



A Series of Studies on Crimes Involving Overseas Chinese
海外华裔犯罪问题探索丛书

Asian Organized Crime & Gangs in the U.S.

美国亚裔有组织犯罪与帮派团伙研究

John Zheng Wang, Ph.D.

王政博士·著

Applications of Ten Research Methods in Criminology & Criminal Justice
犯罪学与刑事司法十种研究方法之运用

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List of Journals in Criminology & Criminal Justice
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Preface

English Thesis/Dissertation Writing and English Academic Research Writing are two important components in every university curriculum worldwide. They are designed to develop the research skills of a quality education. The number of thesis/dissertations and research papers published in international journals is an important indicator used in evaluating the level of the quality of the education at a university. This measurement is also used to evaluate the performance of university professors. While English Thesis/Dissertation Writing and English Academic Research Writing are two critical courses in a university education, the two courses are not emphasized in the Chinese higher education curriculum. Significant improvement could be made by following an international educational standard. Unfortunately, there is no book available with samples of theses, dissertations, and/or research papers for students and professors to refer to—Chinese publishers have not published such a sample book, at least in the area of social science.

Asian organized crime and gangs have received a lot of attention from the disciplines of sociology, political science, criminology, and criminal justice. Topics include alien smuggling, drug trafficking, and high tech crime. Because these new crime phenomena have occurred in recent years, no consensus has been established among researchers and scholars in terms of theoretical frameworks, research methods, and data collection. There are a variety of approaches and perspectives.

I have selected thirteen articles on a variety of topics published in international journals and created a sample book. Four features or characteristics can be observed in my book. First, ten research methods commonly used in social science have been utilized in the articles, reflecting my research efforts over the past ten years. Second, the articles demonstrate my research process: from simplicity to complexity, use of different approaches, and even in a replicated manner, in order to achieve deeper understanding and expansion of these topics. Third, they also present different types of research writing, different citation styles (APA and MLA), and different ways of examining issues. Finally, my English writing skills have devel-

oped over time with constant and persistent effort; from immature to skillful, from typical Chinese English to understandable Standard English. Hopefully, this book will serve as a clear demonstration of what I have achieved through my research and offer strong encouragement to my audience/readers. I believe that this book will provide assistance and guidance for my colleagues who conduct research on Asian organized crime and gangs. It is my sincere desire to see more research papers written by Chinese scholars and published in international journals in the future.

In appreciation of the education that I received in China, I am donating the thirteen articles to the Press of China People's Public Security University as well as Chinese readers and scholars who are pursuing Masters and doctoral degrees or writing research papers.

My first acknowledgement goes to the President of China People's Public Security University, Professor Wang Yan Ji, for his heart-felt encouragement which has made this publication possible. I also appreciate the strong support I received from the University's Foreign Affairs Division and the Press. I appreciate the valuable suggestions on the book's organization and word processing from the following individuals from the Graduate Study Division of the University: Professor Wang Da Wei (Director), Associate Professor Wang Wei Ping, and Mr. Liu Ya Dong. Finally, I am especially grateful for the dedicated work done by my American friend, Ms. Ilene Dice, for her review of the manuscript. I owe much to my wife, Lucy Ruixue Yang, and my son, David Young Wang, for their understanding and patience. I had to cancel several trips in order to submit the manuscript in time.

John Zheng Wang, Ph. D.

Professor of Criminal Justice, California State University-Long Beach, U. S. A.

11 - 22 - 2006

前 言

英文硕、博论文写作和英文学术论文写作是当今世界各大学培养人才过程中着重设计的研究技巧课程的学习环节，硕博论文和学术论文在国际学术刊物上发表的数量是衡量一所大学培养人才质量的重要指标。这一衡量指标也应用于对大学教授工作质量的评估上。因此，英文硕博论文写作和英文学术论文写作这两门课成为各大学培养环节中的重点。但目前在中国内地，有关这方面培养环节的重视程度还不够，需要参照国外的情况予以加强。另外，目前中国图书出版中几乎没有这方面的范文例书供教师、学生参考之用。这一点在社会科学的各专业中尤为突出。

在犯罪与刑事司法研究领域，亚裔有组织犯罪和帮派的跨国犯罪活动问题，诸如人口走私、毒品走私以及高科技犯罪等，已引起了当今世界各国社会学、政治学、犯罪学和刑事司法学等学术界的普遍关注。如何对近年出现的这些新犯罪现象进行学术研究，各国学者在理论框架、研究方法及资料收集方法等方面均无统一认识，因此形成了不同的流派和观点。

本书是由作者本人精选了自己在国际学术刊物上发表的十三篇文章并汇编成集。读者可以从该文集看到以下特点：第一，该文集介绍了作者运用社会科学领域常用的十种研究方法撰写的范文，这些文章是作者十余年来对亚裔有组织犯罪和帮派问题的尝试性研究成果。第二，读者可以看到作者的研究模式和过程：对课题的研究由浅入深，变换不同方法，反复论证，以达到对研究主题的深入和扩展。第三，这十三篇文章也表现了作者不同的文体结构、不同的文体注释，以及对课题的不同切入点。第四，作者的英文写作能力也是随着时间的推移和持之以恒的努力，由生硬到娴熟，由中式英语到十分标准的英语。希望此书能为撰写硕博论文和英文学术论文的学者起到抛砖引玉的作用，也希望能为那些从事亚裔有组织犯罪和帮派研究的同事添砖铺路。作者衷心希望在不久的将来，在国际学术刊物上看到更多中国学者发表的学术文章。

为了感激祖国对我的教育和培养，我将这十三篇学术研究文章汇编成集，奉献给中国人民公安大学出版社和那些勤奋耕耘的读者和学者。在此，我首先要感谢中国人民公安大学校长王彦吉教授的亲切关怀和热心鼓励，使本书得以与读者见面。其次，我要感谢中国人民公安大学外事处和出版社对出版此书的鼎力支持。此外，我还要向

2 美国亚裔有组织犯罪与帮派团伙研究

中国人民公安大学研究生部主任王大为教授、王卫平副教授和刘亚东先生致以敬意，感谢他们对此书的编排构思和文字处理所提出的宝贵意见。另外，我要对我的美国朋友 Ilene Dice 表示感谢，她对全书做了文字校对。最后，我要感谢我的夫人杨瑞雪和儿子王杨的理解和支持，由于编赶此书，我不得不多次取消旅行计划。

王政博士

美国长滩加利福尼亚州州立大学刑事司法系终身教授

2006 年 11 月 22 日

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Trend Study

New Trends: Their Impact on the U. S.

(This article was published in *Police Studies: The International Review of Police Development*, Vol. 16, No. 2, 1993)

Abstract: *There is only a small amount of literature addressing new crime trends in China (P. R. C) that are affecting the U. S. This paper focuses on some new crime trends that have developed over the past few years. An effort is made to illustrate at a micro level the characteristics and causes of these new crimes—drug trafficking, drug-use, drug cultivation and the smuggling of illegal immigrants. The causes of these new crime trends at a macro level are also discussed. Comments will be offered on the impact of these new crimes on the United States, and suggestions will be given on the policy implications of dealing with these new crimes.*

Key Words: *Drug Trafficking, Illegal Immigrant Smuggling, HIV, AIDS*

Introduction

China has been experiencing unexpected and unprecedented changes politically, economically and socially as a result of the "Open up" policy initiated in the early 1980s. Inevitably, traditional Confucian values have been weakened and materialism and hedonism have been gaining strength. Such changes have stimulated the reappearance of some old social evils and the emergence of some new ones.

Re-emergence of Drug Addiction, Trafficking and Cultivation

The drug issue in China has gone through several stages in its history. As a result of the Opium War with Britain, after 1841 opium addiction became pervasive in China with addicts ranging from high government officials to poor farmers. The coastal areas suffered tremendous economic and physical loss due to opium addiction, with that suffering lasting almost one hundred years. According to statistics obtained in 1949, the year the P. R. C. was established, the number of addicts in China reached 20 million, almost 4% of the total population at that time. Of those 20 million addicts, 1,030,000 lived in the city of Shanghai, the largest city in China, and 50,000 lived in the city of Kunming, Yunnan Province, which borders Burma. During the period of time, opium poppies grew on a million hectares (Ling, 1990). Another figure showed that Shanghai had more than 30 opium processing factories, and Guangzhou, the

largest city in southern China, had more than 1,300 opium dens (Feng, 1990).

In February 1950, five months after the establishment of the PRC, opium trafficking and smoking were outlawed. The ban was followed by a massive nationwide anti-drug campaign against drug use and smuggling. More than 80,000 drug sellers were arrested. Of those arrested, 800 were found guilty of more serious crimes and executed (Feng, 1990). During the next thirty years, opium addiction was gradually reduced by follow-up anti-drug legislation and campaigns, confiscating drug addiction-related tools, banning drug dens, severely punishing opium traffickers, and providing mandatory treatment programs for opium addicts. To prevent the start of drug use, some small group tactics were employed, including popular education, participation in meaningful production through labor programs, cooperative movements, rent reductions, back-to-the-village movements and simplified administrative procedures (Gregory, 1978). For those who were seriously addicted, the above-mentioned measures were compulsory, as were required educational classes. By the end of 1979, the drug issue was fairly well controlled at a satisfactory level, and China enjoyed an international reputation as a country free from the scourge of drug trafficking and drug abuse.

Starting in 1980, with the reopening of the border trade with Burma and increasing trade with Hong Kong and Macao areas, drug smugglers in these areas took advantage of China's reform policy, its opening up to the outside world, and the geographical location of Yunnan Province—adjacent to the "Golden Triangle". The drug issue reemerged and the southern part of China became known as the "China Trail," "China Route" or "Chinese Connection," referring to a new trafficking route from Burma, southern China, and Chian's Hong Kong to the United States. The quality and quantity of smuggled drugs have reached a new level—including various forms of opium bricks and also No. 3 and No. 4 heroin. No. 3 heroin is only smokable; No. 4 heroin is a high-quality, 90% pure powder that can be both smoked and injected.

In the past three years, the increase in heroin smuggling has far exceeded that of opium because it is easier to hide heroin powder than it is opium bricks. Most of the drugs seized in China were originally grown and processed in Burma, Thailand and Laos, well known as the "Golden Triangle." It has long been one of the world's major drug producing regions and, in recent years, increasingly large amounts of its heroin has found its way across China's borders to Chian's Hong Kong and then to the United States via Yunnan, Guanxi and Guangdong provinces.

Estimates of opium cultivation have increased steadily in the "Golden Triangle." According to a DEA report, the total opium production in the "Golden Triangle" for 1988/89 was 2,515 metric tons, and for 1989/90 was about 2,565 metric tons (U. S. Department of Justice,

1991). Another source indicated that opium production in 1989 in Southeast Asia was estimated to be 3,054 metric tons, or 72.6% of worldwide production (Feldkamp, 1990). The latest source revealed that the output of opium reached between 2,500 and 3,000 metric tons in 1991–92. It is also estimated that there are more than 30 heroin processing factories on the Burmese side of the Chinese border, with an annual production capacity of 40 to 50 metric tons of heroin (Chen, 1992a). With consecutive bumper harvests of opium since 1988, the drug syndicates headed by Kuhn Sa in the “Golden Triangle” began to increase the amount of opium and heroin trafficking to Hong Kong and Macao via the southern part of China.

The border between China and Burma is nearly 2,500 miles long and covered by primeval forests and high mountains. Smugglers could easily slip across the border unnoticed. Usually, packs of heroin or bricks of raw opium were tucked in with raw goods carried by mules and horses across the mountain areas along the border. Using these methods, drugs usually evaded detection at police checkpoints. Ruili and Wangyingzhen were two major gateways along the border with Burma and the major trade centers through which most drugs entered China.

There were three major trafficking routes from Burma, Vietnam and Laos to Kunming, the capital of Yunnan Province, and the largest city in southwest China. The first route was the Kunwan Highway, crossing the Dehong and Lincang regions into Kunming. The second one was the Kunluo Highway, crossing the Dehong and Lincang regions into Kunming. The last one was the Kunwen Highway or Dianyue Railway from Vietnam and Laos into the Honghe and Wenshan areas and into Kunming (Chen, 1992a).

The next stop was called the “Kunming Connection”. Kunming served as a negotiation and transit point for drug dealers, where most drug dealings took place. There were two directions to go after the “Kunming Connection” —the northern route and the southern route. The northern route leads to Guizhou, Sichuan and Shanxi provinces. The northern route was used either as a trafficking road to smuggle drugs for inland customers or as a roundabout way to reach the coastal areas. The southern route went through southern parts of Guangxi Province to reach Guangzhou (Canton) or other coastal areas in Guangdong and Fujian provinces.

The southern route carried the bulk of drugs going abroad. There were five ways to go from Kunming to Guangzhou and then to Hong Kong: railway from Kunming to Guangzhou; railway from Kunming through Chengdu to Guangzhou; airway from Kunming to Guangzhou; highway from Wenshan through Guangxi to Guangzhou; and last, highway from Dali through Duko to Guangzhou.

In terms of trafficking techniques, opium bricks or heroin powder were usually concealed in the human body (e. g. artificial limbs) or concealed in commercial goods. Trucks were

used to load rubber, lumber, and other goods which covered the opium bricks or heroin powder. They arrived in Guangzhou and other coastal towns close to Hong Kong and waited for the opportunity to unload. Then the drugs were smuggled via human carriers, fishing boats or speedboats to Hong Kong, Macao or Taiwan areas where the drugs were shipped to the west. Recent reports from the border police indicated that smuggling groups asked female couriers to hide heroin powder in sealed condoms in their anus and/or vaginal cavities or to swallow them, which can result in accidental deaths. Roughly half of the heroin in the United States was derived from "Golden Triangle" opium, and a large portion of it passed through Kunming, China. A pipeline of heroin was established, running from Burma through Kunming to Hong Kong (Tyson, 1990a).

TABLE 1 NARCOTICS SEIZED IN CHINA

	1981 - 86	1987	1988	1989	1990
Drug Cases	20	68	350	563	4,432
Opium (kg.)	233	159	217	290	783
Heroin (kg.)	92	59	93	560	1,633

Sources: Beijing Review, 1989; Beijing Review, 1990; UPI, 1991; Beijing Review, 1992.

Most Chinese drug traffickers in southern China were young or middle-aged minority males residing in Ruili and Wandingzhen. They ranged from school dropouts to self-employed persons, farmers, factory workers, and even local officials. Some of the traffickers belonged to or had some connections with the Triads in Hong Kong, Taiwan and Macao areas.

The majority of drug pushers were Chinese, but 680 (20%) of the 3,425 people arrested in 1990 in China for drug-related offenses were foreigners, with the majority from Burma, China's Hong Kong, Thailand, and Vietnam (Economics, Aug. 24, 1991). Actually, those traffickers came to China disguised as tourists, patriotic overseas Chinese businessmen, investors, and returnees visiting relatives in China.

There were several factors leading to the drug situation in China. First, as part of the ongoing economic reform, the pursuit of the quick accumulation of wealth was encouraged. In order to make quick, easy money, quite a few young people in Ruili and Wandingzhen engaged in the drug business. Others started taking drugs for pleasure. Induced by the money and excitement, drug traffickers ran the risk of committing drug offenses. A pipeful of high-quality 90% pure of No. 4 heroin from Burma cost just one dollar. The price was \$5 in Ruili and \$20 in Kunming (Schmetzer, 1991).

Another major reason leading to drug abuse in China was that young people were ignorant

of the potential for addiction. After drug use was reduced to almost zero by the late 1970s, many people, especially young people, had little awareness of the consequences of using drugs. Many young people were lured to taste drugs just for fun or fashion in the beginning. Once introduced, they were reluctant to quit because of the drug effects, "getting-high", and were likely to become dependent on the drugs. As a consequence, they became steady customers, providing a drug market and promoting the drug trafficking business in these areas.

Third, the local drug subculture did not regard drug use as illegal behavior. Many Yunnan natives, especially the ethnic minority people in rural areas, considered drug use to be socially acceptable, either as pain-relieving medicine or as entertainment. The local Chinese had a special way of using drugs. They smoked heroin in pipes, known as "chasing the dragon." The factor of social acceptance was related to Yunnan Province being a major opium producer even before the British promoted the drug in 19th century China.

Fourth, heroin pushers could count on most "reformed" addicts coming back for more because the treatment programs were too expensive to continue. Many young addicts tried to quit drugs through local treatment programs. They could afford the early treatment fees, but the later treatment charges were too high for their limited monthly incomes. Finally, many of the regular police officers had no experience with drugs. They could not recognize heroin because the young officers had never seen it.

Like drug issues faced in most western countries, drug use in China has given rise to other criminal offenses such as homicide, robbery, theft and prostitution. It has also been a factor in social problems, such as divorce and AIDS. Information about AIDS in China has not been made available to the west. According to some official reports, 379 people were found to carry the HIV virus, 368 of whom were in Yunnan Province with 305 in Ruili (Tyson, 1990a). According to 1989 statistics, there were 70,000 drug addicts in the country. In September, 1990, 446 people on China's mainland were identified as HIV carriers, 68 were foreigners and five were AIDS patients (He, 1991). The following two tables illustrate the AIDS situation in China.

TABLE 2 AIDS PATIENTS AND HIV CARRIERS BY REGION

Region	Total Testing positive	Foreign AIDS patients	Chinese AIDS patients	Foreign carriers	Chinese carriers
Yunnan	389	1	1	20	367
Beijing	19	1	1	14	3
Henan	10	0	0	10	0
Zhejiang	9	0	0	4	5

(续表)

Region	Total Testing positive	Foreign AIDS patients	Chinese AIDS patients	Foreign carriers	Chinese carriers
Shanghai	8	0	0	8	0
Guangdong	4	0	0	4	0
Guangxi	3	0	0	3	0
Hubei	2	0	0	2	0
Fujian	1	1	0	0	0
Hebei	1	0	0	0	1
Total	446	3	2	65	376

Source: Dai, 1991.

TABLE 3 HIV POSITIVE CARRIERS AND AIDS CASES BY GROUP

Group	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Total
Drug User					146	222	368
Blood Disease Patients	4						4
Returned Chinese					2	3	5
Venereal Disease Patients					1		1
Foreign	1	1	9	7	23	27	68
Total	5	1	9	7	172	252	446

Source: He, 1991.

The HIV virus is primarily contracted through sexual intercourse. Secondly, it is spread through blood contamination, either through blood transfusion or intravenous drug use. Any mother-child cases were unknown at the time.

At the beginning of the 1990s there were discoveries of opium cultivation in several provinces, such as Yunnan, Guangxi, Sichuan, Shanxi and Inner Mongolia. Cultivation in China, which was a new trend, meant the drugs did not have to be smuggled in internationally. In 1990, three hundred Chinese policemen equipped with fourteen helicopters destroyed six million opium plants cultivated in three counties in Inner Mongolia (World Journal, 1991b).

Asian narcotics had a significant impact on the American drug market since most of the heroin that originated in the "Golden Triangle" was shipped to the west coast of the United States via Chian's Hong Kong and such secondary transit points as Singapore, Seoul, Tokyo, and Taipei. The destination was New York, from where about half of the heroin was moved to other east coast cities (Office of the Attorney General, 1989). "China White" became a popular term in the American drug market, referring to No. 4 heroin from Southeast Asia smuggled via southern China. A report by the DEA stated: "In 1985, Southeast Asian heroin constitutes