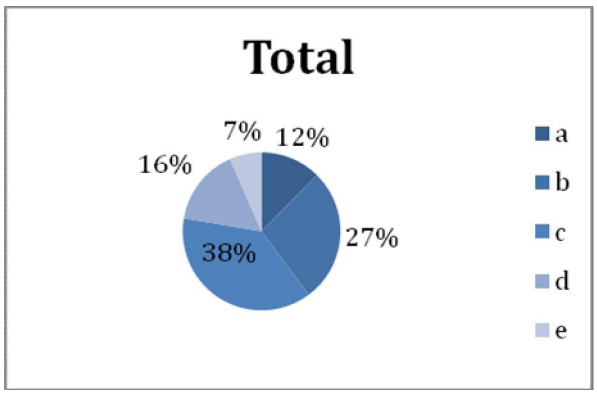




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	6	47	45	98
b	20	79	106	205
c	3	22	36	61
d	7	12	13	32
e	2	7	7	16

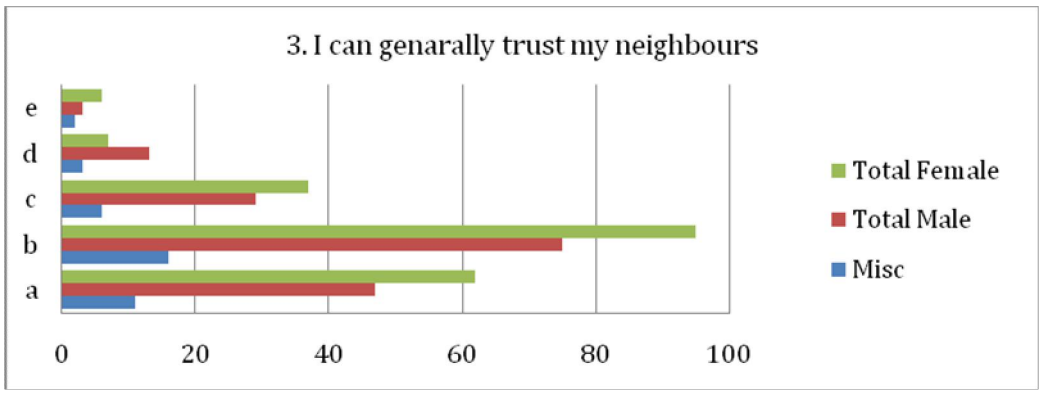
Q2:

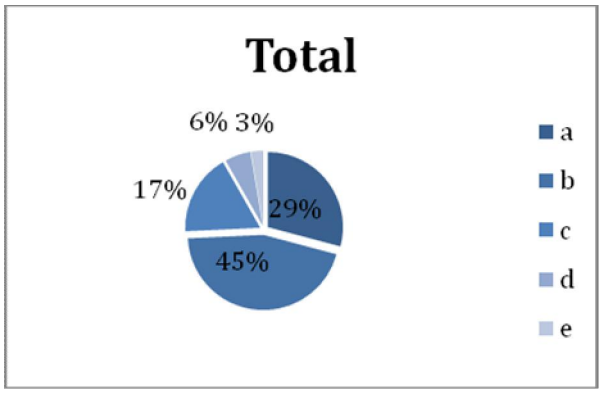




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	2	21	28	51
b	10	52	51	113
c	13	61	82	156
d	9	26	30	65
e	4	7	16	27

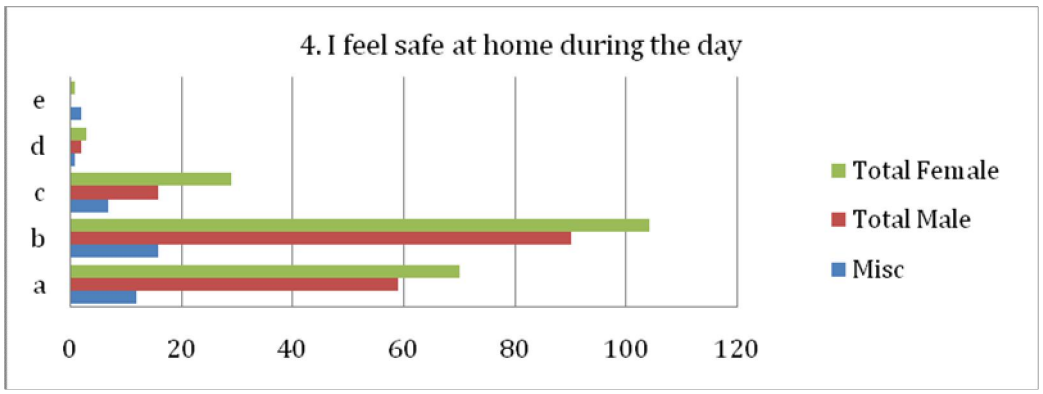
Q3:

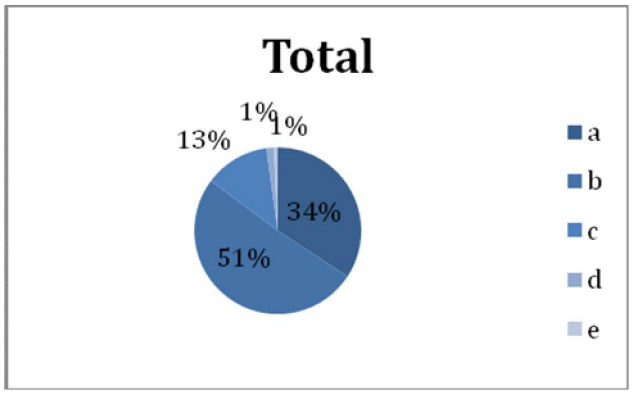




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	11	47	62	120
b	16	75	95	186
c	6	29	37	72
d	3	13	7	23
e	2	3	6	11

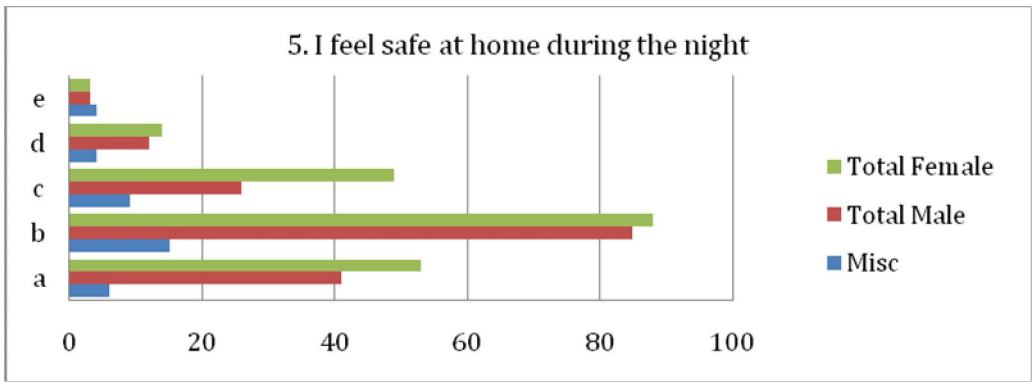
Q4:

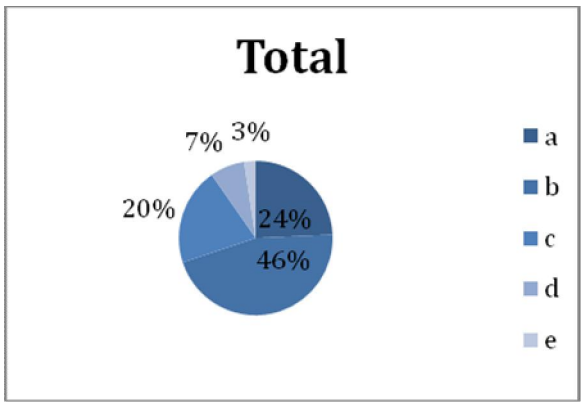




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	12	59	70	141
b	16	90	104	210
c	7	16	29	52
d	1	2	3	6
e	2	0	1	3

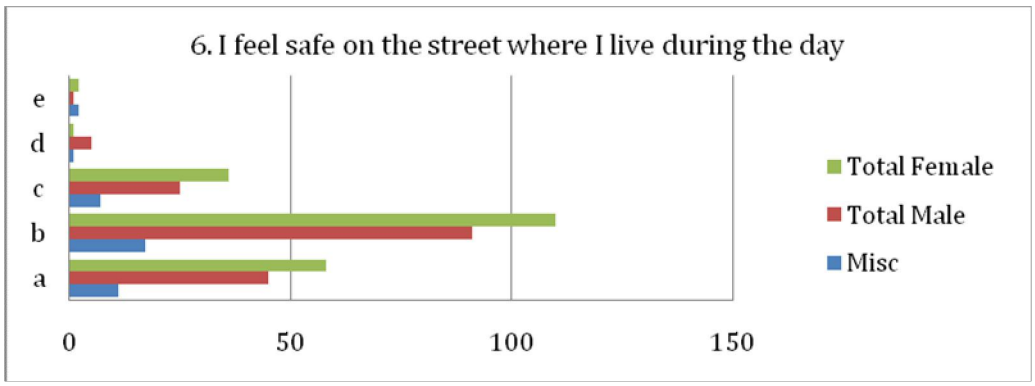
Q5:

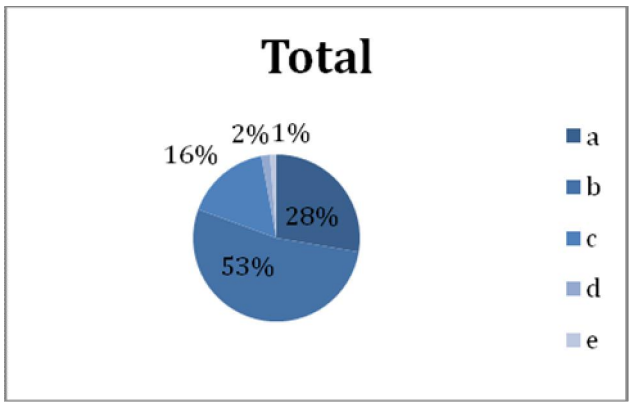




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	6	41	53	100
b	15	85	88	188
c	9	26	49	84
d	4	12	14	30
e	4	3	3	10

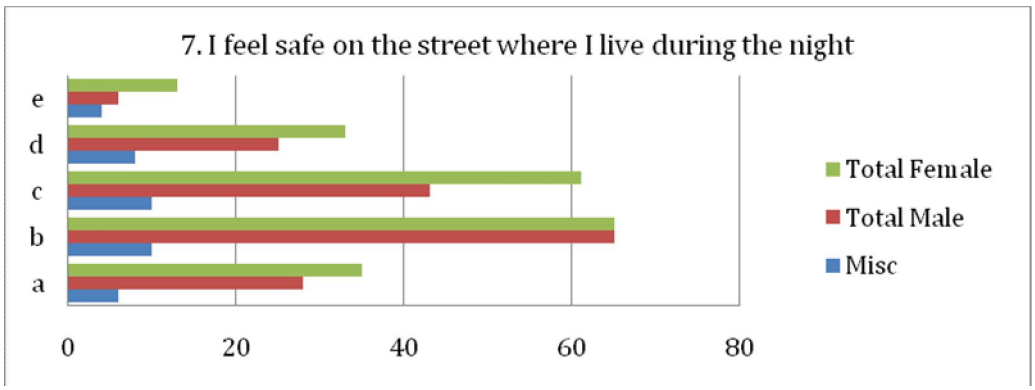
Q6:

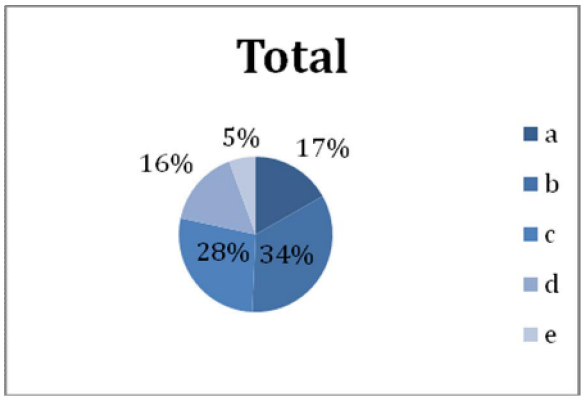




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	11	45	58	114
b	17	91	110	218
c	7	25	36	68
d	1	5	1	7
e	2	1	2	5

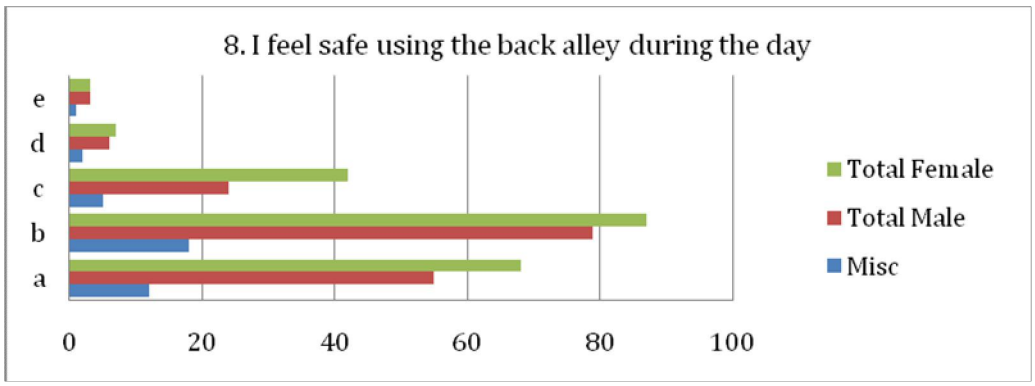
Q7:

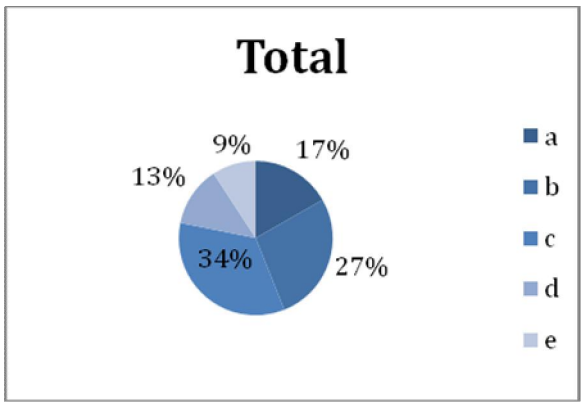




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	6	28	35	69
b	10	65	65	140
c	10	43	61	114
d	8	25	33	66
e	4	6	13	23

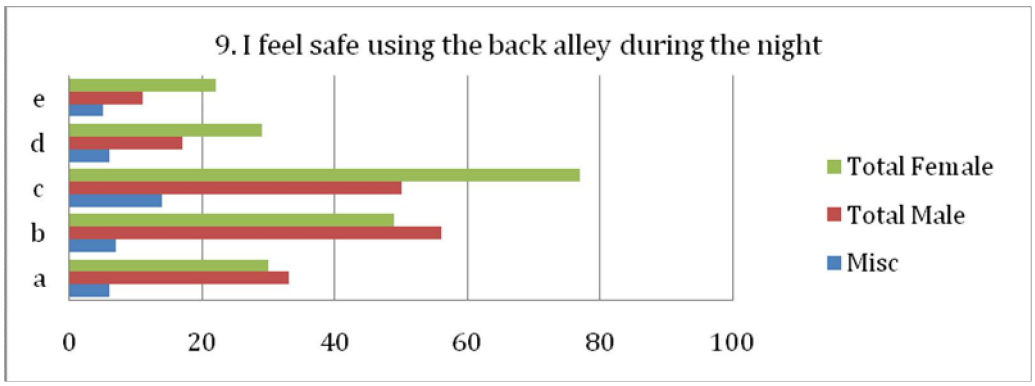
Q8:

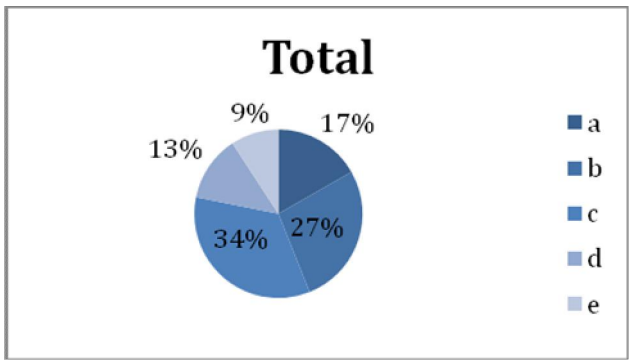




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	12	55	68	135
b	18	79	87	184
c	5	24	42	71
d	2	6	7	15
e	1	3	3	7

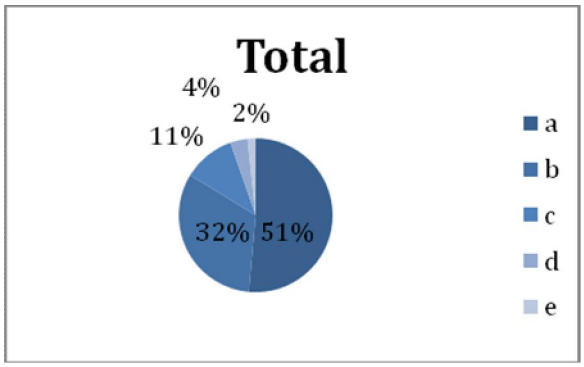
Q9:





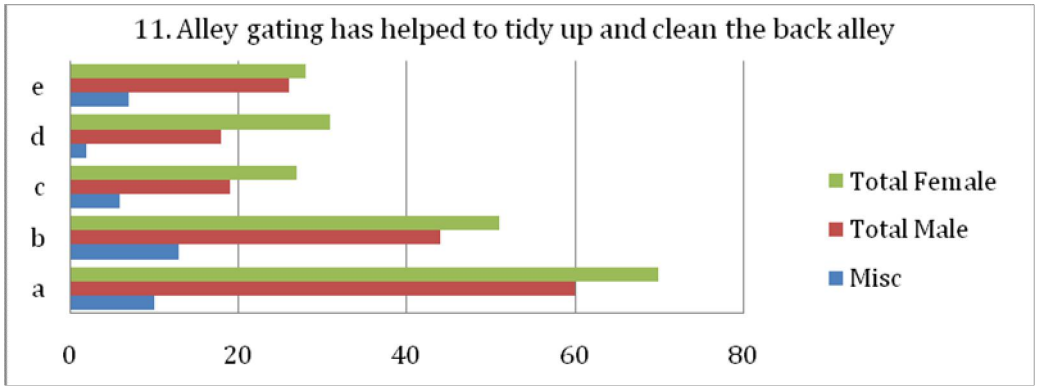
	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	6	33	30	69
b	7	56	49	112
c	14	50	77	141
d	6	17	29	52
e	5	11	22	38

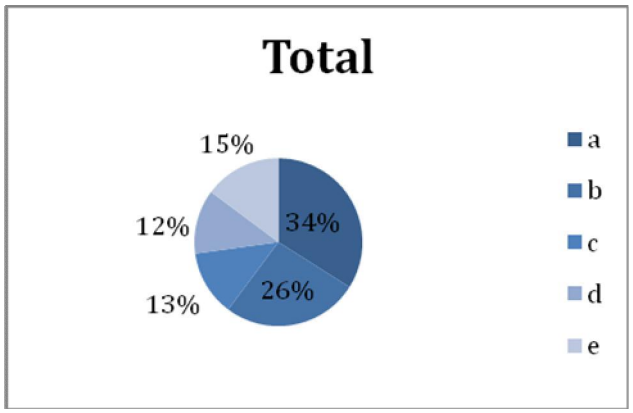
Q10:



	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	25	90	97	212
b	7	53	73	133
c	3	17	25	45
d	1	5	9	15
e	2	2	3	7

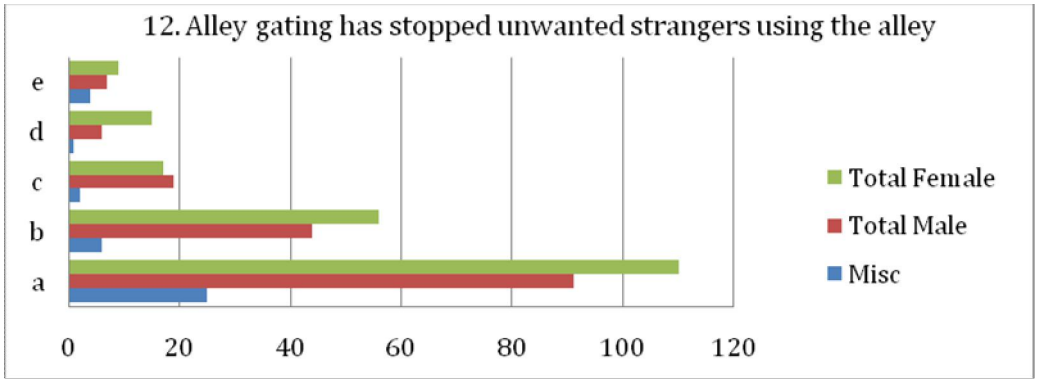
Q11:

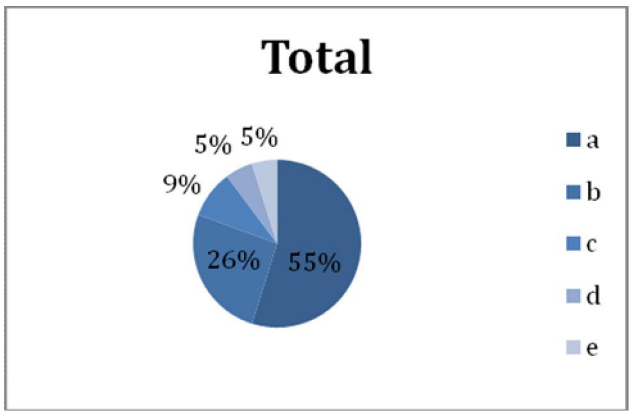




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	10	60	70	140
b	13	44	51	108
c	6	19	27	52
d	2	18	31	51
e	7	26	28	61

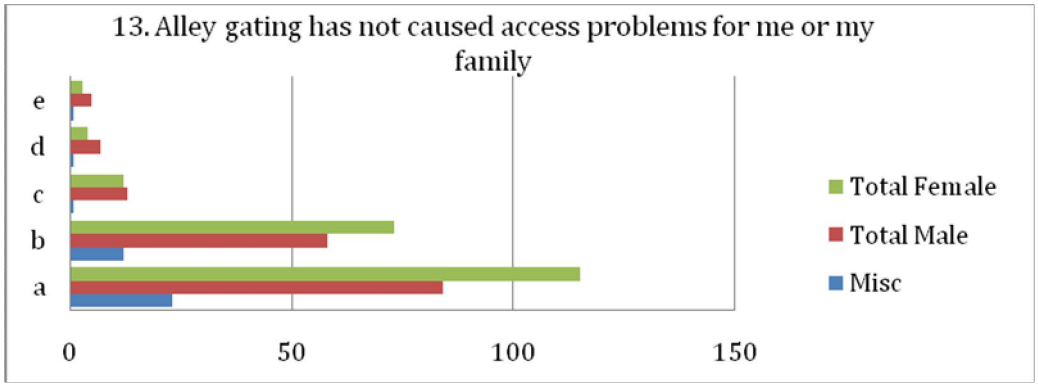
Q12:

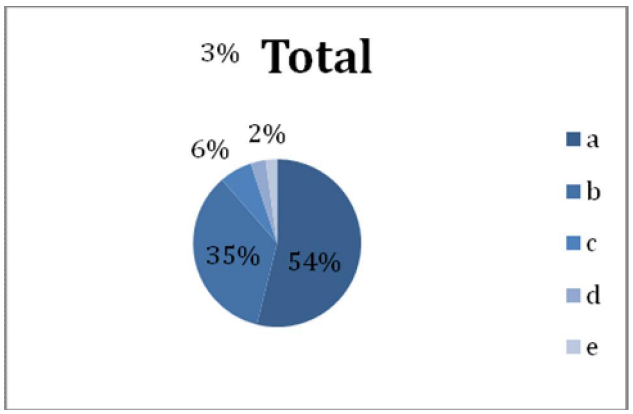




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	25	91	110	226
b	6	44	56	106
c	2	19	17	38
d	1	6	15	22
e	4	7	9	20

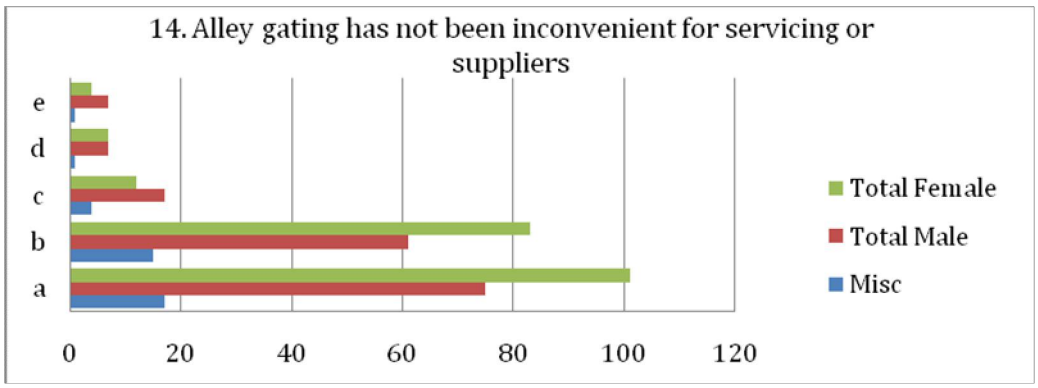
Q13:

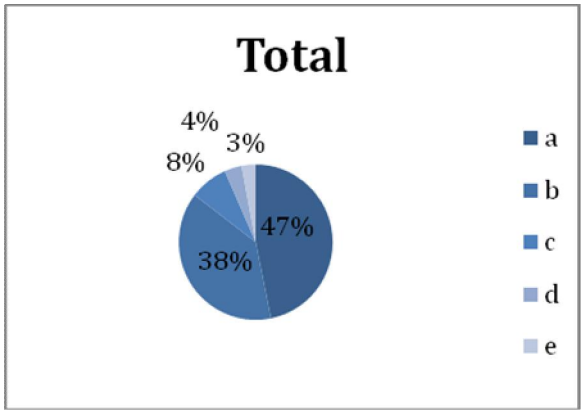




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	23	84	115	222
b	12	58	73	143
c	1	13	12	26
d	1	7	4	12
e	1	5	3	9

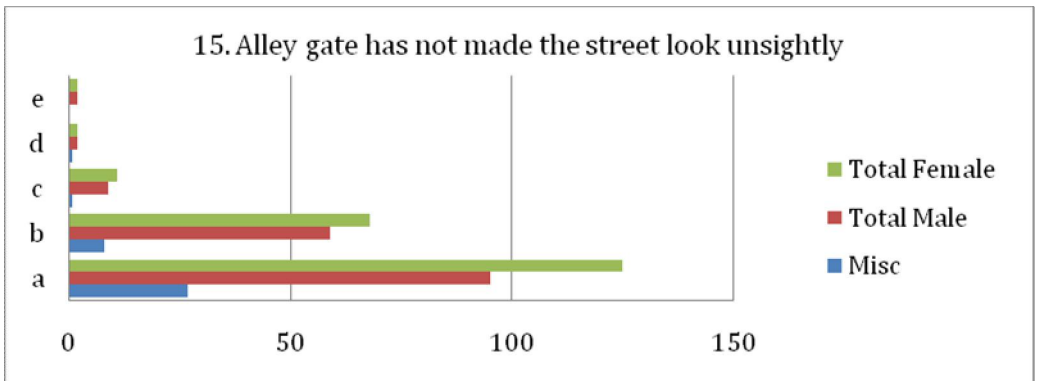
Q14:

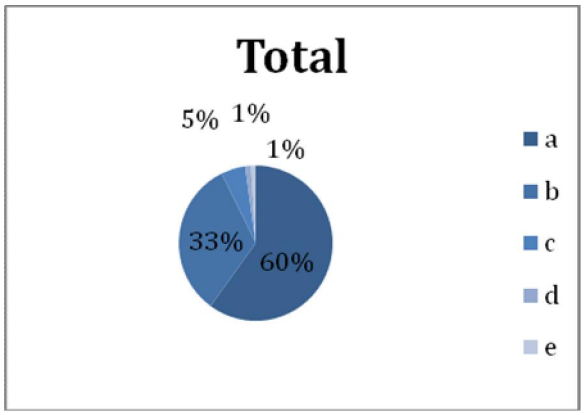




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	17	75	101	193
b	15	61	83	159
c	4	17	12	33
d	1	7	7	15
e	1	7	4	12

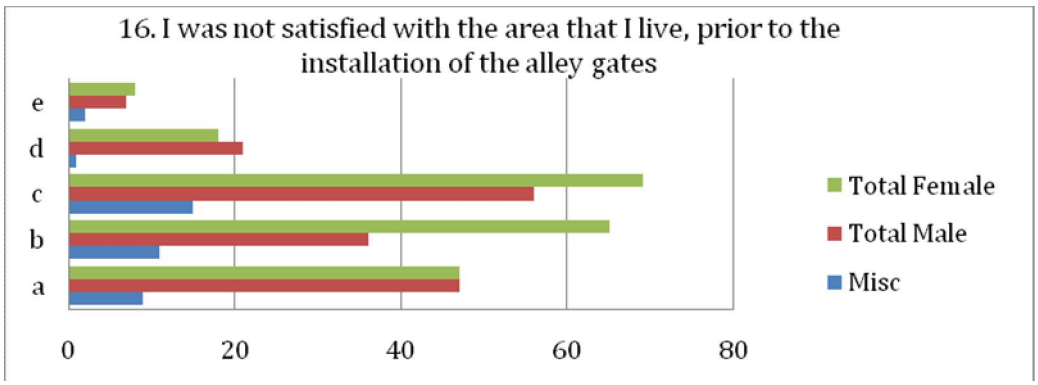
Q15:

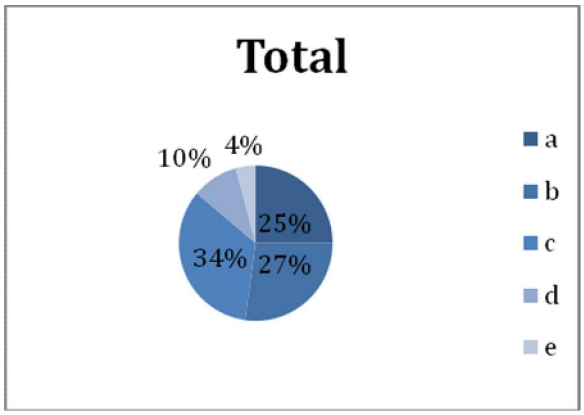




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	27	95	125	247
b	8	59	68	135
c	1	9	11	21
d	1	2	2	5
e	0	2	2	4

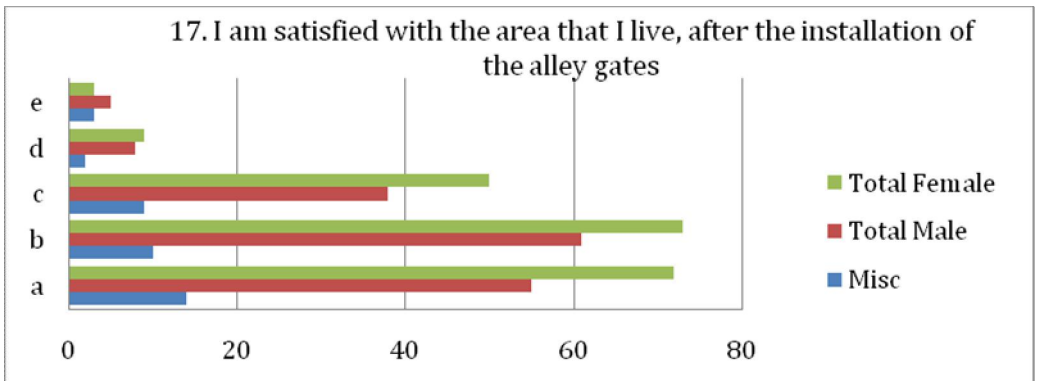
Q16:

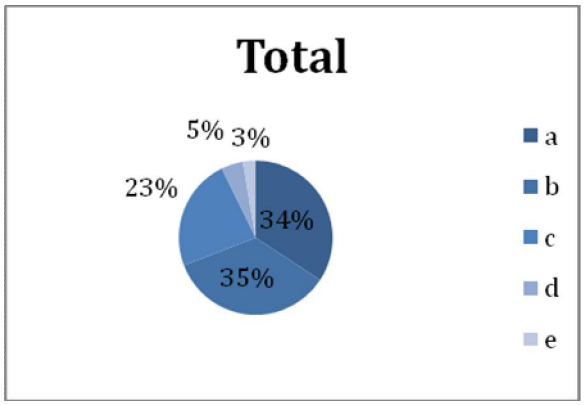




	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	9	47	47	103
b	11	36	65	112
c	15	56	69	140
d	1	21	18	40
e	2	7	8	17

Q17:





	Misc	Total Male	Total Female	Total
a	14	55	72	141
b	10	61	73	144
c	9	38	50	97
d	2	8	9	19
e	3	5	3	11

From the data that was acquired from the questionnaires it can be seen that generally people were satisfied with the area in which they live (73%) however only 39% stated that they live in close community.

On the other hand, the majority of residents stated that they could trust their neighbours (75%).

Only 2% claimed that they didn't feel safe at home during the day and 10% that they didn't feel safe at home at night. 3% of the respondents stated that didn't feel safe on the street where they live during the day and as high as 21% didn't feel safe during the night.

From the above results it can be observed that the majority of residents have a positive perception of the area that they live in and that the alley-gates do reduce the fear of crime. The only high number in this section was related to the perception of safety during the night on the street. It can be suggested that this could be down to the fact that the majority of respondents were over 60 years old.

When observing the residents perception of the alley-gates, an unexpected result has been acquired after the comparison between the safety of using the alley during the day and its use during the night. Both results were exactly the same with 51% of the participants stating that they feel safe to use the back alley. When closely examining the qualitative data that was included, it became apparent that quite a high number of the residents (21%) do not use back alley at all. As later discussed this could be due to the amount of litter and general household waste that can be found in these alleys.

83% of all the participants believe that alley-gating has made the area safer, however only 71% claim that they are satisfied with the area since the alleys have been gated. It can be anticipated that since the installation new problems have occurred.

When examining the question regarding the satisfaction of the area prior to the installation 34% of the residents could neither agree nor disagree and as high as 14% claim that they were satisfied before.

When displaying the results regarding the cleanliness of the alleys 60% of the respondents claim that alley-gating has helped with this issue.

Due to this fact we can accept the hypothesis, which states that the introduction of the alley-gates has led to a reduction in littering and fly-tipping.

Even though it can be suggested that this result is positive most of the comments and concerns included in additional comments, were concerned especially with this matter. It can be suggested that the main cause of this are the residents themselves that live in these areas.

When examining the general questions regarding the initiative 81% believed that the gates have stopped unwanted strangers using the alley, 89% didn't think that the gating caused access problems and 85% didn't agree with the statement that gates have been inconvenient for servicing and suppliers and only 2% thought that the alley-gate has made the street to look unsightly.

REPORTED CRIMES BEFORE AND AFTER INSTALLATION OF THE ALLEY-GATES

The second stage of this study involved tabulation of all the crimes that had been recorded prior to and then after the alley-gates were erected (Table 3)

Table 3

Alley-gating Schemes	**Number of reported crimes**	
	Before Installation	**After Installation**
Henson Av	14	1
Henson Av 1	1	0
Stanmore	6	0
Willowbank Av	0	0
Preston Old Road	3	0
Clifton Cresent	3	0
Tyldesley Road	12	6
St. Vincent Av	2	0
Coronation St	1	0
Rishton St	3	0
Marsden	4	2
Swindon	7	0
Malham	11	0
Troughton Cres	0	0
Belmont Av	22	4
Camden Road	8	3
Sussex Road	2	0
Grefell Av 1	1	0
Grange Road	11	0
Ryburn Av	0	1
Ryburn Av 1	0	1
Belgrave	4	1
Pickmere Av	6	2

When analysing the second stage of this study it can be clearly seen that there were 122 crimes recorded in the 12 months prior to the installation of the gates and only 21 have been recorded 12 months after. After this we can confirm the hypothesis that 'alley-gating reduces crime'.

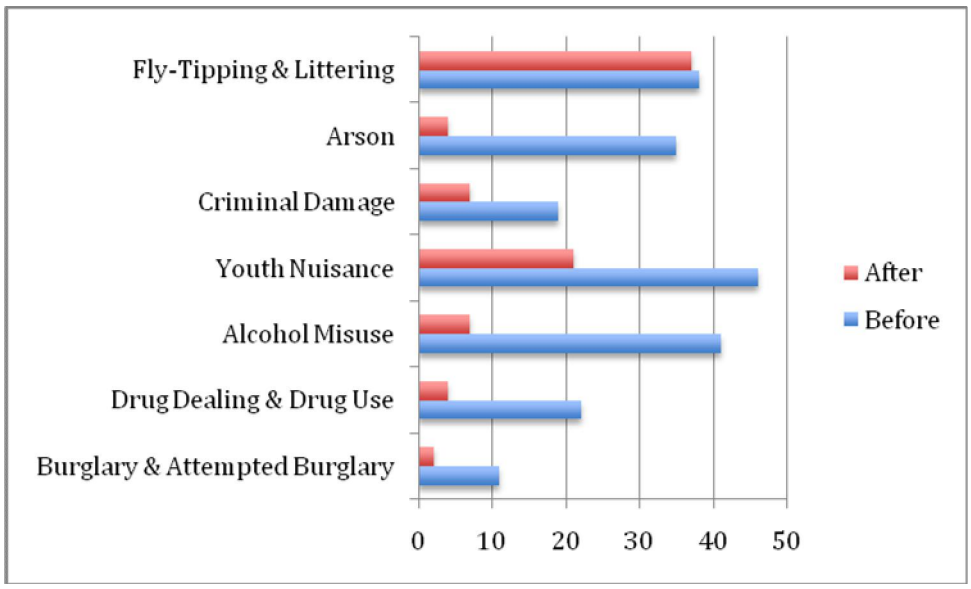
The third stage involved tabulation of the final results that were obstructed from the themes mentioned in the surveys (Table 4 and Chart 2)

QUANTITATIVE DATA OBTAINED FROM THE RESIDENTS SURVEYS

Table 4

Crime Themes	Occurrences Before	Occurrences After
Burglary & Attempted Burglary	11	2
Drug Dealing & Drug Use	22	4
Alcohol Misuse	41	7
Youth Nuisance	46	21
Criminal Damage	19	7
Arson	35	4
Fly-Tipping & Littering	38	37

Chart 2



After the comparison of the quantitative data obtained from the residents surveys it can be seen that the initiative did have a positive impact on the perception of crime and anti-social behaviour amongst the residents.

The only problem that still seems to be persevering in the alley-gates scheme is fly-tipping, littering and problems regarding the overall cleanliness of the gates. As previously mentioned in the research conducted in Wales this could be down to the residents that live in the properties adjoining to the alleys.

This can be also seen from many comments received from the participants. Many of them actually mention the addresses of the residents that they believe are responsible for this matter.

When taking into consideration this fact it is not possible to accept the hypothesis regarding the cleanliness of all the alleys.

From this bar chart it can also be seen that the number of youth nuisances is still pretty high. This again can be down to the youths that live within these schemes. Some residents, in their comments also mentioned this issue.

STATISITCAL RESULTS FROM THE QUESTIONAIRES

The fourth stage included Descriptive Statistics

Table 5

A table of Central tendency and dispersion (calculation included in Appendix)

	Perception	Alley-gate
Mean	35.69	26.37
Median	35.00	27.00
Mode	35.00	30.00
Percentile	39.00	30.00
Standard Deviation	4.50	3.85

It can be seen from the above table that means for each variable are different, however the standard deviation is similar meaning that the dispersion is equal.

Chart 3

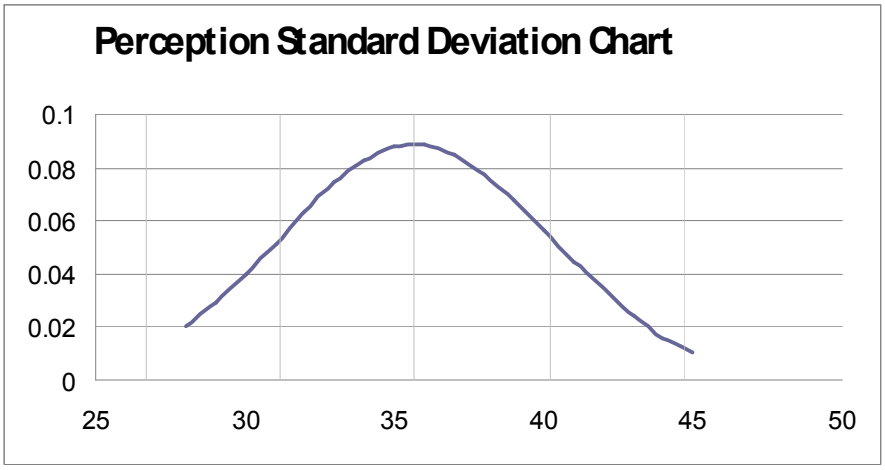


Chart 4

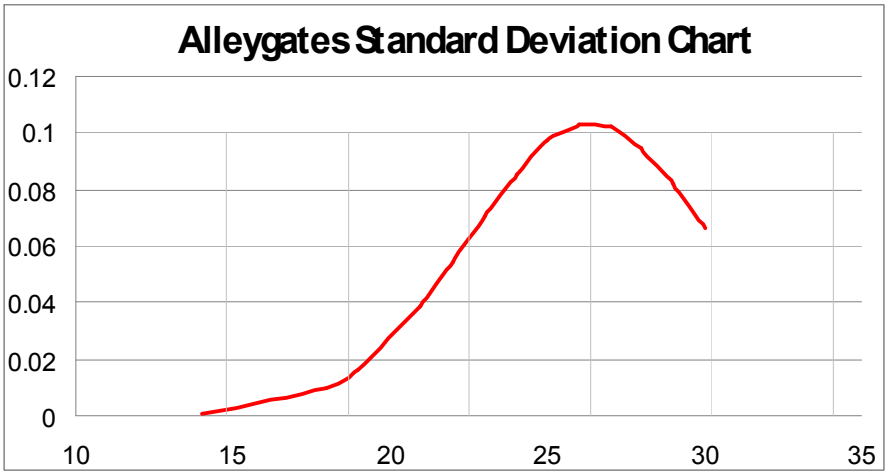
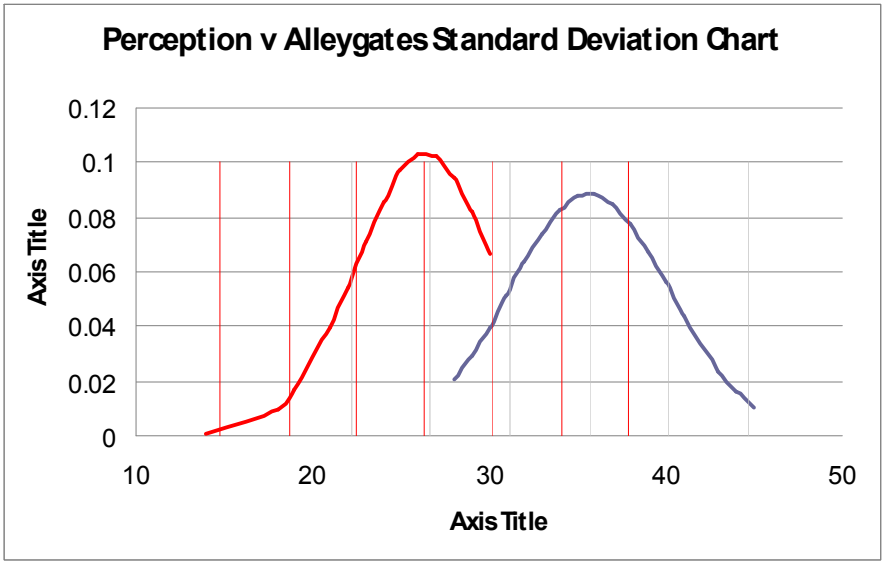
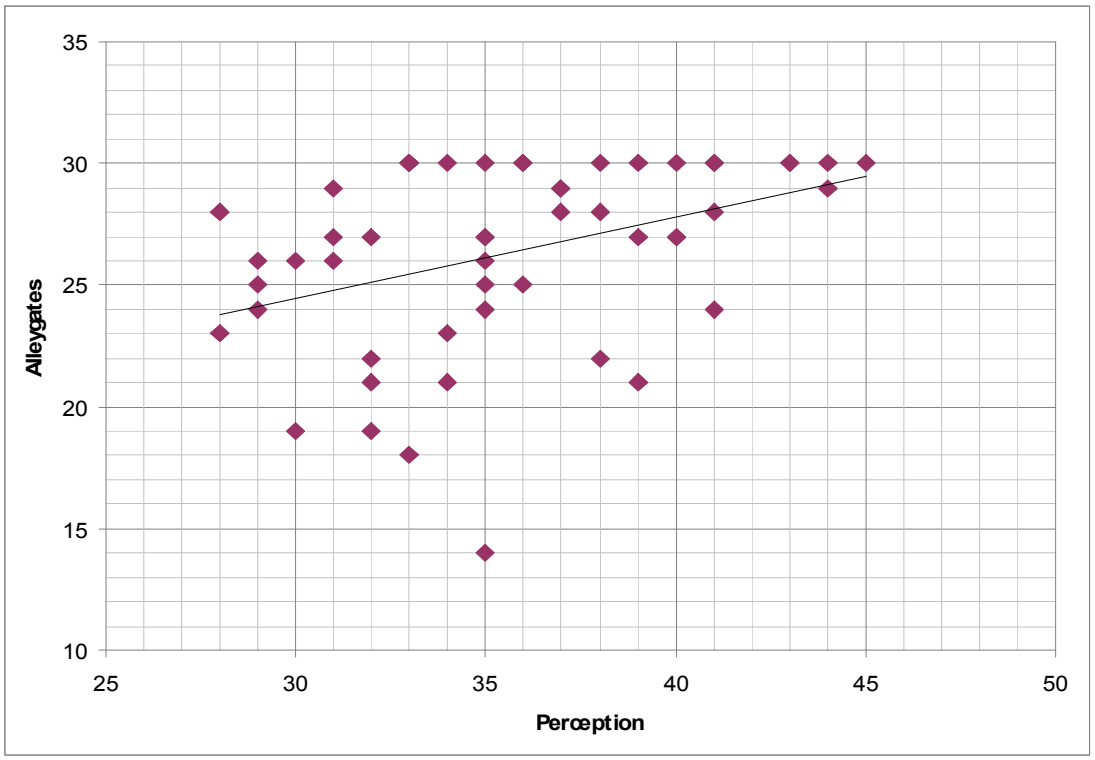


Chart 5



From the above charts it can be seen that even though the score displaying the standard deviation for alley-gates is higher the dispersion curve is similar

Chart 6
A scatter-gram showing the correlation between Perception of area and attitude to alley-gates



This graph shows there is a positive correlation between perception of area & attitudes to alley-gates

Inferential statistics

A Pearsons Product Moment Correlation was used as interval data was used, and the data was related.

The calculated value of r was 0.392.

The critical value of r at a significance level of 0.05 was 0.273.

After the final calculations of the inferential statistics it can be seen that as the calculated value was greater than the critical value, the alternative hypothesis was accepted, which states that there is a positive correlation between the perception of the area and attitudes to alley-gates.

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS:

It is believed that a combination of all these methods should provide a real and true representation of the effects that the alley-gates could impose.

However, it would be advisable to look closely into the question regarding the cleanliness of the alleyways, as the findings from this don't seem to be showing the real picture. Although this problem could be effecting only some of the areas and that is why a closer examination of the schemes and wards would be recommended. As a majority of the replies have an address included this could be done at a later time.

The advice would be either to do face to face interviews with the residents or questionnaires directed at particular areas. Also an observation of particular alleys would help to identify problem areas.

When trying to conduct further research it would be also suggested that even more time is allowed for its completion or more researchers to work on it.

It would also be advisable to examine each particular scheme to enable proper identifications of the problems that are specific to the different areas and also to have a closer look at the issue regarding the cleanliness. A question regarding type of tenure could be included as this could indicate whether it is the homeowners or the residents that are living in rented accommodation, who are the cause of fly-tipping and littering.

CONCLUSION:

In general, there appears to be widespread public, political and local authority support for the implementation of the alley-gates within Blackpool. This could be down to the funding which is available and also down to the requirement of achieving local targets. Conducted in spring/summer 2009 this research concluded that alley-gates in Blackpool do reduce crime and anti-social behaviour. It is also believed that the alley-gates improve the perception of the local area as a whole and therefore increases the areas desirability. However it can be noticed that some undesirable effects are starting to appear which mainly include environmental concerns. This is why it is important to ensure direct and repeated involvement of the community itself.

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APPENDIX