

California State University, San Bernardino

**CSUSB ScholarWorks**

---

Theses Digitization Project

John M. Pfau Library

---

2008

## **Gang membership, drug sales, violence, and guns**

Jose Fabian Gonzalez Dominquez

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project>



Part of the [Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons](#)

---

### **Recommended Citation**

Gonzalez Dominquez, Jose Fabian, "Gang membership, drug sales, violence, and guns" (2008). *Theses Digitization Project*. 3358.

<https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project/3358>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the John M. Pfau Library at CSUSB ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses Digitization Project by an authorized administrator of CSUSB ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@csusb.edu](mailto:scholarworks@csusb.edu).

GANG MEMBERSHIP, DRUG SALES, VIOLENCE, AND GUNS

---

A Thesis  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

---

In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Arts  
in  
Criminal Justice

---

by  
Jose Fabian Gonzalez Dominguez

March 2008

GANG MEMBERSHIP, DRUG SALES, VIOLENCE, AND GUNS

---

A Thesis  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

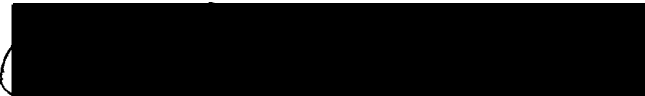
---

by


Jose Fabian Gonzalez Dominguez

March 2008

Approved by:

  
Pamela Schram, Chair, Criminal Justice

3/14/08  
Date

  
Stéphén Tibbetts

  
Larry Gaines

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine three factors relating to drug arrests using secondary data analysis. First, ethnic characteristics of a dealer were analyzed according to the location from where they sold their product. There are five drugs that were analyzed: marijuana, heroin, cocaine, PCP, and 'other'. Next, possible factors associated with a police officer using force at the time of a drug arrest were also analyzed. Finally, factors associated with a gun being present at the time of a drug arrest were also analyzed.

There were a few variables associated with being present at the time of an arrest for the three research questions. Guns were found most by patrol officers, on African-Americans, and on those caught selling cocaine. Officer violence was present predominantly with African Americans, with suspects arrested on a cocaine charge, and with arrests originating from a vehicle. In response to the final research question, each ethnic group was arrested from similar locations. This study ends by discussing the study's limitations, policy implications, and future research suggestions.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I'd like to thank God for giving me life and the opportunity to get a Masters degree. I'd also like to thank my wonderful mother, Socorro Dominguez, because without her endless support, none of my accomplishments would have been possible. I thank her for always being there for me, for her motivation, and for her way of always making me laugh and brightening up my day regardless of whether things were good or bad. Thank you also for all the trips you made to Immaculate Heart of Mary to pray for me, for the completion of my thesis, and for my well being. Because of her, I am where I am now.

I'd also like to thank my girlfriend, Mireya Ruiz, for motivating me to keep on going when times got rough. I thank her also for her non-stop advice and suggestions on how to improve my thesis. Thank you Miry!

I thank my best friend, Isaac Raymondi, for always pushing me to go the extra mile on everything I've done and for understanding that I couldn't go out on weekends because of homework. Now that I am done, it is time to go out!

Without the help and support of Dr. Schram, Dr. Tibbetts, and Dr. Gaines, this would not have been possible and I thank each one for their endless support, editing, suggestions, and help that they gave me through this process. Thank you.

I also would like to thank Sgt. Fields and Officer Paige from the CSUSB Police Department for their advice and suggestions regarding this thesis. Their expertise in the topic of gangs and drug dealing helped me out a lot in classes and in my thesis. Thank you guys!

Last but not least, I'd like to thank my uncle Joaquín Dominguez, my grandmother Carmen Diaz Guzman, and my grandfather Pedro Dominguez Vega for their support, their 'consejos', and for always believing in me.

I also would like to thank all those who I did not mention. Thank you guys, I remembered you as well.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT . . . . .	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	iv
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	ix
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
The Present Study . . . . .	1
Variables . . . . .	3
Research Questions . . . . .	3
Strengths . . . . .	3
Limitations . . . . .	4
Analysis . . . . .	4
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Gang Definitions . . . . .	6
Current Statistics on Gangs . . . . .	7
Makeup of Gangs and Dealers . . . . .	9
Race . . . . .	9
Minority Arrest Trends . . . . .	10
Sentencing Policies . . . . .	11
Types of Drugs . . . . .	12
Marijuana . . . . .	12
Heroin . . . . .	13
Cocaine . . . . .	13

Phencyclidine. . . . .	14
Where Are Drugs Being Sold? . . . . .	15
Drugs Sold in Private Locations . . . . .	15
African-Americans and Latinos . . . . .	16
Gang Violence . . . . .	17
Postindustrial Gang Violence . . . . .	17
Systemic Gang Violence . . . . .	18
Police Use of Force . . . . .	19
Suspect Characteristics . . . . .	20
Officer Characteristics . . . . .	22
Drug Dealers and Guns . . . . .	23
Federal Inmates and Gun Involvement . . . . .	23
Legal Issues . . . . .	24
California Gang Enhancement . . . . .	24
Future Research . . . . .	25
Conclusion . . . . .	26

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Existing Database . . . . .	28
Sample . . . . .	29
Data Collection . . . . .	29
Variables . . . . .	30
Location . . . . .	30
Operationalization of Terms . . . . .	30



The Present Study . . . . .	32
Variables to be Examined . . . . .	32
Research Questions . . . . .	33
Strengths and Limitations . . . . .	34
Strengths . . . . .	34
Limitations . . . . .	35
Conclusion . . . . .	35
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS . . . . .	38
Research Question One . . . . .	43
Research Question Two . . . . .	48
Research Question Three . . . . .	52
African American Suspects . . . . .	53
Hispanic Suspects. . . . .	54
White and Other Suspects . . . . .	56
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION . . . . .	58
Policy Implications . . . . .	60
Limitations and Future Research Suggestions . . . . .	61
Future Research Suggestions . . . . .	62
APPENDIX A: CALIFORNIA HEALTH AND SAFETY CODES . . . . .	64
APPENDIX B: VARIABLES USED . . . . .	67
REFERENCES . . . . .	71

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Summary Background Information . . . . .	42
Table 2. Presence of Guns by Officer Assignment . . . . .	45
Table 3. Presence of Guns by Drug Charge . . . . .	45
Table 4. Gun Presence by Ethnicity . . . . .	47
Table 5. Gun Presence by Location . . . . .	48
Table 6. Officer Violence by Drug Charge . . . . .	49
Table 7. Officer Violence by Ethnicity . . . . .	50
Table 8. Officer Violence by Location . . . . .	51
Table 9. African-American Arrests by Location . . . . .	53
Table 10. Hispanic Arrests by Location . . . . .	55
Table 11. White Arrests by Location . . . . .	56

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Gun Presence by Prior Information . . . . . 46

Figure 2. Officer Violence by Ethnicity . . . . . 50

Figure 3. Officer Violence by Location . . . . . 52

Figure 4. African American Arrests by Location . . . . . 54

Figure 5. Hispanic Arrests by Location . . . . . 55

Figure 6. White/Other Arrests by Location . . . . . 57

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

Gang members and drug dealing is often the hot topic on the nightly news. Gang membership is a phenomenon that is debated often in and out of the academia circles. The problem with the gang phenomenon is that not everyone has the same view about gangs. To this day, defining 'gangs' remains an open question for social scientists and practitioners (Salagaev, 2005). Drugs are also a topic that seems to have no end. The drugs mentioned in most news reports are marijuana, cocaine, heroin, methamphetamine, 'pcp' and ecstasy.

The focus of this study is to analyze relationships between gang membership and drug sales. Gun possession at the time of arrest is another factor examined in this study.

#### The Present Study

The present study was conducted using secondary data analysis. Data were collected from the Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) website in SPSS format. The data were originally collected

by Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham, and their study is titled 'Street Gangs and Drug Sales in Pasadena and Pomona, California, 1989-1991' (Maxson, Klein, & Cunningham, 1992). The purpose of the original study was to explore connections between street gangs and drug distribution. The research also examined the magnitude of gang involvement in cocaine and other drug sales in both cities, compared characteristics of gang-involved drug sale incidents with those without gang involvement, assessed the generalizability of findings on cocaine to other drugs, and translated the implications of research findings into law enforcement strategies.

There were several key findings in their study. One finding was that gang members were arrested in 27% of the cocaine related incidents. Another finding was that rock and crack forms of cocaine were most often found in gang cases. Cases with gang members were most likely to include young African American males. The presence of identified gang members in arrests for sales other than cocaine was very low (less than 12 percent).

Hispanics were arrested the most in non-cocaine incidents. The results of the original study suggest that there should be a reconsideration of gang specialization in

narcotics enforcement units (Maxson, Klein, & Cunningham, 1992). The funding agency for the existing database was the United States Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

### Variables

There were a total of 109 variables in the existing database, all of which were in the incident level data file. There were 24 different variables analyzed in the present study.

### Research Questions

The focus of the current study is the examination of several relationships that have not yet been made clear in the literature. The first research question is: What factors are associated with a gun being present at the time of an arrest? The second research question is: Are drug dealers likely to sell their product from different locations according to their ethnic background? The third research question is: What factors are associated with police officers using violence at the time of an arrest?

### Strengths

The data have 654 cases with several variables. The advantage of using the secondary data analysis method is time. Should a researcher try to duplicate and collect the

same data that Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham (1992) collected, it would be very time consuming.

### Limitations

There are a couple limitations associated with using the existing database. One limitation is that it cannot be generalized. The data were collected from two cities in Southern California, and the results of the proposed study can only be applied to those cities. Another limitation is that the data provide charge for arrestees and does not go into further detail such as how involved that person was with drugs. More drug-related data would have provided a better understanding of the drug dealing phenomena. The final limitation is that the data were over 15 years old. Drug dealing trends could have changed since the original study.

### Analysis

There were seven factors associated with guns being present at the time of the drug arrest. Guns were most likely to be found when an officer from the patrol division made the arrest, when cash was taken for evidence, when the suspect is of African American descent, and when one was arrested for a cocaine charge. There were five factors

associated with police officer violence at the time of an arrest. As with the gun presence, officers used violence the most when arresting an African American, when the arresting officer was assigned to the patrol division, when arresting someone for a cocaine charge, and when cash was taken for evidence. Officer violence was also high when an arrest originates from a vehicle. Suspects were also found to sell drugs from similar locations according to their racial/ethnic background.

The study suggests a couple policy implications. One policy implication is, for officer safety reasons, dispatchers need to send two or more officers to calls that have the possibility of a gun being present, such as drug calls.

The study also provides future research suggestions such as the need to replicate the study in order to see if drug arrest patterns have changed in both cities and elsewhere.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

To this day, defining the term 'gang' remains an open question for scientists and practitioners (Salagaev, 2005). There is little, if any, consensus as to what constitutes a gang, and who is a gang member, let alone what gangs do, either inside or outside the law (Ball & Curry, 1995; Gardner, 1993). The complexity of the conceptualization brings about the emergence of additional difficulties when it comes to working with specific adolescent and youth groups by law enforcement, civic organizations, and the state as a whole (Salagaev, 2005). The perennial problem of defining what constitutes a 'gang' is simultaneously the most necessarily pedantic exercise and the greatest hurdle to effective gang policy (Papachristos, 2005).

#### Gang Definitions

Several gang definitions have been proposed. Curry and Decker (1998) defined a gang as a social group, that uses symbols to identify themselves, engage in verbal and non-verbal communications to declare their 'gangness', have gang identified territory / turf, and participate in

crime. On the other hand, Esbensen, Winfree, He, and Taylor (2001) state that the least restrictive definition of a gang includes all youth who claim gang membership at some point in time while the most restrictive definition of a gang is for those who are current core gang members who indicate that their gang has some degree of organizational structure and whose members are involved in illegal activities. Maxson (1998), however, indicates that the terms 'wannabe,' 'associate,' 'hardcore,' and 'O.G.' reflect the changing levels of gang involvement and that the boundaries of gang membership are penetrable. Defining a gang is a tough task, and it would be beneficial if one universal definition of a gang is established and employed throughout future research.

#### Current Statistics on Gangs

Street gangs have been documented in U.S. cities throughout most of the country's history (Spergel, 1990). The nature of the gang problem in the United States can be measured through self reports and law enforcement agency reports. Though self reports are a good indicator of the number of gang members in the nation, it can have its flaws as people may give inconsistent or false responses (Babbie,

2005). Law enforcement officials have recently begun to participate in a program, the National Youth Gang Survey, which seeks to determine how many gangs are active, their characteristics, and the effect they have on our nation. The National Youth Gang Center (NYGC) conducts the survey for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, an office of the US Department of Justice (Egley, 2005). The NYGC collects data from all police departments who serve a city with a population exceeding 50,000 and randomly chose police departments whose city's population is below 50,000.

For the purposes of the National Youth Gang Survey, law enforcement officials are presented with the definition of a gang as "a group of youths or young adults in your jurisdiction that you or other responsible persons in your agency or community are willing to identify as a 'gang'" (Egley & Major, 2004). Findings of the survey indicate that cities with a small population and rural counties are least likely to report gang problems in comparison with suburban counties and cities with a large population (Egley, 2005; Egley & Major, 2004). While gangs do not seem to be a problem in small cities and rural counties, large cities are faced with a gang problem.

Even though our nation's gang membership has decreased 14 percent from 1996 to 2002, the National Youth Gang Survey found 731,500 active gang members and about 21,500 gangs in 2002 (Egley & Major, 2004). Respondents to the survey indicated a possible decline in the amount of gangs as 42% of the respondents in 2002 reported that their gang situation is 'getting worse' as compared to only 27% in 2001 (Egley & Major, 2004).

While gangs exist throughout the nation, numerous gang members can be found in the County of Los Angeles (Harris, 1994). Harris (1994) reports that there are at least 600 gangs with an estimated 100,000 gang members operating in Los Angeles County.

### Makeup of Gangs and Dealers

#### Race

The ethnic and racial compositions of gangs seem to be overrepresented by minority group members (Ruble & Turner, 2000). Overall, Hispanic and African American gangs are the most dominant gangs represented in the gang population (Conley et al, 1993). McGloin (2005) conducted 32 group interviews with 736 gang members from Northern New Jersey. The gang affiliation claimed by the participants of

McGloin's study included the Bloods, the Crips, and the Netas. The gang members in McGloin's study were all minorities. There were no Caucasians or Asians in this study. African-Americans accounted for approximately 62 percent of the participants, while Hispanics accounted for the remaining 38 percent of participants (McGloin, 2005). A study from Vancouver, Canada looked at the ethnic makeup of street gang members (Gordon, 2000). There were 128 known street gang members who participated in Gordon's study in which 85 percent of the participants were from ethnic minorities.

A drug dealer's race varies greatly depending on their location and the type of drug they sell. Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman (1990) conducted interviews with 80 former cocaine dealers who sold their product in the San Francisco area. The race most represented was Caucasian (58.8%, n=44). African-Americans were the second most represented race in the study (35%, n=28). Thus, there is substantial variation of racial composition of drug dealers by location.

#### Minority Arrest Trends

In 2002, the United States surpassed 2 million inmates incarcerated in federal and state prisons and local jails

(Harrison & Karberg, 2003). The rise in the incarceration of drug offenders has been a major factor in this rapid rise. Changes in criminal justice policies have led to significant increases in the number of arrests, convictions, and prison terms for drug offenses (Greenberg & West, 2001). Society and the criminal justice system has become more punitive when dealing with drug offenders

The especially high overrepresentation of minorities among those incarcerated for drug offenses could occur as a result of several factors: underlying offending, neighborhood enforcement targeting, arrest, prosecutorial and judicial decision making, and sentencing policy choices (Brownsberger, 2000).

### Sentencing Policies

Tonry (1995) describes a series of policy choices over the past two decades that have differentially affected minorities. Tonry (1995) states that most jurisdictions have instituted harsher sentencing policies for cocaine dealers as opposed to marijuana dealers. He further states that arrested cocaine dealers are more likely to be black than are arrested marijuana dealers. Tonry (1995) suggests that disproportionate prosecutorial / judicial decision-making are unlikely to be responsible for the

disproportionalities. Other studies (Free, 1995; Mann, 1993) found that while post-arrest racism probably does not distort incarceration rates, the effects of bias are probably modest in comparison to the effects of underlying differences in arrest rates. Blumstein (1993), however, noted that blacks are more heavily represented among the population incarcerated for drug offenses than among drug arrestees, suggesting bias in charging and sentencing. In 1993, blacks accounted for 88.3 percent of federal crack cocaine convictions but only 33.9 percent of federal drug convictions overall (United States Sentencing Commission, 1995). The type of drug has an impact on criminal justice policy making.

## Types of Drugs

### Marijuana

Marijuana is the most commonly abused illicit drug in the United States (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2007). In 2004, 14.6 million Americans age 12 and older reported to have used marijuana at least once in the month prior to being surveyed (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2007). In the last half of 2003, marijuana was reported to be the third most commonly abused drug mentioned in drug-related

hospital emergency department visits in the United States, at 12.6 percent, following cocaine (20 percent) and alcohol (48.7 percent) (Drug Abuse Warning Network, 2004).

### Heroin

Heroin is an illegal, highly addictive drug. Not only is heroin an abused drug, it is also the fastest growing in terms of abuse (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2007). Heroin is usually injected, sniffed/snorted, or smoked. Typically, a heroin abuser will inject heroin up to four times a day (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2005). Injecting heroin provides the greatest intensity and most rapid onset (7 to 8 seconds) while the effects of heroin are usually felt within 10 to 15 minutes if it is smoked or sniffed (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2005). Among students surveyed as part of the 2005 Monitoring the Future study (Johnson, O'Malley, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2005), 1.5 percent of eighth, tenth, and twelfth graders reported lifetime use of heroin.

### Cocaine

Cocaine is a powerfully addictive stimulant which directly affects the brain. Cocaine is one of the oldest known drugs and has been an abused substance for more than 100 years (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004).



Cocaine can be used in several ways: injecting, smoking, snorting, and chewing. In 2002, an estimated 1.5 million Americans were dependent or abusing cocaine (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004). Adults 18 to 25 years old have a higher rate of current cocaine use than those in any other age group. Overall, men have a higher rate of cocaine use (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004). Data show that cocaine-related emergency room visits increased 33 percent between 1995 and 2002, rising from 58 to 78 mentioned cases per 100,000 population (Drug Abuse Warning Network, 2004).

#### Phencyclidine

Phencyclidine (PCP) is a white crystalline powder that readily dissolves in water; most PCP on the street contains a number of contaminants causing the color to range from tan to brown (Drug Enforcement Administration, 2007). PCP is commonly sold as a powder or liquid and may also come in a tablet or capsule form. PCP may be snorted, smoked, injected, or swallowed (Drug Enforcement Administration, 2005). The consequences of using PCP include slurred speech, involuntary eye movements, hallucinations, amnesia, paranoia and psychoses (Drug Enforcement Administration,

2005). There were no data as to how many people are known to use PCP.

### Where Are Drugs Being Sold?

Due to the illicit nature of drug markets, information about them is not readily available (Caulkins & Pacula, 2006). Based on the literature, it is apparent that marijuana markets differ substantially from the street markets for cocaine and heroin (Bourgois, 1995).

Ethnographic data found that marijuana sellers are more likely to operate independently, sell indoors, and involve acquaintance or referral networks than street networks for cocaine and heroin (Office of National Drug Control Policy, 2002). Even though marijuana is a widely used drug, no study to date has looked carefully at the structure and characteristics of U.S. marijuana markets and the individuals who participate in them (Caulkins & Pacula, 2006).

#### Drugs Sold in Private Locations

Caulkins and Pacula (2006) analyzed the data from the National Household Survey on Drug Abuse from 2001, which had 55,561 respondents ages 12 and older. They found that marijuana was likely to be purchased from inside a home,

apartment, or dorm (53%) and that those who received marijuana for free (62%) obtained the drug from the same location (Caulkins & Pacula, 2006). These findings are different from what was found when marijuana is sold outside in public area. Only 12 percent of the respondents bought the drug outside in a public area and only 10 percent received the drug at no cost in a public area (Caulkins & Pacula, 2006).

#### African-Americans and Latinos

Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman (1990) studied several former cocaine dealers from the San Francisco Bay area who sold cocaine constantly for at least a year. The former cocaine dealers were asked several questions including where they sold their drugs. The majority of their respondents stated that they sold cocaine in private places. Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman (1990) stated that there were differences between African American and Latino sellers. They state that the majority of African Americans sold drugs on the street and would respond to customers who come on foot or in automobiles. They further state that sellers will approach a car that would slow down or stop and solicit customers. The drugs and money would be exchanged there on the street and television camera crews

often captured the transactions for the nightly news reporting (Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman, 1990).

The former Latino cocaine sellers described something different. They were less blatant. Buyers usually walked up to the sellers, and generally they would retreat to a less public area, such as a nearby shop or restaurant. Transactions rarely occur in public and Hispanic sellers tend to not approach a car to solicit customers (Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman, 1990).

Although there is little literature that describes where PCP and heroin are most likely to be sold, one study suggested that heroin dealers may sell their product in private as their arrest rates are not high (Bouchard & Tremblay, 2005). Bouchard and Tremblay (2005) found that marijuana dealers are most likely to be arrested in comparison to cocaine (4.4%) and heroin dealers (2.9%). Of those three groups, heroin dealers are the least likely to be arrested.

## Gang Violence

### Postindustrial Gang Violence

Today's gangs are comprised largely of African Americans and Latinos who carry handguns to commit their

acts of aggression and violent rampages (Sanders, 1994). A distinction has been made before and after the 1970's, labeled the industrial and postindustrial periods (Hagedorn, 1998). Hagedorn (1998) states that there is more violence in the postindustrial period because of the adoption of an economic model by some urban gangs, the use of violence to regulate illicit commerce, the proliferation of firearms, and the effect of mainstream cultural values of money and success on gang youth with limited opportunities. Gangs are now more likely to participate in an illicit commerce, such as drug dealing, in order to make money.

### Systemic Gang Violence

Though most street gang members who are drug dealers resort to violent acts, there are some who do not. Goldstein (1985) found that violence among gangs who deal drugs tends to be systemic, i.e. related to drug distribution. If a gang member is going to resort to violence, it will be due to trafficking and not because of 'turf' wars or other problems. Members are discouraged from engaging in acts of violence such as drive-by shootings, assaults, and fights because these types of acts draw unnecessary attention from the police, which could

lead to the exposure of their drug dealing operations (Valdez & Sifaneck, 2004). Violence affects the profit margin.

### Police Use of Force

Police officers are always under the microscope when using force on a suspect, regardless whether the force is justifiable or not. The media and citizens often protest officers' display of force. Officers are usually criticized for using force and are investigated by an outside police agency and by their own department as well. There is a lack of reliable information on incidents in which police officers use force (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002). As a result of a lack of data and complaints, Congress now requires the Attorney General to collect use of force data from police departments annually (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002).

By virtue of their legal authority, officers have several tactics at their disposal in order to gain compliance from a suspect: verbal commands and threats, restraint techniques (handcuffing), and impact methods (striking with a closed fist) (Terrill, 2001). If a suspect does not comply with an officer, the officer is

typically compelled to use force. Research suggests that a citizen's demeanor toward the police is a powerful predictor of subsequent police action (Garner, Maxwell & Heraux, 2002; Mastrofski, Reisig, & McCluskey, 2002).

Tedeschi and Felson (1994) suggest that an audience watching a police-suspect encounter can aggravate the social exchanges between the two, especially if the suspect identifies with the audience. Reisig, McCluskey, Mastrofski, and Terrill (2004) state that under such conditions, suspects may challenge an officer to 'put up a good fight' in order to preserve their image in the eyes of the audience. If this is the case, the only option an officer has is to use the force necessary to gain compliance. In such cases, officers and suspects have a need to not lose face, which results in an escalation of violence.

#### Suspect Characteristics

A couple studies (Herbert, 1998; Reisig et al, 2004) suggest that encounters where police use force typically involve a suspect who is under the influence, mentally deranged, disrespectful, or resistant. Suspects who fall into any of these categories are viewed by the police as more deserving of control and punishment (Herbert, 1998).

Terrill and Reisig's (2003) study in Indianapolis, Indiana and St. Petersburg, Florida examined the influence of neighborhood context on the level of police force. Their study found that there are higher levels of force where suspects were encountered in crime ridden and disadvantaged neighborhoods. Youthful male minorities with a low income were most likely to be on the receiving end of higher levels of police force (Terrill & Reisig, 2003).

In another study, it was found that suspects who fall in the chronic poverty category had a 45% and 22% chance of being recipients of verbal force and physical restraint, respectively, compared to 39% and 11% of those in the above-middle income category (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002). Although these levels of violence were not explained, it is possible that officers may use force in these low income neighborhoods because that is the only way they know how to resolve conflicts. In summary of Terrill and Reisig's (2003) study reveals, problem places correspond to dangerous places and dangerous places correspond to officer safety and where officer safety is an issue, force is likely to be used.



## Officer Characteristics

Terrill and Mastrofski (2002) study examined the characteristics of police officers who use force. The level of force ranged from verbally ordering a suspect to do something to physical force on the suspect. It was found that encounters involving younger and more inexperienced officers were significantly more likely to result in higher levels of force in comparison to more educated and experienced officers. Encounters initiated by officers involved a greater likelihood of force than those encounters where an officer was dispatched to a call or location.

There was also a higher likelihood of force from officers who have a high school diploma instead of a bachelor's degree or higher. Officers with a high school diploma were 44% likely to use verbal force and 20% likely to use physical force whereas those officers with a bachelor's degree or higher used verbal force in 42% of the cases and used physical force in 15% of the cases (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002). A police officer's gender, race, and training were all unrelated to the level of force used (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002).

## Drug Dealers and Guns

Gangs are also now more likely than before to use firearms for protection and to obtain money. The amount of guns available in the United States has increased significantly. In 1968, there were about 80 million guns, in 1978 the figure grew to 120 million guns, and the figure grew to 200 million by 1990 (Reiss & Roth, 1993). Hagedorn (1998) states that handguns are very inexpensive and affordable. Hagedorn (1998) states that in 1991, there were about 50 million 'Saturday night specials' which are very inexpensive. Furthermore, groups such as the National Rifle Association (N.R.A.) continue to lobby for the unrestricted sales of firearms. This position has worked to the advantage of gang members as it results in easy access to handguns (Lott & Mustard, 1997).

### Federal Inmates and Gun Involvement

Sevigny and Caulkins (2004) analyzed data from the Survey of Inmates in Federal and State Correctional Facilities, 1997 (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2000) and looked into the firearm involvement of drug offenders who were sentenced to prison. A drug offender ranged from a wholesale / retail dealer to an importer to a user. They found that about one-quarter of federal and one-fifth of

state drug offenders reported firearms involvement. Being involved with firearms was defined as receiving a firearm sentence enhancement or being armed during a crime.

Although firearm activity plays a nontrivial role in characterizing how dangerous a drug offender is, most did not report possessing firearms (Sevigny & Caulkins, 2004).

## Legal Issues

### California Gang Enhancement

There are several laws that are intended to curb gang activity. The most known anti-gang law to law enforcement officials is Penal Code 186.22 (Penal Code, 2007). This law is best known as a 'gang enhancement' and enhances any crime by a known gang member into a felony. In addition, the 'gang enhancement' states that at least 80 percent of the sentence must be served before receiving consideration for parole or early release.

According to FindArticles.com (1999), there is a loitering law which is mainly aimed at gang members in the City of Chicago. If police officers find someone to be loitering and suspects that he or she is a member of a gang, they ask them to leave or get arrested. According to

Rosenthal (2000) this law was eventually invalidated by the U.S. Supreme Court.

#### Future Research

While there is substantial research regarding street gangs and drug dealing, more research is necessary in order to have a better understanding of this phenomenon. Increasing the sample size of studies would give a more accurate assessment. Most studies (McGloin, 2005; Murphy, Waldorf, & Reinerman, 1990) were limited to a small jurisdiction and having participants from a larger area likely would produce more detailed and accurate findings. One of the problems inhibiting this effort is that a gang can be defined differently by many people; a universal definition should be established in order to have consistency in the research.

More research needs to be done on where drugs are being sold. Future studies should focus on the racial makeup of drug dealers and the types of drug they are selling. Not only would the general public have a better understanding of the drug dealing phenomenon, but law enforcement officials would benefit from this information as well.

## Conclusion

After reviewing the literature on gang members and drug dealers, there are many questions that have yet to be answered. Failure to employ universal definitions of gangs and gang membership has numerous implications for gang research and gang-related public policy (Esbensen, Winfree, He & Taylor, 2001). Esbensen and his colleagues state that there are three possible outcomes from not having a universal definition. One is that researchers can accurately state the gang problem with the best definition, (2) underestimating with a narrow definition, or (3) overestimating the problem if the definition is too broad. Before any study can be done on gangs, a universal definition needs to be established in order to examine the same phenomena in each study.

Drug dealers' racial composition seems to vary by location and by the type of drugs they sell. In the San Francisco bay area, white people (58.8%) were the majority drug dealers (Murphy, Waldorf, & Reinerman, 1990). Elsewhere, minorities were arrested in greater numbers for selling drugs. Drug offenders are making up the majority of our prison and jail population largely due to changing criminal justice policies (Greenberg and West, 2001) and

prosecutorial and judicial decision making (Brownsberger, 2000).

The literature regarding drug dealers and guns is a bit misleading. While Reiss and Roth (1993) showed that the amount of handguns have been on the rise the past three decades, one would assume that handgun use would also be on the rise. However, only about one fourth to one fifth of drug dealers received a gun enhancement on their sentence (Sevigny & Caulkins, 2004).

The specific location where a drug dealer sells his or her product seems to depend on the race of the dealer. Murphy, Waldorf, and Reinerman (1990) found that African Americans tend to sell their product in public places while Latinos seem to be less blatant and sell their products in private.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODS

#### Existing Database

This study was conducted using an existing database. The database was downloaded from the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR). The funding agency for the database was the United States Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice. The data were collected by Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham for their study, "Street Gangs and Drug Sales in Pasadena and Pomona, California, 1989-1991". The purpose of the original study was to explore connections between street gangs and drug distribution. The research objectives for the original study were to assess the magnitude of gang involvement in cocaine and other drug sales in both cities, to compare characteristics of gang-involved drug sale incidents with those without gang involvement, to assess the generalizability of findings on cocaine to other drugs, and to translate the implications into developing law enforcement strategies.

## Sample

The sample consists of 654 cases coded into an incident level data file. The incident level data file contained 109 variables, which described the arrest incident. Another file, the participant level data file had 1,092 cases with 16 variables. The participant level file described the characteristics of the suspects arrested. The data from both cities were merged into a single file.

## Data Collection

Researchers were given a computer generated list of all suspects arrested for drug sale offenses between 1989 and 1991, along with co-arrestees charged with incident-related offenses. Law enforcement arrest records and gang membership records were also obtained from both study cities. Two separate files were collected by researchers in Pomona and Pasadena, California.

For a case to be coded into the dataset, the case had to meet two criteria. The first criterion was that the incident must have had at least one suspect charged with at least one of the offenses and be linked to some drug evidence and a discrete location. The second criterion needed was that the incident must have taken place between



the dates of 01/01/89 and 12/31/91. The offenses were 13 separate California Health & Safety Codes (see Appendix A).

### Variables

There were a total of 125 variables in the existing database. Some of the variables in the incident level file included the location of the arrest, the drug charges presented, the amount of cash present, the amount of drugs (grams) present at the time of arrest, and the city where the arrest took place.

The participant level data had fewer variables, although it produced more cases. Some of the variables in this file were gender, race, age, and whether the person arrested is a member of a gang.

### Location

The reason why the cities of Pasadena and Pomona, California were selected as research sites was because both are mid-sized and suburban, and both have long-standing gang problems and well developed police gang units (Maxson, Klein, & Cunningham (1992).

### Operationalization of Terms

For the purpose of this study, it is essential that several terms be operationalized. Because gang members are the focus of the current study, it was important to

know how a gang member was identified. The authors who collected the data coded those arrested as gang members if they clearly stated gang membership or if they indirectly stated gang membership. If a suspect in the case explicitly identified himself or herself or another suspect as a gang member, they were coded a gang member.

Another way of establishing gang membership was if the suspect had tattoos identified by law enforcement as 'gang' tattoos or by having a gang's name on a possession, such as inside a wallet or a piece of paper in their pocket. The final way one could be coded as being a gang member was if their name was in a law enforcement gang database. Gang membership files were maintained by the gang unit in each police department (i.e., Pasadena and Pomona, California). These files were a primary source of gang case identification.

Drug sale incidents were defined by the arrest of at least one suspect for a drug sale offense. Gang cases were identified by the arrest of at least one identified gang member. Some incidents were excluded due to out of jurisdiction warrant arrests or inability to locate necessary case file material (Maxson, Klein, & Cunningham,

1992). Incidents were coded as gang or non-gang, cocaine or non-cocaine.

### The Present Study

The present study uses the data supplied through ICPSR. The present study expands on Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham's (1992) study by looking at three separate variables. First, ethnic characteristics of a dealer were analyzed according to the location from where they are sold their product. There are five drugs that were considered in the present study: marijuana, heroin, cocaine, PCP, and 'other'. Next, possible factors associated with a police officer using force at the time of a drug arrest were examined. Finally, factors associated with a gun being present at the time of a drug arrest were also analyzed.

#### Variables to be Examined

For the present study, 24 different variables are analyzed. All variables were in the incident-level data file (See Appendix B). All the variables used in this study were recoded for subsequent analyses. For example, the 'violence' variable had three categories: none, officer involved, and non-officer involved. Because 'non-officer involved' and 'none' imply the same thing, that officer

violence was not involved, both were recoded as 'none'. Similar recoding was conducted for the other variables (see Appendix B for exact variable information).

### Research Questions

The focus of the study was to examine several relationships that have not yet been made clear in the literature. With an increase of guns in the United States (Reiss & Roth, 1993) and guns becoming more available with fewer restrictions than before (Lott & Mustard, 1997), the study's first research question focused on whether these or other factors have led to an increase in gang members being in possession of guns at the time of an arrest.

Research Question One:

What factors are associated with a gun being present at the time of an arrest?

The study's second research question was whether ethnicity and the location where a drug is sold from are associated.

Research Question Two:

Are drug dealers likely to sell their product from different locations according to their ethnic background?

The literature reports several differences in regards as to how much violence occurs with gang members (Goldstein, 1985; Valdez & Sifaneck, 2004). The final research question investigated the factors which could be associated with a police officer using violence against an arrestee.

Research Question Three:

What factors are associated with police officers using violence at the time of an arrest?

## Strengths and Limitations

### Strengths

The dataset collected through the ICPSR website has several strengths. The data have 654 cases with several variables that provided researchers a broad range of topics to study. The advantage of using the secondary data analysis method is time and cost. Should a researcher try to duplicate and collect the same data that Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham (1992) collected, it would be very time consuming. This process could easily take years and could be expensive.

## Limitations

One limitation of the study is that it cannot be generalized. The data were collected from two cities in Southern California and the results of the study can only be applied to those cities. Although there may be cities that closely resemble the Cities of Pasadena and Pomona, the results could only be applied to other closely resembling cities on a limited basis.

Another limitation of the study is that the data contain the original charge or offense and do not go into further detail such as how involved that person was with drugs. Additional information would have allowed a more in-depth analysis.

The last limitation is that the data were from the years 1989 through 1991. Not to say that the data may be inaccurate, but the data were collected over 15 years ago and trends could have changed.

## Conclusion

In summary, the present study analyzes the data collected by Maxson, Klein, and Cunningham (1992) from the cities of Pasadena and Pomona, California and test three research questions. The data collected by these

researchers focused on gang membership and drug sales. In particular, they wanted to assess the magnitude of gang involvement in cocaine and other drug sales in both cities, compare the characteristics of gang involved drug sales with those that have no gang involvement, assess the generalizability of findings on cocaine to other drugs, and provide implications of the research findings into the development of law enforcement strategies.

There were several key findings in their study. One finding was that gang members were arrested in 27% of the cocaine related incidents. Another finding was that rock and crack forms of cocaine were most often found in gang cases. Cases with gang members were most likely to include young African American males. The presence of identified gang members in arrests for sales other than cocaine was very low (less than 12 percent). Hispanics were arrested the most in non-cocaine incidents. The results of the original study suggest that there should be a reconsideration of gang specialization in narcotics enforcement units (Maxson, Klein, & Cunningham, 1992).

For a drug arrest to be part of the researcher's data, there were two criteria that needed to be met. There were 13 California Health and Safety codes that were part of the

sample offenses studied. The data were separated into two separate files. There was an incident level file. The incident level data file has 654 cases and 109 variables.

Several variables used in this study were recoded for the purpose of facilitating analyses for the study. There are a total of 24 variables that were analyzed to answer the three research questions.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### ANALYSIS

As mentioned in the previous chapter, three different research questions are examined. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to examine these research questions. All variables examined are nominal level variables. Accordingly, several statistical tests that are appropriate for nominal level variables will be conducted.

There were five different drug variables in the dataset. Four variables focus on a specific drug sale: cocaine, marijuana, PCP, and heroin. A fifth variable was created to include any other drug. That variable is 'other drug sales.'

When measuring gang membership, the original dataset had three different categories for gang membership: 'non-gang,' 'gang,' and 'revised to gang'. Because 'gang' and 'revised to gang' imply it was gang related, the gang membership variable was recoded into two categories: 'gang' and 'non-gang'.

In reference to suspects arrested for selling drugs, approximately 10% of suspects (9.6 percent, n= 63) had a

gun on them at the time of the arrest (see Table 1). Table 1 also provides a summary of the variables examined in this study (i.e., gun presence, gang status, drug charge, location, violence, and race). Over a third of the suspects in this sample were gang members (38.8 percent, n=254).

Table 1 also includes a suspect's charges by type of drug. Almost two thirds of the sample was arrested for selling cocaine (61.2 percent, n= 400). About a third of the sample was arrested for selling marijuana (32.0 percent, n= 209). Both of the previously mentioned drugs accounted for the majority of the arrests. Almost 7% (6.7 percent, n= 44) were arrested for selling heroin. Arrests for PCP were very low with 1.5% (n= 10) of suspects being arrested for that drug. Any suspect arrested for any drug not previously mentioned fell into the 'other drug' category. The 'other drug' category accounted for 2.6% (n= 17) of the total arrests.

Also included in Table 1 are the results related to the location where a dealer is arrested. Over a third of the sample was arrested from a vehicle (38.2%, n= 250). The open access location (36.1%, n= 236) was similar in number to vehicle arrests; arrests originated from these

two types of locations were the most. A total of 110 suspects (16.8%) were arrested from a residential dwelling compared to only 14 suspects (2.2%) arrested from a non-residential dwelling. There were 2.8 percent (n= 18) arrests that came from multiple locations. Another location which had a low amount of arrests was the 'other' location as it accounted for 4 percent (n= 26) of the arrests.

Other variables shown on Table 1 are the suspect's ethnicity. The majority of the suspects were African American as they accounted for over two thirds of the arrests (67.4%, n= 441). Hispanics represented 30 percent (30.1%, n= 197) of the sample. Whites and others had the fewest amount of arrests (n= 57) and they accounted for 8.7 percent of the arrests.

The final variables shown in Table 1 describe arrest characteristics. Officers assigned to patrol recorded the majority of arrests (n=601) and accounted for 91.9% of the arrests. Undercover 'buy-bust' operations accounted for 27.4% or 179 arrests. Cash was taken as evidence by police officers in 55.5% of cases (n=363) in which a drug arrest were made. Multiple handlers were involved in very few cases (n=112, 17.1%). Also described in Table 1 is whether

prior information led to any arrests. There were several instances (n=193, 29.5%) in which prior information directly led to a drug related arrest. Special fortifications were involved in a minimal amount of cases (n=14) as only 2.1% of the arrests included special fortifications. Both police departments had a similar amount of arrests. Pasadena police officers had 328 drug arrests while Pomona police officers had 326 arrests. Finally, little officer involved violence was found as it accounted for only 3.8 percent (n= 25) of the cases.

Table 1: Summary Background Information

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>Guns Present</i>		
No	591	90.4
Yes	63	9.6
<i>Gang Status</i>		
Non-Gang	400	61.2
Gang	254	38.8
<i>Cocaine Sales Charge</i>		
No	254	38.8
Yes	400	61.2
<i>Marijuana Sales Charge</i>		
No	445	68.0
Yes	209	32.0
<i>Heroin Sales Charge</i>		
No	610	93.3
Yes	44	6.7
<i>PCP Sales Charge</i>		
No	644	98.5
Yes	10	1.5
<i>Other Drug Sales Charge</i>		
No	637	97.4
Yes	17	2.6
<i>Location - Vehicle</i>		
Non Vehicle	404	61.8
Vehicle	250	38.2
<i>Location - Open Access</i>		
Non-OpenAccess	418	63.9
Open Access	236	36.1
<i>Location - Residential Dwelling</i>		
No	544	83.2
Yes	110	16.8
<i>Location - Non-Residential</i>		
No	640	97.8
Yes	14	2.2
<i>Location - Multiple</i>		
Non-Multiple	636	97.2
Multiple	18	2.8
<i>Location - Other</i>		
Non-Other	628	96.0
Other	26	4.0
<i>Ethnicity - Black</i>		
No Arrest	213	32.6
Black Arrest	441	67.4
<i>Ethnicity - Hispanic</i>		
No Arrest	456	69.7
Hispanic Arrest	197	30.1
Missing	1	.2
<i>Ethnicity - White/Other</i>		
No	597	91.3
Yes	57	8.7

Table 1: Summary Background Information (cont)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>Arrest Unit Assigned to Patrol</i>		
No	53	8.1
Yes	601	91.9
<i>Buy-Bust Involved</i>		
No	475	72.6
Yes	179	27.4
<i>Cash Taken As Evidence</i>		
No	291	44.5
Yes	363	55.5
<i>Multiple Handlers Involved</i>		
No	542	82.9
Yes	112	17.1
<i>Prior Info Led To Police Action</i>		
No	461	70.5
Yes	193	29.5
<i>Special Fortifications Involved</i>		
No	640	97.9
Yes	14	2.1
<i>Department</i>		
Pasadena	328	50.4
Pomona	326	49.6
<i>Violence</i>		
No/Non Officer	629	96.2
Officer Involved	25	3.8

### Research Question One

The first research question examined is the following: 'What factors are associated with a gun being present at the time of an arrest?' Specifically, this analysis looked at gang membership, drug charge, ethnicity, location, police officer violence, and other variables possibly present at the time of an arrest. Twenty-two variables were examined in this analysis. To answer this question,

several bivariate crosstabs were examined and cluster pie charts and bar graphs were produced for better analysis.

When guns were present at time of arrests, there were 15 variables that were also present: multiple handlers, buy-bust, vehicles, whites, open access settings, special fortifications, heroin charge, marijuana charge, PCP charge, other drug charge, multiple drug charge, other location, non-residential dwelling, Hispanics, and police officer violence.

There were seven variables present when most number of arrests when a gun is present. The majority of arrests where a gun was present were made by officers assigned to the patrol division (n=50, see Table 2). Officers who were also considered to be on 'patrol' were those assigned to the 'neighborhood crime task force' and the 'major crime task force.' Officers excluded from patrol were gang officers, detectives and narcotic units.

Table 2.

*Presence of Guns by Officer Assignment*

Officer Assignment	Gun	No Gun
Patrol	50 (7.6%)	551 (84.3%)
Non-Patrol	13 (2.0%)	40 (6.1%)

Cocaine was the drug that was most associated with guns present at the time of arrest (n=40, see Table 3). All other drugs combined had 29 instances where a gun was present at the time of an arrest.

Table 3.

*Presence of Guns by Drug Charge*

Drug	Gun	No Gun
Cocaine	40 (5.8%)	360 (52.9%)
Marijuana	21 (3.0%)	188 (27.6%)
Heroin	4 (0.5%)	40 (5.8%)
PCP	1 (0.1%)	9 (2.0%)
Other Drug(s)	3 (0.4%)	14 (2.0%)

Gun presence was also found frequently when prior drug activity information led to police action (n=45, see Figure 2). This type of arrest is intended to reflect the degree to which the police's arresting activity is a direct reaction to some drug related activity. This can be in



response to a request for intervention, part of an ongoing investigation, or directly linked to specific 'tips' or input from a 'confidential reliable informant' (Maxson, 1992).

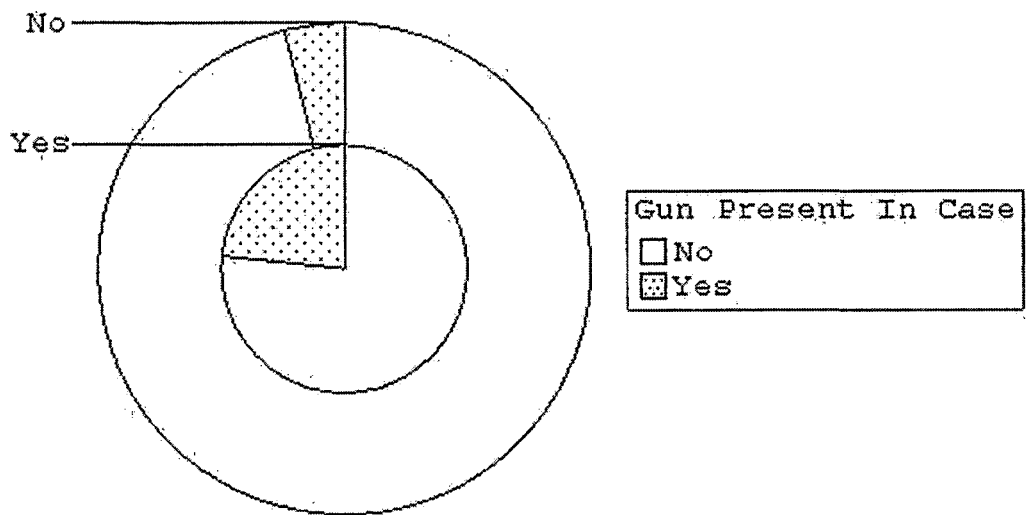


Figure 1: Gun Presence by Prior Information

Guns were present in a high number of arrests where cash was taken away from the suspect(s) for evidence (n=49). Cash taken away for evidence is not the same as cash being deposited for the suspect during the booking process, those cases were excluded.

Guns were also frequently found when a 'black' suspect was arrested, compared to other ethnicities, for a drug charge (n=43, see Table 4).

Table 4.

*Gun Presence by Ethnicity*

<u>Ethnicity</u>	<u>Gun</u>	<u>No Gun</u>
African American	43 (6.1%)	398 (57.2%)
Hispanic	19 (2.7%)	178 (26.5%)
White/Other	14 (2.0%)	43 (6.1%)

The only location where guns were found at a high rate was from a residential dwelling (n=30, see Table 5). Cases falling under the 'residential dwelling' variable were when arrests took place within or at the entrance to a lived in residence such as a house, apartment/condo, mobile home/trailer (Maxson, 1992).

Table 5.

Gun Presence by Location

<u>Location</u>	<u>Gun</u>	<u>No Gun</u>
Vehicle	9 (1.4%)	241 (36.9%)
Residential-Dwelling	30 (4.6%)	80 (12.2%)
Non-residential-Dwelling	3 (.5%)	11 (1.7%)
Open Access	8 (1.2%)	228 (34.9%)
Multiple-Locations	7 (1.1%)	11 (1.7%)
Other Locations	6 (.9%)	20 (3.1%)

Summarizing the first research question, there were seven factors associated with guns being present at the time of a drug arrest. Guns were most likely to be found when a patrol officer made an arrest, when cash was taken away from the suspect(s) for evidence, when prior information led law enforcement to arrests, when the suspect was African American, when the arrest involved a cocaine charge, and when the arrest originated from a residential dwelling.

Research Question Two

The second research question is the following: 'What factors are associated with police officers using violence

at the time of an arrest?' Several bivariate crosstabs were analyzed to assess which variables were present when police officer violence occurred.

There were five variables that were associated with police officer violence at the time of an arrest. The factor that occurred most frequently when an officer used violence was the patrol variable. Police officers assigned to patrol (n=22) were involved in all but three of the cases where officer violence was present. Police officer violence was also likely when someone was being arrested for cocaine (n=19, see Table 6).

Table 6.

*Officer Violence by Drug Charge*

<u>Drug</u>	<u>Officer Violence</u>	<u>Non-Officer Violence</u>
Cocaine	19 (2.9%)	381 (58.1%)
Marijuana	2 (0.3%)	207 (31.6%)
Heroin	4 (0.6%)	40 (6.1%)
PCP	0 (0.0%)	10 (1.5%)
Other Drug(s)	0 (0.0%)	17 (2.5%)

\* May not add up due to rounding

Those of African American descent had the highest number of arrests (n=18, see Table 7 & Figure 3), compared to other ethnicities, when police officer violence was present.

Table 7.

*Officer Violence by Ethnicity*

<u>Ethnicity</u>	<u>Officer Violence</u>	<u>Non-Officer Violence</u>
African American	18 (2.5%)	423 (60.8%)
Hispanic	7 (1.0%)	190 (27.3%)
White/Other	4 (0.5%)	53 (7.6%)

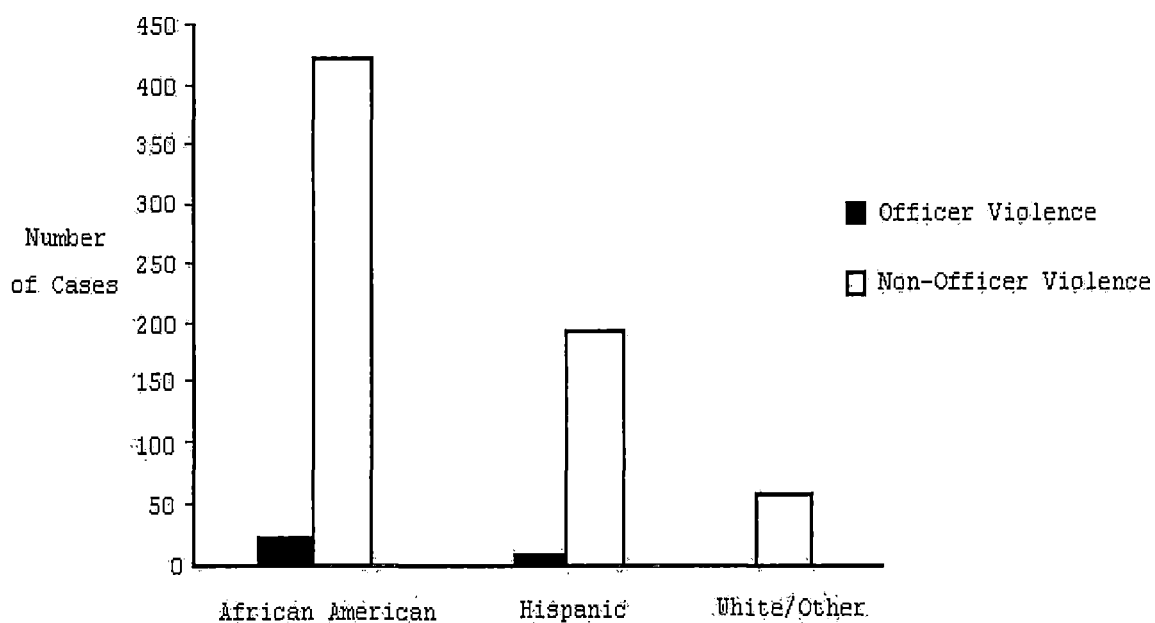


Figure 2: Officer Violence by Ethnicity

Other factors associated with police officer violence were when cash was taken away from a suspect for evidence, and when a suspect was arrested from a vehicle (see Table 8 & Figure 3). There were 12 instances where police had to use violence on a suspect whose money was taken away for evidence and 11 instances where police officer violence was present when a suspect was arrested from a vehicle.

Table 8.

Officer Violence by Location

<u>Location</u>	<u>Officer Violence</u>	<u>Non-Officer Violence</u>
Vehicle	11 (1.7%)	239 (36.5%)
Residential-Dwelling	6 (.9%)	104 (15.9%)
Non-residential-Dwelling	2 (.3%)	12 (1.8%)
Open Access	3 (.5%)	233 (35.6%)
Multiple-Locations	3 (.5%)	15 (2.3%)
Other Locations	0 (.0%)	26 (4.0%)

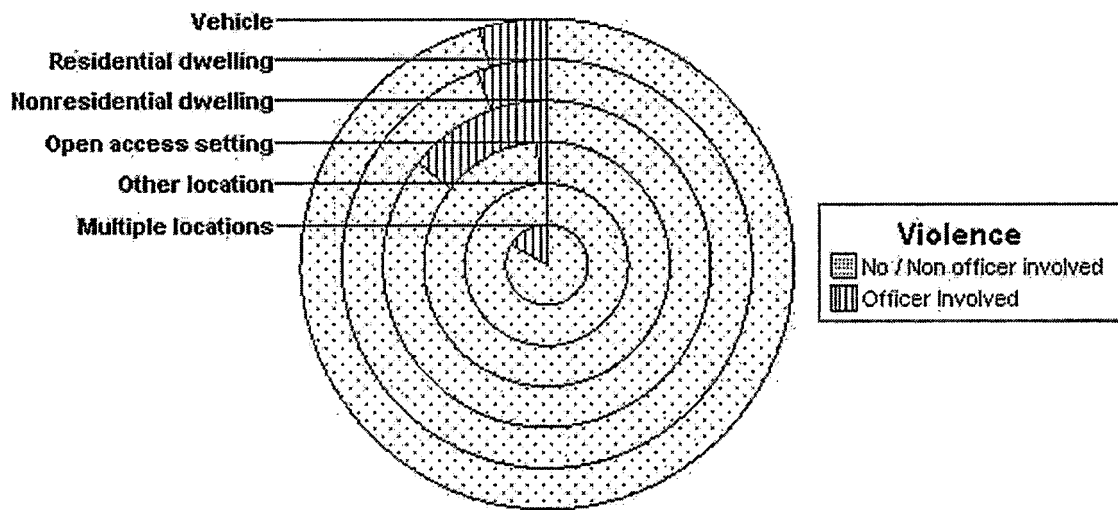


Figure 3: Officer Violence by Location

In conclusion the factors associated with police officers using violence at the time of an arrest are the following: officers assigned to patrol use the most violence, there is more violence when arresting someone for cocaine, when arresting a suspect of African American descent, when cash is taken away from the suspect and stored for evidence and when an arrest originates from a vehicle.

### Research Question Three

The third research question is 'Are drug dealers likely to sell their product from different locations based on their ethnic background?' This question was answered by

looking at the location(s) of the drug sales by the different ethnic group.

African American Suspects

There were a total of 441 cases in which an African American suspect was arrested for a drug charge (see Table 9 & Figure 4).

Table 9.

African-American Arrests by Location

<u>Location</u>	<u>Arrest</u>	<u>No Arrest</u>
Vehicle	189 (28.9%)	61 (9.3%)
Residential Dwell	64 (9.8%)	46 (7.0%)
Non-Res Dwelling	10 (1.5%)	4 (.6%)
Open Access	154 (23.5%)	82 (12.5%)
Multiple-	11 (1.7%)	7 (1.1%)
Locations		
Other Locations	13 (2.0%)	13 (2.0%)



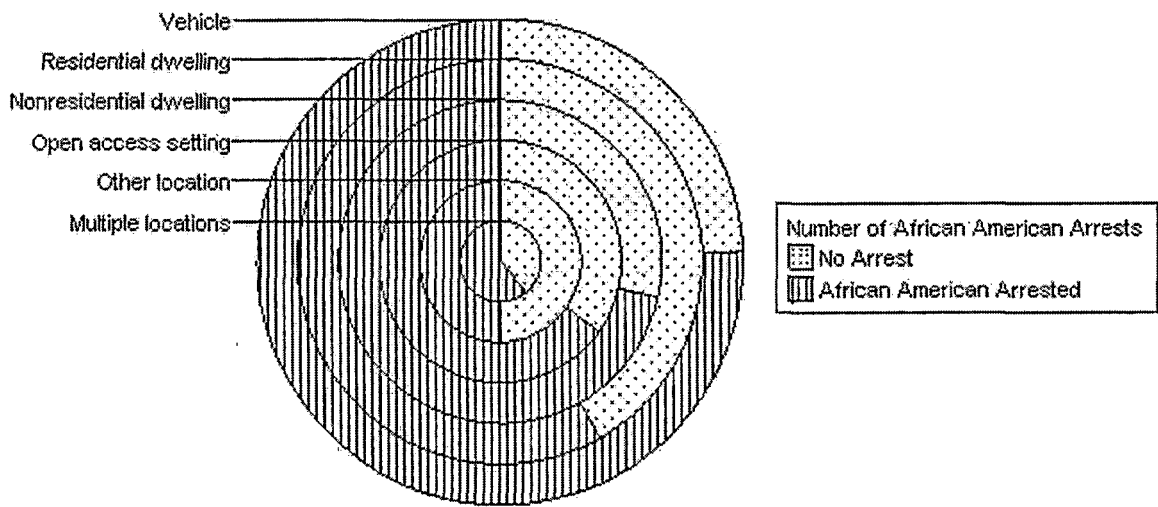


Figure 4: African American Arrests by Location

The majority of arrests for African American drug dealers came from a vehicle (n=189), followed by an open access area (n=154) and a residential dwelling (n=64)

#### Hispanic Suspects

There were a total of 198 cases in which a Hispanic suspect was arrested for a drug charge. As there were fewer cases for this ethnic group, there were also fewer arrests (see Table 10 & Figure 5). The location which had the most Hispanic arrests was an open access setting (n=80) closely followed by a vehicle (n=57).

Table 10.

*Hispanic Arrests by Location*

Location	Arrest	No Arrest
Vehicle	57 (8.7%)	193 (29.6)
Residential Dwell	38 (5.8%)	72 (11.0%)
Non-Res Dwelling	2 (.3%)	12 (1.8%)
Open Access	80 (12.3%)	156 (23.9%)
Multiple- Locations	10 (1.5%)	7 (1.1%)
Other Locations	10 (1.5%)	16 (2.5%)

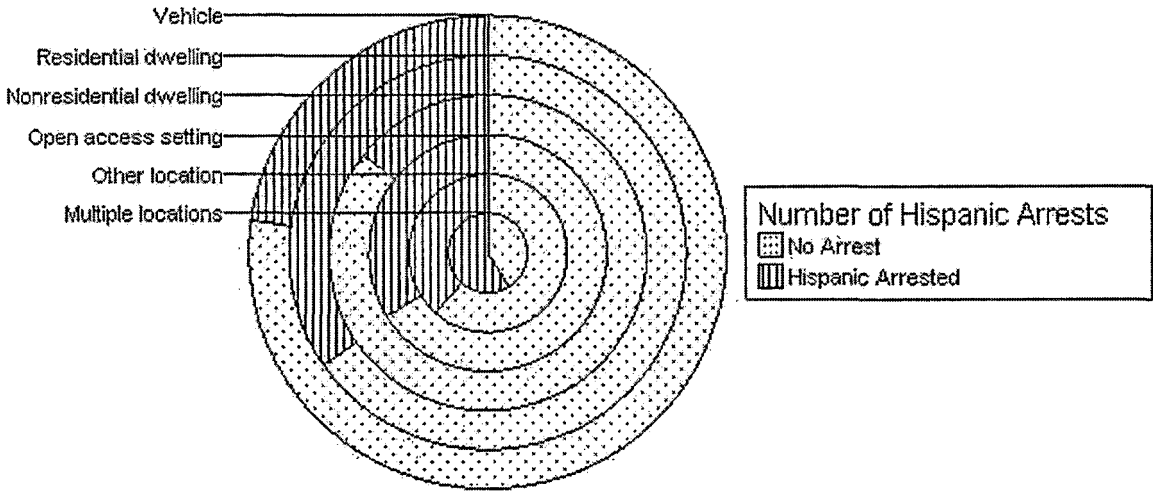


Figure 5: Hispanic Arrests by Location

### White and Other Suspects

There were a total of 57 cases where white or other ethnic suspects were arrested. This ethnic group had the fewest number of arrests (see Table 11, Figure 6).

The majority of the arrests for this group was from a residential dwelling (n=20) and a vehicle (n=16).

Table 11.

#### White Arrests by Location

<u>Location</u>	<u>Arrest</u>	<u>No Arrest</u>
Vehicle	16 (2.4%)	234 (35.8%)
Residential Dwell	20 (3.1%)	90 (13.8%)
Non-Res Dwelling	4 (.6%)	10 (1.5%)
Open Access	9 (1.4%)	227 (34.7%)
Multiple-	4 (.6%)	14 (2.1%)
Locations		
<u>Other Locations</u>	<u>4 (.6%)</u>	<u>22 (3.4%)</u>

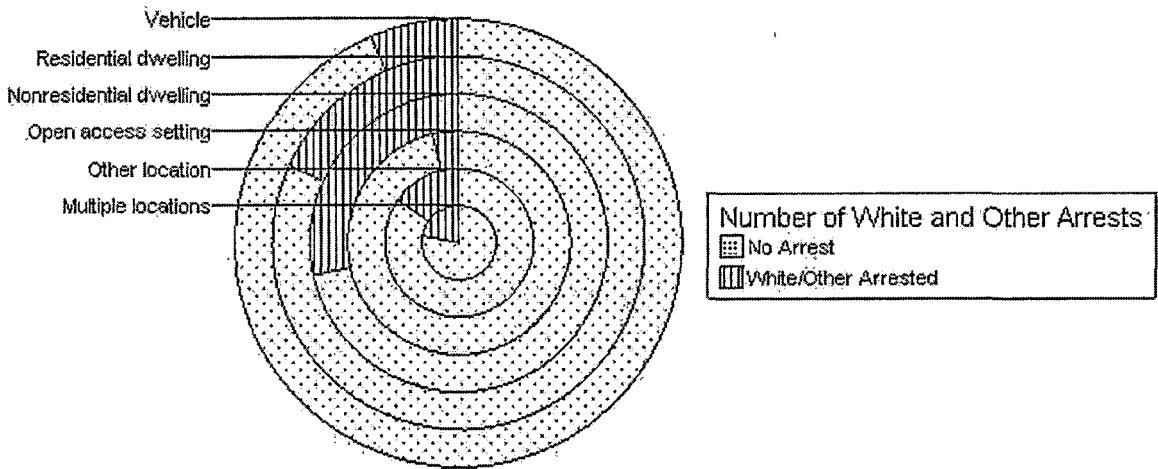


Figure 6: White/Other Arrests by Location

Regarding the third research question, drug dealers are likely to sell their product from different locations according to their ethnic background. African Americans are more likely to sell their product from a vehicle and an open access setting, Hispanics from an open access setting and a vehicle and whites and other ethnic groups from a residential dwelling or vehicle.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION

There were several key findings as a result of this study. When looking at the factors associated with a gun being present at the time of an arrest, there were seven variables found to be associated with gun presence. Officers who were on patrol were most likely to find a gun at the time of an arrest. This is, to some people, an expected finding because patrol officers are the officers out patrolling the streets. Chiefs, lieutenants, detectives and other officers in specialized units are hardly out on the field, and it is common for those on patrol to be the officers who run into a variety of problems. Guns were found most often on those who were arrested on a cocaine charge as compared to other drugs. The presence of a gun at the time of an arrest was also likely found when prior drug activity information led to police action. Guns also had a high number of arrests when cash was taken away from suspect(s) for evidence. African American suspects composed the ethnic group that had the most guns at the time of arrest. When looking at location,

guns were more likely to be present in arrests taking place in a residential dwelling.

In response to the second research question, there were five factors that were found at a high number when a police officer used violence against the suspect at the time of an arrest. Officers assigned to patrol were the officers who were involved in the most violence against a suspect. Officer violence was likely when arresting a suspect for a cocaine charge compared to all other drugs. Officers also were most likely to use violence against African American suspects compared to all other race/ethnicities combined. Officer violence was also high when cash was taken away from a suspect and when someone was arrested from a vehicle.

In response to the final research question, each ethnic group was arrested from similar locations, but at different rates. African Americans were arrested the most from vehicles (n=189) and open access settings (n=154), Hispanics were arrested the most from open access settings (n=80) and from vehicles (n=57), and white/other suspects were arrested the most from a residential dwelling (n=20) and from vehicles (n=16). All three ethnic groups had a high number of arrests from vehicles. These data indicate

that there are differences in how these groups sell drugs, although the differences are not great.

### Policy Implications

There are a couple policy implications that can be stated based on the results of this study. One implication is that because guns are found in a high number of drug arrests where suspects are in vehicles, police officers should call for a backup unit, when responding to these types of calls. Guns were also found frequently in residential dwellings. Police officers, regardless of how much control they have over the situation, should call for backup for safety reasons. Dispatchers should also consider sending at least two police units to calls that involve these types of situations.

Guns were also most likely to be found on African Americans. An officer should never let their guard down when approaching a suspect of this ethnicity. Officers should also be cautious when approaching suspects of other ethnicities because they too can be armed.

Another policy implication is for officers to be more aware and not let their guard down, especially when they respond to a cocaine dealer. Officers are most likely to

use force against this type of dealer and should be alert and ready to defend any attack when responding to these types of calls. The data do not specify what led an officer to use force against sellers of this drug, but this information should be made available to law enforcement officers.

Another policy implication that is beneficial to an officer's safety is to have extensive training on searching vehicles. Because gun presence was frequent in residential dwellings, officers should be properly trained to locate guns that may be hidden in a residential dwelling. This should be continuous training for officers as suspects always find or create new compartments in which they can conceal a weapon.

#### Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

There are several limitations with this study. The first limitation is that the results are only applicable to two cities. The findings cannot be assumed or generalized to other similar cities. Another limitation is that when a person was arrested for 'other' drugs, the study did not specify the drug. Having known which specific drug a person was arrested for would have allowed for more



analysis. Furthermore, the data were from 1989 through 1991. The data could be considered as out of date and more recent data could provide more up to date results.

When looking at violence, the data do not indicate who initiated the violence or what provoked the officer to resort to it. Had the data indicated what led an officer to use force on a suspect, a more thorough study could have been made. Next, the data were all nominal level. Had the data been ordinal or ratio level, more sophisticated statistical tests could have been performed. The final limitation of this study is that the data do not specify if the gun found by the officer was found on the person or was found in another location, such as a vehicle.

#### Future Research Suggestions

There are several suggestions for future research. One suggestion would be to replicate the study to determine if there have been changes in drug sale / drug arrests patterns. This would contribute to the literature with more current data and findings. Another suggestion for future research, though time consuming, would be to have a longitudinal study that tracks drug arrests for a five or ten year time period. This would allow researchers to not only look at yearly patterns but to also see whether there

are changes in arrests or sale trends. The study could track the type of drug that is being sold by each dealer and investigate if dealers sell only one type of drug or multiple drugs.

This study should be replicated with more detailed information, if possible, to determine how involved the arrestee is in the drug dealing business. The study could focus on the extent of the person's drug sale involvement ranging from very little to chronically involved (a person who is frequently arrested for selling drugs and has an arrest record to prove it). The same concept should be applied to gang membership. The extent of gang membership should be analyzed to see if it could be a predictor of how much drugs gang members sell or a predictor of the type of drug they are likely to sell.

APPENDIX A  
CALIFORNIA HEALTH AND SAFETY CODES

CH&S 11351 = Possession for sale of cocaine, heroin or  
other opiates

CH&S 11351.5 = Possession for sale of cocaine

CH&S 11352 = sale, etc. of cocaine, heroin or other opiates

CH&S 11352.5 = sale, etc. of heroin

CH&S 11355 = unlawful sale, etc. pursuant to agreement of  
cocaine, heroin or other opiate

CH&S 11359 = possession for sale of marijuana /  
concentrated cannabis

CH&S 11360 = sale, etc. of marijuana / concentrated  
cannabis

CH&S 11366 = opening / maintaining a place for trafficking  
in controlled substance

CH&S 11378 = possession for sale of amphetamine, PCP, LSD,  
barbiturate, methaqualone, etc

CH&S 11378.5 = possession for sale of PCP

CH&S 11379 = sale, etc. of amphetamine, PCP, LSD,  
barbiturate, methaqualone, etc.

CH&S 11379.5 = sale, etc. of PCP

CH&S 11382 = unlawful sale, etc. pursuant to agreement of  
amphetamine, barbiturate, methaqualone, etc.

APPENDIX B  
VARIABLES USED

---

Name	Variable Label
------	----------------

---

Patrol (Arresting unit assigned to patrol division)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Buybust (Buy-Bust Involved)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Cashevid (Cash taken as evidence)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Cokechrg (Cocaine sales-related charges present)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Gunpres (Guns present in case)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Fortif (Special fortifications involved)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Hernchrg (Heroin sales-related charges present)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Marjchrg (Marijuana sales-related charges present)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Multhand (Multiple handlers involved)

0 - No

1 - Yes

Multiple (Multiple locations)

0 - Non-multiple locations

1 - Multiple location

---

Name	Variable Label
------	----------------

---

Newblack (Number of African-American suspects)  
0 - No arrest  
1 - Black arrested

Newgang (Recode of gang status)  
0 - Non-gang  
1 - Gang

Newhispan (Number of Hispanic suspects)  
0 - No arrest  
1 - Hispanic arrested

Newviol (Recode of Violence)  
0 - None/non-officer involved  
1 - Officer involved

Newwhite (Number of White and Other suspects)  
0 - No arrest  
1 - White/Other arrested

Nonres (Non-Residential dwelling)  
0 - No non-res  
1 - Non-residential Dwelling

Openacce (Open access setting)  
0 - Non-open access  
1 - Open access

Otdrgchg (Other drug sales-related charges present)  
0 - No  
1 - Yes

Otherloc (Other location)  
0 - Previously defined locations  
1 - Other locations

Pcpchrg (PCP sales-related charges present)  
0 - No  
1 - Yes



---

Name	Variable Label
------	----------------

---

Priorinf (Prior drug activity info led to police action)  
0 - No prior information  
1 - Prior information led to police action

Resdwell (Residential dwelling)  
0 - No residential dwelling  
1 - Residential dwelling

Station (Department from which case originates)  
0 - Pasadena  
1 - Pomona

Vehicle (Vehicle)  
0 - Non-vehicle  
1 - Vehicle

## REFERENCES

- Adler, P. A. (1985). *Wheeling and dealing: An ethnography of an upper-level drug dealing and smuggling community*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Babbie, E. (2005). *The basics of social research* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). United States: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Ball, R. A., & Curry, G. D. (1995). The logic of definition in criminology: Purposes and methods for defining gangs. *Criminology*, 33, 225-245.
- Blumstein, A. (1993). Racial disparity of United States prisons revisited. *University of Colorado Law Review*, 64, 743-760.
- Bouchard, M., & Tremblay, P. (2005). Risks of arrests across drug markets: A capture-recapture analysis of 'hidden' dealer and user populations. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 35(4), 733-754.
- Bourgois, P. (1995). *In search of respect: Selling crack in El Barrio*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Brownsberger, W. N. (2000). Race matters: Disproportionality of incarceration for drug dealing in Massachusetts. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 30(2), 345-365.

- Bureau of Justice Statistics (2002). *Survey of Inmates in State and Federal Correctional Facilities, 1997*.  
Compiled by the US Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Ann Arbor, Mich: Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research.
- Caulkins, J. P. & Pacula, R. L. (2006). Marijuana markets: Inferences from reports by the household population. *Journal of Drug Issues, 36*(1), 173-200.
- Conley, C. H., Kelly, P., Mahanna, P., & Warner, L. (1993). *Street gangs: Current knowledge and strategies*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- Curry, G. D., & Decker, S. H. (1998). *Confronting gangs: Crime and community*. Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury.
- Drug Abuse Warning Network, (2004). National estimates of drug-related emergency department visits. Retrived on February 1, 2007 from <https://dawninfo.samhsa.gov/files/DAWN2k4ED.pdf>
- Drug Enforcement Administration (2005). Drugs of Abuse. Retrieved on February 4, 2007 from <http://www.usdoj.gov/dea/pubs/abuse/doa-p.pdf>

Drug Enforcement Administration (2007). Phencyclidine (PCP). Retrived on February 4, 2007 from <http://www.usdoj.gov/dea/concern/pcp.html>

Egley, A. (2005, June). Highlights of the 2002-2003 National Youth Gang Surveys. *U.S. Department of Justice, 1*, 1-2.

Egley, A., & Major, A.K. (2004, April). Highlights of the 2002 National Youth Gang Survey. *U.S. Department of Justice, 1*, 1-2.

Esbensen, F., Winfre, T. L., He, N., & Taylor, T. J. (2001). Youth gangs and definitional issues: When is a gang a gang, and why does it matter? *Crime & Delinquency, 47*(1), 105-131.

FindArticles.com (1999). Are loitering laws fair? Chicago anti-gang law targets loiterers. Retrieved February 14, 2006, from [http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_m0EPF/is\\_16\\_98/ai\\_53682519](http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m0EPF/is_16_98/ai_53682519)

Free, M. (1996). *African Americans in the criminal justice system*. New York: Garland.

- Garner, J.H., Maxwell, CD., & Heraux, CG. (2002).  
Characteristics associated with the prevalence and  
severity of force used by the police. *Justice  
Quarterly, 19*, 705-746.
- Goldstein, P. J. (1985). The drugs/violence nexus: A  
tripartite conceptual framework. *Journal of Drug  
Issues, 15*, 493-506.
- Gordon, R. M. (2000). Criminal business organizations,  
street gangs and 'wanna-be' groups: A Vancouver  
perspective. *Canadian Journal of Criminology, 42* (1),  
39-60.
- Greenberg, D. F., & West, V. (2002). State prison  
populations and their growth, 1971-1991. *Criminology,*  
*39*, 615-653.
- Hagedorn, J.M. (1998). *Gang violence in the post  
industrial era.* Youth Violence. Chicago: The  
University of Chicago Press; 364-420.
- Harris, M.G. (1994). Cholas, Mexican-american girls and  
gangs. *Sex Roles, 30*, 289-301.
- Harrison, P. M., & Karberg, J. C. (2003). Prison and jail  
inmates at midyear 2002. Washington, D. C.: U.S.  
Department of Justice. Office of Justice Programs,  
Bureau of Justice Statistics. NCJ 198877.

- Herbert, S. (1998). Police subculture reconsidered. *Criminology*, 36, 343-369.
- Johnston, L. D., O'Malley, P. M., Bachman, J. G., & Schulenberg, J. E. (2005). Teen use down but progress halts among youngest teens. University of Michigan News and Information Services: Ann Arbor, MI. Retrieved February 1, 2007 from [www.monitoringthefuture.org](http://www.monitoringthefuture.org).
- Lott, J., Mustard, D. (1997). Crime, deterrence, and right-to-carry concealed handguns. *Journal of Legal Studies*, 26, 1-13.
- Mann, C. R. (1993). *Unequal justice: A question of color*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Mastrofski, S.D., Reisig, M.D., & McCluskey, J. (2002). Police disrespect toward the public: An encounter-based analysis. *Criminology*, 39, 519-552.
- Matza, D. (1964). *Delinquency and Drift*. New York: Wiley.
- Maxson, C. L. (1998). *Gang members on the move*. OJJDP Juvenile Justice Bulletin. Washington, DC: Department of Justice.

- Maxson, C. L., Klein, M. W., & Cunningham, L. C. (1992). Street gangs and drug sales in Pasadena and Pomona, California, 1989-1991. Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR study number 6255).
- McGloin, J. M. (2005). Policy and intervention considerations of a network analysis of street gangs. *Criminology and Public Policy*, 4(3), 607-636.
- Murphy, S., Waldorf, D., & Reinerman, C. (1990). Drifting into dealing: Becoming a cocaine seller. *Qualitative Sociology*, 13(4), 321-343.
- National Institute on Drug Abuse (2007). NIDA Info Facts: Marijuana. Retrieved on February 1, 2007 from <http://www.drugabuse.gov/Infofacts/marijuana.html>
- National Institute on Drug Abuse (2005). Heroin: Abuse and addiction. Retrieved on February 1, 2007 from <http://www.nida.nih.gov/PDF/RRHeroin.pdf>
- National Institute on Drug Abuse (2004). Cocaine: Abuse and addiction. Retrieved on February 1, 2007 from <http://www.nida.nih.gov/PDF/RRCocain.pdf>

- Office of National Drug Control Policy (2002). Pulse check: Trends in drug abuse November 2002. Washington DC: The White House. NCJ 197242.
- Okundaye, J. N. (2004). Drug trafficking and urban African American youth: Risk factors for PTSD. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal*, 21 (3), 285-302.
- Papachristos, A. V. (2005). Interpreting inkblots: Deciphering and doing something about modern street gangs. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 4(3), 643-651.
- Penal Code. (2007) Abridged California edition. LawTech Publishing: San Clemente, Ca.
- Reisig, M. D., McCluskey, J. D., Mastrofski, S. D., & Terrill, W. (2004) Suspect disrespect toward the police. *Justice Quarterly*, 21(2), 241-268.
- Rosenthal, T. (2000, Fall). Gang loitering and race. *Journal of Criminal Law & Criminology*, 91 (1), 99-160.
- Ruble, N. M., & Turner, W. L. (2000). A systemic analysis of the dynamics and organization of urban street gangs. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 28, 117-132.
- Salagaev, A. L. & Shashkin, A. V. (2005). Youth gangs. *Russian Education and Society*, 47(12), 61-75.



- Sanders, W. B. (1994). *Gangbangs and drive-bys: Grounded culture and juvenile gang violence*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Senjo, S. R. (2005). Trafficking in meth: An analysis of the differences between male and female dealers. *J. Drug Education*, 35 (1), 59-77.
- Sevigny, E. L., & Caulkins, J. P. (2004). Kingpins or mules: An analysis of drug offenders incarcerated in federal and state prisons. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 3(3), 401-434.
- Spiegel, I. (1990). *Youth gangs: Continuity and change*. Crime and justice: A review of research (pp.117-179). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Stanton, B. & Galbrath, J. (1993). Drug trafficking among African-American early adolescents: Prevalence, consequences, and associated behaviors and beliefs. *Pediatrics*, 93 (6), 1039-1043.
- Tedeschi, J.T., & Felson, R.B. (1994). *Violence, aggression, and coercive actions*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Terrill, W. (2001). *Police coercion: Application of the force continuum*. New York: LFB Scholarly Publishing LLC.
- Terrill, W., & Mastrofski, S. D. (2002). Situational & officer-based determinants of police coercion. *Justice Quarterly, 19(2)*, 215-248.
- Terrill, W., & Reisig, M. D. (2003). Neighborhood context and police use of force. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 40(3)*, 291-321.
- Tonry, M. (1995). *Malign neglect: Race, crime and punishment in America*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- United States Sentencing Commission (1995). Cocaine and federal sentencing policy.
- Valdez, A., & Sifaneck, S. T. (2004). Getting high and getting by: Dimensions of drug selling behaviors among American Mexican gang members in South Texas. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 41(1)*, 82-105.