

# Hotspots of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada: identification, analysis, and intervention

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID:	bmjopen-2013-003642
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	25-Jul-2013
Complete List of Authors:	Walker, Blake Byron; Simon Fraser University, Geography Schuurman, Nadine; Simon Fraser University, Geography Hameed, S. Morad; Vancouver General Hospital, Trauma Services
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b> :	Epidemiology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Keywords:	EPIDEMIOLOGY, PUBLIC HEALTH, STATISTICS & RESEARCH METHODS



BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright

Hotspots of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada: identification, analysis, and intervention

Blake Byron Walker\*<sup>1</sup>, Nadine Schuurman<sup>1</sup>, S. Morad Hameed<sup>2,3</sup>

- 1: Dept. of Geography, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
- 2: Dept. of Surgery, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
- 3: Trauma Services, Vancouver General Hospital, Vancouver, Canada
- \* correspondence:

Dept. of Geography Simon Fraser University 8888 University Drive, Burnaby, British Columbia V5A 1S6 Canada

T: +001 778 782 49 87 F: +001 778 782 58 41 E: bwalker [at] sfu.ca

**Keywords:** Violent injury, hotspots, GIS, spatial-temporal, alcohol

Word count: 2767

## **ABSTRACT**

## Background

In 2002, the World Health Organization declared interpersonal violence to be a leading public health problem. Previous research demonstrates that urban spaces with a high incidence of violent trauma (hotspots) correlate with features of built the environment and social determinants. However, there are few studies that analyse injury data across the axes of both space and time to characterize injury-environment relationships. This paper describes a spatial-temporal analysis of violent injury in Vancouver, Canada, from 2001 to 2008.

#### Methods

Using geographic information systems, 575 violent trauma incidents were mapped and analysed using kernel density estimation to identify hotspot locations. Patterns between space, time, victim age and sex, and mechanism of injury were investigated with an exploratory approach.

## **Results**

Several patterns in space and time were identified and described, corresponding to distinct neighbourhood characteristics. Violent trauma hotspots were most prevalent in Vancouver's nightclub district on Friday and Saturday nights, with higher rates in the most socioeconomically deprived neighbourhoods. Victim sex, age, and mechanism of injury also formed strong patterns. Three neighbourhood profiles are presented using the dual axis of space/time to describe the hotspot environments.

## **Conclusions**

This work posits the value of exploratory spatial data analysis using geographic information systems in trauma epidemiology studies and further suggests that using both space and time concurrently to

understand urban environmental correlates of injury provides a more granular or higher resolution picture of risk. We discuss implications for injury prevention and control, focusing on education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

## What is already known on this subject:

Violent injury incidence clusters in urban space; geographic information systems are powerful tools for identifying patterns of injury in space-time; alcohol consumption is a driver of interpersonal violence.

## What this study adds:

Higher-resolution multidimensional patterns of violent trauma are identified; neighbourhood characteristics are used to describe context-specific urban violent spaces.

## **BACKGROUND**

In 2008 over two million people in the United States were injured as the result of interpersonal violence.[1] 19 200 died as a result; this mortality rate is more than thirteen times the number of American 'War on Terror' casualties that same year.[2 3] While medical and criminal perspectives tend to dominate the public discourse on violent injury, incidents have social, economic, political, and personal repercussions.[4] For example, the total cost of violence in the USA is estimated to be nearly 10% of the gross domestic product.[5 6] Such figures fail to include the extensive psychological and emotional impacts of victimisation.[7] This multifaceted burden of violent injury presents a significant challenge to public health policymakers and practitioners. To contribute to injury prevention and control efforts, we employ a spatial epidemiology approach that emphasises the role of urban geographies in this multivariate temporal analysis of violent injury.

Within cities, violent injury incidence has been shown to vary between neighbourhoods. For example, Brantingham and Brantingham point to dense, elevated violence rates along the edges of entertainment districts, contrasting low rates in larger, nearby residential areas.[8] In order to identify high-risk urban areas (hotspots), many researchers use geographic information systems (GIS).[9-11] GIS technologies and methods constitute a powerful toolset for analysing spatial data, and have been pivotal in identifying the links between violent injury and features of social and physical environments.[9 12 13]

Research has demonstrated that injury is strongly correlated in space-time, and is related to features of the social and physical urban environments.[12 14-16] These relationships can be further refined by including a temporal variable. Cusimano et al. identified peaks in violent injury incidence at night and

early morning, tending to cluster around alcohol-serving establishments, low-income housing, and

homeless shelters.[9 10 17-21] This work differs in that we expand our analysis to include victim characteristics, the weapon of injury, and a measure of social deprivation.

Social structure and deprivation are shown to be correlated with violent injury.[16] Socioeconomic indicators and indices (e.g.: income inequality; employment status) tend to be strong predictors of injury risk.[22 23] We examine this relationship using a deprivation index developed by Bell, et al.[24] In this work, we focus on severe trauma as the result of interpersonal violence in Vancouver, Canada. Specifically, we investigate how these incidents cluster in space-time, and examine how these patterns

are reflected in the nature of the victim, the injury, the physical environment, and the socioeconomic

deprivation level of the neighbourhood where the incident took place.

## **DATA AND METHODS**

Injury data were acquired from the British Columbia Trauma Registry comprising the location, date, time, and cause of every injury that was treated in a trauma centre in the Metro Vancouver area between 2001 and 2008, inclusive. Only injuries with an injury severity score (ISS; see Baker et al. 1974) greater than 15 were included.[25] As such, only severe injuries and injuries to multiple body parts were included; cases where the victim expires prior to arrival, sports injuries, and self-inflicted injuries were excluded.

The data were classified into seven injury mechanisms: gunshot wound; sharp object trauma; blunt object trauma; bodily force (e.g., punch); and other assault. 575 incidents were mapped, each represented as a point in space and time. In order to determine whether an incident took place during day or night, civil dawn and civil dusk were calculated for every day in the data period.

The following variables were used in this analysis: injury location (mapped); victim age; victim sex; date and time of incident; and mechanism of injury. Pearson's chi-squared test was used to determine the independence of variables against day/night, and the data were graphed in relation to time of day, day-night contrast, time of year, and day of the week. These relationships were mapped in order to identify multivariate clusters (e.g., night time gunshot injuries).

With geographic information systems kernel density estimation was used to produce hotspot maps to contrast male and female hotspots. This method was selected not for its statistical robustness, rather, to produce a useful visualisation of the spatial distribution of the original data. To identify spatial-temporal hotspots, the spatial scan statistic with a space-time permutation model was used.[26-28] In order to explore the relationship between violent injury hotspots and socioeconomic deprivation, we used the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index (VANDIX), constructed by Bell, et al.[24] VANDIX is a single quantitative metric constructed from numerous census variables in consultation with regional health specialists. The deprivation score for every census dissemination area was calculated, and classified into quintiles, and the violent injury locations were queried in GIS to identify the proportion within each deprivation quintile.

#### **FINDINGS**

The violent injury data comprise 518 male and 57 female victims. This disparity corresponds with findings in the literature.[14] However, trauma data are certainly skewed due to the underreporting of domestic violence.[29] When categorised by day/night, we found that 75% of male injuries occurred at night, compared to 56% of female injuries; the association between victim sex and day/night was significant (Chi squared p=0.002). Figure 1 displays the temporal distribution.

\*figure 1

\*figure 2

One in every three injuries in this dataset was caused by a firearm. However, weapon choice and time/location do not significantly correlate, matching findings in the literature.[30] Figure 2 divides each mechanism of injury into day/night incidence. The difference of day/night ratios suggests that the severity of a mechanism is related to its proportional daytime prevalence. That is, an offender may feel more secure using a firearm under the cover of darkness, whereas the distinction is less consequential if throwing a punch. Note that because these data only include severe trauma cases, blunt object and bodily force injuries are underrepresented.

\*figure 3

In figure 3, incidents are categorised by day of the week. Each night is defined as continuous until the following dawn; that is, Saturday night continues until sunrise on Sunday. This is done in order to account for alcohol consumption initiated in the evening and prolonged through the night. This weekend spike is to be expected, but note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

Figure 4, below, displays violent injury hotspots in the Metro Vancouver area. This pattern is similar to the distribution of low-income, high-density housing in the region. The most prominent hotspot (bright red) occurs in the Downtown Eastside, and some minor hotspots are found in commercial zones of the outer suburbs. The linear trend from Downtown to New Westminster features a series of minor hotspots which occur close to Skytrain stations (light rail transit) and a major shopping centre.

\*figure 4

Also evident are spatial differences in female (red) and male (blue) victim hotspots. While the sample size for females is comparatively small, when mapped, some geographic differences are notable. The club district, Commercial Drive, and the stadium feature only male victims, while victims in Chinatown are all female.

The circles represent cluster locations detected using the space-time permutation model of the spatial scan statistic, with the time window in which the cluster occurs. The nightclub district, the Downtown Eastside, and Commercial Drive contain nighttime hotspots that are particularly active on Friday and Saturday nights. These neighbourhoods have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments that feature live music and late closing times. The stadium and arena also appears as a hotspot. That this occurs during the night suggests that the majority of incidents occur after a match, further evidence towards the significance of alcohol in interpersonal violence.

When violent injury locations were compared to the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index [24] we found that 77% of all severe violent injuries occurred within neighbourhoods in these two most deprived quintiles. There are two notable exceptions: the club district and Metrotown. While the cluster in the club district is explained by the high nighttime incidence in proximity to alcohol-serving establishments, the case in Metrotown is more complex and better explained by features of the built urban environment.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The findings point towards several patterns of violent injury embedded in neighbourhood characteristics. To illustrate, we thematically examine three neighbourhoods identified in the maps above: Metrotown; the Downtown Eastside; and the nightclub district/stadium.

#### Metrotown: the built environment

This neighbourhood does not have low incomes, high unemployment, or a high deprivation index. However, this regional shopping centre and major transit node is surrounded by high-density housing; all three of these urban features have been linked to violent injury in the literature. [21 29 31 32] While the median victim age city-wide is 30, the Metrotown injury cluster has a median age of 25. This may be explained by the presence of the shopping centre and cinema complex, both popular youth recreation sites. The Metrotown case underscores is the role of the built environment, [8 18] a powerful driver of violent injury that socioeconomic and demographic indicators of a neighbourhood's residents fail to represent.

Conversely, features of the built environment perceived as signs of urban decay have been linked to violent behaviours. Examples include adult businesses, [29] abandoned buildings, [20] and homeless shelters. [21 31] While these features are not found in Metrotown, they exist in high concentration in the Downtown Eastside.

#### Downtown Eastside, socioeconomic deprivation

With an average income of \$6 282 (before government subsidy), Vancouver's Downtown Eastside has over twice the unemployment rate of Vancouver and less than half the educational attainment.[33] These figures do not account for the substantial homeless population.[34] The Downtown Eastside is adjacent to the central business district, marking a stark economic divide; Wilkinson and Pickett demonstrate the extent to which inequality is a strong driver of interpersonal violence and viceversa.[23 35] This strong association between socioeconomic deprivation and violent injury incidence coincides with similar findings in the literature.[20 21]

The median age of victims in the Downtown Eastside is 38, eight years older than that of victims citywide. There is also an extremely high number of female victims relative to the rest of the study area.

Research has shown that there is a high probability of experiencing violent trauma among female drug users. [36] The only female-only hotspot bordered the Downtown Eastside, in Chinatown. This finding is not explained in the literature, suggesting a need for further research.

## Club District and Stadium, alcohol consumption

The links between alcohol consumption and interpersonal violence are well-established in the literature. [9 10 18 20 30 37 38] A 1985 study found that 59% of trauma patients had alcohol in their blood. [39] Many of the incidents in our data occurred at public binge drinking sites; Brantingham and Brantingham found a similar cluster using police data. [8] Another cluster was found near the stadium/arena, also a space of high alcohol consumption. While the spatial association between alcohol availability and violent trauma was anticipated, the degree to which this was observed was beyond expectation; spaces of excess alcohol consumption appear to be the most prevalent predictor.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PREVENTION AND CONTROL

To examine these findings within an injury prevention and control context, we consider potential interventions actions within education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

Anderson and Taliaferro argue that physicians can be key educators in violence prevention and advocacy. [40] A 1995 study Hedges et al. (1995) found that nearly half of all repeat trauma patients were injured by the same mechanism as caused their first visit. [41] Physicians occupy a valuable position to discuss violence with patients and refer them to community and health resources. However,

upstream education-based interventions hold strong potential; in this case, information posters could be placed in nightclub washrooms, a technique used in anti-smoking campaigns.[42]

The most prominent temporal spike in violent injury found in our data points towards the 'closing-time' debate. There is strong evidence that 'last call' policy can reduce excessive consumption and resulting harms.[1 43] However, this may also contribute to increasingly rapid drinking as last call approaches, leading to higher peak levels of intoxication. One policy alternative is the 'staggered closing' strategy, where venues may purchase liquor licenses priced along a range of closing times. This is intended to prevent the closing time exodus and the resulting disorder from high concentrations of intoxicated patrons.

At the time of writing, the gun control debate has returned to the spotlight in the USA.[44] There were 192 gunshot trauma cases in this dataset, more than any other mechanism. However, the exclusion of minor injuries in our dataset inflates the proportion of severe trauma, limiting any inferability. A comparative study should be conducted in a similar city in the USA, such as Seattle, and the findings compared to explore weapons regulation as a factor.

While increased police presence in hotspots is often recommended. [31 32 45] Goldstein proposes problem-oriented policing as a method that emphasises the role of the police officer to identify underlying drivers of crime, build relationships with the citizenry, and acknowledge the limits of the criminal justice system to address problems. [46] This approach has been tested in the field with promising results, [29 31] including 'community policing' in Vancouver.

Planning and modification of the built environment provide another direction through which violent trauma can be prevented.[31] Stevenson describes urban violence with the enclosure/encounter models.[15] A crowded bar is an example of a built enclosure, while the crowded street at closing time

causes numerous encounters, both of which can contribute to interpersonal violence. Modifications could include improved nightclub design and wider sidewalks.

Effective injury surveillance programmes can facilitate goal-tracking; [40] social web technologies are a promising asset in this regard, particularly in deprived urban areas where mobile phone usage is rapidly growing. [47] High-quality trauma data were vital in this and other studies. Research and subsequent interventions would benefit from the implementation of a broad violence surveillance programme that combines data from police, medical, schools, community resources (such as women's shelters), legal records, and other sources.

In this study, we found several distinct patterns of violent injury with varying characteristics between neighbourhoods. As such, surveillance and intervention programmes should be custom-designed for individual neighbourhoods. [31 46] While education, regulation, the built environment, and surveillance programmes hold strong potential to reduce violent injury in urban space, successes based on policing and accessible medical services have been quantitatively demonstrated. [31 45] With the ultimate aim of injury control, a successful campaign will encompass a range of strategies to confront the issue upstream (e.g., liquor policy and education) and downstream (e.g., policing and ample ambulatory resources).

In this paper, we identified spatial-temporal patterns of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada, described the neighbourhood-specific contexts within which the examined hotspots are found, and discussed some potential intervention strategies. While this analysis was limited to severe trauma in one city, the findings and implications may prove useful for enriching research efforts in other urban places.

However, further research should examine ways to refine the GIS-based methods used herein, conduct more place-specific contextual investigation, and examine the efficacy of intervention strategies in other study areas.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors wish to acknowledge the contributions of the British Columbia Trauma Registry, particularly Tracey Taulu and Nasira Lakha. Also acknowledged is the generous support of GEOIDE funding (project SII-54) that made this research possible. Nadine Schuurman was funded by a Scholar Award from the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research.

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## **CONTRIBUTORSHIP STATEMENT**

Blake Byron Walker, lead author, conducted the analysis, interpreted the findings, and drafted the manuscript; he is acting as corresponding author and guarantor. Nadine Schuurman, second author, managed the data agreements, interpreted the findings, and edited the manuscript. S. Morad Hameed, third author, managed the data agreements and reviewed the manuscript.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. WISQARS nonfatal injury reports (Dataset), 2010.
- 2. United States Department of Defense. Active duty military deaths by year and manner. Washington, DC, 2011.
- 3. World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates, 2008. In: (Dataset), ed. Geneva, Switzerland, 2011.
- 4. Polinder S, Haagsma J, Lyons R, et al. Measuring the population burden of fatal and nonfatal injury. Epidemiol. Rev. 2012;**34**:17-31
- 5. World Health Organization. The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization, 2004.
- 6. Smartrisk. The economic burden of injury in Canada. Toronto: Smartrisk, 2009.
- 7. Papachristos A, Braga A, Hureau D. Social networks and the risk of gunshot injury. J. Urban Health 2012;**89**(6):992-1003 doi: 10.1007/s11524-012-9703-9[published Online First: Epub Date]|.
- 8. Brantingham P, Brantingham P. Criminality of place: crime generators and crime attractors. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research 1995;**3**(3):5-26
- 9. Gorman D, Speer P, Gruenewald P, Labouvie E. Spatial dynamics of alcohol availability, neighborhood structure and violent crime. J. Stud. Alcohol 2001;62(5):628-37
- 10. Livingston M. Alcohol outlet density and assault: a spatial analysis. Addiction 2008;103(4):619-28
- 11. Bell N, Schuurman N. GIS and injury prevention and control: history, challenges, and opportunities. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public. Health 2010;**7**(3):1002-17
- 12. Walker BB, Schuurman N. Environmental correlates with violent injury. Geomatica 2012;**66**(4):103-11
- 13. Nelson A, Bromley R, Thomas C. Identifying micro-spatial and temporal patterns of violent crime and disorder in the British city centre. Applied Geography 2001;**21**(3):249-74
- 14. Murray S. Global injury and violence. Can. Med. Assoc. J. 2006;174(5):620-21
- 15. Stevenson M. Building safer environments: injury, safety, and our surroundings. Inj. Prev. 2006;**12**:1-2
- 16. Sparks C. Violent crime in San Antonio, Texas: an application of spatial epidemiological methods. Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology 2011;**2**(4):301-09
- 17. Bellis M, Hughes K, Hughes S. Alcohol and interpersonal violence: policy briefing. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2005.
- 18. Branas C, Elliot M, Richmond T, Culhane D, Wiebe D. Alcohol consumption, alcohol outlets, and the risk of being assaulted with a gun. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research 2009;**33**(5):906-15
- 19. Cunradi C, Mair C, Ponicki W, Remer L. Alcohol outlets, neighbourhood characteristics, and intimate partner violence: ecological analysis of a California city. J. Urban Health 2011;88(2):191-200
- 20. Gruenewald P, Remer L. Changes in outlet densities affects violence rates. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research 2006;**30**(7):1184-93
- 21. Cusimano M, Marshall S, Rinner C, Jiang D, Chipman M. Patterns of urban violent injury: a spatio-temporal analysis. PLoS ONE 2010;5(1):1-9
- 22. Bell N, Schuurman N, Hameed SM. A multilevel analysis of the socio-spatial pattern of assault injuries in Greater Vancouver, British Columbia. Can. J. Public Health. 2009;**100**(1):73-77
- 23. Wilkinson R, Pickett K. *The Spirit Level: Why Equality is Better for Everyone*. Toronto, Canada: Penguin, 2009.

- 24. Bell N, Schuurman N, Oliver L, Hayes M. Towards the construction of place-specific measures of deprivation: a case study from the Vancouver metropolitan area. The Canadian Geographer 2007;**51**(4):444-61
- 25. Baker S, O'Neill B, Haddon W, Long W. The injury severity score: a method for describing patients with multiple injuries and evaluating emergency care. The Journal of Trauma 1974;**14**:187-96
- 26. Kulldorff M, Heffernan R, Hartman J, Assunção R, Mastashari F. A space-time permutation scan statistic for the early detection of disease outbreaks. PLoS Med. 2005;**2**:216-24
- 27. SaTScan v8.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics [program], 2009.
- 28. Schuurman N, Cinnamon J, Crooks VA, Hameed SM. Pedestrian injury and the built environment: an environmental scan of hotspots. BMC Public Health 2009;**9**:233
- 29. Taylor B, Koper C, Woods D. A randomized controlled trial of different policing strategies at hot spots of violent crime. Journal of Experimental Criminology 2011;**7**(2):149-81
- 30. Erickson P, Butters J, Cousineau M-M, Harrison L, Korf D, D, Alcohol and Violence International. Girls and weapons: an international study of the perpetration of violence. J. Urban Health 2006;**83**(5):788-801
- 31. Braga A, Weisburd D, Waring E, Mazerolle L, Spelman W, Gajewski F. Problem-oriented policing in violent crime place: a randomized controlled experiment. Criminology 1999;**37**(3):541-80
- 32. Piza E, Kennedy L, Caplan J. Risk Clusters, Hotspots, and Spatial Intelligence: Risk Terrain Modeling as an Algorithm for Police Resource Allocation Strategies. Newark: Rutgers Center on Public Security, 2010.
- 33. Statistics Canada. Census of Population. Ottawa, 2006.
- 34. Roe G. Fixed in place: Vancouver's Downtown Eastside and the community of clients. BC Studies 2009;**164**:75-101
- 35. Hawkins D. Inequality, culture, and interpersonal violence. Health Aff. (Millwood) 1993;12(4):80-95
- 36. Braitstein P, Li K, Tyndall M, et al. Sexual violence among a cohort of injection drug users. Soc. Sci. Med. 2003;**57**(3):561-69
- 37. Scribner R, MacKinnon D, Dwyer J. The Risk of Assaultive Violence and Alcohol Availability in Los Angeles County. Am. J. Public Health 1995;**85**(3):335-40
- 38. Zhu L, Gorman D, Horel S. Alcohol Outlet Density and Violence: A Geospatial Analysis. Alcohol Alcohol 2004;**39**(4):369-75
- 39. Thal E, Bost A, Anderson R. Effects of alcohol and other drugs on traumatized patients. Arch. Surg. 1985;**120**:708-12
- 40. Anderson R, Taliaferro E. Injury prevention and control. The Journal of Emergency Medicine 1998;**16**(3):487-98
- 41. Hedges B, Dimsdale J, Hoyt D, Berry C, Leitz K. Repeat trauma patients, San Diego County. Am. J. Public Health 1995;85:1008-10
- 42. Prothrow-Stith D. The epidemic of violence and its impact on the health care system. Henry Ford Hosp. Med. J. 1990;**38**:175-77
- 43. Hahn R, Kuzara J, Elder R, et al. Effectiveness of policies restricting hours of alcohol sales in preventing excessive alcohol consumption and related harms. Am. J. Prev. Med. 2010;**39**(6):590-604
- 44. Peters J. Senators quietly seeking new path on gun control. *The New York Times* 2013 April 25;A12.
- 45. Warburton A, Shepherd J. Tackling alcohol related violence in city centres: effect of emergency medicine and police intervention. Emerg. Med. J. 2006;**23**(1):12-17
- 46. Goldstein H. Imporving policing: a problem-oriented approach. Crime and Delinquency 1979;**25**:236-58

47. Cinnamon J, Schuurman N. Injury surveillance in low-resource settings using Geospatial and Social



#### **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1: Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

Figure 2: Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force.

Figure 3: Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district.

Figure 4: Injury hotspots by sub-category. Note that the downtown eastside is an injury hotspot regardless of the breakdown of victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. Commercial Drive) as are nighttime injuries. Note also the clustering of cases in the Downtown Eastside, a neighbourhood in the top quintile of socioeconomic deprivation.

Hotspots of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada: identification, analysis, and intervention

Blake Byron Walker\*<sup>1</sup>, Nadine Schuurman<sup>1</sup>, S. Morad Hameed<sup>2,3</sup>

- 1: Dept. of Geography, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
- 2: Dept. of Surgery, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
- 3: Trauma Services, Vancouver General Hospital, Vancouver, Canada
- \* correspondence:

Dept. of Geography Simon Fraser University 8888 University Drive, Burnaby, British Columbia V5A 1S6 Canada

T: +001 778 782 49 87 F: +001 778 782 58 41 E: bwalker [at] sfu.ca

**Keywords:** Violent injury, hotspots, GIS, spatial-temporal, alcohol

Word count: \*\*\*\*

#### **ABSTRACT**

#### **Background**

In 2002, the World Health Organization declared interpersonal violence to be a leading public health problem. Previous research demonstrates that urban spaces with a high incidence of violent trauma (hotspots) correlate with features of built the environment and social determinants. However, there are few studies that analyse injury data across the axes of both space and time to characterize injury-environment relationships. This paper describes a spatial-temporal analysis of violent injury in Vancouver, Canada, from 2001 to 2008.

#### Methods

Using geographic information systems, 575 violent trauma incidents were mapped and analysed using kernel density estimation to identify hotspot locations. Patterns between space, time, victim age and sex, and mechanism of injury were investigated with an exploratory approach.

## **Results**

Several patterns in space and time were identified and described, corresponding to distinct neighbourhood characteristics. Violent trauma hotspots were most prevalent in Vancouver's nightclub district on Friday and Saturday nights, with higher rates in the most socioeconomically deprived neighbourhoods. Victim sex, age, and mechanism of injury also formed strong patterns. Three neighbourhood profiles are presented using the dual axis of space/time to describe the hotspot environments.

## **Conclusions**

This work posits the value of exploratory spatial data analysis using geographic information systems in trauma epidemiology studies and further suggests that using both space and time concurrently to

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

understand urban environmental correlates of injury provides a more granular or higher resolution picture of risk. We discuss implications for injury prevention and control, focusing on education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

## What is already known on this subject:

Violent injury incidence clusters in urban space; geographic information systems are powerful tools for identifying patterns of injury in space-time; alcohol consumption is a driver of interpersonal violence.

# What this study adds:

Higher-resolution multidimensional patterns of violent trauma are identified; neighbourhood characteristics are used to describe context-specific urban violent spaces.

#### **BACKGROUND**

In 2008 over two million people in the United States were injured as the result of interpersonal violence.[1] 19 200 died as a result; this mortality rate is more than thirteen times the number of American 'War on Terror' casualties that same year.[2 3] [1][2][2][1]While medical and criminal perspectives tend to dominate the public discourse on violent injury, incidents have social, economic, political, and personal repercussions.[3] For example, the total cost of violence in the USA is estimated to be nearly 10% of the gross domestic product.(World Health Organization 2004)[4] Such figures fail to include the extensive psychological and emotional impacts of victimisation.[5] This multifaceted burden of violent injury presents a significant challenge to public health policymakers and practitioners. To contribute to injury prevention and control efforts, we employ a spatial epidemiology approach that emphasises the role of urban geographies in this multivariate temporal analysis of violent injury.

Within cities, violent injury incidence has been shown to vary between neighbourhoods. For example, Brantingham and Brantingham point to dense, elevated violence rates along the edges of entertainment districts, contrasting low rates in larger, nearby residential areas.[6] In order to identify high-risk urban areas (hotspots), many researchers use geographic information systems (GIS).[7-9] GIS technologies and

Brantingham and Brantingham point to dense, elevated violence rates along the edges of entertainment districts, contrasting low rates in larger, nearby residential areas.[6] In order to identify high-risk urban areas (hotspots), many researchers use geographic information systems (GIS).[7-9] GIS technologies and methods constitute a powerful toolset for analysing spatial data, and have been pivotal in identifying the links between violent injury and features of social and physical environments.[7 10 11]

Research has demonstrated that injury is strongly correlated in space-time, and is related to features of the social and physical urban environments.[10 12-14] These relationships can be further refined by including a temporal variable. Cusimano et al. identified peaks in violent injury incidence at night and early morning, tending to cluster around alcohol-serving establishments, low-income housing, and

[7 8 16-19]Social structure and deprivation are shown to be correlated with violent injury.[14]
Socioeconomic indicators and indices (e.g.: income inequality; employment status) tend to be strong predictors of injury risk.[20 21] We examine this relationship using a deprivation index developed by Bell, et al.[22]

In this work, we focus on severe trauma as the result of interpersonal violence in Vancouver, Canada. Specifically, we investigate how these incidents cluster in space-time, and examine how these patterns are reflected in the nature of the victim, the injury, the physical environment, and the socioeconomic deprivation level of the neighbourhood where the incident took place.

#### **DATA AND METHODS**

Injury data were acquired from the British Columbia Trauma Registry comprising the location, date, time, and cause of every injury that was treated in a trauma centre in the Metro Vancouver area between 2001 and 2008, inclusive. Only injuries with an injury severity score (ISS; see Baker et al. 1974) greater than 15 were included.[23] As such, only severe injuries and injuries to multiple body parts were included; cases where the victim expires prior to arrival, sports injuries, and self-inflicted injuries were excluded.

The data were classified into seven injury mechanisms: gunshot wound; sharp object trauma; blunt object trauma; bodily force (e.g., punch); and other assault. 575 incidents were mapped, each represented as a point in space and time. In order to determine whether an incident took place during day or night, civil dawn and civil dusk were calculated for every day in the data period.

The following variables were used in this analysis: injury location (mapped); victim age; victim sex; date and time of incident; and mechanism of injury. Pearson's chi-squared test was used to determine the independence of variables against day/night, and the data were graphed in relation to time of day, day-night contrast, time of year, and day of the week. These relationships were mapped in order to identify multivariate clusters (e.g., night time gunshot injuries).

With geographic information systems[24 25], k[26]ernel density estimation was used to produce hotspot maps. This method was selected not for its statistical robustness, rather, to produce a useful visualisation of the spatial distribution of the original data. In order to explore the relationship between violent injury hotspots and socioeconomic deprivation, we used the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index (VANDIX), constructed by Bell, et al.[22] VANDIX is a single quantitative metric constructed from numerous census variables in consultation with regional health specialists. The deprivation score for every census dissemination area is calculated, and the results were mapped with relation to the injury locations.

## **FINDINGS**

The violent injury data comprise 518 male and 57 female victims. This disparity corresponds with findings in the literature.[12] However, trauma data are certainly skewed due to the underreporting of domestic violence.[27] When categorised by day/night, we found that 75% of male injuries occurred at night, compared to 56% of female injuries; the association between victim sex and day/night was significant (Chi squared p=0.002). Figure 1 displays the temporal distribution.

\*figure 1

\*figure 2

One in every three injuries in this dataset was caused by a firearm. However, weapon choice and time/location do not significantly correlate, matching findings in the literature. [28] Figure 2 divides each mechanism of injury into day/night incidence. The difference of day/night ratios suggests that the severity of a mechanism is related to its proportional daytime prevalence. That is, an offender may feel more secure using a firearm under the cover of darkness, whereas the distinction is less consequential if throwing a punch. Note that because these data only include severe trauma cases, blunt object and bodily force injuries are underrepresented.

## \*figure 3

In figure 3, incidents are categorised by day of the week. Each night is defined as continuous until the following dawn; that is, Saturday night continues until sunrise on Sunday. This is done in order to account for alcohol consumption initiated in the evening and prolonged through the night. This weekend spike is to be expected, but note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

Map A, below, displays violent injury hotspots in the Metro Vancouver area. This pattern is similar to the distribution of low-income, high-density housing in the region. The most prominent hotspot (bright red) occurs in the Downtown Eastside, and some minor hotspots are found in commercial zones of the outer suburbs. The linear trend from Downtown to New Westminster features a series of minor hotspots which occur close to Skytrain stations (light rail transit) and a major shopping centre.

## \*figure 4

Map B displays the two highest quintiles of socioeconomic deprivation using the Vancouver Area

Neighbourhood Deprivation Index.[22] Here, the spatial pattern is similar to the hotspots that appear in

Map A; 77% of all severe violent injuries occurred within neighbourhoods in these two most deprived

 quintiles. There are two notable exceptions: the club district and Metrotown. While the cluster in the club district is explained by the high nighttime incidence in proximity to alcohol-serving establishments, the case in Metrotown is more complex and better explained by features of the built urban environment.

Map C focuses on central Vancouver, contrasting day and night hotspots. A significant overlap is noted in the Downtown Eastside. The nightclub district, the Downtown Eastside, and Commercial Drive contain nighttime hotspots that are particularly active on Friday and Saturday nights. These neighbourhoods have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments that feature live music and late closing times. The stadium and arena also appears as a hotspot. That this occurs during the night suggests that the majority of incidents occur after a match, further evidence towards the significance of alcohol in interpersonal violence.

Map D compares hotspots of male and female victims. While the sample size for females is comparatively small, when mapped, some geographic differences are notable. The club district, Commercial Drive, and the stadium feature only male victims, while victims in Chinatown are all female.

## **DISCUSSION**

The findings point towards several patterns of violent injury embedded in neighbourhood characteristics. To illustrate, we thematically examine three neighbourhoods identified in the maps above: Metrotown; the Downtown Eastside; and the nightclub district/stadium.

## Metrotown: the built environment

This neighbourhood does not have low incomes, high unemployment, or a high deprivation index.

However, this regional shopping centre and major transit node is surrounded by high-density housing;

all three of these urban features have been linked to violent injury in the literature.[15 27 29 30] While the median victim age city-wide is 30, the Metrotown injury cluster has a median age of 25. This may be explained by the presence of the shopping centre and cinema complex, both popular youth recreation sites. The Metrotown case underscores is the role of the built environment,[6 17] a powerful driver of violent injury that socioeconomic and demographic indicators of a neighbourhood's residents fail to represent.

Conversely, features of the built environment perceived as signs of urban decay have been linked to violent behaviours. Examples include adult businesses, [27] abandoned buildings, [19] and homeless shelters. [15 29] While these features are not found in Metrotown, they exist in high concentration in the Downtown Eastside.

## Downtown Eastside, socioeconomic deprivation

 With an average income of \$6 282 (before government subsidy), Vancouver's Downtown Eastside has over twice the unemployment rate of Vancouver and less than half the educational attainment.[31] These figures do not account for the substantial homeless population.[32] The Downtown Eastside is adjacent to the central business district, marking a stark economic divide; Wilkinson and Pickett demonstrate the extent to which inequality is a strong driver of interpersonal violence and viceversa.[21 33] This strong association between socioeconomic deprivation and violent injury incidence coincides with similar findings in the literature.[15 19]

The median age of victims in the Downtown Eastside is 38, eight years older than that of victims citywide. There is also an extremely high number of female victims relative to the rest of the study area.

Research has shown that there is a high probability of experiencing violent trauma among female drug users.[34] The only female-only hotspot bordered the Downtown Eastside, in Chinatown. This finding is not explained in the literature, suggesting a need for further research.

#### Club District and Stadium, alcohol consumption

The links between alcohol consumption and interpersonal violence are well-established in the literature. [7 8 17 19 28 35 36] A 1985 study found that 59% of trauma patients had alcohol in their blood. [37] Many of the incidents in our data occurred at public binge drinking sites; Brantingham and Brantingham found a similar cluster using police data. [6] Another cluster was found near the stadium/arena, also a space of high alcohol consumption. While the spatial association between alcohol availability and violent trauma was anticipated, the degree to which this was observed was beyond expectation; spaces of excess alcohol consumption appear to be the most prevalent predictor.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PREVENTION AND CONTROL

To examine these findings within an injury prevention and control context, we consider potential interventions actions within education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

Anderson and Taliaferro argue that physicians can be key educators in violence prevention and advocacy.[38] A 1995 study Hedges et al. (1995) found that nearly half of all repeat trauma patients were injured by the same mechanism as caused their first visit.[39] Physicians occupy a valuable position to discuss violence with patients and refer them to community and health resources. However, upstream education-based interventions hold strong potential; in this case, information posters could be placed in nightclub washrooms, a technique used in anti-smoking campaigns.[40]

The most prominent temporal spike in violent injury found in our data points towards the 'closing-time' debate. There is strong evidence that 'last call' policy can reduce excessive consumption and resulting harms.[41 42] However, this may also contribute to increasingly rapid drinking as last call approaches, leading to higher peak levels of intoxication. One policy alternative is the 'staggered closing' strategy,

where venues may purchase liquor licenses priced along a range of closing times. This is intended to prevent the closing time exodus and the resulting disorder from high concentrations of intoxicated patrons.

At the time of writing, the gun control debate has returned to the spotlight in the USA.[43] There were 192 gunshot trauma cases in this dataset, more than any other mechanism. However, the exclusion of minor injuries in our dataset inflates the proportion of severe trauma, limiting any inferability. A comparative study should be conducted in a similar city in the USA, such as Seattle, and the findings compared to explore weapons regulation as a factor.

While increased police presence in hotspots is often recommended. [29 30 43] Goldstein proposes *problem-oriented policing* as a method that emphasises the role of the police officer to identify underlying drivers of crime, build relationships with the citizenry, and acknowledge the limits of the criminal justice system to address problems. [44] This approach has been tested in the field with promising results, [27 29] including 'community policing' in Vancouver.

Planning and modification of the built environment provide another direction through which violent trauma can be prevented. [29] Stevenson describes urban violence with the enclosure/encounter models. [13] A crowded bar is an example of a built enclosure, while the crowded street at closing time causes numerous encounters, both of which can contribute to interpersonal violence. Modifications could include improved nightclub design and wider sidewalks.

Effective injury surveillance programmes can facilitate goal-tracking; [38] social web technologies are a promising asset in this regard, particularly in deprived urban areas where mobile phone usage is rapidly growing. [43] High-quality trauma data were vital in this and other studies. Research and subsequent interventions would benefit from the implementation of a broad violence surveillance programme that

combines data from police, medical, schools, community resources (such as women's shelters), legal records, and other sources.

In this study, we found several distinct patterns of violent injury with varying characteristics between neighbourhoods. As such, surveillance and intervention programmes should be custom-designed for individual neighbourhoods. [29 44] While education, regulation, the built environment, and surveillance programmes hold strong potential to reduce violent injury in urban space, successes based on policing and accessible medical services have been quantitatively demonstrated. [29 45] With the ultimate aim of injury control, a successful campaign will encompass a range of strategies to confront the issue upstream (e.g., liquor policy and education) and downstream (e.g., policing and ample ambulatory resources).

In this paper, we identified spatial-temporal patterns of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada, described the neighbourhood-specific contexts within which the examined hotspots are found, and discussed some potential intervention strategies. While this analysis was limited to severe trauma in one city, the findings and implications may prove useful for enriching research efforts in other urban places.

However, further research should examine ways to refine the GIS-based methods used herein, conduct more place-specific contextual investigation, and examine the efficacy of intervention strategies in other study areas.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors wish to acknowledge the contributions of the British Columbia Trauma Registry, particularly Tracey Taulu and Nasira Lakha. Also acknowledged is the generous support of GEOIDE funding (project SII-54) that made this research possible. Nadine Schuurman was funded by a Scholar Award from the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research.

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## **CONTRIBUTORSHIP STATEMENT**

Blake Byron Walker, lead author, conducted the analysis, interpreted the findings, and drafted the manuscript; he is acting as corresponding author and guarantor. Nadine Schuurman, second author, managed the data agreements, interpreted the findings, and edited the manuscript. S. Morad Hameed, third author, managed the data agreements and reviewed the manuscript.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1. World Health Organization. The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization, 2004.
- 2. Statistics Canada. CAMSIM Table 252-0013 (crimes by offences, by province and territory, 2006). Ottawa, Canada, 2007.
- 3. Polinder S, Haagsma J, Lyons R, et al. Measuring the population burden of fatal and nonfatal injury. Epidemiol. Rev. 2012;**34**:17-31
- 4. Smartrisk. The economic burden of injury in Canada. Toronto: Smartrisk, 2009.
- 5. Papachristos A, Braga A, Hureau D. Social networks and the risk of gunshot injury. J. Urban Health 2012;89(6):992-1003 doi: 10.1007/s11524-012-9703-9[published Online First: Epub Date]|.
- 6. Brantingham P, Brantingham P. Criminality of place: crime generators and crime attractors. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research 1995;**3**(3):5-26
- 7. Gorman D, Speer P, Gruenewald P, Labouvie E. Spatial dynamics of alcohol availability, neighborhood structure and violent crime. J. Stud. Alcohol 2001;62(5):628-37
- 8. Livingston M. Alcohol outlet density and assault: a spatial analysis. Addiction 2008;103(4):619-28
- 9. Bell N, Schuurman N. GIS and injury prevention and control: history, challenges, and opportunities. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public. Health 2010;**7**(3):1002-17
- 10. Walker B, Schuurman N. Environmental correlates with violent injury. Geomatica 2012;66(4):103-11
- 11. Nelson A, Bromley R, Thomas C. Identifying micro-spatial and temporal patterns of violent crime and disorder in the British city centre. Applied Geography 2001;**21**(3):249-74
- 12. Murray S. Global injury and violence. Can. Med. Assoc. J. 2006;174(5):620-21
- 13. Stevenson M. Building safer environments: injury, safety, and our surroundings. Inj. Prev. 2006;**12**:1-2
- 14. Sparks C. Violent crime in San Antonio, Texas: an application of spatial epidemiological methods. Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology 2011;**2**(4):301-09
- 15. Cusimano M, Marshall S, Rinner C, Jiang D, Chipman M. Patterns of urban violent injury: a spatio-temporal analysis. PLoS ONE 2010;5(1):1-9
- 16. Bellis M, Hughes K, Hughes S. Alcohol and interpersonal violence: policy briefing. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2005.
- 17. Branas C, Elliot M, Richmond T, Culhane D, Wiebe D. Alcohol consumption, alcohol outlets, and the risk of being assaulted with a gun. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research 2009;**33**(5):906-15
- 18. Cunradi C, Mair C, Ponicki W, Remer L. Alcohol outlets, neighbourhood characteristics, and intimate partner violence: ecological analysis of a California city. J. Urban Health 2011;88(2):191-200
- 19. Gruenewald P, Remer L. Changes in outlet densities affects violence rates. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research 2006;**30**(7):1184-93
- 20. Bell N, Schuurman N, Hameed SM. A multilevel analysis of the socio-spatial pattern of assault injuries in Greater Vancouver, British Columbia. Can. J. Public Health. 2009;**100**(1):73-77
- 21. Wilkinson R, Pickett K. *The Spirit Level: Why Equality is Better for Everyone*. Toronto, Canada: Penguin, 2009.
- 22. Bell N, Schuurman N, Oliver L, Hayes M. Towards the construction of place-specific measures of deprivation: a case study from the Vancouver metropolitan area. The Canadian Geographer 2007;51(4):444-61

- 23. Baker S, O'Neill B, Haddon W, Long W. The injury severity score: a method for describing patients with multiple injuries and evaluating emergency care. The Journal of Trauma 1974;**14**:187-96
- 24. Kulldorff M, Heffernan R, Hartman J, Assunção R, Mastashari F. A space-time permutation scan statistic for the early detection of disease outbreaks. PLoS Med. 2005;**2**:216-24
- 25. SaTScan v8.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics [program], 2009.
- 26. Schuurman N, Cinnamon J, Crooks VA, Hameed SM. Pedestrian injury and the built environment: an environmental scan of hotspots. BMC Public Health 2009;**9**:233
- 27. Taylor B, Koper C, Woods D. A randomized controlled trial of different policing strategies at hot spots of violent crime. Journal of Experimental Criminology 2011;**7**(2):149-81
- 28. Erickson P, Butters J, Cousineau M-M, Harrison L, Korf D, D, Alcohol and Violence International. Girls and weapons: an international study of the perpetration of violence. J. Urban Health 2006;**83**(5):788-801
- 29. Braga A, Weisburd D, Waring E, Mazerolle L, Spelman W, Gajewski F. Problem-oriented policing in violent crime place: a randomized controlled experiment. Criminology 1999;**37**(3):541-80
- 30. Piza E, Kennedy L, Caplan J. Risk Clusters, Hotspots, and Spatial Intelligence: Risk Terrain Modeling as an Algorithm for Police Resource Allocation Strategies. Newark: Rutgers Center on Public Security, 2010.
- 31. Statistics Canada. Census of Population. Ottawa, 2006.

- 32. Roe G. Fixed in place: Vancouver's Downtown Eastside and the community of clients. BC Studies 2009;**164**:75-101
- 33. Hawkins D. Inequality, culture, and interpersonal violence. Health Aff. (Millwood) 1993;12(4):80-95
- 34. Braitstein P, Li K, Tyndall M, et al. Sexual violence among a cohort of injection drug users. Soc. Sci. Med. 2003;**57**(3):561-69
- 35. Scribner R, MacKinnon D, Dwyer J. The Risk of Assaultive Violence and Alcohol Availability in Los Angeles County. Am. J. Public Health 1995;85(3):335-40
- 36. Zhu L, Gorman D, Horel S. Alcohol Outlet Density and Violence: A Geospatial Analysis. Alcohol Alcohol 2004;**39**(4):369-75
- 37. Thal E, Bost A, Anderson R. Effects of alcohol and other drugs on traumatized patients. Arch. Surg. 1985;**120**:708-12
- 38. Anderson R, Taliaferro E. Injury prevention and control. The Journal of Emergency Medicine 1998;**16**(3):487-98
- 39. Hedges B, Dimsdale J, Hoyt D, Berry C, Leitz K. Repeat trauma patients, San Diego County. Am. J. Public Health 1995;**85**:1008-10
- 40. Prothrow-Stith D. The epidemic of violence and its impact on the health care system. Henry Ford Hosp. Med. J. 1990;**38**:175-77
- 41. Hahn R, Kuzara J, Elder R, et al. Effectiveness of policies restricting hours of alcohol sales in preventing excessive alcohol consumption and related harms. Am. J. Prev. Med. 2010;**39**(6):590-604
- 42. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. WISQARS nonfatal injury reports (Dataset), 2010.
- 43. Cinnamon J, Schuurman N. Injury surveillance in low-resource settings using Geospatial and Social Web technologies. International Journal of Health Geographics 2010;**9**:25 doi: 10.1186/1476-072X-9-25[published Online First: Epub Date]|.
- 44. Goldstein H. Imporving policing: a problem-oriented approach. Crime and Delinquency 1979;**25**:236-58
- 45. Warburton A, Shepherd J. Tackling alcohol related violence in city centres: effect of emergency medicine and police intervention. Emerg. Med. J. 2006;**23**(1):12-17

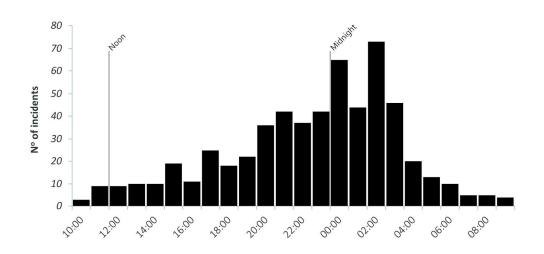
#### **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1: Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

Figure 2: Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force.

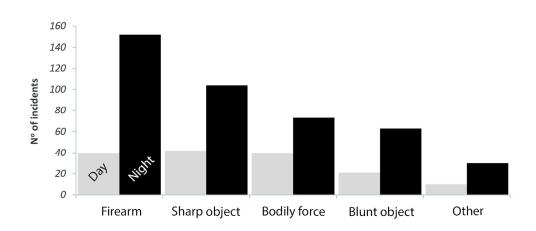
Figure 3: Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district.

Figure 4: Injury hotspots by sub-category. Note that the downtown eastside is an injury hotspot regardless of the breakdown of victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. Commercial Drive) as are nighttime injuries. Note also the clustering of cases in the Downtown Eastside, a neighbourhood in the top quintile of socioeconomic deprivation.



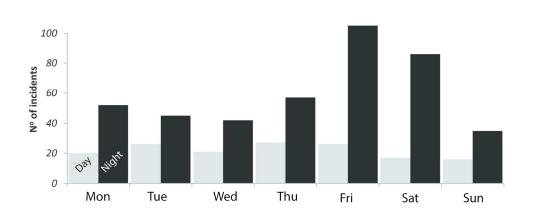
Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

160x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force. n (30c

163x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district. Note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

162x80mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Spatial-temporal injury clusters and male/female hotspots. The majority of clusters occur in the late evening. Statistically, the club district was the strongest cluster in space-time, while the Downtown Eastside has the greatest number of injuries throughout the day and is the most severe hotspot for both male and female victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. north and west from the Commercial/Broadway cluster).



# A GIS-based spatial-temporal analysis of violent trauma hotspots Vancouver, Canada: identification, contextualisation, and intervention

Journal:	BMJ Open
Manuscript ID:	bmjopen-2013-003642.R1
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	16-Jan-2014
Complete List of Authors:	Walker, Blake Byron; Simon Fraser University, Geography Schuurman, Nadine; Simon Fraser University, Geography Hameed, S. Morad; Vancouver General Hospital, Trauma Services
<b>Primary Subject Heading</b> :	Epidemiology
Secondary Subject Heading:	Epidemiology
Keywords:	EPIDEMIOLOGY, PUBLIC HEALTH, STATISTICS & RESEARCH METHODS

SCHOLARONE™ Manuscripts

A GIS-based spatial-temporal analysis of violent trauma hotspots Vancouver, Canada: identification, contextualisation, and intervention

Blake Byron Walker\*<sup>1</sup>, Nadine Schuurman<sup>1</sup>, S. Morad Hameed<sup>2,3</sup>

- 1: Dept. of Geography, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
- 2: Dept. of Surgery, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
- 3: Trauma Services, Vancouver General Hospital, Vancouver, Canada
- \* correspondence:
  Dept. of Geography
  Simon Fraser University
  8888 University Drive,
  Burnaby, British Columbia V5A 1S6
  Canada

T: +001 778 782 49 87 F: +001 778 782 58 41 E: bwalker [at] sfu.ca

**Keywords:** Violent injury, hotspots, GIS, spatial-temporal, alcohol

Word count: 3010

## **ABSTRACT**

## Background

In 2002, the World Health Organization declared interpersonal violence to be a leading public health problem. Previous research demonstrates that urban spaces with a high incidence of violent trauma (hotspots) correlate with features of built the environment and social determinants. However, there are few studies that analyse injury data across the axes of both space and time to characterize injury-environment relationships. This paper describes a spatial-temporal analysis of violent injury in Vancouver, Canada, from 2001 to 2008.

#### Methods

Using geographic information systems, 575 violent trauma incidents were mapped and analysed using kernel density estimation to identify hotspot locations. Patterns between space, time, victim age and sex, and mechanism of injury were investigated with an exploratory approach.

## **Results**

Several patterns in space and time were identified and described, corresponding to distinct neighbourhood characteristics. Violent trauma hotspots were most prevalent in Vancouver's nightclub district on Friday and Saturday nights, with higher rates in the most socioeconomically deprived neighbourhoods. Victim sex, age, and mechanism of injury also formed strong patterns. Three neighbourhood profiles are presented using the dual axis of space/time to describe the hotspot environments.

## **Conclusions**

This work posits the value of exploratory spatial data analysis using geographic information systems in trauma epidemiology studies and further suggests that using both space and time concurrently to

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

understand urban environmental correlates of injury provides a more granular or higher resolution picture of risk. We discuss implications for injury prevention and control, focusing on education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

# Strengths and limitations of this study:

- High-resolution multidimensional patterns of violent trauma are identified using a population-based trauma registry.
- Neighbourhood characteristics are used to describe context-specific urban violent spaces in a highincome country.
- Due to data recording procedures and confidentiality regulations, this study is limited to severe trauma and excludes cases where the patient expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre.

## **BACKGROUND**

In 2008 over two million people in the United States were injured as the result of interpersonal violence.[1] 19 200 died as a result; this mortality rate is more than thirteen times the number of American 'War on Terror' casualties that same year.[2 3] While medical and criminal perspectives tend to dominate the public discourse on violent injury, incidents have social, economic, political, and personal repercussions.[4] For example, the total cost of violence in the USA is estimated to be nearly 10% of the gross domestic product.[5 6] Such figures fail to include the extensive psychological and emotional impacts of victimisation.[7] This multifaceted burden of violent injury presents a significant challenge to public health policymakers and practitioners. To contribute to injury prevention and control efforts, we employ a spatial epidemiology approach that emphasises the role of urban geographies in this multivariate temporal analysis of violent injury.

Within cities, violent injury incidence has been shown to vary between neighbourhoods. For example, Brantingham and Brantingham point to dense, elevated violence rates along the edges of entertainment districts, contrasting low rates in larger, nearby residential areas.[8] In order to identify high-risk urban areas (hotspots), many researchers use geographic information systems (GIS).[9-11] GIS technologies and methods constitute a powerful toolset for analysing spatial data, and have been pivotal in identifying the links between violent injury and features of social and physical environments.[9 12 13]

Research has demonstrated that injury is strongly correlated in space-time, and is related to features of the social and physical urban environments.[12 14-16] These relationships can be further refined by including a temporal variable. Cusimano et al. identified peaks in violent injury incidence at night and early morning, tending to cluster around alcohol-serving establishments, low-income housing, and

homeless shelters.[9 10 17-21] This work differs in that we expand our analysis to include victim characteristics, the weapon of injury, and a measure of social deprivation.

Social structure and deprivation are shown to be correlated with violent injury.[16] Socioeconomic indicators and indices (e.g.: income inequality; employment status) tend to be strong predictors of injury risk.[22 23] We examine this relationship using a deprivation index developed by Bell, et al.[24] In this work, we focus on severe trauma as the result of interpersonal violence in Vancouver, Canada. Specifically, we investigate how these incidents cluster in space-time, and examine how these patterns are reflected in the nature of the victim, the injury, the physical environment, and the socioeconomic deprivation level of the neighbourhood where the incident took place.

## **DATA AND METHODS**

Injury data were acquired from the British Columbia Trauma Registry comprising the location, date, time, and cause of every injury that was treated in a trauma centre in the Metro Vancouver area between 2001 and 2008, inclusive. Due to data recording protocols, confidentiality regulations, and to eliminate minor incidents, only cases with an injury severity score (ISS; see Baker et al. 1974) greater than 15 were included. [25] As such, only severe injuries and injuries to multiple body parts were included; sports injuries and self-inflicted injuries were excluded. Cases where the patient had expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre were not recorded in the trauma registry and are therefore excluded from this analysis.

The data were classified into seven injury mechanisms: gunshot wound; sharp object trauma; blunt object trauma; bodily force (e.g., punch); and other assault. 575 incidents were mapped, each

represented as a point in space and time. In order to determine whether an incident took place during day or night, civil dawn and civil dusk were calculated for every day in the data period.

The following variables were used in this analysis: injury location (mapped); victim age; victim sex; date and time of incident; and mechanism of injury. Pearson's chi-squared test was used to determine the independence of variables against day/night, and the data were graphed in relation to time of day, day-night contrast, time of year, and day of the week. These relationships were mapped in order to identify multivariate clusters (e.g., night time gunshot injuries).

The data were imported into geographic information systems and kernel density estimation was used to produce hotspot maps to contrast male and female hotspots. As these data constitute a population, kernel density estimation was selected as a non-inferential interpolation method for visualising the spatial distribution of cases. Natural breaks (Jenks' algorithm) was selected to identify areas of high concentration, and the cut-off was manually adjusted to obscure several cases' locations. To identify spatial-temporal hotspots, the spatial scan statistic with a space-time permutation model was used.[26-28] In the interest of patient confidentiality, the kernel density bandwidth parameter and spatial scan window size are withheld to prevent reverse-calculation.

In order to explore the relationship between violent injury hotspots and socioeconomic deprivation, we used the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index (VANDIX), constructed by Bell, et al.[24] VANDIX is a single quantitative metric constructed from numerous census variables in consultation with regional health specialists. The deprivation score for every census dissemination area was calculated, and classified into quintiles, and the violent injury locations were queried in GIS to identify the proportion within each deprivation quintile.

#### **FINDINGS**

The violent injury data comprise 518 male and 57 female victims. This disparity corresponds with findings in the literature.[14] However, trauma data are certainly skewed due to the underreporting of domestic violence.[29] When categorised by day/night, we found that 75% of male injuries occurred at night, compared to 56% of female injuries; the association between victim sex and day/night was significant (Chi squared p=0.002). Figure 1 displays the temporal distribution.

\*figure 1

\*figure 2

One in every three injuries in this dataset was caused by a firearm. However, weapon choice and time/location do not significantly correlate, matching findings in the literature.[30] Figure 2 divides each mechanism of injury into day/night incidence. The difference of day/night ratios suggests that the severity of a mechanism is related to its proportional daytime prevalence. That is, an offender may feel more secure using a firearm under the cover of darkness, whereas the distinction is less consequential if throwing a punch. Note that because these data only include severe trauma cases, blunt object and bodily force injuries are underrepresented.

\*figure 3

In figure 3, incidents are categorised by day of the week. Each night is defined as continuous until the following dawn; that is, Saturday night continues until sunrise on Sunday. This is done in order to account for alcohol consumption initiated in the evening and prolonged through the night. This weekend spike is to be expected, but note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

Figure 4, below, displays violent injury hotspots in the Metro Vancouver area. This pattern is similar to the distribution of low-income, high-density housing in the region. The most prominent hotspot (bright red) occurs in the Downtown Eastside, and some minor hotspots are found in commercial zones of the outer suburbs. The linear trend from Downtown to New Westminster features a series of minor hotspots which occur close to Skytrain stations (light rail transit) and a major shopping centre.

\*figure 4

 Also evident are spatial differences in female (red) and male (blue) victim hotspots. While the sample size for females is comparatively small, when mapped, some geographic differences are notable. The club district, Commercial Drive, and the stadium feature only male victims, while victims in Chinatown are all female.

The circles represent cluster locations detected using the space-time permutation model of the spatial scan statistic, with the time window in which the cluster occurs. The nightclub district, the Downtown Eastside, and Commercial Drive contain nighttime hotspots that are particularly active on Friday and Saturday nights. These neighbourhoods have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments that feature live music and late closing times. The stadium and arena also appears as a hotspot. That this occurs during the night suggests that these cases may also be attributed to the high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments surrounding, and including, the stadium.

When violent injury locations were compared to the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index [24] we found that 77% of all severe violent injuries occurred within neighbourhoods in these two most deprived quintiles. There are two notable exceptions: the club district and Metrotown. While the cluster in the club district is explained by the high night-time incidence in proximity to alcohol-serving establishments, the case in Metrotown is more complex and better explained by features of the built

urban environment.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The findings point towards several patterns of violent injury embedded in neighbourhood characteristics. To illustrate, we thematically examine three neighbourhoods identified in the maps above: Metrotown; the Downtown Eastside; and the nightclub district/stadium.

## Metrotown: the built environment

Metrotown is a high-density commercial/industrial neighbourhood with a large shopping centre, cinema, and major transit node at its core. These features are encircled by upscale, high-density housing, primarily condominium towers. Similar to the club district, this neighbourhood does not have low incomes, high unemployment, or a high deprivation index. It does not, however, have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments. Metrotown's appearance as a violent injury hotspot in this study may be explained by the built environment. Shopping centres, transit nodes, and high-density commercial development has been linked to violent injury in the literature. [21 29 31 32] While the median victim age city-wide is 30, the Metrotown injury cluster has a median age of 25. This may be explained by the presence of the shopping centre and cinema complex, both popular youth recreation sites. The Metrotown case underscores the role of the built environment, [8 18] a powerful driver of violent injury that socioeconomic and demographic indicators of a neighbourhood's residents fail to represent.

Conversely, features of the built environment perceived as signs of urban decay have been linked to violent behaviours. Examples include adult businesses, [29] abandoned buildings, [20] and homeless

shelters.[21 31] While these features are not found in Metrotown, they exist in high concentration in the Downtown Eastside.

## Downtown Eastside, socioeconomic deprivation

With an average income of \$6 282 (before government subsidy), Vancouver's Downtown Eastside has over twice the unemployment rate of Vancouver and less than half the educational attainment.[33] These figures do not account for the substantial homeless population.[34] The Downtown Eastside is adjacent to the central business district, marking a stark economic divide; Wilkinson and Pickett demonstrate the extent to which inequality is a strong driver of interpersonal violence and viceversa.[23] This strong association between socioeconomic deprivation and violent injury incidence coincides with similar findings in the literature.[20 21]

The median age of victims in the Downtown Eastside is 38, eight years older than that of victims city-wide. This corresponds with the high number of elderly poor who reside in the area, and the near-absence of children. Open drug and alcohol consumption are endemic, both of which have been shown in the literature to correlate with an elevated risk of experiencing violent trauma.[35] There is also an extremely high number of female victims relative to the rest of the study area. Given the high proportion of First Nations population in the Downtown Eastside, relative to the remainder of the study area, this may be explained by the high rates of violence experienced by First Nations women, compared to the general population.[36 37] The sole female-only hotspot bordered the Downtown Eastside, in Chinatown. While this finding certainly merits further examination, an insufficient number of observations precludes the inference that this is a significant effect. The Chinatown corridor, extending south from the Downtown Eastside, runs along a main street with heavy pedestrian traffic. As such, the observed female-only hotspot may rather be a 'spill over' from the Downtown Eastside, reflecting the high proportion of female victims in that area. In addition, it should be noted that Chinatown hosts a

large number of First Nations residents (formal and informal). Future research may examine each case independently to determine whether it is a similar pattern of injury.

## Club District and Stadium, alcohol consumption

The links between alcohol consumption and interpersonal violence are well-established in the literature. [9 10 18 20 30 38 39] A 2012 study of violent trauma reports from fourteen countries found that over 60% of cases were related to alcohol consumption. [40] . Accordingly, many of the incidents in our data occurred at public binge drinking sites; Brantingham and Brantingham found a similar cluster using police data. [8] The stadium also appeared as a hotspot, which may point towards the high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments along its perimeter; other studies have found sports stadiums to be spaces of high alcohol consumption and violence. [41 42] While the spatial association between alcohol availability and violent trauma was anticipated, the degree to which this was observed was beyond expectation; spaces of excess alcohol consumption appear to be the most prevalent predictor.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PREVENTION AND CONTROL

To examine these findings within an injury prevention and control context, we consider potential interventions actions within education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance, recommending a comprehensive comparative study of their effectiveness in other settings.

Physicians occupy a valuable position to discuss violence with patients and refer them to community and health resources. [43] A 1995 study Hedges et al. found that nearly half of all repeat trauma patients were injured by the same mechanism as caused their first visit. [44] As such, point-of-care interventions may prove useful in behaviour modification. However, upstream interventions hold strong potential; in

this case, information posters could be placed in nightclub washrooms, a technique used in anti-smoking campaigns. [45] However, offender-targeted campaigns have been shown in the literature to have minimal effect on offender opinions or behaviours, and management at alcohol-serving establishments may be reluctant to engage in campaigns that may discourage consumption. [46 47] Conversely, the WHO recommends campaigns targeting the cultural norms that promote violence, with an emphasis on youth education. [48] Such programmes would require broader policy support and an acknowledgement of the 'lag effect' of youth education on adult health outcomes.

The most prominent temporal spike in violent injury found in this analysis data points towards the 'closing-time' debate. There is strong evidence that 'last call' policy can reduce excessive consumption and resulting harms [1 48 49], although the Licensing Act 2003, which allowed for longer serving hours in England and Wales, appeared to have no significant effect.[50] Standardised closing times may contribute to increasingly rapid drinking as last call approaches, leading to higher peak levels of intoxication. One policy alternative is the 'staggered closing' strategy, where venues may purchase liquor licenses priced along a range of closing times. This is intended to prevent high concentrations of intoxicated patrons at closing time. The WHO recommends strategic pricing to reduce alcohol-related harms, which has been shown both in England [51] and British Columbia [52] to be an effective policy tool for reducing negative health outcomes.[48]

There were 192 gunshot trauma cases in this dataset, more than any other mechanism. However, the exclusion of minor injuries in our dataset inflates the proportion of severe trauma, limiting any inference. The WHO global report on violence prevention points towards of widespread weapons availability, pointing towards background checks, safe storage regulations, and more restrictive regulation. [48] While Canada has relatively strong firearms legislation, the majority of illegal firearms in

 the Metro Vancouver region are smuggled from the USA or overseas.[53] Improved border checks are therefore a potential avenue for intervention.

While increased police presence in hotspots is often recommended,[31 32 54] Goldstein proposes *problem-oriented policing* as a method that emphasises the role of the police officer to identify underlying drivers of crime, build relationships with the citizenry, and acknowledge the limits of the criminal justice system to address problems.[55] This approach has been tested in the field with promising results,[29 31] including 'community policing' in Vancouver.

Planning and modification of the built environment provide another direction through which violent trauma can be prevented.[31] Stevenson describes urban violence with the enclosure/encounter models.[15] A crowded bar is an example of a built enclosure, while the crowded street at closing time causes numerous encounters, both of which can contribute to interpersonal violence. Modifications could include improved nightclub design and wider sidewalks.

Effective injury surveillance programmes can facilitate goal-tracking; [43] social web technologies are a promising asset in this regard, particularly in deprived urban areas where mobile phone usage is rapidly growing. [56] High-quality trauma data were vital in this and other studies. Research and subsequent interventions would benefit from the implementation of a broad violence surveillance programme that combines data from police, medical, schools, community resources (such as women's shelters), legal records, and other sources.

In this study, we found several distinct patterns of violent injury with varying characteristics between neighbourhoods. As such, surveillance and intervention programmes should be custom-designed for individual neighbourhoods.[31 55] While education, regulation, the built environment, and surveillance programmes hold strong potential to reduce violent injury in urban space, successes based on policing and accessible medical services have been quantitatively demonstrated.[31 54] With the ultimate aim of

injury control, a successful campaign will encompass a range of strategies to confront the issue upstream (e.g., liquor policy and education) and downstream (e.g., policing and ample ambulatory resources). This study is limited by the exclusion of cases with a severity score below 15; as a result, these findings are applicable only to severe trauma. Further, the inclusion of patients who expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre may have an impact on the distribution of hotspots. Their exclusion may have led to an underrepresentation of gang-related violence, which caused numerous deaths during the study period. Future spatial analyses of violent trauma may benefit from the integration of multiple data sources to include a broader range of severity and an extended temporal period.

In this paper, we identified spatial-temporal patterns of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada, described the neighbourhood-specific contexts within which the examined hotspots are found, and discussed some potential intervention strategies. While this analysis was limited to severe trauma in one city, the findings and implications may prove useful for enriching research efforts in other urban places.

However, further research should examine ways to refine the GIS-based methods used herein, conduct more place-specific contextual investigation, and examine the efficacy of intervention strategies in other study areas.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors wish to acknowledge the contributions of the British Columbia Trauma Registry, particularly Tracey Taulu and Nasira Lakha. Also acknowledged is the generous support of GEOIDE funding (project SII-54) that made this research possible. Nadine Schuurman was funded by a Scholar Award from the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research.

## **FUNDING**

This work was supported by the Geomatics for Informed Decisions

## **CONTRIBUTORSHIP STATEMENT**

Blake Byron Walker, lead author, conducted the analysis, interpreted the findings, and drafted the manuscript; he is acting as corresponding author and guarantor. Nadine Schuurman, second author, managed the data agreements, interpreted the findings, and edited the manuscript. S. Morad Hameed, third author, managed the data agreements and reviewed the manuscript.

#### **DATA SHARING STATEMENT**

The trauma data used in this research are not publicly available.

## **COMPETING INTERESTS**

None

#### REFERENCES

- 1 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. WISQARS nonfatal injury reports (Dataset). 2010.
- 2 United States Department of Defense. Active duty military deaths by year and manner. Washington, DC2011.
- 3 World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates, 2008. In: (Dataset), editor. Geneva, Switzerland2011.
- 4 Polinder S, Haagsma J, Lyons R, et al. Measuring the population burden of fatal and nonfatal injury. Epidemiol Rev. 2012;34:17-31.
- 5 World Hzation. The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization 2004.
- 6 Smartrisk. The economic burden of injury in Canada. Toronto: Smartrisk2009.
- 7 Papachristos A, Braga A, Hureau D. Social networks and the risk of gunshot injury. J Urban Health. 2012;89(6):992-1003.
- 8 Brantingham P, Brantingham P. Criminality of place: crime generators and crime attractors. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research. 1995;3(3):5-26.
- 9 Gorman D, Speer P, Gruenewald P, et al. Spatial dynamics of alcohol availability, neighborhood structure and violent crime. J Stud Alcohol. 2001;62(5):628-37.
- 10 Livingston M. Alcohol outlet density and assault: a spatial analysis. Addiction. 2008;103(4):619-28.
- 11 Bell N, Schuurman N. GIS and injury prevention and control: history, challenges, and opportunities. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2010;7(3):1002-17.
- 12 Walker BB, Schuurman N. Environmental correlates with violent injury. Geomatica. 2012;66(4):103-11.
- 13 Nelson A, Bromley R, Thomas C. Identifying micro-spatial and temporal patterns of violent crime and disorder in the British city centre. Applied Geography. 2001;21(3):249-74.
- 14 Murray S. Global injury and violence. Can Med Assoc J. 2006;174(5):620-1.
- 15 Stevenson M. Building safer environments: injury, safety, and our surroundings. Inj Prev. 2006;12:1-2.
- 16 Sparks C. Violent crime in San Antonio, Texas: an application of spatial epidemiological methods. Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology. 2011;2(4):301-9.
- 17 Bellis M, Hughes K, Hughes S. Alcohol and interpersonal violence: policy briefing. Geneva: World Health Organization 2005.
- 18 Branas C, Elliot M, Richmond T, et al. Alcohol consumption, alcohol outlets, and the risk of being assaulted with a gun. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research. 2009;33(5):906-15.
- 19 Cunradi C, Mair C, Ponicki W, et al. Alcohol outlets, neighbourhood characteristics, and intimate partner violence: ecological analysis of a California city. J Urban Health. 2011;88(2):191-200.
- 20 Gruenewald P, Remer L. Changes in outlet densities affects violence rates. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research. 2006;30(7):1184-93.
- 21 Cusimano M, Marshall S, Rinner C, et al. Patterns of urban violent injury: a spatio-temporal analysis. PLoS ONE. 2010;5(1):1-9.
- 22 Bell N, Schuurman N, Hameed SM. A multilevel analysis of the socio-spatial pattern of assault injuries in Greater Vancouver, British Columbia. Can J Public Health. 2009;100(1):73-7.
- 23 Wilkinson R, Pickett K. The Spirit Level: Why Equality is Better for Everyone. Toronto, Canada: Penguin; 2009.

- 24 Bell N, Schuurman N, Oliver L, et al. Towards the construction of place-specific measures of deprivation: a case study from the Vancouver metropolitan area. The Canadian Geographer. 2007;51(4):444-61.
- 25 Baker S, O'Neill B, Haddon W, et al. The injury severity score: a method for describing patients with multiple injuries and evaluating emergency care. The Journal of Trauma. 1974;14:187-96.
- 26 Kulldorff M, Heffernan R, Hartman J, et al. A space-time permutation scan statistic for the early detection of disease outbreaks. PLoS Med. 2005;2:216-24.
- 27 Kulldorff M, Information Management Services Inc. SaTScan v8.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics. 2009.
- 28 Schuurman N, Cinnamon J, Crooks VA, et al. Pedestrian injury and the built environment: an environmental scan of hotspots. BMC Public Health. 2009;9:233.
- 29 Taylor B, Koper C, Woods D. A randomized controlled trial of different policing strategies at hot spots of violent crime. Journal of Experimental Criminology. 2011;7(2):149-81.
- 30 Erickson P, Butters J, Cousineau M-M, et al.: an international study of the perpetration of violence. J Urban Health. 2006;83(5):788-801.
- 31 Braga A, Weisburd D, Waring E, et al. Problem-oriented policing in violent crime place: a randomized controlled experiment. Criminology. 1999;37(3):541-80.
- 32 Piza E, Kennedy L, Caplan J. Risk Clusters, Hotspots, and Spatial Intelligence: Risk Terrain Modeling as an Algorithm for Police Resource Allocation Strategies. Newark: Rutgers Center on Public Security2010.
- 33 Statistics Canada. Census of Population. Ottawa2006.
- 34 Roe G. Fixed in place: Vancouver's Downtown Eastside and the community of clients. BC Studies. 2009;164:75-101.
- 35 Korcha R, Cherpitel C, Witbrodt J, et al. Violence-related injury and gender: the role of alcohol and alcohol combined with drugs. Drug Alcohol Rev. 2014;33(1):43-50.
- 36 Farley M, Lynne J, Cotton A. Prostitution in Vancouver: violence and the colonization of First Nations women. Transcultural Psychiatry. 2005;42(2):242-71.
- 37 Brownridge D. Male partner violence against Aboriginal women in Canada: an empirical analysis. J Interpers Violence. 2003;18(1):63-83.
- 38 Zhu L, Gorman D, Horel S. Alcohol Outlet Density and Violence: A Geospatial Analysis. Alcohol Alcohol. 2004;39(4):369-75.
- 39 Cunningham R, Walton M, Maio R, et al. Violence and substance use among an injured emergency department population. Acad Emerg Med. 2003;10(7):764-75.
- 40 Cherpitel C, Ye Y, Bond J, et al. Attribution of alcohol to violence-related injury: self and other's drinking in the event. J Stud Alcohol Drugs. 2012;73(2):277-84.
- 41 Roberts J, Benjamin C. Spectator violence in sports: a North American perspective. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research. 2000;8(2):163-81.
- 42 Sànchez À, Krafty R, Puyana J, et al. Football events and thier association with interpersonal violence deaths. Panamerican Journal of Trauma, Critical Care, and Emergency Surgery. 2013;2(1):26-32.
- 43 Anderson R, Taliaferro E. Injury prevention and control. The Journal of Emergency Medicine. 1998;16(3):487-98.
- 44 Hedges B, Dimsdale J, Hoyt D, et al.Repeat trauma patients, San Diego County. Am J Public Health. 1995;85:1008-10.
- 45 Prothrow-Stith D. The epidemic of violence and its impact on the health care system. Henry Ford Hosp Med J. 1990;38:175-7.
- 46 Flexon J, Guerette R. Differential effects of an offender-focused crime prevention media campaign. Journal of Criminal Justice. 2009;37(6):608-16.

- 47 Hawkins N, Sanson-Fisher R, Shakeshaft A, et al. Differences in licensee, police and public opinions regarding interventions to reduce alcohol-related harm associated with licensed premises. Aust N Z J Public Health. 2009;33(3):296.
- 48 World Health Organization. Violence Prevention: the Evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization2010.

- 49 Hahn R, Kuzara J, Elder R, et al. Effectiveness of policies restricting hours of alcohol sales in preventing excessive alcohol consumption and related harms. Am J Prev Med. 2010;39(6):590-604.
- 50 Hough M, Hunter G. The 2003 Licensing Act's impact on crime and disorder: an evaluation. Criminology and Criminal Justice. 2008;8(3):239-60.
- 51 Purshouse RC, Meier PS, Brennan A, et al. Estimated effect of alcohol pricing policies on health and health economic outcomes in England: an epidemiological model. The Lancet.375(9723):1355-64.
- 52 Stockwell T. Does minimum pricing reduce alcohol consumption? The experience of a Canadian province. Addiction. 2012;107(5):912-20.
- 53 Ball D. American guns, Canadian deaths. Vancouver2012 [updated Jan. 4, 2012]; Available from: <a href="http://www.vancouverobserver.com/politics/investigations/2012/01/04/american-guns-canadian-deaths">http://www.vancouverobserver.com/politics/investigations/2012/01/04/american-guns-canadian-deaths</a>.
- 54 Warburton A, Shepherd J. Tackling alcohol related violence in city centres: effect of emergency medicine and police intervention. Emerg Med J. 2006;23(1):12-7.
- 55 Goldstein H. Imporving policing: a problem-oriented approach. Crime and Delinquency. 1979;25:236-58.
- 56 Cinnamon J, Schuurman N. Injury surveillance in low-resource settings using Geospatial and Social Web technologies. International Journal of Health Geographics. 2010;9(25).

#### **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1: Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

Figure 2: Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force.

Figure 3: Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district.

Figure 4: Injury hotspots by sub-category. Note that the downtown eastside is an injury hotspot regardless of the breakdown of victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. Commercial Drive) as are nighttime injuries. Note also the clustering of cases in the Downtown Eastside, a neighbourhood in the top quintile of socioeconomic deprivation.

A GIS-based spatial-temporal analysis of violent trauma hotspots Vancouver, Canada: identification, contextualisation, and intervention Hotspots of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada: identification, analysis, and intervention

Blake Byron Walker\*1, Nadine Schuurman1, S. Morad Hameed2,3

- 1: Dept. of Geography, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
- 2: Dept. of Surgery, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
- 3: Trauma Services, Vancouver General Hospital, Vancouver, Canada
- \* correspondence:
  Dept. of Geography
  Simon Fraser University
  8888 University Drive,
  Burnaby, British Columbia V5A 1S6
  Canada

T: +001 778 782 49 87 F: +001 778 782 58 41 E: bwalker [at] sfu.ca

Keywords: Violent injury, hotspots, GIS, spatial-temporal, alcohol

Word count: <u>2767</u>3010

#### **ABSTRACT**

#### **Background**

In 2002, the World Health Organization declared interpersonal violence to be a leading public health problem. Previous research demonstrates that urban spaces with a high incidence of violent trauma (hotspots) correlate with features of built the environment and social determinants. However, there are few studies that analyse injury data across the axes of both space and time to characterize injury-environment relationships. This paper describes a spatial-temporal analysis of violent injury in Vancouver, Canada, from 2001 to 2008.

#### Methods

Using geographic information systems, 575 violent trauma incidents were mapped and analysed using kernel density estimation to identify hotspot locations. Patterns between space, time, victim age and sex, and mechanism of injury were investigated with an exploratory approach.

## Results

Several patterns in space and time were identified and described, corresponding to distinct neighbourhood characteristics. Violent trauma hotspots were most prevalent in Vancouver's nightclub district on Friday and Saturday nights, with higher rates in the most socioeconomically deprived neighbourhoods. Victim sex, age, and mechanism of injury also formed strong patterns. Three neighbourhood profiles are presented using the dual axis of space/time to describe the hotspot environments.

## Conclusions

This work posits the value of exploratory spatial data analysis using geographic information systems in trauma epidemiology studies and further suggests that using both space and time concurrently to

understand urban environmental correlates of injury provides a more granular or higher resolution picture of risk. We discuss implications for injury prevention and control, focusing on education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance.

#### What is already known on this subject

identifying patterns of injury in space-time; alcohol consumption is a driver of interpersonal violence.

#### What this study adds:

Higher-resolution multidimensional patterns of violent trauma are identified; neighbourhood characteristics are used to describe context-specific urban violent spaces.

#### Strengths and limitations of this study:

- High-resolution multidimensional patterns of violent trauma are identified using a population-based
   trauma registry.
- Neighbourhood characteristics are used to describe context-specific urban violent spaces in a highincome country.
- <u>- Due to data recording procedures and confidentiality regulations, this study is limited to severe trauma and excludes cases where the patient expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre.</u>

**Formatted:** Bulleted + Level: 1 + Aligned at: 0" + Indent at: 0.25"

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

Formatted: Font: Not Bold

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

#### **BACKGROUND**

In 2008 over two million people in the United States were injured as the result of interpersonal violence.[1] 19 200 died as a result; this mortality rate is more than thirteen times the number of American 'War on Terror' casualties that same year.[2 3] While medical and criminal perspectives tend to dominate the public discourse on violent injury, incidents have social, economic, political, and personal repercussions.[4] For example, the total cost of violence in the USA is estimated to be nearly 10% of the gross domestic product.[5 6] Such figures fail to include the extensive psychological and emotional impacts of victimisation.[7] This multifaceted burden of violent injury presents a significant challenge to public health policymakers and practitioners. To contribute to injury prevention and control efforts, we employ a spatial epidemiology approach that emphasises the role of urban geographies in this multivariate temporal analysis of violent injury.

Within cities, violent injury incidence has been shown to vary between neighbourhoods. For example, Brantingham and Brantingham point to dense, elevated violence rates along the edges of entertainment districts, contrasting low rates in larger, nearby residential areas.[8] In order to identify high-risk urban areas (hotspots), many researchers use geographic information systems (GIS).[9-11] GIS technologies and methods constitute a powerful toolset for analysing spatial data, and have been pivotal in identifying the links between violent injury and features of social and physical environments.[9 12 13]

Research has demonstrated that injury is strongly correlated in space-time, and is related to features of the social and physical urban environments.[12 14-16] These relationships can be further refined by including a temporal variable. Cusimano et al. identified peaks in violent injury incidence at night and early morning, tending to cluster around alcohol-serving establishments, low-income housing, and

homeless shelters.[9 10 17-21] This work differs in that we expand our analysis to include victim characteristics, the weapon of injury, and a measure of social deprivation.

deprivation level of the neighbourhood where the incident took place.

Social structure and deprivation are shown to be correlated with violent injury.[16] Socioeconomic indicators and indices (e.g.: income inequality; employment status) tend to be strong predictors of injury risk.[22 23] We examine this relationship using a deprivation index developed by Bell, et al.[24] In this work, we focus on severe trauma as the result of interpersonal violence in Vancouver, Canada. Specifically, we investigate how these incidents cluster in space-time, and examine how these patterns are reflected in the nature of the victim, the injury, the physical environment, and the socioeconomic

#### **DATA AND METHODS**

Injury data were acquired from the British Columbia Trauma Registry comprising the location, date, time, and cause of every injury that was treated in a trauma centre in the Metro Vancouver area between 2001 and 2008, inclusive. Due to data recording protocols, confidentiality regulations, and to eliminate minor incidents, Oonly casesinjuries with an injury severity score (ISS; see Baker et al. 1974) greater than 15 were included.[25] As such, only severe injuries and injuries to multiple body parts were included; cases where the victim expires prior to arrival, sports injuries, and self-inflicted injuries were excluded. Cases where the patient had expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre were not recorded in the trauma registry and are therefore excluded from this analysis.

The data were classified into seven injury mechanisms: gunshot wound; sharp object trauma; blunt object trauma; bodily force (e.g., punch); and other assault. 575 incidents were mapped, each

represented as a point in space and time. In order to determine whether an incident took place during day or night, civil dawn and civil dusk were calculated for every day in the data period.

The following variables were used in this analysis: injury location (mapped); victim age; victim sex; date and time of incident; and mechanism of injury. Pearson's chi-squared test was used to determine the independence of variables against day/night, and the data were graphed in relation to time of day, day-night contrast, time of year, and day of the week. These relationships were mapped in order to identify multivariate clusters (e.g., night time gunshot injuries).

With The data were imported into geographic information systems and kernel density estimation was used to produce hotspot maps to contrast male and female hotspots. As these data constitute a population, kernel density estimation was selected as a non-inferential interpolation method for visualising the spatial distribution of cases. Natural breaks (Jenks' algorithm) was selected to identify areas of high concentration, and the cut-off was manually adjusted to obscure several cases' locations. In the interest of patient confidentiality, the bandwidth parameter is withheld to prevent reverse calculation. This method was selected not for its statistical robustness, rather, to produce a useful visualisation of the spatial distribution of the original data. To identify spatial-temporal hotspots, the spatial scan statistic with a space-time permutation model was used. [26-28] In the interest of patient confidentiality, the kernel density bandwidth parameter and spatial scan window size are withheld to prevent reverse-calculation.

In order to explore the relationship between violent injury hotspots and socioeconomic deprivation, we used the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index (VANDIX), constructed by Bell, et al.[24]

VANDIX is a single quantitative metric constructed from numerous census variables in consultation with regional health specialists. The deprivation score for every census dissemination area was calculated,

and classified into quintiles, and the violent injury locations were queried in GIS to identify the proportion within each deprivation quintile.

## **FINDINGS**

The violent injury data comprise 518 male and 57 female victims. This disparity corresponds with findings in the literature.[14] However, trauma data are certainly skewed due to the underreporting of domestic violence.[29] When categorised by day/night, we found that 75% of male injuries occurred at night, compared to 56% of female injuries; the association between victim sex and day/night was significant (Chi squared p=0.002). Figure 1 displays the temporal distribution.

\*figure 1

\*figure 2

One in every three injuries in this dataset was caused by a firearm. However, weapon choice and time/location do not significantly correlate, matching findings in the literature.[30] Figure 2 divides each mechanism of injury into day/night incidence. The difference of day/night ratios suggests that the severity of a mechanism is related to its proportional daytime prevalence. That is, an offender may feel more secure using a firearm under the cover of darkness, whereas the distinction is less consequential if throwing a punch. Note that because these data only include severe trauma cases, blunt object and bodily force injuries are underrepresented.

\*figure 3

In figure 3, incidents are categorised by day of the week. Each night is defined as continuous until the following dawn; that is, Saturday night continues until sunrise on Sunday. This is done in order to

account for alcohol consumption initiated in the evening and prolonged through the night. This weekend spike is to be expected, but note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

Figure 4, below, displays violent injury hotspots in the Metro Vancouver area. This pattern is similar to the distribution of low-income, high-density housing in the region. The most prominent hotspot (bright red) occurs in the Downtown Eastside, and some minor hotspots are found in commercial zones of the outer suburbs. The linear trend from Downtown to New Westminster features a series of minor hotspots which occur close to Skytrain stations (light rail transit) and a major shopping centre.

\*figure 4

Also evident are spatial differences in female (red) and male (blue) victim hotspots. While the sample size for females is comparatively small, when mapped, some geographic differences are notable. The club district, Commercial Drive, and the stadium feature only male victims, while victims in Chinatown are all female.

The circles represent cluster locations detected using the space-time permutation model of the spatial scan statistic, with the time window in which the cluster occurs. The nightclub district, the Downtown Eastside, and Commercial Drive contain nighttime hotspots that are particularly active on Friday and Saturday nights. These neighbourhoods have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments that feature live music and late closing times. The stadium and arena also appears as a hotspot. That this occurs during the night suggests that these cases may also be attributed to the high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments surrounding, and including, the stadium.

the majority of incidents occur after a match, further evidence towards the significance of alcohol in interpersonal violence.

When violent injury locations were compared to the Vancouver Area Neighbourhood Deprivation Index [24] we found that 77% of all severe violent injuries occurred within neighbourhoods in these two most deprived quintiles. There are two notable exceptions: the club district and Metrotown. While the cluster in the club district is explained by the high night\_time incidence in proximity to alcohol-serving establishments, the case in Metrotown is more complex and better explained by features of the built urban environment.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The findings point towards several patterns of violent injury embedded in neighbourhood characteristics. To illustrate, we thematically examine three neighbourhoods identified in the maps above: Metrotown; the Downtown Eastside; and the nightclub district/stadium.

#### Metrotown: the built environment

Metrotown is a high-density commercial/industrial neighbourhood with a large shopping centre, cinema, and major transit node at its core. These features are encircled by upscale, high-density housing, primarily condominium towers. Similar to the club district, ‡this neighbourhood does not have low incomes, high unemployment, or a high deprivation index. It does not, †however, have a high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments. Metrotown's appearance as a violent injury hotspot in this study may be explained by this regional shopping centre and major transit node is surrounded by high density housing; all the built environment. Shopping centres, transit nodes, and high-density commercial development has three of these urban features have been linked to violent injury in the literature. [21 29 31 32] While the median victim age city-wide is 30, the Metrotown injury cluster has a median age of 25. This may be explained by the presence of the shopping centre and cinema complex, both popular youth recreation sites. The Metrotown case underscores is the role of the built

environment,[8 18] a powerful driver of violent injury that socioeconomic and demographic indicators of a neighbourhood's residents fail to represent.

Conversely, features of the built environment perceived as signs of urban decay have been linked to violent behaviours. Examples include adult businesses, [29] abandoned buildings, [20] and homeless shelters. [21 31] While these features are not found in Metrotown, they exist in high concentration in the Downtown Eastside.

#### Downtown Eastside, socioeconomic deprivation

With an average income of \$6 282 (before government subsidy), Vancouver's Downtown Eastside has over twice the unemployment rate of Vancouver and less than half the educational attainment.[33] These figures do not account for the substantial homeless population.[34]\_The Downtown Eastside is adjacent to the central business district, marking a stark economic divide; Wilkinson and Pickett demonstrate the extent to which inequality is a strong driver of interpersonal violence and viceversa.[23] This strong association between socioeconomic deprivation and violent injury incidence coincides with similar findings in the literature.[20 21]

The median age of victims in the Downtown Eastside is 38, eight years older than that of victims city-wide. This corresponds with the high number of elderly poor who reside in the area, and the near-absence of children. Open drug and alcohol consumption are endemic, both of which have been shown in the literature to correlate with an elevated risk of experiencing violent trauma. [35] There is also an extremely high number of female victims relative to the rest of the study area. Given the high proportion of First Nations population in the Downtown Eastside, relative to the remainder of the study area, this may be explained by the high rates of violence experienced by First Nations women, compared to the general population. [36 37] Research has shown that there is a high probability of experiencing violent trauma among female drug users. [37] The onlysole female-only hotspot bordered the Downtown

Eastside, in Chinatown. While this finding certainly merits further examination, an insufficient number of observations precludes the inference that this is a significant effect. The Chinatown corridor, extending south from the Downtown Eastside, runs along a main street with heavy pedestrian traffic. As such, the observed female-only hotspot may rather be a 'spilloverspill over' from the Downtown Eastside, reflecting the high proportion of female victims in that area. In addition, it should be noted that Chinatown hosts a large number of First Nations residents (formal and informal). Future research may examine each case independently to determine whether it is a similar pattern of injury. This may be explained by This finding is not explained in the literature, suggesting a need for further research.

### Club District and Stadium, alcohol consumption

The links between alcohol consumption and interpersonal violence are well-established in the literature. [9 10 18 20 30 38 39]—A 2012 study of violent trauma reports from fourteen countries found that over 60% of cases were related to alcohol consumption. [40]—A 1985 study found that 59% of trauma patients had alcohol in their blood. Accordingly, Mmany of the incidents in our data occurred at public binge drinking sites; Brantingham and Brantingham found a similar cluster using police data. [8] Another cluster was found near the stadium/arena, also a space of high alcohol consumption The stadium also appeared as a hotspot, which may point towards the high concentration of alcohol-serving establishments along its perimeter; other studies have found sports stadiums to be spaces of high alcohol consumption and violence. [41 42]—While the spatial association between alcohol availability and violent trauma was anticipated, the degree to which this was observed was beyond expectation; spaces of excess alcohol consumption appear to be the most prevalent predictor.

#### IMPLICATIONS FOR PREVENTION AND CONTROL

adult health outcomes.

To examine these findings within an injury prevention and control context, we consider potential interventions actions within education, regulation, the built environment, and injury surveillance, recommending a comprehensive comparative study of their effectiveness in other settings.

Physicians occupy a valuable position to discuss violence with patients and refer them to community and health resources Anderson and Taliaferro argue that physicians can be key educators in violence prevention and advocacy. [43] A 1995 study Hedges et al. (1995) found that nearly half of all repeat trauma patients were injured by the same mechanism as caused their first visit. [44] As such, point-of-care interventions may prove useful in behaviour modification. Physicians occupy a valuable position to discuss violence with patients and refer them to community and health resources. However, upstream education based interventions hold strong potential; in this case, information posters could be placed in nightclub washrooms, a technique used in anti-smoking campaigns. [45] However, offender-targeted campaigns have been shown in the literature to have minimal effect on offender opinions or behaviours, and management at alcohol-serving establishments may be reluctant to engage in campaigns that may

The most prominent temporal spike in violent injury found in ourthis analysis data points towards the 'closing-time' debate. There is strong evidence that 'last call' policy can reduce excessive consumption and resulting harms-[1 48 49], although the Licensing Act 2003, which allowed for longer serving hours in England and Wales, appeared to have no significant effect.[50] However, this Standardised closing times may also-contribute to increasingly rapid drinking as last call approaches, leading to higher peak levels of intoxication. One policy alternative is the 'staggered closing' strategy, where venues may

discourage consumption. [46 47] More broadly, tConversely, the WHO recommends campaigns targeting

the cultural norms that promote violence, with an emphasis on youth education. [48] Such programmes

would require broader policy support and an acknowledgement of the 'lag effect' of youth education on

purchase liquor licenses priced along a range of closing times. This is intended to prevent the closing time exodus and the resulting disorder from high concentrations of intoxicated patrons at closing time.

The WHO recommends strategic pricing to reduce alcohol-related harms, which has been shown both in England [51] and British Columbia [52] to be an effective policy tool for reducing negative health outcomes. [48]

At the time of writing, the gun control debate has returned to the spotlight in the USA.[48] There were 192 gunshot trauma cases in this dataset, more than any other mechanism. However, the exclusion of minor injuries in our dataset inflates the proportion of severe- trauma, limiting any inferenceability. The WHO global report on violence prevention points towards of widespread weapons availability, pointing towards background checks, safe storage regulations, and more restrictive regulation. [48] While Canada has relatively strong firearms legislation, the majority of illegal firearms in the Metro Vancouver region are smuggled from the USA or overseas. [53] Improved border checks are therefore a potential avenue for intervention. A comparative study should be conducted in a similar city in the USA, such as Seattle, and the findings compared to explore weapons regulation as a factor.

While increased police presence in hotspots is often recommended. [31 32 54] Goldstein proposes problem-oriented policing as a method that emphasises the role of the police officer to identify underlying drivers of crime, build relationships with the citizenry, and acknowledge the limits of the criminal justice system to address problems. [55] This approach has been tested in the field with promising results, [29 31] including 'community policing' in Vancouver.

Planning and modification of the built environment provide another direction through which violent trauma can be prevented.[31] Stevenson describes urban violence with the enclosure/encounter models.[15] A crowded bar is an example of a built enclosure, while the crowded street at closing time

causes numerous encounters, both of which can contribute to interpersonal violence. Modifications could include improved nightclub design and wider sidewalks.

Effective injury surveillance programmes can facilitate goal-tracking; [43] social web technologies are a promising asset in this regard, particularly in deprived urban areas where mobile phone usage is rapidly growing. [56] High-quality trauma data were vital in this and other studies. Research and subsequent interventions would benefit from the implementation of a broad violence surveillance programme that combines data from police, medical, schools, community resources (such as women's shelters), legal records, and other sources.

In this study, we found several distinct patterns of violent injury with varying characteristics between neighbourhoods. As such, surveillance and intervention programmes should be custom-designed for individual neighbourhoods. [31 55] While education, regulation, the built environment, and surveillance programmes hold strong potential to reduce violent injury in urban space, successes based on policing and accessible medical services have been quantitatively demonstrated. [31 54] With the ultimate aim of injury control, a successful campaign will encompass a range of strategies to confront the issue upstream (e.g., liquor policy and education) and downstream (e.g., policing and ample ambulatory resources).

This study is limited by the exclusion of cases with a severity score below 15; as a result, these findings are applicable only to severe trauma. Further, the inclusion of patients who expired prior to arrival at a trauma centre may have an impact on the distribution of hotspots. Their exclusion may have led to an underrepresentation of gang-related violence, which caused numerous deaths during the study period. Future spatial analyses of violent trauma may benefit from the integration of multiple data sources to include a broader range of severity and an extended temporal period.

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2013-003642 on 20 February 2014. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on April 9, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

In this paper, we identified spatial-temporal patterns of violent trauma in Vancouver, Canada, described the neighbourhood-specific contexts within which the examined hotspots are found, and discussed some potential intervention strategies. While this analysis was limited to severe trauma in one city, the findings and implications may prove useful for enriching research efforts in other urban places.

However, further research should examine ways to refine the GIS-based methods used herein, conduct more place-specific contextual investigation, and examine the efficacy of intervention strategies in other study areas.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors wish to acknowledge the contributions of the British Columbia Trauma Registry, particularly Tracey Taulu and Nasira Lakha. Also acknowledged is the generous support of GEOIDE funding (project SII-54) that made this research possible. Nadine Schuurman was funded by a Scholar Award from the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research.

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### CONTRIBUTORSHIP STATEMENT

Blake Byron Walker, lead author, conducted the analysis, interpreted the findings, and drafted the manuscript; he is acting as corresponding author and guarantor. Nadine Schuurman, second author, managed the data agreements, interpreted the findings, and edited the manuscript. S. Morad Hameed, third author, managed the data agreements and reviewed the manuscript.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. WISQARS nonfatal injury reports (Dataset). 2010.
- 2 United States Department of Defense. Active duty military deaths by year and manner. Washington, DC2011.
- 3 World Health Organization. Disease and injury country estimates, 2008. In: (Dataset), editor. Geneva, Switzerland2011.
- 4 Polinder S, Haagsma J, Lyons R, Gabbe B, Ameratunga S, Cryer C, et al. Measuring the population burden of fatal and nonfatal injury. Epidemiol Rev. 2012;34:17-31.
- 5 World Health Organization. The economic dimensions of interpersonal violence. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization2004.
- 6 Smartrisk. The economic burden of injury in Canada. Toronto: Smartrisk2009.
- 7 Papachristos A, Braga A, Hureau D. Social networks and the risk of gunshot injury. J Urban Health. 2012;89(6):992-1003.
- 8 Brantingham P, Brantingham P. Criminality of place: crime generators and crime attractors. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research. 1995;3(3):5-26.
- 9 Gorman D, Speer P, Gruenewald P, Labouvie E. Spatial dynamics of alcohol availability, neighborhood structure and violent crime. J Stud Alcohol. 2001;62(5):628-37.
- 10 Livingston M. Alcohol outlet density and assault: a spatial analysis. Addiction. 2008;103(4):619-28.
- 11 Bell N, Schuurman N. GIS and injury prevention and control: history, challenges, and opportunities. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2010;7(3):1002-17.
- 12 Walker BB, Schuurman N. Environmental correlates with violent injury. Geomatica. 2012;66(4):103-11.
- 13 Nelson A, Bromley R, Thomas C. Identifying micro-spatial and temporal patterns of violent crime and disorder in the British city centre. Applied Geography. 2001;21(3):249-74.
- 14 Murray S. Global injury and violence. Can Med Assoc J. 2006;174(5):620-1.
- 15 Stevenson M. Building safer environments: injury, safety, and our surroundings. Inj Prev. 2006;12:1-2.
- 16 Sparks C. Violent crime in San Antonio, Texas: an application of spatial epidemiological methods. Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology. 2011;2(4):301-9.
- 17 Bellis M, Hughes K, Hughes S. Alcohol and interpersonal violence: policy briefing. Geneva: World Health Organization 2005.
- 18 Branas C, Elliot M, Richmond T, Culhane D, Wiebe D. Alcohol consumption, alcohol outlets, and the risk of being assaulted with a gun. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research. 2009;33(5):906-15.
- 19 Cunradi C, Mair C, Ponicki W, Remer L. Alcohol outlets, neighbourhood characteristics, and intimate partner violence: ecological analysis of a California city. J Urban Health. 2011;88(2):191-200.
- 20 Gruenewald P, Remer L. Changes in outlet densities affects violence rates. Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research. 2006;30(7):1184-93.
- 21 Cusimano M, Marshall S, Rinner C, Jiang D, Chipman M. Patterns of urban violent injury: a spatio-temporal analysis. PLoS ONE. 2010;5(1):1-9.
- 22 Bell N, Schuurman N, Hameed SM. A multilevel analysis of the socio-spatial pattern of assault injuries in Greater Vancouver, British Columbia. Can J Public Health. 2009;100(1):73-7.
- 23 Wilkinson R, Pickett K. The Spirit Level: Why Equality is Better for Everyone. Toronto, Canada: Penguin; 2009.

- 24 Bell N, Schuurman N, Oliver L, Hayes M. Towards the construction of place-specific measures of deprivation: a case study from the Vancouver metropolitan area. The Canadian Geographer. 2007;51(4):444-61.
- 25 Baker S, O'Neill B, Haddon W, Long W. The injury severity score: a method for describing patients with multiple injuries and evaluating emergency care. The Journal of Trauma. 1974;14:187-96.
- 26 Kulldorff M, Heffernan R, Hartman J, Assunção R, Mastashari F. A space-time permutation scan statistic for the early detection of disease outbreaks. PLoS Med. 2005;2:216-24.
- 27 Kulldorff M, Information Management Services Inc. SaTScan v8.0: Software for the spatial and space-time scan statistics. 2009.
- 28 Schuurman N, Cinnamon J, Crooks VA, Hameed SM. Pedestrian injury and the built environment: an environmental scan of hotspots. BMC Public Health. 2009;9:233.
- 29 Taylor B, Koper C, Woods D. A randomized controlled trial of different policing strategies at hot spots of violent crime. Journal of Experimental Criminology. 2011;7(2):149-81.
- 30 Erickson P, Butters J, Cousineau M-M, Harrison L, Korf D, D, Alcohol and Violence International. Girls and weapons: an international study of the perpetration of violence. J Urban Health. 2006;83(5):788-801.
- 31 Braga A, Weisburd D, Waring E, Mazerolle L, Spelman W, Gajewski F. Problem-oriented policing in violent crime place: a randomized controlled experiment. Criminology. 1999;37(3):541-80.
- 32 Piza E, Kennedy L, Caplan J. Risk Clusters, Hotspots, and Spatial Intelligence: Risk Terrain Modeling as an Algorithm for Police Resource Allocation Strategies. Newark: Rutgers Center on Public Security2010.
- 33 Statistics Canada. Census of Population. Ottawa2006.
- 34 Roe G. Fixed in place: Vancouver's Downtown Eastside and the community of clients. BC Studies. 2009;164:75-101.
- 35 Korcha R, Cherpitel C, Witbrodt J, Borges G, Hejazi-Bazargan S, Bond J, et al. Violence-related injury and gender: the role of alcohol and alcohol combined with drugs. Drug Alcohol Rev. 2014;33(1):43-50.
- 36 Farley M, Lynne J, Cotton A. Prostitution in Vancouver: violence and the colonization of First Nations women. Transcultural Psychiatry. 2005;42(2):242-71.
- 37 Brownridge D. Male partner violence against Aboriginal women in Canada: an empirical analysis. J Interpers Violence. 2003;18(1):63-83.
- 38 Zhu L, Gorman D, Horel S. Alcohol Outlet Density and Violence: A Geospatial Analysis. Alcohol Alcohol. 2004;39(4):369-75.
- 39 Cunningham R, Walton M, Maio R, Blow F, Weber J, Mirel L. Violence and substance use among an injured emergency department population. Acad Emerg Med. 2003:10(7):764-75.
- 40 Cherpitel C, Ye Y, Bond J, Room R, Borges G. Attribution of alcohol to violence-related injury: self and other's drinking in the event. J Stud Alcohol Drugs. 2012;73(2):277-84.
- 41 Roberts J, Benjamin C. Spectator violence in sports: a North American perspective. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research. 2000;8(2):163-81.
- 42 Sànchez À, Krafty R, Puyana J, Gutiérrez M. Football events and thier association with interpersonal violence deaths. Panamerican Journal of Trauma, Critical Care, and Emergency Surgery. 2013;2(1):26-32. 43 Anderson R, Taliaferro E. Injury prevention and control. The Journal of Emergency Medicine. 1998;16(3):487-98.
- 44 Hedges B, Dimsdale J, Hoyt D, Berry C, Leitz K. Repeat trauma patients, San Diego County. Am J Public Health. 1995;85:1008-10.
- 45 Prothrow-Stith D. The epidemic of violence and its impact on the health care system. Henry Ford Hosp Med J. 1990;38:175-7.
- 46 Flexon J, Guerette R. Differential effects of an offender-focused crime prevention media campaign. Journal of Criminal Justice. 2009;37(6):608-16.

- 47 Hawkins N, Sanson-Fisher R, Shakeshaft A, Webb G. Differences in licensee, police and public opinions regarding interventions to reduce alcohol-related harm associated with licensed premises. Aust N Z J Public Health. 2009;33(3):296.
- $48\,$  World Health Organization. Violence Prevention: the Evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization 2010.

- 49 Hahn R, Kuzara J, Elder R, Brewer R, Chattopadhyay S, Fielding J, et al. Effectiveness of policies restricting hours of alcohol sales in preventing excessive alcohol consumption and related harms. Am J Prev Med. 2010;39(6):590-604.
- 50 Hough M, Hunter G. The 2003 Licensing Act's impact on crime and disorder: an evaluation. Criminology and Criminal Justice. 2008;8(3):239-60.
- 51 Purshouse RC, Meier PS, Brennan A, Taylor KB, Rafia R. Estimated effect of alcohol pricing policies on health and health economic outcomes in England: an epidemiological model. The Lancet.375(9723):1355-64.
- 52 Stockwell T. Does minimum pricing reduce alcohol consumption? The experience of a Canadian province. Addiction. 2012;107(5):912-20.
- 53 Ball D. American guns, Canadian deaths. Vancouver2012 [updated Jan. 4, 2012]; Available from: <a href="http://www.vancouverobserver.com/politics/investigations/2012/01/04/american-guns-canadian-deaths">http://www.vancouverobserver.com/politics/investigations/2012/01/04/american-guns-canadian-deaths</a>.
- 54 Warburton A, Shepherd J. Tackling alcohol related violence in city centres: effect of emergency medicine and police intervention. Emerg Med J. 2006;23(1):12-7.
- 55 Goldstein H. Imporving policing: a problem-oriented approach. Crime and Delinquency. 1979;25:236-58.
- 56 Cinnamon J, Schuurman N. Injury surveillance in low-resource settings using Geospatial and Social Web technologies. International Journal of Health Geographics. 2010;9(25).

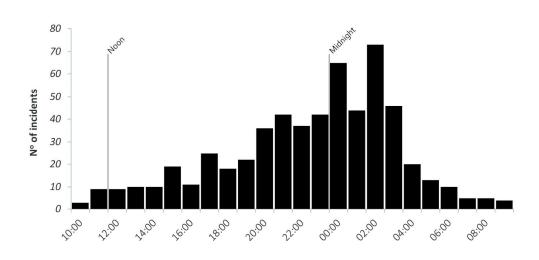
## FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

Figure 2: Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force.

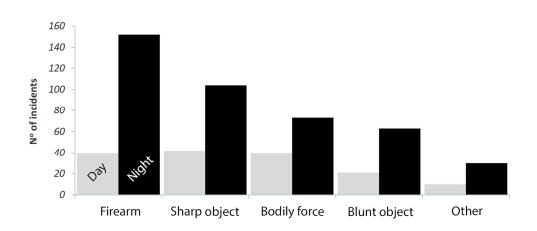
Figure 3: Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district.

Figure 4: Injury hotspots by sub-category. Note that the downtown eastside is an injury hotspot regardless of the breakdown of victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. Commercial Drive) as are nighttime injuries. Note also the clustering of cases in the Downtown Eastside, a neighbourhood in the top quintile of socioeconomic deprivation.



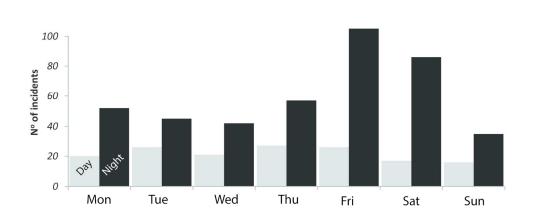
Temporal distribution of violent injuries through 24-hour period. 73% of incidents took place at night. Note the bimodal peaks at midnight and 2 am. These peaks clustered spatially within the nightclub district (23:00-03:00) and the Downtown Eastside (00:00-04:00). The peak between 02:00 and 03:00 coincides with required bar closing times.

160x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)



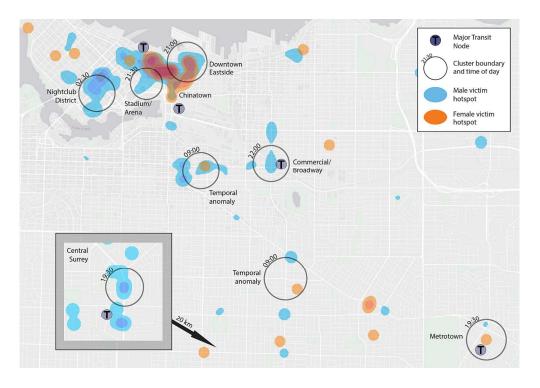
Day/night comparison of violent injury counts by mechanism of injury. All injuries are more prevalent at night while firearms and injuries from sharp objects (e.g. knives) are much more prevalent. The increase between day and night incidence of firearm injury is 380%, compared to 247% for sharp object and only 183% for bodily force. n (300).

163x75mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Day/night contrast of violent injury counts by day of week. There is a clear spike on Friday and Saturday nights with daytime figures remaining relatively constant throughout the week. Friday night and Saturday night account for one-third of all injuries. While the median age for all injuries in the dataset is 30, it drops to 25 on Friday and Saturday nights. This spike clusters around the nightclub district. Note the 'hangover effect': relative peace on Saturday and Sunday during daylight hours.

162x80mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Spatial-temporal injury clusters and male/female hotspots. The majority of clusters occur in the late evening. Statistically, the club district was the strongest cluster in space-time, while the Downtown Eastside has the greatest number of injuries throughout the day and is the most severe hotspot for both male and female victims. However, male victims of violent injury are spread along other corridors (e.g. north and west from the Commercial/Broadway cluster).