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Examining Arrests for Possession of Marijuana Among Students Attending Minority Serving Institutions and Non-Minority Serving Institutions

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EXAMINING ARRESTS FOR POSSESSION OF MARIJUANA AMONG STUDENTS ATTENDING MINORITY SERVING INSTITUTIONS AND NON-MINORITY SERVING INSTITUTIONS

DISSERATION

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Andre' Lamont Spence, Ph.D.

Texas Southern University, 2021

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This study examined on-campus drug arrests made in 2018 and 2019 at 20 non-minority serving and minority serving institutions located in Texas. The on-campus drug arrest data included a total of 1693 possession of marijuana arrests. The purpose of the study was to determine if racial arrest disparities existed among Blacks and Whites arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses in Texas. Furthermore, the study employed the racial threat theory to determine if the racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in influenced the percentage of Black arrests for possession of marijuana.

Results revealed that Blacks were more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana at non-minority serving institutions than at minority serving institutions. Interestingly, Blacks were more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana at a majority of the colleges included in the study. Subsequent examination of this result revealed that Blacks were 2 to 30 times more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana at college campuses in Texas. Conclusively, the study found support for the racial threat theory. Findings indicated that as the percentage of Black residents

increased so did Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana. Implications of the findings and limitations of the study are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

LIST OF FIGURES

VITA

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Marijuana is one of the oldest prohibited drugs in the history of the United States (US) (Seamon, 2006). Emerging as a drug that some believed encouraged users to commit violent acts, marijuana was first prohibited in the 1930s (Boyd & Carter, 2012). While this perception has shifted the stigmatization surrounding marijuana consumption has proceeded (Lloyd & Striley, 2018). In the 1950s marijuana was tagged as a gateway drug that led to heroin use and was thus often treated similar to heroin by legislatures and law enforcement agencies in the country, resulting in lifelong prison sentences in some instances (Hall & Lynskey, 2005; Golub & Johnson, 2002; Harris & Morris, 2017). Lacking scientific support marijuana was categorized as a Scheduled I controlled substance Under the Federal Controlled Substances Act (CSA) in 1970 (Seamon, 2006). Schedule I is the most restrictive category under the CSA and is reserved for drugs with a high potential for abuse and do not have any accepted medical use in treatment in the US. Drugs such as heroin (diacetylmorphine), LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide), mescaline (peyote), ecstasy (MDMA or 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine), and methaqualone are among other drugs that are on the Schedule I list.

Contrary to the Schedule I categorization, marijuana is now widely accepted for its medicinal components (Grant et al., 2012). Today, a majority of the states in the US have legalized marijuana for medical use. Medically legalized marijuana is legal for patients with qualifying conditions to purchase or grow limited amounts of marijuana for medical use (Khatapoush & Hallfors, 2004). Since California first legalized marijuana for medical purposes in 1996, 34 states have followed suit with 11 of those states legalizing medical marijuana in the past five years (American Civil Liberties Union, 2020). Since 2016, states such as West Virginia, Utah, Pennsylvania, Oklahoma, Ohio, North Dakota, Montana, Louisiana, Georgia,

Florida, and Arkansas passed or revised laws legalizing marijuana for medical purposes. As the impact of marijuana enforcement on racial arrest disparities continue to be debated states such as Alaska (2014), California (2016), Colorado (2012), District of Columbia (2014), Illinois (2019), Maine (2016), Massachusetts (2016), Michigan (2018), Nevada (2016), Oregon (2014), Vermont (2018), and Washington (2012) have opted to legalize marijuana for recreational use with there being no penalty or criminal records for private possession or consumption of a small quantity of marijuana by individuals 21 years and older.

Marijuana legalization remains a hot topic due to the modest impact it has had on marijuana arrests in the country. Overall, there has been a decrease in the number of marijuana related arrests in the US, but recent reports indicate an upward trend in marijuana arrests. According to the most recent American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) research report there were more than 6 million marijuana arrests made between 2010 and 2018. Additionally, the report indicated that there were 100,000 more marijuana arrests made in 2018 than there were in 2015 (ACLU, 2020). The Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) reported that marijuana arrests accounted for more than 40 percent of all drug arrests made in 2018 and accounted for more than more than half of all drug arrests in at least 12 states (FBI, 2018). Marijuana legalization has had even less of an impact on racial arrest disparities. States that have legalized marijuana have seen lower rates of racial disparities in marijuana possession arrests than states where marijuana has not been legalized, but Blacks were still more likely to be arrested than Whites in all states (Beckett & Brydolf-Horwitz, 2020). Arrest statistics indicate that on average Blacks are 3.64 times more likely to be arrested for marijuana possession than Whites.

Racial arrest disparities and total arrests for possession of marijuana are more apparent in states that have not legalized marijuana for any purpose, medical or recreational. Alabama,

Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming are the last 13 states that have yet to legalize marijuana for medical or recreational purposes (ACLU, 2020). In 2018, Texas had the highest total number of marijuana possession arrests among all 50 states, with an estimated 70,017 arrests (ACLU, 2020). According to the Department of Public Safety (DPS), Blacks made up 29 percent of the persons arrested for possession of marijuana in 2018 but only accounted for approximately 12 percent of the state's total population (DPS, 2018). The current study attempts to expand on literature pertaining to arrest disparities for marijuana possession by examining arrest data obtained from campus police departments in Texas.

General Marijuana Use

Marijuana legalization has changed the portrayal of traditional marijuana users. Driven by current political changes and societal perceptions marijuana use has become more prevalent in the US among the older adult population (Lloyd & Striley, 2018). There has been a significant increase in marijuana use among those 50 years or older. From 2006 to 2013 marijuana use among this age group increased by 71 percent (Han et al., 2017). Despite the increase in marijuana use among the older population it is still predominately used by younger age groups.

For the past 20 years marijuana has been the most used illicit drug among high school students in the US (Miech et al., 2021). The most recent Monitoring the Future (MTF) survey found that 44 percent of all graduating seniors reported some marijuana use in their lifetime. The survey also found that in 2020, approximately one in 14 high school seniors used marijuana on a daily basis (Miech et al., 2021). Furthermore, marijuana use had one of the lowest rates of non-continuation of any illicit drug included in the survey. These findings suggests that

marijuana use persists beyond high school. According to the National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH), young adults aged 18 to 25 years old accounted for the highest percentage of marijuana users in 2019 (McCance-Katz, 2020). In 2019, there was a reported 7.7 million young adults that used marijuana during the past month and 2.5 million young adults that used marijuana almost daily (McCance-Katz, 2020). This demographic coincides with the ages (18-25) of a typical college student. During the past decade, marijuana use among US college students has been on the rise at an accelerating rate becoming the most used illicit drug on a majority of college campuses in the US (Schulenberg et al., 2018). The 2018 MTF survey found that approximately one-third of college students reported the use of marijuana annually (Johnston et al., 2018). Additionally, the study indicated that 21% to 22% of college students reportedly used marijuana in the past month (Johnston et al., 2018).

College Campus: Drug Market (Marijuana)

Recent national illicit drug use trends indicate the existence of drug markets on college campuses, in particular marijuana markets (Miech et al., 2021). Studies examining drug markets indicate that not all types of markets are alike (Curtis & Wendel, 2000). Ethnographic investigation has found that marijuana markets on college campuses functioned differently from traditional street markets dealing in the distribution of the same illicit substances (Mohamed & Fritsvold, 2012). Mohamed and Fritsvold (2012) conducted an ethnographic investigation examining drug markets on college campuses. They found that the primary market on campus was marijuana followed by prescription pills. Unlike marijuana street markets they found that a majority of dealers in marijuana markets on college campuses were current or former college students from middle class or affluent households. Furthermore, they found that transportation and distribution strategies within marijuana markets on college campuses were often done in

plain sight and took place in public settings without consequences. In general marijuana drug markets on college campuses are overlooked, as most drug dealers were not arrested for marijuana distribution. Conversely, studies examining street markets found that open-air illicit drug markets are more likely to become entrenched in disadvantaged and disorganized communities and be subject to increased levels of formal control and aggressive policing tactics (Thomas & Dierenfelt, 2018). Furthermore, studies examining street markets have shown that minority drug offenders are more vulnerable to police monitoring and arrests due to their nature of drug offending as they are more likely to sell drugs to strangers, in public places, or in areas with heavy police presence (Blumstein, 1993; Coker, 2003; Goode, 2002; Tonry, 1995).

Marijuana Enforcement in the United States

During the 1980s, the US criminal justice system waged a "war on drugs" spearheaded by the Regan administration and carried on by preceding administrations, respectively the George H.W. Bush administrations, Bill Clinton, and George W. Bush administrations. Over the course of these administrations the number of drug offenders rose by more than 1,000 percent (Forman, 2017). The war on drugs is typically associated with the enforcement of "rock" cocaine during the crack epidemic in the 1980s but marijuana enforcement has been equally responsible for the disproportionate number of Blacks funneled through the criminal justice system (Beckett & Brydolf-Horwitz, 2020). The most consistent take on the war on both drugs has been the disproportionate negative impact it had on poor and minority communities, particularly Blacks (Kennedy et al., 2018). The war on marijuana proceeds the rhetorical "war on drugs" as there was a push in the 1970s to harshly penalize those in possession of marijuana (Forman, 2017). During this period, disparities were exacerbated, as the difference in arrest rates for marijuana widened between Blacks and Whites in the US. In some police departments in the

country marijuana arrest rates rose 900 percent from 1968-1972, with Black people accounting for 80 percent of those arrested for possession marijuana (Wilson, 1978).

The war on drugs is considered a puissant contributor to the categorization of criminals a Blacks. Young disadvantaged Black Americans were negatively impacted by this reality and unfairly became the primary target of the war resulting in a highly disproportionate number of Blacks being criminalized (Austin & Irwin, 2001; Reiman, 1998; Tonry, 1995). Through legislation, both cocaine and marijuana laws have been significantly revised with the intention of negating some of the disparities within the criminal justice system. The transformation of marijuana laws is most apparent due to the number of states that have legalized marijuana in the US (Ward et al., 2018). Marijuana laws in the US continue to change at a feverishly pace and remain fluid. Today, marijuana possession for recreational or medical use is legal in over 30 states within the US (ACLU, 2020). Although there is a stark contrast from marijuana enforcement in the 1970s, marijuana enforcement remains universal in some fashion, especially in states in which possession of marijuana has not been fully legalized.

Despite the shift in marijuana enforcement and changes in marijuana laws, disparities continue to persist in all stages of the criminal justice system (Ghandnoosh, 2015). These disparities are most apparent when comparing racial differences. Blacks are arrested at higher rates for marijuana possession than any other race (Nguyen & Reuter, 2012). In some instances, Black males are 8 to 10 times more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana than their counterparts (ACLU, 2020). Since the 1980s Blacks have borne the greatest brunt of criminal justice scrutiny and remain the “low hanging fruit” as it relates to participation in marijuana related drug activities (Mohamed & Fritsvold, 2012). Findings from the most recent ACLU

research report suggest that Blacks continue to be policed more harshly for their involvement with marijuana (ACLU, 2020).

Background and Statement of Problem

For over four decades marijuana use has been considered a social practice and pastime among college students in which social bonds are established. Rudzinski et al., (2014) found that students believe being around their college peers encouraged them to smoke and quitting would require breaking ties. There has been a steady increase of marijuana use and experimentation among college students of all races since the mid-1990s (Gledhill-Hoyt et al., 2000). Hu et al. (2011) found that 1 in 10 college students have used some form of marijuana at some point in their life. Allen and Holder (2014) conducted a study at a university that examined the prevalence of marijuana use. Their study included a sample of 570 college students. They found that 59 percent of the participants reported marijuana use in their lives, 48.7 percent reported that they used marijuana in the past year, and 32.6 percent reported marijuana use during the past month. In a later study it was reported that between 26 percent and 44 percent of college students have reported using marijuana (Presley et al., 1993). Results from the MTF survey indicated that marijuana use within the college student population increased from 1 in 50 students using daily in the early 1990's to 1 in 20 using daily in 2013 (Johnston et al., 2018). Surpassing the consumption of alcohol, marijuana now represents the most widely used illicit drug on college campuses in the U.S. (Leinfelt & Thompson, 2004).

Marijuana use was once seen as the engine driving serious crime among adolescents and young adults (Kandel, 2003). Critics of marijuana use considered it the gateway to more serious drug problems. Once described as devil's weed, marijuana was prohibited in the 1930s after the enactment of The Marihuana Tax Act of 1937 (Boyd & Carter, 2012). America's perception and

acceptance of marijuana have shifted in favor of widespread legalization of the substance (Stinger & Maggard, 2016; Khatapoush & Hallfors, 2004). Despite a shift in perceptions on marijuana use there are still risks associated with illegally possessing the substance. One of the most damming risk, is being arrested. Arrest is a significant stage in the criminal justice system as it serves as the entry point into the sanctioning mechanism of the system (Rocque, 2011). Arrest decisions made by police officers could mean a reprieve from further action by the criminal justice system (The Sentencing Project, 2018). In particular for Blacks, once they are arrested, they are more likely to be convicted and, they are more likely to experience longer sentences than Whites (The Sentencing Project, 2018). Despite the risk of an arrest looming, marijuana is still the most widely used illegal drug among college students of all races (SAMHSA, 2018). Although, possession of marijuana is considered a minor crime in most regards, the infraction could result in one being labeled as a "criminal" (Becker, 1963).

Marijuana reform efforts in Texas have been made to reduce the severity of penalties associated with being arrested for possession of marijuana but there are still implications for being arrested. According to the Texas Penal Code 481.121, the penalty for possession of marijuana can result in 180 days to 20 years in jail depending on the amount a person is found in possession of at the time of arrest. Additionally, an arrest for possessing marijuana could have a lasting impact well beyond any subsequent criminal behavior. Scholarship on lingering effects of an arrest throughout the life course has castigatory noncriminal outcomes in the realm of educational attainment, employment opportunities, and other civil liberties such as voting. Limitations on future opportunities in these crucial life areas cause deficits and disadvantages that compound negative consequences later in life. Lopes et al. (2012) found that early labeling effects continue to affect one's financial stability well beyond their early 20s. Additionally, they

found drug arrest increases the likelihood of continued use of drugs later in life. If arrested for a drug related offense, college students risk losing financial aid or scholarships. The loss of funding for college can mean the end of a student's college career. Financial aid is often essential for attendance at colleges because many minority students are from the lower social classes. Studies have shown that Black students are also less likely to have the financial means to pay for college costs in comparison to other racial and ethnic groups (Feagin et al., 1996; Freeman, 2005). Drug felons specifically, are permanently prohibited from receiving federal financial aid for education (Brewer & Heitzeg, 2008). This is critical because post-secondary education has become a necessity for labor market success. Additionally, access to higher education and attainment of a college degree have been viewed as a solution to racial inequality in relation to socioeconomic status (Allen, 1988). Furthermore, a conviction for possession of marijuana can have a significant impact on future employment opportunities (Pager, 2003). Some states have increased the occupational bans for convicted felons, preventing them from teaching, working with children and law enforcement (Brewer & Heitzeg, 2008). In respect to employment, studies have also found that negative consequences occur even when an arrest does not result in an actual conviction (Schwartz & Skolnick, 1962). Research has found that employers are resistant to hiring those with a preexistent criminal label (Irwin, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The current study aimed to determine if racial disparities for possession of marijuana arrest existed at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions by examining campus crime data obtained from randomly selected college campus law enforcement agencies in Texas. A primary objective of the study was to determine if Blacks were disproportionately arrested for possession of marijuana while on campus compared to Whites. Additionally, the

study sought to determine if the racial composition of a college campus had an influence on Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana.

Significance of the Study

There is an extensive segment of research that focuses on racial differences in arrest rates for drug possession (Nguyen & Reuter, 2012; Mitchell & Caudy, 2017). Despite the abundance of research examining arrest disparities for drug arrests, there is a gap in literature as there is no research that has sought to explore differences among arrest rates for possession of marijuana within the college campus context. Research within this context has focused primarily on the prevalence of crimes such as substance abuse, sexual assault, or hate crimes (Van Dyke & Tester, 2014; Campe, 2019; Cundiff, 2019). Previous research has not looked carefully at possession of marijuana arrest made on college campuses to determine if racial arrest disparities persist among those arrested by campus police. This is surprising given that marijuana is the most widely used illicit drug on college campuses (Miech et al., 2021). In this study, I aimed to fill the gap in our understanding of arrest rates for possession of marijuana among Whites and Blacks on college campuses in Texas.

Conceptualization of Terms

This section includes a conceptual definition of the following terms, non-minority serving institution, minority serving institution and campus arrest data. Conceptualization is the process by which we specify precisely what we mean when use particular terms (Maxfield & Babbie, 2015). The specification of conceptual definitions serves as specific working definitions to clearly explain what a concept means, and it focuses the researcher's observation strategy (Maxfield & Babbie, 2015). Definitions presented in this section will assist in a thorough understanding of the campus crime data related to marijuana offenses used in the current study.

Minority Serving Institutions and Non-Minority Serving Institutions

In 2019, more than 50 percent of the colleges in Texas were designated as a minority serving institution (Rutgers Center for Minority Serving Institutions, 2019). Minority serving institutions represent a subgroup of colleges in the US that aim to serve disadvantaged racial and ethnic groups that have historically been excluded from higher education (Li et al., 2018). In order to be designated as a minority serving institution the institution must enroll significant percentages of undergraduate minority and lower income students and meet the minimum eligibility thresholds required by each type of minority serving institution (Li et al., 2018). The Department of Education defines the term "minority serving institution" as an institution of higher education whose enrollment of a single minority or a combination of the following minorities, American Indian, Alaskan Native, Black (no of Hispanic origin), Hispanic (including persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Central or South American origin), Pacific Islander or other ethnic group underrepresented in science and engineering, exceeding 50 percent of the total enrollment. The term minority institution encompasses Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs), Tribal Colleges and Universities (TCUs), Alaska Native and Native Hawaiian–Serving Institutions (ANNHs), Native American Serving Nontribal Institutions (NASNTIs), Predominately Black Institutions (PBIs), and Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander–Serving Institutions (AANAPISIs).

Considering the Rutgers Center for Minority Serving Institutions, which maintains a directory of all minority serving institutions in the US there were approximately 80 colleges in Texas that were designated as a minority serving institution in 2019. A vast majority of minority serving institutions in Texas were HSIs, accounting for 90 percent of all MSIs in the state (Rutgers Center for Minority Serving Institutions, 2019). A small percentage of colleges in

Texas were designated as both a HSI and an AANAPISI which accounted for seven percent. The remaining 10 percent of the MSIs in Texas were HBCUs.

For the purposes of this analysis, colleges designated as HBCUs and HSIs in Texas were included as minority serving institutions. There is a total of 9 HBCUs in Texas. Eight of the HBCUs in Texas are four-year universities (six private nonprofit and two public). The ninth is a public two-year college. HBCUs have afforded Blacks with opportunities for higher education that they would not otherwise have due to legal racial exclusion and socioeconomic status (Gasman, 2009). Black higher education institutions began in 1837, with the founding of Cheyney College (Waymer & Street, 2015). The Higher Education Act of 1965 defines HBCUs as institutions of higher learning established before 1964 whose principal mission was then, as is now, the higher education of Black Americans. HSIs are relatively new compared to HBCUs but their growth has been exponential during the past 25 years (Vargas, 2018). In 2008 there were only 47 colleges designated as a HSI in the US. In 2019, 77 colleges in Texas alone were designated as a HSI (Rutgers Center for Minority Serving Institutions, 2019). As a part of the HSI program statute amendment, Congress found that Hispanics were at a high risk of not enrolling or graduating from college (Vargas, 2018). Title V, Part A of the Higher Education Act established a program to expand opportunities for Hispanic students and support colleges who enroll large numbers of these students. HSIs are defined as institutions that are accredited, grant degrees, and have a full-time equivalent undergraduate enrollment that is at least 25% Hispanic (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). Predominately White Institution (PWI) is the term used to describe institutions of higher learning in which Whites accounted for 50% or greater of the student enrollment. For the purpose of this study PWIs are referred to as non-minority serving institutions.

Campus Arrest Data

The influx of campus populations and the changing socioeconomic composition of students have contributed to crime patterns on college campuses since the 1990s (Smith, 1989). Due to legislation passed in the 1990s, public access to campus crime data is readily available. The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act of 1998 (Clery Act) requires all universities receiving federal funding to collect and publish current campus crime data for the preceding 3 years. According to the Department of Education (2020), the Clery Act requires the following, reporting of specific crimes that occur on campus, declaring the number of arrests for alcohol, drugs, and weapons violations, and the disclosing of current crime precaution and security policies in an annual report to the public. To ensure campus crime data is readily available universities maintain daily crime logs and annual reports on their websites which is accessible to the public. Additionally, university websites include instructions for guidance and contact information for requesting open records requests for specific crime data. Consequently, daily crime logs and annual reports did not contain the arrest data needed to conduct a thorough analysis of arrests for possession of marijuana, thus open records requests were sent for on-campus arrest data pertaining to marijuana related arrest.

Under the Clery Act, on-campus is designated as any building or property owned or controlled by an institution within the same reasonably contiguous geographic area and used by the institution in direct support of, or in a manner related to, the institution's educational purposes, including residence halls; and Any building or property that is within or reasonably contiguous to the area identified in paragraph (1) of this definition, that is owned by the institution but controlled by another person, is frequently used by students, and supports institutional purposes (such as a food or other retail vendor) (Department of Education, 2020).

"On-Campus" does not include roadways that are controlled by the university, or public roadways adjacent to the university. In this study the term campus arrest data refers to possession of marijuana arrests made on-campus by campus police at each college included the study. Campus arrest data does not include any information from local municipal police departments or federal agencies.

Organization of Study

The layout of this study is comprised of five chapters, consisting of the present introduction chapter. Specifically, Chapter 1 provides overall context to the study (background, statement of problem, purpose of study, and significance of study), and defines the following terms non-minority serving institution, minority serving institution, and campus arrest data. Chapter 2 presents literature on campus policing and the broken windows theory. The chapter also includes literature on the racial threat theory. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the research questions this study attempted to answer. Chapter 3 details the research design, methodology, and procedures utilized for data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results of analyses conducted to test the hypotheses proposed in the study. Chapter 5 summarizes the overall findings and implications of the study. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for future studies

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Blacks have reported experiencing racial discrimination in several aspects of their life and the college experience is no different. Transitioning from high school to college can be difficult for students of all races but Black students attending college face unique challenges when compared to other races (Thomas, 1981; Cureton, 2003). In particular Black students attending non-minority serving institutions are faced with adjusting to a White community atmosphere as many Black students come from racially segregated, predominately Black residential environments (Camille et al., 2004). In a qualitative study conducted by Campbell et al. (2019), Blacks reported facing racial discrimination at non-minority serving institutions as well as minority serving institutions. D'Augelli and Hersberger (1993), found that 41 percent of Black college students reported hearing disparaging racial remarks and 59 percent reported they had been the target of racial insults at least once or twice. In another study, Black college students reported experiencing racial discrimination once every other week and ambiguous incidents more often than other racial groups (Swim et al., 2003). Racial discrimination could present itself in numerous forms on college campuses. Fassin (2015) identified racial profiling by campus police or campus security as one of the most common forms of discrimination experienced by Blacks while attending college. Studies examining the experiences of Blacks on college campuses have indicated that the campus police pose a significant barrier to Black student's college matriculation. In particular, Feagin (1992) found that some of the most serious discrimination faced by Black students has come from campus police. Solorzano et al. (2000), examined Black student's experiences and responses to racial micro aggressions on college campuses. Their study highlighted several concerns expressed by Black students which included

unfair treatment by faculty as well as campus law enforcement. Thus, in addition to the normal stress that accompanies the college experience, Blacks often experience the unique stress induced by racism (Nora & Cabrera, 1996). According to Peak and Barthe (2008), campus law enforcement agencies are expected to protect and treat all races equally. Contrary to this expectation Black students have reported that they believe campus police officers tend to look at them as lawless outsiders and potential troublemakers (The JBHE Foundation Inc., 1998). In a study conducted by Allen (2014), Black students were more likely than Whites to be arrested for minor violations of the law while on campus. Levin (2003) suggests that educational institutions face the challenge of ensuring people are treated as individuals to ensure equality of opportunity, while at the same time not undermining the steady racial inequalities prevalent in society. Racial inequity in the criminal justice system is one of the most pervasive social problems in the US (Welch, 2007). This study seeks to determine if racial inequalities also persist on college campuses by examining possession of marijuana arrests among Blacks and Whites made by campus police at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas.

Campus Policing: Broken Windows/Order Maintenance Policing

During the 21st century campus police departments have become a staple at college campuses across the US. According to the US Department of Justice (2004), there are four distinct structures in security and policing on college campuses. These structures include campus police departments, security departments within the university, contract security, and local or state police with offices on the campus. While there are structural differences many campuses have opted for full policing departments rather than security or public safety structures (Peak & Brathe, 2008). According to the most recent Campus Law Enforcement Survey conducted in 2011-2012, a high percentage of colleges and universities in the US utilize the

campus police department model. The survey found that approximately 77 percent of the more than 900 US 4-year colleges and universities with 2,500 or more students utilized campus police departments that employed sworn police officers to provide law enforcement services on campus (Reaves, 2015). Sworn police officers employed at these institutions have full arrest powers granted by a state or local authority that extend beyond the campus. The survey also revealed that 86 percent of campus police departments had arrest jurisdiction on properties adjacent to the campus (Reaves, 2015). Previous studies examining the functions of campus police departments identified that they perform most of the same functions as municipal police departments (Sloan, 1992). When comparing campus police departments to their municipal counterparts, the two department types were almost identical as it related to having a community policing plan, full time dedicated community policing personnel, and training for community policing based on the department's geographical jurisdiction (Bromley, 2003). Similar to municipal police departments, sworn police officers employed within campus police departments are responsible for enforcing drug laws on or around campus. Bromley and Reaves (1999) found that 95 percent of campus police departments employing sworn officers had responsibility for enforcing drug laws. Their study also found that approximately 66 percent of campus police departments employing sworn police officers had primary responsibility for vice enforcement.

While studies have shown that there are similarities between campus police departments and municipal police departments, other studies have found that the performance of the department types are significantly different. Ferrandino (2012) found that campus police departments perform more of a security role than traditional policing function. Security is based on risk assessment that deals with both the probability and the criticality of a potential threat. Findings from the study conducted by Bromley (2003), show that violent crime on college

campuses are a low-probability event. These findings indicate that campus police departments represent more of what Wilson (1978) described as order maintenance rather than law enforcement function. Order maintenance is an essential function of the broken windows policing strategy which entails addressing minor issues in a community before they create unwanted conditions or permit more serious offending (Wilson, 1978). Originally coined in 1982 by James Q. Wilson and George Kelling, the theory outlined a developmental sequence where neighborhoods declined into high-crime areas through disorderly conditions. Based on the notion of fear, they argued that social and physical incivilities caused many stable families to move out of the neighborhood and the remaining residents to isolate themselves and avoid others (Welsh et al., 2015). Wilson and Kelling (1982) argued that serious crime was a result of the lack of cohesion between the police and citizens in efforts to prevent urban decay and social disorder. In practice, the theory shifts police officer's attention on serious crimes to making arrests for minor offenses. Researchers note that for this approach to be effective, police officers must use good judgement in deciding whom to apprehend for these offenses (Thompson, 2015). Wilson and Kelling (1982) suggested that police should engage order maintenance activities and restore neighborhood conditions to reinforce informal social neighborhoods. The idea of this theory is that when individuals see things that are broken down, they feel that no one cares about them and thus can further violate them without repercussions because no one is looking after them, therefore no one is going to care if things are broken down further. This theory can also be applied to people. When someone is seen to be broken down, when it seems no one cares about them they can be violated without trouble as well. In the 1990's the broken windows theory was often applied to crime reduction and often reported with positive results. McCabe (2008) found that making a concentrated effort to prevent the use and sale of marijuana, and closing locations

associated with drug activity was related to a reduction in crime. While studies have shown support for the broken windows theory argument, some have also shown that this policy strategy disproportionately affected Blacks. Beck (2019) found that as suburbs saw an increase in poor non-White residents also increased their quality-of-life arrest. Due to vague guidance provided on how police departments should implement broken windows policing strategies several iterations and interpretations have emerged. Broken windows policing has been conceptualized under the general umbrella of quality-of-life enforcement and zero tolerance policing (McCabe, 2008). Based on the notion that campus police departments serve an order maintenance function, it is hypothesized that most of the possession of marijuana arrests made on college campuses in Texas will be for low level offenses (misdemeanors). The broken windows theory argues that visible signs of disorder such as broken windows or crack vials on the street show lack of neighborhood concern or vigilance (Thompson, 2015). Based on previous research examining the broken windows policy it is also hypothesized that Blacks will be disproportionately represented among those arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses in Texas.

Racial Threat Theory

African Americans are faced with structural and institutional barriers that have the potential to thwart their advancement in US society through higher education. One such barrier is racial discrimination. Racial discrimination is defined as unfair and differential treatment determined by race and is a behavioral characteristic of racism (Armstrong et al., 2019). Racial threat theory proposes that the majority population uses institutional racism and other forms of oppression, such as arrests to restrict African Americans from experiencing advances in society as a form of controlling the minority group (Dollar, 2014). The theory also proposes that a growth in the minority population, particularly Blacks may be viewed as an economic or political

competition threat to Whites (Reauner, 2012). Under the racial threat umbrella, in the interest of the privileged class police utilize the crime control guise of the state to restrain and limit those who threaten their interest (Petrocelli et al., 2003). Accordingly, arrests for possession of marijuana should occur in places with greater percentages of non-White citizens.

The current study seeks to determine if the racial threat perspective is relevant on college campuses by examining the racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in and the influence it has on Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana.

Racial disparities in drug arrests are congruent with the racial threat perspective, which proposes that the relative prevalence of minorities in a community may be perceived as threatening to the political, economic, and social hegemony of Whites (Blalock, 1967). Perceptions of the racial theory, in turn, may exacerbate coercive control of the minority populations by formal social control agents, resulting in elevated aggregate levels of arrests among minority illicit drug users and dealers. Previous research examining criminal justice system processing at each decision-making level has found that race significantly influences arrest decisions (Tapia, 2010). Race has long been identified as significant element in the creation of US social organization and continues to play an integral role in law enforcement practices and policies (D'Allesion & Stolzenberg, 2003; Dollar, 2014). Novak and Chamlin (2012) conducted a study to examine the impact of race on police decisions to search vehicles during traffic stops. Their analysis revealed that search rates increased in areas where the proportion of Black residents were higher. Furthermore, their findings suggest that structural characteristics of an area can provide cues to officers regarding individuals belonging in a particular neighborhood. Consequently, social control increases among those individuals whose racial characteristics are inconsistent with the neighborhood racial composition. In other words,

Blacks are more likely to be searched in neighborhoods with a high percentage of Whites, while Whites are more likely to be searched in neighborhoods with a high percentage of Blacks.

Racial threat theory has established itself as one of the dominant theoretical paradigms for explaining arrest disparities among Blacks and Whites. A derivative of the racial conflict paradigm, early versions of this viewpoint appeared in Blalock's classic sociological work on intergroup relations (Ousey & Lee, 2008). Blalock (1967) argues that Whites perceive the increased presence and visibility of minority groups as either an economic threat, political threat, or symbolic threat. Furthermore, this perspective argues that criminal justice agents hold racial attitudes that mold their development of policies, perceptions of crime problems, and responses to crime in a way that disproportionately impacts people of color (Beckett et al., 2006; Beckett, et al., 2005; Ghandnoosh, 2015). Racial threat theory predicts that when minority groups pose a threat to the dominant group's political and economic influence, dominant groups expand criminal law to suppress the political and economic power of the minority group (Blalock, 1967). One of the most basic tenets of the racial threat argument is that as a dominant social group, Whites view Blacks, and other ethnic minority groups, as potential competitors who may hinder their rise in society (Ousey & Lee, 2008). As a result of increased prevalence of Blacks in a given area, it is hypothesized that Whites perceive a greater threat and therefore move to protect the existing status quo via various forms of discrimination, including unjustly focusing criminal justice resources at Blacks. Racial threat theory assumes White populations can selectively deploy criminal law to protect their social interests. The theory proposes that in response to the increased presence of Blacks, Whites will be more motivated to discriminate through the use of formal social controls, as a means of controlling Blacks and combatting this minority group threat. Research following this tradition suggests that the racial threat hypothesis affects police

organizations and how they enforce certain crimes such as drug offenses (Lombardo & Olsen, 2010). Caroll and Jackson (1982) found that police expenditures expanded when a minority group appeared to threaten the dominant population.

Previous macrolevel studies reporting that the relative size of the Black population is positively associated with indicators of formal social control have provided general support to the racial threat thesis. For example, studies have found that incarceration rates are significantly higher in states that have higher percentages of Black residents (Jacobs & Carmichael, 2001; Greenberg & West, 2001). Other studies found a correlation between the relative size of minority population and police force size (Kent & Jacobs, 2005). In a more recent study Duxbury (2021) found that criminal sentencing law was shaped by the public policy preferences of Whites. However, previous research investigating racial threat effects on arrest rates has produced mixed conclusions. Liska and Chamlin (1984) found that the increased prevalence of non-Whites may affect arrest rates but has no influence on minority arrest patterns. In another study, Stolzenberg et al. (2004) found that the percentage of Blacks in an area was not related to an increased probability of Black arrests. Other studies have suggested that the growing presence of minorities in communities may weaken social control and harsh punishments, particularly once the size of the minority population reaches a critical threshold (Andersen & Ouellette, 2019). The current research seeks to expand previous scholarship examining racial threat effects by determining if the racial composition of a college campus community has an influence on Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana at colleges in Texas. Specially, this study attempts to integrate the racial threat theory with drug arrest disparity literature to explain and predict the influence that neighborhood racial composition has on possession of marijuana arrests made on-campus.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

College campuses share similarities to municipalities in terms of crimes committed (Bordner & Peterson, 1983). Drug related crimes such as possession of marijuana in particular occur on and around college campuses (Mohamed & Fritsvold, 2012). Based on the prevalence of marijuana use among college students, college campuses have the potential to be drug markets and are ideal for exploration on the enforcement of marijuana among campus police departments. This study seeks to explore the college setting to determine if racial arrest disparities exist at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions in Texas for possession of marijuana. The study also examines neighborhood racial demographics to determine if they have an influence on Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana on college campuses in Texas. The following research questions and hypotheses guided this dissertation:

1. Is there a relationship between the race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana and the college type (non-minority serving institution or minority serving institution) the arrest occurred on?

   Null Hypothesis H_1: The race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana is independent of college type**.**

2. Do Blacks and Whites have significantly different arrest rates at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas?

   Null Hypothesis H_2: There is a significant difference between the arrest rates for Blacks and Whites for possession of marijuana at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas.

3. Does racial composition of the neighborhood where the college is located, in terms of percentage of White residents and Black residents influence Black arrests for possession of marijuana?

   Null Hypothesis H_3: Racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in does not significantly predict Black arrest percentages.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This study aimed to determine if racial arrest disparities existed among those arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses by examining arrest data, race, and college campus type. Additionally, the racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in was examined to determine if it influenced Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana. To fulfill the primary purpose of this study, the researcher gathered information by, requesting on-campus arrest data from non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions in Texas.

Research Design

The present research used a quantitative approach. According to Bryman (2012, p. 35), quantitative research is defined as, "A research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data…" It is implied that this type of research signifies amounting to something. Quantitative research is appropriate for this study as it aims to investigative to what extent Blacks are arrested for possession of marijuana compared to Whites at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions. As noted by Rasinger (2013), quantitative methods attempt to investigate the answers to the questions starting with how many, how much, to what extent.

Data Collection

Secondary data obtained from non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions located in Texas was used in this research. Open records requests were sent electronically to each institution included in the study. Depending on the open records request process for each college, an email or fax was sent to request the data, or a request was submitted via the university's open records portal. All arrests for possession of marijuana made on-campus

during the 2018 and 2019 calendar years were requested. The following data was also requested, offense type, the race/ethnicity of person arrested, age of person arrested, location of arrest, level of arrest, outcome of arrest, and any accompanying charges (see Appendix A). To ensure anonymity and confidentiality no personal identifying information such as name, date of birth, or social security number was requested as a part of the open records request. All data requested was in pursuant to the Texas Public Information Act.

Sample Selection

Simple random sampling (aka, random sampling) was used to select the sample in this research. Random sampling refers to taking a number of independent observations from a probability distribution (Lukacsy, 2011). Probability sampling was preferred, as it allows the researcher to make predictions using the sample selected and generalize the results of the study (Maxfield & Babbie, 2015). The sampling frame included all public and private non-profit 2 to 4-year colleges in the state of Texas (see Appendix C1). To obtain the sampling frame the College Navigator Tool was used. The following was included in the search criteria, **States:** Texas, **Level of Award:** Bachelors, Associates, and Advanced, and **Institution Types:** Public, Private Non-Profit, 4-year, and 2-year. The Microsoft EXCEL RAND function was used to randomly select the sample in this study. The names of all colleges returned from the search in the College Navigator Tool were input into Excel (Column A) and were assigned a number 1, 2, 3, 4, …… (Column B). The RAND function in EXCEL generates a random real number greater than 0 or equal and less than 1. Once the random numbers were assigned, they were sorted from smallest to largest. The colleges in the first 40 cells (A1-A40) were selected for inclusion. The following colleges were included, Angelina College, Baylor University, Blinn College, Cisco College, Dallas Baptist University, Houston Baptist University, Huston-Tillotson University,

Jarvis Christian College, Kilgore College, Lamar University, McMurry University, Navarro College, Odessa College, Paul Quinn College, Prairie View A&M University, Rice University, Sam Houston State University, Wiley College, West Texas A & M University, Victoria College, University of North Texas, University of Houston, Trinity University, The University of Texas Permian Basin, The University of Texas at San Antonio, The University of Texas at El Paso, The University of Texas at Austin, The University of Texas at Arlington, Texas Woman's University, Texas Tech University, Texas State University, Texas Southern University, Texas Christian University, Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi, Texas A & M University-College Station, Tarleton State University, , Southwestern Christian College, Southern Methodist University, Stephen F. Austin University, Sul Ross State University.

Responsive Institutions

In total there were 29 colleges that responded to the open records requests. The responsive institutions included, Victoria College, Dallas Baptist University, Cisco College, Southwestern Christian College, Trinity University, Rice University, Angelina College, Texas Southern University, Baylor University, Blinn College, Huston-Tillotson University, Kilgore College, Lamar University, Odessa College, Prairie View A&M University, West Texas A & M University, University of North Texas, University of Houston, The University of Texas Permian Basin, The University of Texas at Austin, Texas Woman's University, Texas Tech University, Texas State University, Texas Christian University, Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi, Texas A & M University-College Station, Tarleton State University, Stephen F. Austin University, Sul Ross State University. Out of the 29 colleges, seven colleges in the sample were excluded because they reported having made no on-campus arrests for possession of marijuana in 2018 or 2019. The colleges that were excluded for this purpose included, Victoria College,

Dallas Baptist University, Cisco College, Southwestern Christian College, Trinity University, Rice University, Angelina College. Texas Southern University was also excluded from the sample because they were the only college to provide arrest data in a summary format. Huston-Tillotson University was also excluded from the sample because they did not have a campus police department and were unable to provide on-campus arrest data regarding possession of marijuana arrests at the time. In total there were nine excluded from the original sample.

The final sample included the following colleges, Baylor University, Blinn College, Kilgore College, Lamar University, Odessa College, Prairie View A&M University, West Texas A & M University, University of North Texas, University of Houston, The University of Texas Permian Basin, The University of Texas at Austin, Texas Woman's University, Texas Tech University, Texas State University, Texas Christian University, Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi, Texas A & M University-College Station, Tarleton State University, Stephen F. Austin and Sul Ross State University. Furthermore, the final sample consisted of ten non-minority serving institutions and ten minority serving institutions (see Table 1).

Table 1

Final Sample (N=20): Non-Minority Serving Institutions and Minority Serving Institutions

Non-Minority Serving Institutions	Minority Serving Institutions
Texas A & M University-College Station	Odessa College
Tarleton State University	Prairie View A&M University
Blinn College	Sul Ross State University
Kilgore College	Texas Tech University
University of North Texas-Denton	The University of Texas Permian Basin
The University of Texas at Austin	University of Houston
West Texas A & M University	Texas Woman's University
Texas Christian University	Texas State University
Stephen F. Austin University	Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi
Baylor University	Lamar University

Campus Community Demographics

This following section provides a description of the campus community demographics for each college included in the sample. Campus community demographic includes the student enrollment racial composition in terms of Black and White students during the 2018-2019 academic year and the neighborhood racial composition in terms of Black and White residents living in the community the college is located in. Data pertaining to university student enrollment demographics were obtained as a part of the open records request. Data pertaining to neighborhood resident racial composition were obtained from the US Census Bureau.

Student Enrollment Racial Composition

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 10,881 White students and 1,018 Black students enrolled at Baylor University. Whites made up 63.1 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 5.9 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 12,757 White students and 2,208 Black students enrolled at Blinn College. Whites made up 59 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 10.2 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 2,414 White students and 921 Black students enrolled at Kilgore College. Whites made up 49.6 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 18.9 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 7,906 Black students and 164 White students enrolled at Prairie View A&M University. Blacks made up 83 percent of students enrolled while Whites accounted for 1.7 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 17,508 White students and 3,701 Black students enrolled at Texas State University. Whites made up 45.3 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 9.5 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 11,417 White students and 4,511 Black students enrolled at University of Houston. Whites made up 24.6 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 9.7 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 21,305 White students and 2,076 Black students enrolled at University of Texas-Austin. Whites made up 41.1 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 4.0 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 17,143 White students and 4,704 Black students enrolled at University of North Texas. Whites made up 44.8 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 12.3 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 38,027 White students and 2,308 Black students enrolled at Texas A&M University-College Station. Whites made up 54.7 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 3.3 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 8,473 White students and 1,117 Black students enrolled at Tarleton State University. Whites made up 64.4 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 8.4 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 5,867 White students and 540 Black students enrolled at West Texas A&M University. Whites made up 56.7 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 5.3 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 7,049 White students and 3,545 Black students enrolled at Lamar University. Whites made up 45.6 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 22.9 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 486 White students and 116 Black students enrolled at Sul Ross State University. Whites made up 23 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 5.4 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 3,971 White students and 1,731 Black students enrolled at Texas Women's University. Whites made up 38.2 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 16.7 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 17,342 White students and 2,081 Black students enrolled at Texas Tech University. Whites made up 54.3 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 6.5 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 2,208 White students and 364 Black students enrolled at University of Texas Permian Basin. Whites made up 38.6 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 6.4 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 3,467 White students and 505 Black students enrolled at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. Whites made up 36.4 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 5.2 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 5,401 White students and 1,308 Black students enrolled at Stephen F. Austin University. Whites made up 58.9 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 15.0 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 7,401 White students and 602 Black students enrolled at Texas Christian University. Whites made up 70.7 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 3.2 percent of students enrolled.

During the 2018-2019 academic year, there were 1,753 White students and 341 Black students enrolled at Odessa College. Whites made up 25.9 percent of students enrolled while Blacks accounted for 5.0 percent of students enrolled.

Table 2

Student Enrollment Racial Composition Percentages: 2018-2019 Academic Year

	% Of White Students	% Of Black Students
Baylor University	63.1	5.9
Blinn College	59.0	10.2
Kilgore College	49.6	18.9
PVAMU	1.7	83.0
Texas State University	45.3	9.5

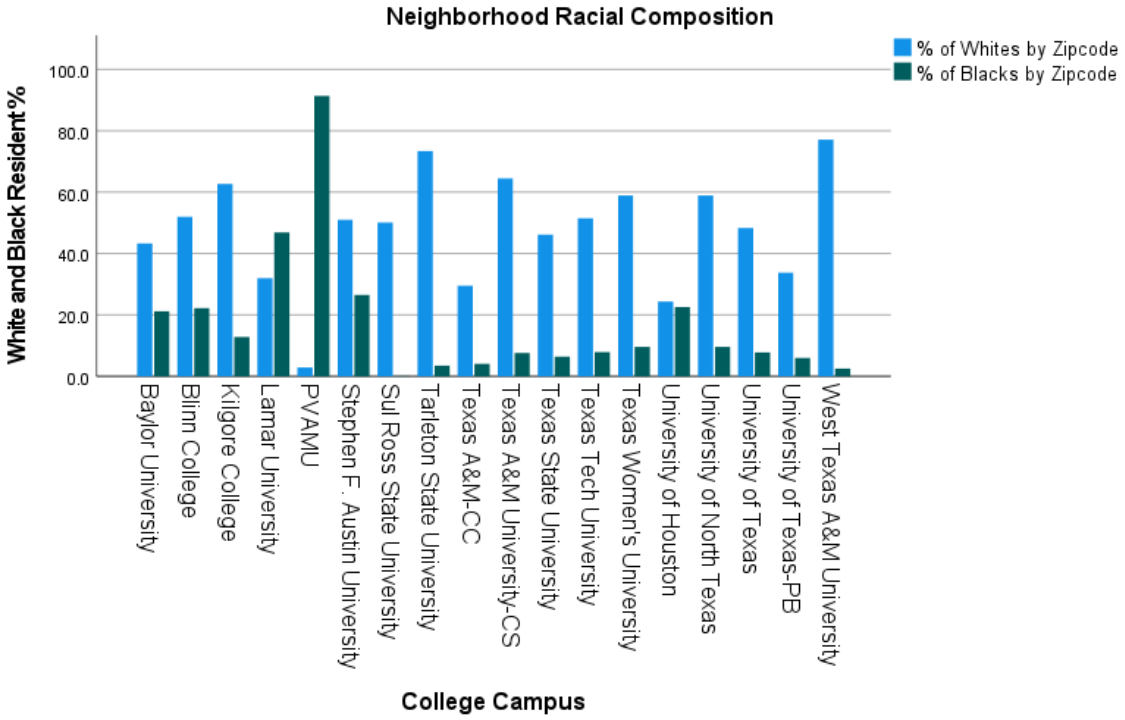
University of Houston	24.6	9.7
UT-Austin	41.1	4.0
University of North Texas	44.8	12.3
Texas A&M University-CS	54.7	5.3
Tarleton State University	64.4	8.4
West Texas A&M University	56.7	5.3
Lamar University	45.6	22.9
Sul Ross State University	23.0	5.4
Texas Women's University	38.2	16.7
Texas Tech University	54.3	6.5
University of Texas-PB	38.6	6.4
Texas A&M University-CC	36.4	5.2
Stephen F. Austin University	58.9	15.0
Texas Christian University	70.7	3.2
Odessa College	25.9	5.0

Neighborhood Resident Racial Composition

Utilizing data from the US Census Bureau, Figure 1 illustrates the neighborhood racial composition of the neighborhood each college included in the sample is located in. Baylor University is located in Waco, Texas (76706) which is comprised of 43.3 percent White residents and 21.2 percent Blacks residents; Blinn College is located in Brenham, Texas (77833) which is comprised of 52.0 percent White residents and 22.2 percent Black residents; Kilgore College is located in Kilgore, Texas (75662) which is comprised of 62.7 percent White residents and 12.8 percent Black residents; Prairie View &M University is located in Prairie View, Texas (77446) which is comprised of 2.9 percent White residents and 91.4 percent Black residents; Texas State University is located in San Marcos, Texas (78666) which is comprised of 46.2 percent White residents and 6.4% Black residents; The University of Houston is located in Houston, Texas (77004) which is comprised of 24.4 percent White residents and 22.6 percent Black residents; The University of Texas-Austin is located in Austin, Texas (78712) which is comprised of 48.3% White residents and 7.8% Black residents; The University of North Texas is located in Denton, Texas (76203) which is comprised of 58.9% White residents and 9.6% Black residents; Texas

A&M University-College Station is located in College Station, Texas (77843) which is comprised of 64.5 percent White residents and 7.6 percent Black residents; Tarleton State is located in Stephenville, Texas (76401) which is comprised of 73.4 percent White residents and 3.5 percent Black residents; West Texas A&M University is located in Canyon, Texas (79016) which is comprised of 77.1 percent White residents and 2.5 percent Black residents; Sul Ross State University is located in Alpine, Texas (79832) which is comprised of 50.1 percent White residents and .1 percent Black residents; Texas Women's University is located in Denton, Texas (76204) which is comprised of 58.9 White residents and 9.6 Black residents; Texas Tech University is located in Lubbock, Texas (79409) which is comprised of 51.5 White residents and 7.9 percent Black residents; University of Texas-Permian Basin is located in Odessa, Texas (79762) which is comprised of 33.8 percent White residents and 6.0 percent Blacks residents; Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi is located in Corpus Christi, Texas (78412) which is comprised of 29.5 White residents and 4.1 percent Black residents; and Stephen F. Austin University is located in Nacogdoches, Texas (75965) which is comprised of 51.0 percent White residents and 26.5 percent Black residents.

Figure 1 Neighborhood Racial Composition: Percentage of Black and White Residents



Procedures and Analysis

All data analysis was performed using SPPS statistical software package (Version 27). Frequency distributions were used to obtain the total number of arrests for possession of marijuana for each race, college campus and college type. This section describes the analysis that was conducted to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2.

Hypothesis 1: The race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana is independent of college type.

Chi-Square test of independence was used to evaluate if there was a relationship between the race of a person arrested and college campus type the arrest occurred on. The variables that were examined were all categorical. Race was categorized as Black and White. College type

was categorized as, Non-Minority Serving Institution and Minority Serving Institution. At this level of analysis, a p-value of ≤ 0.05 was used to determine statistically significant findings.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the arrest rates for Blacks and Whites for possession of marijuana at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas.

To test whether Black and White on-campus arrest rates for possession of marijuana differed a *t*-test was conducted. According to Mertler and Reinhart (2017), a *t*-test is appropriate when the independent variable is defined as having two categories and the dependent variable is quantitative. The independent variable examined was categorical. Arrest rate was categorized as Black arrest rate and White arrest rate. The dependent variable was the numeric arrest rate for Blacks and Whites at each college included in the sample. At this level of analysis, a p-value of ≤ 0.05 was used to determine statistically significant findings.

Hypothesis 3: The racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in does not significantly predict Black arrest percentages.

To determine if the racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in significantly predicted Black arrest rates hierarchal regression was employed. Using data from the US Census Bureau, racial composition was expressed as the percentage of Black residents and White-Non-Hispanic residents in the zip code where the campus was located. Percentage of persons living in poverty was used as a control variable. The predictor variables were percentage of Black residents and percentage of White residents, and the outcome variable was Black arrest percentages. At this level of analysis, a p-value of ≤ 0.05 was used to determine statistically significant findings.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are important matters not only in the primary research in particular, but also even in terms of using secondary data sets because there are ethical issues relating to fair and unbiased selection of sources and analysis (Farrimond, 2013). Although there will be no direct contact with any human subjects, the researcher gained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) as required by the University Research Committee policies established by Texas Southern University. The researcher completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) program and TOPAZ training. There were no risks to human subjects as no human participants were included in the study.

Data Storage and Integrity

Electronic copies of the email responses obtained from each university are stored on the researcher's home computer and password protected utilizing Criminal Justice Information Security (CJIS) standards. In addition, the raw data collected from the universities is contained on an external data storage drive (e.g., thumb drive) in order to transfer electronically filed data. The thumb drive is password protected. The email responses and data files will be stored for 5 years and then will be deleted from the memory of both the computer and thumb drive.

Response Rate

The response rate for this study was impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. Responses from colleges and information obtained on their websites indicated that response times and adherence to requests for data would be impacted due to the public health emergency. Future research should be conducted to include additional colleges post pandemic.

Summary

This chapter carefully outlined the methodological steps that were used to address this analysis' research questions and hypotheses. The data method subsection of this chapter detailed the source and scope of the analytic sample being examined. Conclusively, the procedures and data analysis portion detailed the statistical approaches that were employed to address the research questions and hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study examined on-campus arrests for possession of marijuana made by campus law enforcement agencies at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions in Texas. Additionally, the study examined demographic characteristics of the neighborhoods these institutions were located in, and the variables proposed to influence Black arrest rates and percentages. Data obtained from 20 campus police departments were utilized in this study. The data consisted of 1693 arrests for marijuana related offenses during a two-year period (2018-2019). This chapter presents the results of the data analysis, based on the research questions discussed in Chapter 2. The results and findings are presented in a descriptive manner, using discussions, figures, and tables. The null hypotheses of the study (H_1, H_2, H_3) were tested using chi-square test, *t*-test, and hierarchical regression with a 95% confidence level.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive analysis was conducted to obtain the total number of arrests for possession of marijuana at each college included in the study as well as the total number of arrests for Blacks and Whites. From the descriptive statistics presented below (see Table 3) the college with the most on-campus marijuana arrests during 2018 and 2019 was University of North Texas (392), followed by Texas A&M University-College Station (261), Texas Tech University (231), Texas State University (141), Prairie View A&M University (128), Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (89), Texas Women's University (77), University of Texas-Austin (72), University of Houston (61), University of Texas-Permian Basin (51), Lamar University (45), Baylor University (43), Blinn College (40), West Texas A&M University (28), Sul Ross State

University (13), Tarleton State University (10), Kilgore College (7), Odessa College (2), and Texas Christian University (2).

Table 3

Total Number of Possession of Marijuana Arrest Made On-Campus in 2018-2019 Among the Colleges Included in The Study (N =1693)

	# Of Black Arrested	# Of White Arrested	# Of On-Campus Possession of Marijuana Arrests	College Type
Baylor University	19	24	43	Non-MSI
Blinn College	32	6	40	Non-MSI
Kilgore College	2	5	7	Non-MSI
Prairie View A&M University	121	3	128	MSI
Texas State University	30	110	141	MSI
University of Texas-Austin	42	23	72	Non-MSI
University of Houston	20	39	61	MSI
University of North Texas	166	181	392	Non-MSI
Texas Christian University	0	2	2	Non-MSI
Texas A&M University College Station	81	169	261	Non-MSI
Tarleton State University	1	7	10	Non-MSI
West Texas A&M University	4	17	28	Non-MSI
Lamar University	34	9	45	Non-MSI
Odessa College	0	1	2	MSI
Sul Ross State University	7	3	13	MSI
Texas Women's University	46	28	77	MSI
Texas Tech University	38	178	231	MSI

University of Texas-Permian Basin	16	13	51	MSI
Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi	9	29	89	MSI

Descriptive data analysis was also conducted to obtain the total number of arrests and percentages for Blacks and Whites at each college type. As indicated below (see Table 4) a majority of Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana occurred at non-minority serving institutions, accounting for 57 percent of all Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses in Texas. There were 287 Blacks arrested at minority serving institutions accounting for 43 percent of all Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses.

Table 4

Aggregate Total of Blacks and Percentage of Blacks Arrested at Non-Minority Serving Institutions and Minority Serving Institutions

College Type	# Of Blacks Arrested	% Of Blacks Arrested
Non-Minority Serving Institutions	381	57.0
Minority Serving Institutions	287	43.0

Non-Parametric Tests

Chi-Square Test of Independence

H_1: The race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana is independent of college campus type.

To test whether proportions were different in each group, a chi-square test of independence with $\alpha = .01$ as criterion for significance was conducted. The results of the χ_2 indicated that these differences were significant ($\chi_2 = 23.98$, df = 3, $p < 0.01$). The number of

Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana were higher at non-minority serving institutions than minority serving institutions at 57 percent. In other words, a majority of Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana occurred at non-minority serving institutions.

Table 5

Chi-Square Analysis of Race and Campus Type

	χ_2	df	p-value
Pearson Chi-Square	23.98	3	.000

Multivariate Analysis

Independent *t*-test

***H_2*: There is a significant difference in Black and White arrest rates for possession of marijuana at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas.**

Blacks (N = 18) were associated with higher arrest rates M = 18.94 (SD = 15.73). By comparison, Whites (N = 18) were associated with numerically smaller arrest rates M = 5.43 (SD = 4.49). To test the hypothesis that Blacks and Whites were associated with statistically significantly different mean arrest rates, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. An alpha level of .05 was utilized. Descriptive statistics are in Table 1. All groups were normally distributed. Variances were not homogenous, $F(1, 34) = 11.979$, $p < .005$. Hence, equal variances were not assumed. A statistically significant difference was evident between arrest rates among Blacks and Whites arrested on-campus for possession of marijuana, t (3.504) = 19.754, $p < .005$. A large effect size was noted, d= 1.16, indicative of a strong degree of practical significance (Cohen, 1992).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Black and White Arrest Rates at Minority Serving Institutions and Non-Minority Serving Institutions

Arrest Rates	N	Mean	SD
Black	18	18.94	15.73
White	18	5.43	4.49

Hierarchical Regression

***H_3:* Racial composition of the neighborhood a college is located in does not significantly predict Black arrest rates.**

To approach Research Question 3, a hierarchal linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the influence of the percentage of Black and White residents on the percentage of Blacks arrested on-campus for possession of marijuana. The first step of the regression model consisted of the percentage of persons in poverty, percentage of Black residents and percentage of White residents were added as the second step. The overall regression model predicted approximately 65 percent of the variance in Black arrest percentages ($R^2 = .65$, $F(2, 14) = 10.86$, $p < .001$). The percentage of persons in poverty predicted approximately 10 percent of variance in Black arrest percentages. The percentage of persons in poverty alone was not a significant predictor of Black arrest percentages. After controlling for the percentage of persons in poverty, step two predicted approximately 54.8 percent of variance in Black arrest percentages, although only the percentage of Black residents significantly predicted Black arrest percentages, with a higher percentage of Black residents being associated with a higher percentage of Blacks arrests. When Black arrest percentages are equal to zero Y is expected to be 43.97. For every 1 unit increase in the percentage of Black residents, the Black arrest percentage is expected to increase 1.20 units, holding all other predictors constant.

Table 7

Model 2 with Percentage of Persons in Poverty, Percentage of Black Residents and Percentage of White Residents as Predictors of Black Arrest Percentages

Coefficient	Estimate	SE	p-value
Intercept	43.97	19.44	< .05
b_1 (Persons in Poverty)	-1.12	0.60	> .05
b_2 (White Residents)	.01	0.31	> .05
b_3 (Black Residents)	1.20	0.33	< .05

Note: F (2, 14) = 10.86, p < .05, $R^2 = 0.65$, R^2 *adj* $= 0.57$.

Summary

This section reports the results of the chi-square test, *t*-test, and hierarchical regression (see Appendix C2). For the first hypothesis, the results found that a higher number of Blacks were arrested on-campus for possession of marijuana at non-minority serving institutions compared to minority serving institutions. With regard to the second hypothesis analyses indicated arrest rates for Blacks and Whites were significantly different at the colleges included in the study. Blacks were arrested at higher rates than Whites at college campuses in Texas for possession of marijuana. The hierarchical regression model of the percentage of persons in poverty, the percentage of Black residents and the percentage of White residents significantly predicted Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana on college campuses. The percentage of Black residents was the only independent variable that predicted the percentage of Black arrests.

CHAPTR 5

DISCUSSION

This study examined arrests for possession of marijuana made by campus police at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions in Texas. The primary purpose of the study was to determine if disparities existed among those who were arrested while on-campus for possession of marijuana. Furthermore, the study sought to determine if the campus community demographic, influenced Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana at a sample of colleges in Texas. The study aimed to fill a gap in the limited extant research focusing on arrest disparities on college campuses. To address this problem the objective of the research was to identify (1) if the number of Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana differed at non-minority serving institutions and minority serving institutions in Texas, (2) if Black and White arrest rates for possession of marijuana were different at colleges in Texas, and (3) if the racial composition of a college community impacted Black arrest percentages for on-campus possession of marijuana arrests. To reiterate, the current study attempted to integrate the racial threat theory with drug arrest disparity literature to explain and predict the influence that neighborhood racial composition has on marijuana arrests at college campuses in Texas. The first hypothesis sought to determine if there was a relationship between the race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana and college type. The findings show a significant relationship between race and college type. During 2018 and 2019, there were 381 Blacks arrested at the non-minority serving institutions included in this study and 287 Blacks arrested at the minority serving institutions included in the study. 57 percent of Black arrests made on-campus for possession of marijuana occurred at non-minority serving institutions. The results reveal that

Blacks were more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana at non-minority serving institutions than at minority serving institutions.

The results of the study also support the second hypothesis regarding Black and White arrest rates at college campuses in Texas. Possession of marijuana arrest rates among Blacks and Whites varied across the colleges included in the study, at a majority of the colleges, Blacks were more likely to be arrested by campus police. Prairie View A&M University and Tarleton State University were the only colleges included in the study with a higher arrest rate for Whites than Blacks. Sul Ross State University, University of Texas-Permian Basin, University of North Texas, Texas &M University-College Station, Baylor University had the highest racial disparities in marijuana arrest rates (60.34, 43.95, 35.28, 35.09, and 18.66, respectively). Table 10 provides the arrest rates for Blacks and Whites and the rate ratios between Black and White arrests, a measure of the disparity between the two races, for each college. During the two-year period (2018 and 2019), Blinn College had the highest rate of racial disparities between Blacks and Whites among all of the colleges, with a rate ratio of 30.82, indicating that Blacks were 30.82 times more likely to be arrested for marijuana possession on-campus than Whites. Although Blinn College had the greatest racial disparities, Sul Ross State University had the highest arrest rate for Blacks specifically. The arrest rate at Sul Ross State University for Blacks was 60.34 per 1000 students. University of North Texas had the highest overall number of on-campus Black arrests for marijuana possession, with 166 arrests during the two-year period.

Table 8

Black and White Marijuana Possession Arrest Rates and Disparities by College

College	Black Arrest Rate (per 1000 students)	White Arrest Rate (per 1000 students)	Black/White Rate Ratio
Baylor University	18.66	2.20	8.48
Blinn College	14.49	.47	30.82
Kilgore College	2.17	2.07	1.04
Prairie View A&M University	15.30	18.29	.83
Texas State University	8.10	6.28	1.28
University of Houston	9.31	2.01	4.63
University of Texas-Austin	9.63	1.83	5.62
University of North Texas	35.28	10.39	3.39
Texas A&M University-College Station	35.09	6.86	5.20
Tarleton State University	.89	1.06	.84
West Texas A&M University	7.04	2.89	2.44
Lamar University	9.59	1.28	5.32
Sul Ross State University	60.34	6.17	9.77
Texas Women's University	26.57	7.05	3.77
Texas Tech University	18.26	10.26	1.78
University of Texas-PB	43.95	5.89	7.46
Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi	17.82	8.36	2.13
Stephen F. Austin University	8.41	4.44	1.89

The demographic makeup of the campus community varies among colleges in Texas. The racial composition of the community where the college is located does not always reflect the

demographic of the student population of the college (Foote, 2017). When neighborhood racial composition and student enrollment composition are not congruent there could be an increased effort to protect campus resources resulting in an increase in police force size, arrests, and use of incarceration (Kent & Jacobs, 2005; Dollar, 2014). This study, informed by the racial threat theory, examined the influence of neighborhood racial composition on Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana at college campuses in Texas.

Analyses examining the third hypothesis, when controlling for persons living in poverty found that neighborhood racial composition influenced Black arrest percentages on college campuses in Texas. The percentage of Black residents emerged as the only significant predictor of Black arrest percentages while the percentage of White residents did not reach significant alone. Findings indicate that Blacks are more likely to be arrested for a marijuana offense while on campuses located in communities with a higher population of Black residents. For instance, as the percentage of Black residents increased, the percentage of Blacks arrested for possession of marijuana increased.

Limitations

There are at least three limitations to note in the current study. First of all, the present study is based on campus arrest data from only 20 colleges in Texas. Findings from this study may not be generalizable to all college campuses in the US, particularly colleges outside of Texas. Nationally representative and data from a more diverse sample of colleges would help to determine whether the findings of this study are generalizable. Second, the use and reliance on secondary data should be considered. Utilizing secondary data has advantages but there are also several drawbacks to consider. According to Maxfield and Babbie (2015), a key problem of using secondary data is the question of validity. The lack of control of the quality of data was a

concern in the current study. While the purpose of the study was to determine if racial arrest disparities existed among students attending non-minority institutions and minority serving institutions the data obtained did not allow for this analysis. The secondary data did not clearly indicate if the reported arrests for possession of marijuana were for students or non-students. Third, responses to requests for arrest data were missing several data elements. Only one college in the sample provided all the requested data pertaining to marijuana arrests on their perspective campus. Most campus police departments at the colleges included in the study did not report the ethnicity of the person arrested. This prevented the analysis of Hispanic arrest disparities. Additionally, the inability to distinguish between Hispanic and non-Hispanic White arrestees could have potentially clouded the findings of this study. In some cases, the arrest data pertaining to Whites may have included arrest data for Hispanic arrestees. Future research should seek data that distinguish between race and ethnicity to avoid this problem.

Implications/Conclusion

I turn now to the implications of this study. Theories such as the racial threat theory have increased understanding of the "race as crime" phenomenon. The findings of this study add to the body of literature examining the criminalization of Blacks. In this study in particular, Blacks on college campuses. While Blacks were underrepresented at most of the colleges in the study, they were overrepresented in the number of marijuana arrests made on campus. In the state of Texas Black people are 2.6 times more likely than White people to be arrested for possession of marijuana (ACLU, 2020). In some counties within the state, racial disparities are exacerbated, as Blacks are 8 to 13 times more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana. This research examined racial disparities in marijuana possession arrests made on college campuses in Texas. Like previous research, the current study found racial disparities in the likelihood of possession

of marijuana arrests. In comparison with Whites, Blacks were more likely to be arrested for possession of marijuana by campus police. The current study used on-campus arrest data, in an attempt to determine if racial arrest disparities also persisted among those arrested for possession of marijuana on college campuses. Specifically, the present study tested the degree to which possession of marijuana arrest rates differed between Blacks and Whites on college campuses in Texas.

A majority of possession of marijuana arrests examined in this study were for misdemeanor offenses, accounting for over 95 percent of the total arrests. The penalties associated with a misdemeanor offense are typically less severe compared to felony offenses but in terms of the impact on early employment outcomes they are comparable. Numerous studies have shown that criminal record stigma presents significant barriers for those arrested and ultimately convicted of minor crimes such as misdemeanor possession of marijuana. Leasure (2019) found that a minor criminal conviction can significantly hinder one in terms of early employment outcomes. Furthermore, as was shown with felonies and mass incarceration recent research also show that minorities are disproportionately represented in the number of misdemeanor cases (Stevenson & Mayson, 2018). The findings from this study have significant implications as Blacks are more likely to graduate or leave college with more than just a degree if they decide to use or possess marijuana on college campuses in Texas. Compared to Whites they are more likely to have an arrest on their record for possession of marijuana upon their departure.

The findings from this study also indicated that there is a wide variation in marijuana enforcement on college campuses in Texas, as measured by both the number on-campus possession of marijuana arrests and the attendant racial disparities. A common finding across the

vast majority of the colleges included in this study is that Blacks are more likely to be arrested for possessing marijuana than Whites, regardless of whether the college was a non-minority serving institution or a minority serving institution. After controlling for the percentage of persons living in poverty within the zip code a college was located, the findings suggest that the racial composition of the neighborhood has an influence on Black arrest rates for possession of marijuana at college campuses in Texas. In line with previous research on the subject, the study found support for racial threat theory in predicting Black arrest percentages for possession of marijuana. Campus police departments have a great deal of discretion concerning which geographic areas to focus drug control efforts in, which individuals within those areas to scrutinize, and the tactics to be utilized to control drug offending at college campuses.

This study highlights key factors related to the enforcement of low-level drug offending such as marijuana possession on college campuses in Texas. Findings suggest that Black students attending or visiting certain college campuses in Texas face a greater likelihood than White students of being arrested if they use or possess marijuana while on campus. Particularly, college campuses located in communities with a high percentage of Black residents. Although, this study makes no claims about racial profiling or discriminatory policing, campus police departments should reevaluate policies and practices that contribute to racial arrest disparities for possession of marijuana on campus. It is imperative for campus police departments to develop procedures for the routine collection and reporting of accurate data regarding demographic information of individuals arrested on-campus. The inability to collect standardized data from campus police departments during the course of this study should be noted as police decisions are progressively being shaped by data collection and analysis (O'Conner et al., 2021). Additionally, consideration should be given to ending the enforcement of marijuana possession

at college campuses in Texas since studies have shown that recreational marijuana use typically ends as young people settle into careers and adult intimate relationships (Chen & Kandel, 1998). As suggested by Mitchell and Caudy (2017), rescinding the emphasis on low-level drug offending could ameliorate racial disparities as implicit racial bias among campus police would

The present study lends to several promising avenues by which future research may be extended. First, qualitative data were not collected from campus police departments or campus police officers working within the department; doing so would be beneficial by identifying factors that impact arrest decisions. While the results of this study indicate the existence of racial marijuana arrest disparities on college campuses in Texas, it is unknown whether these disparities reflect discriminatory practices of campus police departments or individual campus police officers. Through qualitative analysis future research should aim to determine whether campus police departments differed in their enforcement of marijuana offenses and obtain explanations of their actions. Additionally, results from a mixed method study would extend future exploratory research focusing on arrest disparities for possession of marijuana at college campuses in Texas.

A second avenue for future research that is suggested by the findings of the current study is to expand beyond possession of marijuana arrests and examine arrests for other illegal substances. Due to the unique environment college campuses offer, in relation to student population, demographic, geographic size, and location this setting could provide further insight on drug arrest disparities. In some aspects college and university campuses often cover large geographic areas. Examining arrests for other illegal substances will provide a better picture of racial arrest disparities. Furthermore, the examination of additional contextual factors among college campuses and the students attending those colleges, such as the income level of student

household, size of student population, size and level of campus police department, and the racial makeup of campus police departments is warranted. Although, race is decisive factor in police arrest decisions previous research have found that other factors influence or contribute to arrest decisions (Thomas & Dierenfeldt, 2016).

As suggested in the limitations section, future research should also include on-campus arrest data from college police departments outside of Texas. A comparison study of colleges within states that have legalized marijuana and colleges within states that have not been legalized would provide further insight on the impact of marijuana legalization as it relates to possession of marijuana arrests made on college campuses.

The racial threat theory has traditionally been conceptualized as minority population size relative to the majority or, in some cases, minority population (Keah & Henry, 2021). The focus on macro-level level indicators is considered a limitation of the current study. Future studies within this setting should give more attention to micro-level indicators as well. While the current study found some support for the racial threat theory, future research should more adeptly address contextual factors that influence arrest decisions on college campuses. As suggested by Ulmer (2012) researchers should move beyond looking for simple, linear relationships and simplistic interpretations of racial threat theory. To fully explore disparate treatment on college campuses more comprehensive conceptualizations of racial threat must be used to measure the influence of these threats on Black arrest percentages.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

OPEN RECORDS REQUEST EMAIL

My name is Andre' Spence. I am a PhD student at Texas Southern University (TSU) and I am conducting research on college campus arrests for drug offenses (2016-2019). In accordance to the Texas Public Information Act I am requesting the following information:

- The total # of On-Campus Drug Arrests made from 2016-2019

For each arrest the:

- Type of Offense
- Race of the person arrested
- Age of the person arrested
- Location of arrest
- Level of arrest (Misd/Felony)
- Outcome of Arrest
- Any accompanying charge

Total Student Enrollment:
2016
2017
2018
2019

Student Enrollment by Race:

2016
2017
2018
2019

Please let me know if you need any additional information.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Andre Spence
Family and Child Studies, M.S.
Administration of Justice, PhD. Student
(512)348-0904
aspence2870@student.tsu.edu

APPENDIX B

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU)

Asian American and Native American Pacific (AANAPISI)

Alaska Native and Native Hawaiian Serving Institution (ANNH)

Controlled Substance Act (CSA)

Department of Public Safety (DPS)

Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI)

Historically Black College and Universities (HBCU)

Journal of Blacks in Higher Education (JBHE)

Minority Serving Institution (MSI)

Non-Minority Serving Institution (Non MSI)

Predominately White Institution (PWI)

Predominately Black Institution (PBI)

Tribal Colleges and Universities (TCU)

United States of America (US)

APPENDIX C

TABLES

Table C1

Sampling Frame: 2 to 4-year Public and Private Non-Profit Colleges in Texas

College/University	Location
Abilene Christian University	Abilene, Texas
Altierus Career College-Bissonnet	Houston, Texas
Alvin Community College	Alvin, Texas
Amarillo College	Amarillo, Texas
Amberton University	Garland, Texas
Angelina College	Lufkin, Texas
Angelo State University	San Angelo, Texas
Arlington Baptist University	Arlington, Texas
Austin College	Sherman, Texas
Austin Community College District	Austin, Texas
Austin Graduate School of Theology	Austin, Texas
Austin Presbyterian Theological Seminary	Austin, Texas
Bakke Graduate University	Dallas, Texas
Baptist Missionary Association Theological Seminary	Jacksonville, Texas
Baptist University of the Americas	San Antonio, Texas
Baylor College of Medicine	Houston, Texas
Baylor University	Waco, Texas
Blinn College	Brenham, Texas
Brazosport College	Lake Jackson, Texas

Brite Divinity School	Fort Worth, Texas
Central Texas College	Killeen, Texas
Chicago School of Professional Psychology at Dallas	Richardson, Texas
Christ Mission College	San Antonio, Texas
Cisco College	Cisco, Texas
Clarendon College	Clarendon, Texas
Coastal Bend College	Beeville, Texas
College of Biblical Studies-Houston	Houston, Texas
College of the Mainland	Texas City, Texas
Collin County Community College District	McKinney, Texas
Commonwealth Institute of Funeral Service	Houston, Texas
Concordia University Texas	Austin, Texas
Criswell College	Dallas, Texas
Dallas Baptist University	Dallas, Texas
Dallas Christian College	Dallas, Texas
Dallas College	Dallas, Texas
Dallas Institute of Funeral Service	Dallas, Texas
Dallas Nursing Institute	Richardson, Texas
Dallas Theological Seminary	Dallas, Texas
Del Mar College	Corpus Christi, Texas
East Texas Baptist University	Marshall, Texas
El Paso Community College	El Paso, Texas

Episcopal Theological Seminary of the Southwest	Austin, Texas
Frank Phillips College	Borger, Texas
Galveston College	Galveston, Texas
Grace School of Theology	Conroe, Texas
Grayson College	Denison, Texas
Hallmark University	San Antonio, Texas
Hardin-Simmons University	Abilene, Texas
Hill College	Hillsboro, Texas
Houston Baptist University	Houston, Texas
Houston Community College	Houston, Texas
Houston Graduate School of Theology	Houston, Texas
Howard College	Big Spring, Texas
Howard Payne University	Brownwood, Texas
Huston-Tillotson University	Austin, Texas
Jacksonville College-Main Campus	Jacksonville, Texas
Jarvis Christian College	Hawkins, Texas
Kilgore College	Kilgore, Texas
Lamar Institute of Technology	Beaumont, Texas
Lamar State College-Orange	Orange, Texas
Lamar State College-Port Arthur	Port Arthur, Texas
Lamar University	Beaumont, Texas
Laredo College	Laredo, Texas

Lee College	Baytown, Texas
LeTourneau University	Longview, Texas
Lone Star College System	The Woodlands, Texas
Lubbock Christian University	Lubbock, Texas
McLennan Community College	Waco, Texas
McMurry University	Abilene, Texas
Messenger College	Bedford, Texas
Midland College	Midland, Texas
Midwestern State University	Wichita Falls, Texas
Navarro College	Corsicana, Texas
North American University	Stafford, Texas
North Central Texas College	Gainesville, Texas
Northeast Lakeview College	Universal City, Texas
Northeast Texas Community College	Mount Pleasant, Texas
Northwest Vista College	San Antonio, Texas
Oblate School of Theology	San Antonio, Texas
Odessa College	Odessa, Texas
Our Lady of the Lake University	San Antonio, Texas
Palo Alto College	San Antonio, Texas
Panola College	Carthage, Texas
Paris Junior College	Paris, Texas
Parker University	Dallas, Texas
Paul Quinn College	Dallas, Texas

Prairie View A & M University	Prairie View, Texas
Ranger College	Ranger, Texas
Remington College-Dallas Campus	Garland, Texas
Remington College-Fort Worth Campus	Fort Worth, Texas
Remington College-Houston Southeast Campus	Webster, Texas
Remington College-North Houston Campus	Houston, Texas
Rice University	Houston, Texas
Saint Edward's University	Austin, Texas
Sam Houston State University	Huntsville, Texas
San Antonio College	San Antonio, Texas
San Jacinto Community College	Pasadena, Texas
Schreiner University	Kerrville, Texas
Wiley College	Marshall, Texas
Wharton County Junior College	Wharton, Texas
Western Texas College	Snyder, Texas
West Texas A & M University	Canyon, Texas
Weatherford College	Weatherford, Texas
Wayland Baptist University	Plainview, Texas
Victoria College	Victoria, Texas
Vernon College	Vernon, Texas
University of the Incarnate Word	San Antonio, Texas
University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center	Dallas, Texas
	Tyler, Texas

University of Texas Health Science Center at Tyler	
University of St Thomas	Houston, Texas
University of North Texas Health Science Center	Fort Worth, Texas
University of North Texas at Dallas	Dallas, Texas
University of North Texas	Denton, Texas
University of Mary Hardin-Baylor	Belton, Texas
University of Houston-Victoria	Victoria, Texas
University of Houston-Downtown	Houston, Texas
University of Houston-Clear Lake	Houston, Texas
University of Houston	Houston, Texas
University of Dallas	Irving, Texas
Tyler Junior College	Tyler, Texas
Trinity Valley Community College	Athens, Texas
Trinity University	San Antonio, Texas
The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley	Edinburg, Texas
The University of Texas Permian Basin	Odessa, Texas
The University of Texas Medical Branch at Galveston	Galveston, Texas
The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center	Houston, Texas
The University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston	Houston, Texas

The University of Texas at Tyler	Tyler, Texas
The University of Texas at San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
The University of Texas at El Paso	El Paso, Texas
The University of Texas at Dallas	Richardson, Texas
The University of Texas at Austin	Austin, Texas
The University of Texas at Arlington	Arlington, Texas
The King's University	Southlake, Texas
Texas Woman's University	Denton, Texas
Texas Wesleyan University	Fort Worth, Texas
Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center-El Paso	El Paso, Texas
Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center	Lubbock, Texas
Texas Tech University	Lubbock, Texas
Texas State University	San Marcos, Texas
Texas State Technical College	Waco, Texas
Texas Southmost College	Brownsville, Texas
Texas Southern University	Houston, Texas
Texas Lutheran University	Seguin, Texas
Texas College	Tyler, Texas
Texas Christian University	Fort Worth, Texas
Texas Chiropractic College Foundation Inc	Pasadena, Texas
Texas A&M University-Texarkana	Texarkana, Texas
Texas A&M University-San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
	Killeen, Texas

Texas A&M University-Central Texas	
Texas A & M University-Kingsville	Kingsville, Texas
Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi	Corpus Christi, Texas
Texas A & M University-Commerce	Commerce, Texas
Texas A & M University-College Station	College Station, Texas
Texas A & M International University	Laredo, Texas
Texarkana College	Texarkana, Texas
Temple College	Temple, Texas
Tarrant County College District	Fort Worth, Texas
Tarleton State University	Stephenville, Texas
Sul Ross State University	Alpine, Texas
Stephen F Austin State University	Nacogdoches, Texas
St. Mary's University	San Antonio, Texas
St Philip's College	San Antonio, Texas
Southwestern University	Georgetown, Texas
Southwestern Christian College	Terrell, Texas
Southwestern Assemblies of God University	Waxahachie, Texas
Southwestern Adventist University	Keene, Texas
Southwest Texas Junior College	Uvalde, Texas
Southwest Collegiate Institute for the Deaf	Big Spring, Texas
Southern Methodist University	Dallas, Texas
South Texas College of Law Houston	Houston, Texas
South Texas College	McAllen, Texas
South Plains College	Levelland, Texas

Table C2

Summary of Research Hypotheses

Summary of Research Hypotheses	Results	Analyses
***H_0* (Null Hypothesis):** The race of a person arrested for possession of marijuana is independent of the college campus the arrest occurred on. ***H_1* (Alternate Hypothesis):** The race of a person arrested for possession is not independent of the college campus the arrest occurred on	• Race is dependent on the college type the arrest occurred on.	Chi-Square Test of Independence
***H_0* (Null Hypothesis):** There is not a significant difference between the arrest rates for Blacks and Whites for possession of marijuana at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas. ***H_2* (Alternative Hypothesis):** There is a significant difference between the arrest rates for Blacks and Whites for possession of marijuana at minority serving institutions and non-minority serving institutions in Texas.	• Black and White arrest rates are significantly.	*t*-test

***H_0* (Null Hypothesis):** Racial composition of the city a college is located in does not significantly predict the percentage of Black arrests. ***H_3* (Alternative Hypothesis):** Racial composition of the city a college is located in does significantly predict the percentage of Black arrests.	• The hierarchical regression model does significantly predict the percentage of Black arrests. • The percentage of Black residents was the only IV that predicted the percentage of Black arrests.	Hierarchical Regression

Table C3

List of Historically Black Colleges/Universities in Texas

	Location
Huston-Tillotson University	Austin, Texas
Jarvis Christian College	Hawkins, Texas
Paul Quinn College	Dallas, Texas
Prairie View A&M University	Prairie View, Texas
Southwestern Christian College	Terrell, Texas
St. Phillip's College	San Antonio, Texas
Texas College	Tyler, Texas
Texas Southern University	Houston, Texas
Wiley College	Marshall, Texas

Table C4

List of Hispanic Serving Institutions in Texas (2019)

	Location
University of Texas - Rio Grande Valley	Edinburg, Texas
University of Texas at Arlington	Arlington, Texas
University of Texas at El Paso	El Paso, Texas
University of Texas at San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
University of Texas of the Permian Basin	Odessa, Texas
Victoria College	Victoria, Texas
Western Texas College	Snyder, Texas
Wharton County Junior College	Wharton, Texas
University of Saint Thomas	Houston, Texas
University of North Texas at Dallas	Dallas, Texas
University of Houston	Houston, Texas
University of Houston - Clear Lake	Houston, Texas
University of Houston – Downtown	Houston, Texas
University of Houston – Victoria	Victoria, Texas

Texas A&M International University	Laredo, Texas
Texas A&M University - Corpus Christi	Corpus Christi, Texas
Texas A&M University – Kingsville	Kingsville, Texas
Texas A&M University-San Antonio	San Antonio, Texas
Texas Lutheran University	Seguin, Texas
Texas Southmost College	Brownsville, Texas
Texas State Technical College	Waco, Texas
Texas State University	San Marcos, Texas
Texas Tech University	Lubbock, Texas
Texas Wesleyan University	Fort Worth, Texas
Texas Woman's University	Denton, Texas
Tarrant County College District	Fort Worth, Texas
Sul Ross State University	Alpine, Texas
St. Edward's University	Austin, Texas
St. Mary's University	San Antonio, Texas
South Texas College	McAllen, Texas
South Plains College	Levelland, Texas
Schreiner University	Kerrville, Texas
San Jacinto Community College District	Pasadena, Texas

Richland College	Dallas, Texas
Remington College-North Houston Campus	Houston, Texas
Remington College-Houston Southeast Campus	Webster, Texas
Remington College	Garland, Texas
Palo Alto College	San Antonio, Texas
Our Lady of The Lake University	San Antonio, Texas
Odessa College	Odessa, Texas
Northwest Vista College	San Antonio, Texas
North Lake College	Irving, Texas
Northeast Texas Community College	Mount Pleasant, Texas
Mountain View College	Dallas, Texas
McLennan Community College	Waco, Texas
McMurry University	Abilene, Texas
Lone Star College System	The Woodlands, Texas
Lee College	Baytown, Texas
Laredo College	Laredo, Texas
Lamar State College - Port Arthur	Port Arthur, Texas
Houston Baptist University Houston Community College	Houston, Texas Houston, Texas
Howard County Junior College	Big Spring, Texas

Hallmark University	San Antonio, Texas
Galveston College	Galveston, Texas
Frank Phillips College	Borger, Texas
El Centro College	Dallas, Texas
El Paso Community College	El Paso, Texas
Eastfield College	Mesquite, Texas
Del Mar College	Corpus Christi, Texas
Concordia University	Austin, Texas
College of the Mainland	Texas City, Texas
Coastal Bend College	Beeville, Texas
Clarendon College	Clarendon, Texas
Cisco College	Cisco, Texas
Cedar Valley College	Lancaster, Texas
Brazosport College	Lake Jackson, Texas
Brookhaven College	Framers Branch, Texas
Austin Community College	Austin, Texas
Angelo State University	San Angelo, Texas
Alvin Community College	Alvin, Texas
Amarillo College	Amarillo, Texas
Altierus Career College-Arlington	Arlington, Texas
Altierus Career College-Bissonnet	Houston, Texas

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