PERCEPTIONS OF CONSUMER RACIAL PROFILING AND NEGATIVE EMOTIONS
An Exploratory Study

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Racial profiling has been an interest among society and scholars for several years. The main focus of racial profiling has been on law enforcement’s use of the technique, with little investigation of it occurring in consumer environments, that is, consumer racial profiling (CRP). Moreover, even less research has focused on the negative emotions that occur as a result of perceptions of CRP. Using data from a telephone survey of citizens of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, the present study indicates that perceptions of experiencing CRP do result in negative emotions. Furthermore, the present study identifies a profile of individuals who are likely to experience these negative emotions due to perceptions of CRP. The implications of these findings are discussed.

Keywords: consumer racial profiling; racial profiling; negative emotions; general strain theory

Profiling is a technique that has typically been used by law enforcement to quickly identify offenders or potential offenders of criminal activity. However, race has been introduced into the profiling equation. With the inclusion of race, law enforcement has used this tool to implement disparate and discriminatory practices in the criminal justice system. To date, a growing body of literature examines the effect of racial profiling in the context of traffic stops and searches that illustrate disparate and discriminatory practices (D. A. Harris, 2002; Withrow, 2006).

Racial profiling is not bound only to law enforcement. The practice has also migrated into retail environments, where it is referred to as consumer racial profiling (CRP; Gabbidon, 2003). To date, very little research has focused on CRP or perceptions of CRP. A few studies have uncovered evidence showing that some people perceive that they have been victims of discriminatory practices in retail environments due to CRP (Crockett, Grier, & Williams, 2003; Feagin, 1991). However, no research in criminology or criminal justice has examined the strain implications of the perception of CRP.

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Although no study in criminology or criminal justice has examined the strain implications of the perception of this discriminatory practice, the strain theory literature does contain studies that have examined the role of discrimination within the context of Agnew’s (1992, 2001, 2006) general strain theory. Some scholars have shown that negative emotions occur after an individual perceives that he or she has been a victim of discrimination. Unfortunately, this research does not include perceptions of CRP. Therefore, a gap exists in the empirical literature concerning the psychological implications of perceived CRP.

CRIMINAL PROFILING

Profiling is a technique that is used to improve the probability of identifying and apprehending a suspect (Meeks, 1999). This dynamic process includes the use of a number of factors or some combination of physical, behavioral, or psychological factors. Typically, profiles are used to focus the attention of an investigation away or toward a specific person or group of people.

Profiles can take several interconnecting forms. On one hand, profiles can be institutional (i.e., a profile that has been settled on by a specific organization such as the police, DEA, and FBI). On the other, a profile can be targeted at the individual level. That is, an individual has derived a specific profile that has been developed from personal experiences. Withrow (2006) discussed these types of profiles as formal (i.e., institutional) and informal (i.e., individual). From these perspectives, profiles can be applied to several different areas.

Profiles can be applied to a range of criminal activity, including possession and distribution of illegal substances. In particular, criminal profiling provides an outline of the type of individual who is likely to have committed a specific crime. For instance, Holmes and Holmes (2002) indicate that criminal profiling is very productive in serial murder cases. The technique has been equally productive in drug activity. However, the use of criminal profiles may subject innocent individuals to scrutiny. For example, some psychologists and other researchers argue that such profiles are not accurate, with several showing that profiles are marginal in identifying offenders (Alison, Bennell, Mokros, & Ormerod, 2002; Alison, Smith, & Morgan, 2003). Two meta-analyses on criminal profiling have shown that the practice is inaccurate even in predicting offense behaviors (Snook, Eastwood, Gendreau, Googin, & Cullen, 2007).

RACIAL PROFILING

Withrow (2006) shows profiling has been especially productive in identifying drug couriers, but race has been a key feature in these profiles. In particular, African Americans were targeted in these profiles in the 1980s and 1990s. Race in profiles may seem logical to use because of the statistical realities of African Americans having higher rates of misdemeanor, violent, and victimization activity than any other racial group. However, this practice has some pejorative implications. That is, the use of racial profiles may be the result of a self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, the use of profiles might result in the persistence of higher rates of misdemeanors, violence, and victimization. This could be the case because the individuals see profiling as discriminatory, and this forces them to withdraw from conventional society to avoid the scrutiny of the discrimination (Anderson, 1999).
Given the potential self-fulfilling prophecy and innocent individual arguments, many states and local governments have become more conscious of the use of racial profiling. To show communities that they are paying attention to the problem of racial profiling, many states and local governments have begun enacting initiatives in order to understand the issue. Many states have mandated that data be collected (primarily through traffic stops) and analyzed to uncover racial profiling as well as to understand its practice and accuracy.

The criminological and criminal justice literature has grown with regard to racial profiling studies. These studies have examined racial profiling in areas such as traffic stops, traffic searches, and airport searches (Gaines, 2006; Grogger & Ridgeway, 2006; D. A. Harris, 1999, 2002; Lange, Johnson, & Voas, 2005; Onwudiwe, 2005; Ramirez, McDevitt, & Farrell, 2000; Reitzel & Piquero, 2006; Rice, Reitzel, & Piquero, 2005; Ruiz & Woessner, 2006; Schafer, Carter, Katz-Bannister, & Wells, 2006; E. L. Smith & Durose, 2006; M. R. Smith & Alpert, 2002; Weitzer & Tuch, 2002, 2005; Withrow, 2006). However, less empirical research has been produced in the area of CRP.

CRP

As noted previously, CRP is the discriminatory treatment of racial and ethnic minorities in retail establishments (Gabbidon, 2003; Gabbidon & Higgins, 2007). CRP has been used as an explanation for disparate treatment in stores or shopping malls. According to Fifield (2001), in a 1999 Gallup poll, half (50%) of the 1,001 African Americans in the United States who were polled reported that they had encountered this sort of disparate treatment. In addition, a 2004 Gallup poll of more than 2,000 individuals in the United States revealed that many of these individuals (i.e., 49%) felt that CRP was being practiced. In essence, although many people believe it is being practiced in the United States, very few scholars have given it any attention.

Currently, two streams of literature exist concerning CRP. The first stream of research is concerned with the lack of service due to race. The second stream of research centers on race and suspicion in retail settings. Although these two streams of research seem divergent, they are not mutually exclusive. The research on CRP has used several different methodologies to arrive at results that indicate minorities are not treated very well in retail establishments. For instance, within this literature, there are interviews (Crockett et al., 2003; Feagin, 1991; Henderson, 2001; Lee, 2000; Williams, Harris, & Henderson, 2001), reviews of legal cases (Adamson, 2000; Gabbidon, 2003; A. G. Harris, 2003; A. G. Harris, Henderson, & Williams, 2005; Russell, 1999; Williams, Harris, & Henderson, 2006), and experimental (Asquith & Bristow, 2000) and observational research in the context of shoplifting (Dabney, Dugan, Topalli, & Hollinger, 2006; Dabney, Hollinger, & Dugan, 2004). These studies reveal that disparate treatment of various minority groups does seem to occur in retail settings.

CRP AND GENERAL STRAIN THEORY

The perception that one is the victim of CRP may have important negative implications. To date, no research has explicitly examined the negative emotions that may arise from the perception of CRP. To best understand the link between CRP and negative emotions, it may be helpful to view perception of CRP as an important stressor or strain. Agnew (1992, 2001) argued that events may occur in an individual’s life that develop negative emotions.
From this perspective, negative emotions (e.g., self-concept) arise from the presentation of noxious stimulus (Agnew, 1992) and an evaluation that the noxious stimulus is a threat or harm (Agnew, 2001). For example, Agnew (1992) sees events such as physical or general abuse, insults from peers, and treatments of disrespect as stressors. CRP may also be seen as a treatment of disrespect. When the noxious stimulus is evaluated as a threat or harm, then the individual develops negative forms of emotions that may energize the individual to seek some form of corrective action to relieve the noxious stimulus.

Agnew (2006) presented a literature review of the efficacy of strain theory. This literature review shows that life events—including noxious stimuli—have implications in developing negative emotions, and some of the literature indicates that noxious stimuli are important in generating specific negative emotions. Some research (Broidy, 2001; Hay, 2003; Hay & Evans, 2006; Mazurrolle, Piquero, & Capowich, 2003; Piquero & Sealock, 2004; Sharp, Brewster, & Love, 2005) indicates that noxious stimuli do have a link with general forms of negative emotions. Furthermore, some research shows that discriminatory practices do have a link with negative emotions (Baron, 2004; Eitle, 2002; Eitle & Turner, 2003; Preston, 2006; Walls, Chapple, & Johnson, 2007). To date, the criminological literature is not clear if CRP, as a strain, can have implications for negative emotions. Nor is the criminological literature clear as to the demographic characteristics that have a connection with these negative emotions.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of this study is to provide an understanding of the negative emotions that perception of CRP develops and the demographic characteristics that have a link with these negative emotions. Two models are necessary to provide this understanding. The first model is a confirmatory factor analysis to determine the psychometric qualities of the measure of negative emotions that may accompany the perception that one has experienced CRP.1 We expect that the items of the negative emotions measure will coalesce into a single measure, as predicted by Agnew’s (1992, 2001) strain theory. The second is a multiple indicator, multiple cause (MIMIC) model that examines the link between demographic factors (i.e., gender, age, and income) and the negative emotion measure. If the demographic factors have a link with the negative emotion measure, then we can understand the profile of the individuals who perceive that they were victims of CRP. Therefore, we expect that the perception of CRP will develop negative emotions and that the different demographics will have a link with these negative emotions.

This study is important to the racial profiling literature because it expands the racial profiling literature beyond policing issues. Furthermore, this study provides an understanding of an understudied part of racial profiling—negative emotions.

METHOD

This research is based on a telephone survey of Philadelphia residents. Using random-digit dialing, the study was carried out by Penn State Harrisburg’s Center for Survey Research, which utilizes VOXCO computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) software. The CATI system accommodated 11 concurrent interviewers and quality control
supervisors assisted by VOXCO’s monitoring and productivity tools. Before starting the project, each interviewer was trained in proper data collection techniques through a formalized interview training class, which included role-playing and feedback, in addition to the technical methodology of interviewing. Additionally, the interviewers met with the principal investigator to provide further clarification of the project.

PARTICIPANTS

When contacted, the respondent was informed of the nature of the study. The interviewer discussed with the respondents the rights of their participation. That is, the respondent was told that he or she could withdraw at any time and that his or her responses would be anonymous and confidential. The phone interviews were conducted between November 30, 2006, and December 13, 2006. The respondents’ telephone numbers were randomly selected from all of Philadelphia’s telephone exchanges. To ensure that each member of a sampled household had an equal probability of being interviewed, the last-birthday method of respondent selection was utilized. This was used to eliminate biases that could arise from interviewing the person who answers the phone.

The actual interviewing took place on weekdays from 4 p.m. to 9 p.m., on Saturdays from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m., and on Sundays from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m. Follow-up calls to households that did not answer or that had a busy signal or an answering machine were scheduled at varying times of day and varying days of the week. Because these callbacks are the principal means by which response rates are typically increased, the Center for Survey Research attempted an average of 4.79 contacts to identify a number’s actual disposition. This procedure yielded 500 completed and 16 partially completed interviews. Of these, 5 completed interviews were eliminated from the study because the respondents’ self-reported zip code fell outside of Philadelphia.

Overall, the survey cooperation rate, which is the total number of completed calls minus the refusals, was 40.2%. The response rate may be due to the data being collected during the heaviest shopping time of the year—November through December. To ensure that the results from the CRP survey were not biased toward any single demographic group or region, the results were checked against the known occurrences of the demographic distribution of Philadelphia’s population. Census data were the most accurate and reliable for verifying survey results (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005). Weighting was used so that the sample’s demographic profile accurately reflected the population’s known properties. The descriptive findings from the research are presented in the next section.

MEASURES

The measures for this study included demographic characteristics and perceptions of negative emotions that potentially arose due to perceptions of CRP. The demographic characteristics (gender, race, income, and age) were recorded for the residents. Gender was coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. In addition, race was coded so that non–African Americans were 0 and African Americans were 1. Income was coded using nine categories that begin with less than $10,000 and end with more than $150,000. Age was coded as follows: 1 = 18-24, 2 = 25-34, 3 = 35-44, 4 = 45-54, 5 = 55-64, 6 = 65-74, and 7 = 75 years and older.
Negative emotions due to CRP were captured using seven measures (see Table 1 for a complete list of the measures and descriptive statistics). These measures asked the respondents about the emotions attached to their perceptions of the CRP incident. Therefore, our measure of negative emotion assumes that the individual believes that a CRP incident has occurred. The respondents indicated their perceptions using a 4-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). This means that the scale had a range of 7 to 28. Higher scores on the items indicated more negative emotions.

ANALYSIS

The analysis took place in three steps. Step 1 provided the descriptive statistics for the sample based on the demographics used in this study. Step 2 examined the psychometric properties of the items that made up the negative emotions measure. This examination took place using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is a process that examines the hypothetical pathways of a measure. This examination determines the convergent and discriminant validity of a set of items that are hypothesized to make up a measure. Step 3 utilized a MIMIC model that examined the influence of the demographic measures on the negative emotion measure. Step 4 presented the results from simulation models in order to further investigate the stability and tenability of the results. That is, the simulation model was used to test the model for statistical power and bias in estimates (i.e., slope estimates and standard error estimates). In our view, if the model has proper levels of statistical power without biased estimates, then the model has the proper stability, and confidence in the model has been found.

RESULTS

STEP 1

The first step provides the descriptive statistics for the sample based on the demographics used in this study. Table 1 presents the demographics, including the individual’s age, gender, income, and race. The average respondent for this sample is between the ages of 45 to 54 years. Thirty-five percent of the sample is male. The average income of the sample is between $40,001 and $60,000 per year. Forty-three percent of the sample is White, 45% of the sample is Black, and the remaining individuals are of other races.
The second step is to present the results of a SEM to better understand how the items making up negative emotions as a result of the perceptions of CRP come together. A measurement model (a specific form of SEM) is used to arrive at these results. A measurement model allows for the development of factor loadings that can demonstrate proper levels of convergent and discriminant validity. In particular, convergent validity has been found when the measures demonstrate proper fit (see Gibbs, Giever, & Higgins, 2003, for the standards and description of fit indexes), and discriminant validity has been found when the factor loadings are reasonably large. The measurement model for this analysis is derived from the correlation matrix (available from the first author by request).

Table 2 shows the measurement model. The first piece of information to be understood for the measurement model is the fit of the model to the data. The chi-square statistic is statistically significant. This indicates that the model does not fit the data properly (Kline, 2005). Two problems exist in using the chi-square as the sole measure of model fit. First, the chi-square statistic may not be able to be interpreted by researchers. That is, the lower bound of the chi-square statistic is always zero and the upper bound is limitless, reducing the ability of researchers to use standardized means of interpretation (Kline, 2005). Second, the chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample size. This is important because large sample sizes—like those used in the present study—are necessary to interpret chi-square as a significance test. However, the large samples allow chi-square to find statistical significance between the observed model and the hypothesized model even if the covariances have slight differences (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Thus, consulting additional fit indexes that are not sensitive to sample size are necessary to understand model fit. In particular, the confirmatory fit index (CFI) is .99, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is .08, and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is .01, all indicating that the model is a good fit to the data. Therefore, convergent validity has been found. In addition, all of the factor loadings are well above Kline’s (2005) standard of .50 for reasonably large factor loadings, indicating that discriminant validity has been found.

These results also indicate support for our expectation that negative emotions arise due to the perceptions of CRP. Negative emotions are a by-product of the perceptions of CRP and are at a high-level mean of 19. Therefore, these findings lead us to believe that the perception of CRP is a strain that leads to a negative emotion, supportive of Agnew’s (1992, 2001, 2006) version of strain theory. However, the factors of the individuals likely to develop these negative emotions are important.

The third step is important for understanding the demographic differences in the negative emotions. Table 3 presents the MIMIC model. This model provides an opportunity to examine the individual characteristics (i.e., age, gender, race, and income) that may develop instances of negative emotions. However, these results begin with a review of the fit of this model to the data. As with the measurement model, the chi-square statistic is statistically significant, indicating a misfit between the model and the data. However, the CFI (.99), RMSEA (.07), and SRMR (.01) indicate that the model is a proper fit to the data.

Table 3 shows that all of the factors except gender have distinctive implications for negative emotions from the perceptions of CRP. However, some of the results seem contradictory.
For instance, Whites are likely ($B = .155$) to have a link with negative emotions, but being Black also has a link with negative emotions ($B = .176$). The largest connection between the demographic factors and negative effect comes from income ($B = .939$). Therefore, individuals who are likely to experience negative emotions from the perceptions of CRP have a profile that includes being Black and having higher incomes. These findings support implications drawn from Agnew’s (1992, 2001, 2006) strain theory that racial and ethnic minorities and differential incomes are likely to have implications for strain and the development of negative emotions. However, we do not wish to overstate these results and thus seek additional information about the results.

**STEP 4**

The fourth step is the development of simulation models to better understand the results. Specifically, Muthén and Muthén (2002) were clear that simulation models can be used to examine the statistical power and the possibility of Type I errors in results from studies. For instance, through simulation analysis we are able to determine if we have a large enough sample to arrive at these results and reduce the risk of a Type II error. Furthermore, by examining the slope estimates and the standard error estimates, we can determine whether a Type I error is possible in these results. If Type I or Type II errors are not found, Muthén and Muthén (2002) argue, then enough evidence is present to suggest that the results are replicable.

**TABLE 2: Measurement Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The CRP incident was stressful.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.95*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The CRP incident made me angry.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.96*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was shocked when I realized I was a victim of CRP.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The CRP incident made me sad.</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.94*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The CRP incident embarrassed me.</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.95*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My self-worth was negatively affected as a result of the CRP incident.</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.89*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The incident had a negative impact on me.</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.94*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Model fit measures: $\chi^2 = 84.03, p = .00;$ comparative fit index $= .99; \text{ root mean square error of approximation} = .08; \text{ standardized root mean square residual} = .01.$  
b. Coding for these measures: $1 = \text{strongly disagree}, 2 = \text{disagree}, 3 = \text{agree}, 4 = \text{strongly agree}.$  
*p = .05.

**TABLE 3: Structural Model of Covariates on Negative Emotions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Covariate</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>.43* (.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>.49* (.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.06 (.02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>2.63* (.94)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Model fit measures: $\chi^2 = 125.90, p = .00; \text{ comparative fit index} = .99; \text{ root mean square error of approximation} = .07; \text{ standardized root mean square residual} = .01.$  
*p = .05.
Following the work of Paternoster and Brame (2000), we developed our simulation using a normal distribution and 1,000 repetitions. That is, we had our statistical program develop 1,000 normal distributions and apply our final model in Step 3 for our examination. In this analysis, we found that we had adequate levels of statistical power. That is, our sample size was large enough to properly detect the desired effect. This means that we are not at risk of Type II error. Furthermore, we found that our slope estimates and our standard error estimates were not biased. This evidence suggests that Type I errors were not an issue in these data. Overall, these results suggest that our results are robust and replicable, using the same measures in different samples (a more detailed presentation of the simulation analysis can be obtained from the first author).

In summary, the results show that perception of CRP generates negative emotions. Furthermore, we show that these negative emotions resonate with Whites, Blacks, and those with higher incomes. Our simulation results indicate that we have adequate statistical power with little parameter (i.e., slope) and standard error biases.

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether perceptions of CRP generated negative emotions (e.g., “The CRP incident was stressful,” “The CRP incident made me angry,” “I was shocked when I realized I was a victim of CRP,” and “The CRP incident made me sad”). Perception of CRP is an important area of study in the racial profiling arena. Although understudied, CRP should become a more germane topic in criminology and criminal justice research. Furthermore, less is known as to whether negative emotions arise due to this behavior. In addition, less is known about the perceptions of CRP and the demographic factors that have a connection with negative emotions. We cast these issues in the context of Agnew’s general strain theory. In particular, Agnew’s strain theory purports that negative events are stressors that develop negative emotions and energize individuals into action. Each issue will be discussed in turn below.

The first issue is to determine whether the perception of CRP generates negative emotions. Using SEM’s version of a measurement model, we found that CRP does seem to generate negative emotions in our sample. Our results indicate a high level of negative emotions. This is consistent with Agnew’s theory that perceptions of individual acts serve as strains that can generate negative emotions. Given that this behavior is related to perceptions of discriminatory practices, the results are consistent with the research within the strain literature that examines the discriminatory practices. Thus, we have evidence to suggest that individuals who perceive that they have been victims of CRP are likely to develop negative emotions. Although not directly tested in the present study, we speculate that the development of some of these negative emotions is rather severe. Therefore, perceptions of CRP may have very important detrimental effects for society.

The second issue is the determination of the demographic factors that are connected to these negative emotions. Surprisingly, our results revealed that White individuals are likely to develop negative emotions due to perceptions of CRP. In a forthcoming article, the authors found that perceptions of CRP did occur among Whites (Gabbidon & Higgins, in press). This occurs because Whites may view themselves as not fitting the profile of a criminal. Thus, our results here are consistent with this literature. Furthermore, our results should
generate more research to determine the extent that perceptions of CRP occur among Whites and what the outcomes of this behavior may entail. In addition, we found that Blacks were also likely to develop negative emotions due to CRP. The effect of CRP on Blacks was larger than the effects on Whites. This suggests that being Black and perceiving CRP is more likely to result in a negative emotion. This is consistent with the literature from Agnew’s strain theory, specifically the literature that examined discriminatory practices.

Of the demographics, income has the largest effect on whether an individual will experience a negative emotion. The individuals with greater incomes are more likely to experience a negative emotion. It is important to note that the research revealed that there were no differences by gender when it comes to developing this sort of negative emotion due to the perception of CRP. This is counter to the research on Agnew’s strain theory, which suggests that males and females would experience strain and negative emotions differently. We believe that the lack of gender differences occurs because males and females view profiling the same way.

This study does have limitations. First, the results are confined to a cross-sectional sample. This is not a major issue, given that we are exploring a relatively new area of study. Second, we did not include a measure of education because it was shown to be multicollinear with our measure of income. That is, in additional analyses not presented here but available by request from the lead author, income and education in this sample were highly correlated and multicollinear. Therefore, we chose to use the income measure in the present study to be consistent with previous CRP research (Gabbidon & Higgins, 2007). Third, our results come from one location. This is an exploratory study that provides future researchers with instruction for developing a more in-depth understanding. Therefore, we believe that one location is important for these exploratory purposes. Fourth, the measurement of negative emotions was combined with CRP, reducing the opportunity to examine a causal logic between the two issues. The combined measures reduced the explanation beyond our constructs. However, we believe that this allows us to understand how the perceptions of CRP work in developing negative emotions. These would be proper areas for future research.

Despite the limits, the present study provides evidence that race and income are important areas that have implications for the development of negative emotions. In particular, those who have higher incomes and are Black are more likely to experience negative emotions due to the perceptions of CRP. Future studies should reexamine these results using longitudinal data from multiple locations and cleaner measures of negative emotions. For now, the present study supports the premise that CRP has the ability to develop negative emotions and that race and income are relevant in this area.

NOTE

1. Consumer racial profiling (CRP) could not be substantiated in the present study because the negative emotion items captured the perception of CRP, based on an incident the participant had experienced (e.g., being followed by a store employee).

REFERENCES


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