

Does Contact Racial Profiling  
Lead to Aggressive Police Conduct?

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**Abstract:**

Millions of Americans have been victims of racial profiling and millions of Americans are at an extremely high risk of being victims of racial profiling during their life. Thus, the following research paper examines law enforcement officers' conduct once police officers have initiated contact with the public through the use of quantitative and qualitative data. An interview with three individuals from three of the most prestigious organizations in the United States was conducted. In addition, secondary data from the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics is going to be analyzed to examine the impact of racial profiling on incarceration rates.

**Executive Summary:**

Racial Profiling is a policing method that has increasingly become scrutinized over the years. An overwhelming number of individuals in the United States are subjected to racial profiling. Nearly thirty-two million Americans, state they have already been victims of racial profiling. Nearly eighty-seven million Americans are at a high risk of being subjected to future racial profiling during their lifetime. Racial profiling directly affects Native Americans, Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, African Americans, Arab Americans, Persian Americans, American Muslims, many immigrants and visitors, and, under certain circumstances, white Americans. In addition, racial profiling can occur to women and men, all age groups, is used against people from all socio-economic backgrounds, and occurs in rural, suburban, and urban areas (Amnesty International, 2007). Thus, racial profiling is an issue in American society that can no longer be overlooked. The following research paper will examine which ethnicities are searched, arrested, and assaulted at higher rates after a traffic stop takes place. The research will

entail a cross-sectional design. The quantitative research will consist of secondary data from the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics and the qualitative research will consist of three interviews with individuals who work at organizations who advocate against racial profiling such as the American Civil Liberties Union, the League of United Latin American Citizens, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.

### **Introduction:**

Racial profiling conflicts with the Fourteenth Amendment and it is bridging the privileges of citizens and depriving individuals of their life and liberty without due process. Thus, racial profiling goes against the ideas of equality and due process. In general, racial profiling alienates entire races from society (Fauchon, 2004). In addition, racial profiling has the potential to expand. For example, in the 1980's racial profiling was used for drug interdiction on highways; however, the racial profiling of citizens and visitors of Middle Eastern and South Asian descent, has substantially increased since September 11, 2001. Thus, it is crucial to evaluate the impacts that racial profiling can have on society. The following research paper will examine law enforcements officers' actions once police officers have initiated contact with the public. Furthermore, the research which follows contributes to society by further researching racial profiling by looking at areas that scholars have yet to explore. Examining the impact that racial profiling has on police officers conduct once they stop minorities will confidently influence policies to be enacted in order to stop racial profiling.

### **Literature Review:**

Racial Profiling has been one of the most controversial issues in the last few years. The issue of racial profiling is extremely important to the United States because thousands of individuals are being affected by racial profiling. Many federal, state, and local agencies all over the nation have viewed the issue as detrimental to United States society; thus, more and more research of the issue is taking place throughout the years. Government agencies are not the only agencies that are connected with the work of exploring racial profiling which is conducted by law enforcement agencies; groups such as the American Civil Liberties Union and the National Association for Colored People are also involved in investigating racial profiling. Therefore, the following literature review will examine articles and their findings in the controversial topic of racial profiling.

## **Background**

Racial profiling is when police officers stop, question, and search African Americans and Latinos disproportionately because of their race or ethnicity in order to try to apprehend common criminals. In the wake of September 11, 2001, the concept of racial profiling has been altered to include security checks or federal investigations that are aimed at Muslim men from the Middle East in order to apprehend terrorists. The essence of racial profiling is that some minority groups are more likely to commit crimes or a particular crime than other minority groups. If an officer's behavior is based at least in part on such racial or ethnic judgments, it does not matter if they use other measures as well in deciding on their course of action. Racial profiling occurs in nearly every type of criminal investigation, but highway drug interdiction has received noteworthy attention. However, very little is known about drug dealers that have never been caught. The

argument for racial profiling is that motorists are stopped and searched based on race because it works. The worst case of ethnic profiling in American history was when President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 on February 19, 1942. Executive Order 9066 assigned the secretary the authority to order over 110,000 Japanese Americans on the West Coast to be resettled in relocation centers for the extent of the war (Gross, Livingston, 2002).

### **War on Drugs**

The tactic of targeting racial minorities for routine and pedestrian stops can be traced back to the “war on drugs,” which encouraged racial profiling as a useful tactic to detect drug offenders. The allegory of crime and punishment and the ensuing politics of law and order had a major impact on policy in the 1980’s as the “war on drugs” was declared. The “war on drugs” generated policies that were formulated to decrease the supply and distribution use of unlawful narcotics and policies created unequally focused on Criminal Justice enforcement and punishment of drug offenses. The annual budget for the war on drugs increased dramatically, for in 1976 the budget was 2.9 billion and in 2002 it grew to 18.8 billion. The results of the “war on drugs” have been a powerful transformation in policing tactics on a nationwide level. The tactics include the assertive targeting of drug offenders at the street level and drug traffickers. In addition, there has been an increase in incarceration rates and prison sentencing lengths. In 1980, 25 percent of federal prisoners were incarcerated due to drug offenses. In 1990, 52 percent of federal prisoners were incarcerated for drug offenses, and in 1999, the number grew to 57 percent (Engel, Calnon, 2004).

### **Profiling and the Law**

By carrying out such stops, these officers assume that minorities commit more drug offenses, which is not the case. In all the published studies to date, Northeastern University law professor, Deborah Ramirez, points out that minorities are not more likely to be in possession of contraband than Caucasians. Latinos are, especially, less likely to be in possession of contraband. Thus, race has not demonstrated to be a valuable or reliable source in profiling criminals. Law enforcement regularly asserts that the drug culture in this country is wide-ranging and that the greater part of illicit drug users are Caucasian (Gross, Livingston, 2002). However, the U.S. government still targets minorities for drug related crimes disproportionately. Profiling African Americans for drug offenses does nothing other than fill jail cells with African American dealers and addicts while their Caucasian counterparts continue to engage in their illicit business (Fauchon, 2004). A predominately Caucasian Congress mandates prison sentences for the control and distribution of crack cocaine one hundred times harsher than the punishment for powder cocaine. This mandate has an unequal racial impact on African Americans who makeup 90 percent of crack convictions and only 20 percent of powder convictions. 65 percent of crack users are Caucasian; however, in 1992, 92.6 percent of those convicted for crack related crimes were African American and only 4.1 percent were Caucasian (Rosenbaum, Tokaji, 2000).

On the other hand, Fauchon (2004) argues that after examining with scrutiny history, current events, the U.S. Constitution, case law, and policy it is evident that racial profiling in any environment is an inefficient and depraved policy to ensure safety. The case of *Brown v. City of Oneonta* demonstrated that when race is used to describe criminal suspects even if used in combination with other descriptors, there is a possibility

that race will be the only characteristic used among many and it will be the sole characteristic upon which law enforcement relies (Walker, 2002). The courts have had a history of ruling in favor of profiling based on race. In *U.S. v. Martinez-Fuerte* (1976), the Supreme Court found that it was permissible for police at border crossings to detain motorists of Mexican ancestry and to search their vehicles because these cars were more likely to be transporting illegal immigrants. The U.S. Court of Appeals adopted a similar position in *U.S. v. Weaver* (1992) when it permitted airport searches of young black males, prompted by suspicions that black gang members were trafficking cocaine. Thus, courts have allowed race to be used in police decisions provided that race is part of the suspects description. There has also been a tradition of dissenting racial profiling. In *U.S. v. Nicholas* (1971), the court found it not permissible to stop an African American driver without state license plates maintaining that this did not constitute sufficient grounds for suspicion of criminality. In *U.S. v. Laymon* (1990), the court suppressed incriminating evidence found in a vehicle, arguing that the police officer did not have adequate justification for searching the car and had used race as a factor in the decision to search. Occasionally, discrimination motivated by reason of efficiency is considered permissible; whereas, discrimination motivated by racial prejudice is never permissible (Knowles, et. al, 2000).

Principles on which the U.S. has been built on include the accepted wisdoms of freedom. The Fourteenth Amendment and the U.S. Constitution put forth two fundamental ideas to protect against racial profiling. These ideas are equality and due process. The amendment states “No state shall make or enforce any law which shall bridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States nor shall state deprive

any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law.” Therefore, to single out a group of people by race violates equal protection. Various societal impacts are associated with racial profiling and it is impossible to measure the cost of alienating an entire race of people from society. No benefits have been derived by targeting one race, making the cost of such a policy intolerable. It is the responsibility of democracy and freedom to refute these accusations. Racial profiling is a system which has not worked and cannot work, for it impacts the manner in which people feel, and it compromises their rights (Fauchon, 2004).

### **Studies**

There have been efforts to generate benchmarks in order to compare police stop data. Lamberth’s study involved stationing observers by the side of the road to count the number of cars and the race of the occupants in randomly selected three hour blocks over a two week period at four distinct sites between exit one and three of the New Jersey Turnpike. In Cincinnati, researchers analyze contact data which was composed during police stops to test the hypothesis of biased policing. Their analysis revealed that the pattern of police stops in Cincinnati seemed to be associated with driving patterns, drug calls, and overall demand for police services. The study suggests that the unbalanced numbers of African American drivers stopped may be attributed by the workload factors rather than biased policing; however, the data also revealed that the length of stops for African American drivers was much longer than for Caucasians. The difference was accounted for by evidence that suggests that African American drivers which were stopped had more occupants than those driven by Caucasians. Even though the vehicles

of African American drivers were searched unequally, the likelihood of finding contraband was unvarying across races (Lange, et. al, 2005).

In a tollbooth survey which was conducted at the New Jersey Turnpike, the intent of the study was to assess the race and ethnicity of driving participants and to generate reliable and generalizable population estimates for various sections of the turnpike. The study found that in the south and central segments of the New Jersey Turnpike African American drivers were overrepresented among police stops, for they made up 25.1 percent of the drivers on the turnpike, yet they constituted 28.3 percent of the police stops. In the central segment 12.5 percent of drivers specified that they were African American, but 21.5 percent of police stops involved African American drivers. In the northern segment, the degree to which African American drivers were overrepresented among stops was small relative to the south and central segments. The data from the speed survey revealed differences in the representation of black drivers among speeders and non-speeders. About 98 percent of the vehicles exceeded the 60mph speed limit, but African Americans made up 14.8 percent of the speeding violators and they constituted 13.5 percent of the drivers using the New Jersey Turnpike (Lange, et. al, 2005).

Traffic studies and police testimonials propose that African Americans and Caucasians are not distinguishable by their driving habits. Evidence of racial profiling is usually interpreted as an indication of racist preferences on the part of the police. The case for discrimination rests largely in the observation that the proportion of African Americans among drivers searched by the police far exceeds the proportion in the general population of drivers. The key implication of the model is that if police officers have the same cost of searching two subgroups of the population and if these two subgroups are

stopped and searched at equilibrium, then the return from searching will be equal across the subgroups. Part of the controversy about racial profiling is that state troopers often use small traffic violations such as exceeding the speed limit 5mph to stop and search motorist, other occupants and the vehicle. In a study, 1,590 total searches were conducted, 1,007 of them (63 percent) were performed on African Americans, 29 percent on Caucasians, and 6 percent on Latinos. Motorists are guilty if they are found with any amount of marijuana, heroin, cocaine, crack, PCP, LSD, and/or methadone. The proportion of guilty motorists among Caucasians and African Americans whose cars were searched was nearly identical .32 versus .34. However, Latinos guilty rates were significantly lower at .11 percent (Knowles, et. al, 2000).

Evidence from Knowles suggests that on Interstate 95 African American motorist are six times more likely to be searched than Caucasian motorists and the success rate between the two groups is not significant. The hit rate for African Americans is 34 percent and for Caucasians it is 32 percent. In the case of precinct policing in New York City, Eliot Spitzer (1999) reports that African Americans are over six times more likely to be stopped and frisked than Caucasians, but the success rates of searches is quite similar between the two groups, 11 percent of African Americans and 13 percent of Caucasians. In the case of airport searches, a U.S. customs report reveals 13 percent of those searched were African American and 32 percent were Caucasians. 6.7 of Caucasians searched had contraband while 6.3 percent of African Americans had contraband. However, equalization of success rates does not turn into equalization of incarceration rates of probability of going to jail across groups (Persico, 2002).

In a study by Meehan and Ponder, computer traffic from police cruisers was analyzed in a largely Caucasian suburban town. The results found that officers were more likely to run license plate checks on cars with African American drivers than cars with Caucasian drivers and gradually more so the farther they were from the border of the neighboring African American dominated metropolis (Gross, Livingston, 2002).

### **Arguments in Favor of Racial Profiling**

Law enforcement practices tend to have an unequal influence on different ethnic and racial groups. Motorists on highways are much more likely to be searched by police for illegal drugs if the motorists are African American. Forbidding the police from using some characteristics may decrease the efficiency of policing. Normally, individuals who engage in certain criminal activities tend to share certain characteristics relating to specific socioeconomic and ethnic background. Forcing the police to disregard such characteristics may lead to less effective policing and to increased crime. These conflicting considerations reveal a fundamental tension between principles of equal treatment which reduces the law and the practical demands of law enforcement (Persico, 2002). However, the Knowles and Perisco studies suggest that this argument is flawed. The argument is flawed because hit rates for African Americans and Latinos are not higher than the hit rates for Caucasians.

### **Impacts**

The divide between the African American community and law enforcement remains profound. Surveys have revealed that the average African American has poorer views of the police than do Caucasians. In addition, most African Americans deem the Criminal Justice system racially discriminatory and police dishonest. The position of law

enforcement in the United States is such that the majority of African American communities live with fear of being stopped, arrested, and/or detained by the police (Walker, 2002). The ineffectiveness of targeting minorities for pedestrian or vehicle searches usually leads to poor police-minority relations. The results from a PPCS data collection demonstrate that drivers' views of the legitimacy of police searches vary substantially among the drivers race-ethnicity, for 77.8 percent of African American drivers who were searched alleged the search was not justifiable while 58.2 percent of Caucasians and 61 percent of Latinos alleged the search was not justifiable (Engel, Calnon, 2004). Due to the elevated levels of African American victimization, unproductive and unsuccessful police work can be particularly destructive to minority communities. The cycle will not halt until discriminatory patterns in law enforcement are reduce or abolished (Walker, 2002).

Police search for drugs primarily among African Americans and Latinos; thus, more minorities are arrested, prosecuted, and jailed. This processes strengthens the view that drug trafficking is mostly a minority activity. The view creates a profile that leads to more stops among minority drivers. Meanwhile, Caucasian drivers get far less attention, and many drug dealers and possessors among them go without being caught and the view that Caucasians commit fewer drug offenses than minorities is perpetuated (Walker, 2002).

### **Alternatives**

Profiling based on both behavior and appearance is a vital tool that effectively and efficiently increases security in the United States. Before the September 11<sup>th</sup> terrorist attacks, racial profiling was a term used to refer to law enforcement practices of taking

the race of a potential suspect into account in deciding whether to initiate investigation of that suspect. Before the tragic event, 80 percent of Americans were against racial profiling; however, today 60 percent of Americans consider racial profiling to be a necessity of some form in order to ensure public safety and national security. History proves time and time again that when national emergencies occur profiling becomes a weapon to combat and monitor America's enemies (Reddick, 2004). Targeting behavior rather than appearance has proven to be more successful. For example, customs changed its stop and search procedures to eliminate race from the factors considered when stop decisions are made. Instead, customs agents selected suspects for stops and searches using observational techniques and focusing on specific behaviors. Customs conducted 70 percent less searches and their hit rates improved from approximately 5 percent to over 15 percent (Fauchon, 2004). Suspicious behavior formed the basis for detaining Ahmed Ressam, an Al Qaeda operative on December 14, 1999 at the U.S. Canadian border. One hundred pounds of explosives were found hidden in Ressam's car which was destined to blow up Los Angeles International Airport. Ressam's unusual itinerary, edginess, and obstinate behavior awakened the doubts of a U.S. agent. Richard Reid the "shoe bomber" who attempted to blow up American airlines flight from Paris to Miami in December 2001 had a British passport issued two weeks before the incident; he was traveling alone and without any unchecked luggage. Profiling when used correctly is an effective law enforcement tool and deterrent against further violence (Reddick, 2004).

The previous literature review puts forth the major issue of racial profiling in American society. The review discusses the background, findings, and impacts of racial profiling. Furthermore, the research at hand will contribute to the existing research on

racial profiling by further exploring the debate of whether racial profiling is good police work or not.

**Presentation of Research Question and Hypotheses:**

The research questions that are being posed are: Which ethnicities are more likely to be searched, arrested, and assaulted after a police stop? And are police officers' reasons for the stops legitimate? Thus, the hypothesis presented is that racial profiling leads to more aggressive law enforcement conduct toward minorities.

**Methodology:**

**Research Design:** The research design that will be used is a cross-sectional design.

Given the research question and hypothesis a cross-sectional design is best because the data collection involves many variables from a large group of subjects who are dispersed geographically. In addition, a cross-sectional design can suggest causality between racial profiling and police conduct. It can also supply valuable leads regarding the impacts of racial profiling.

1) **Data:**

- a. The independent variable which will be evaluated is racial profiling. The dependent variables which will be evaluated are police conduct. The units of analysis are minorities.
- b. The investigators, of the secondary data which I will be using, operationalized their variables by surveying 80,237 individuals across the United States and documenting their contact with the police. The data was collected between July 1, 2005 through July 31, 2005 using a stratified multistage cluster sample. A weight was used in order to obtain national estimates. In addition, the mode of data

collection was through computer assisted telephone interviews, face to face interviews, and telephone interviews. The response rate was 80%. The data looked at the individual's race, reason for the stop, and various forms of police conduct during the police-public contact. The interviews with three individuals from the American Civil Liberties Union, the League of United Latin American Citizens, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People were operationalized by looking for reoccurring themes and ideas among the various interviews and categorizing them appropriately.

c. I will be drawing my sample from the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. The data collection set that I will utilize is "Police-Public Contact Survey, 2005." Therefore, in order to relate police conduct to racial profiling I will compare stop, arrest, and force used data by race and whether the stop was legitimate. For the qualitative portion of the research, interviews were conducted with the American Civil Liberties Union, the League of United Latin American Citizens, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. These organizations advocate against racial profiling. The interviews will be conducted in order to gain the views/perceptions of these individuals. The interviews are intended to obtain information regarding typical racial profiling cases that the individual's encounter at the various organizations. In addition, one person was interviewed at each of the three agencies. I will interview two people at each organization (See appendix A for interview questions).

d. The research does have human subject issues, but they are minor. The manner in which the human subject issues will be dealt with for the qualitative portion of the research (interviews) is by making the interviewees aware that the interviews are for educational purposes and all the information will be kept confidential. A confidentiality agreement form was composed in order to ensure confidentiality on the interviewees' part as well as mine (See Appendix B for Confidentiality Agreement).

### **Outline of Analysis:**

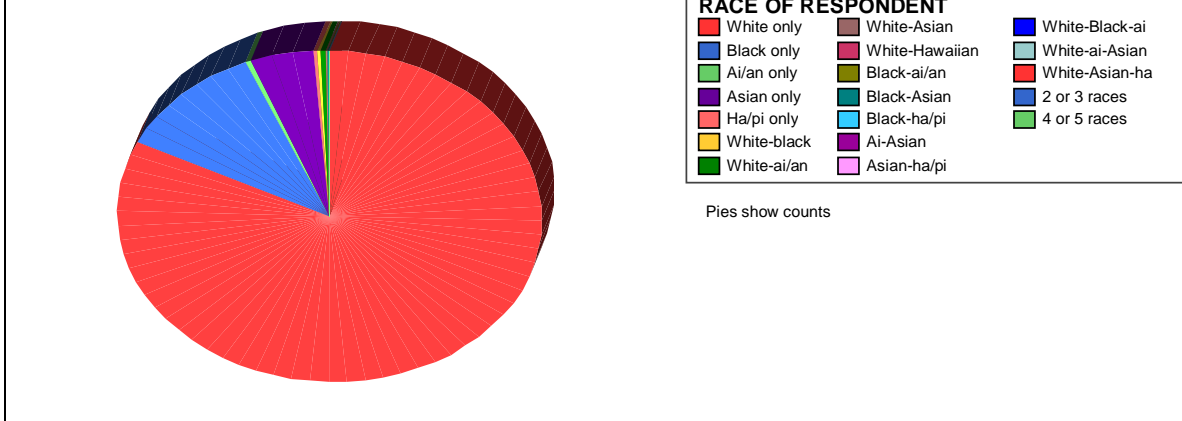
The following portion of the paper will discuss the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data. Once again, the qualitative data consisted of the "Police-Public Contact Survey, 2005" and the qualitative data consisted of interviews with three advocates. In addition, the testing of the hypothesis will be examined.

### **Quantitative Findings:**

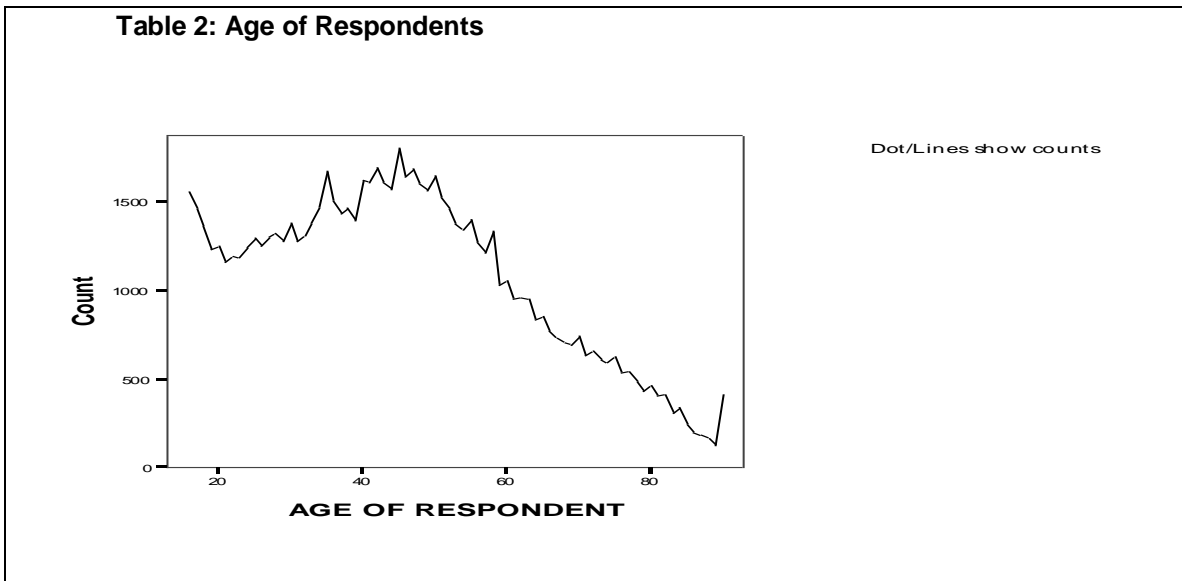
#### **Univariate Statistics:**

After analyzing the quantitative data from the "Police-Public Contact Survey," the questions that were posed previously in the paper can now be answered. Firstly, the majority of respondents of the "Police-Public Contact Survey" were Caucasian. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents were in their forties.

**Table 1: Race of Respondents**



**Table 2: Age of Respondents**



In addition, contact with the police and the public was more common among males, Caucasians, and younger residents. 76 percent of Caucasians had contact with the police while 10 percent of the African Americans had contact with the police. 29.3 percent of the respondent's ages 18 to 24 had contact with the police, and 8.5 percent were 65 years or older (Bureau of Justice Statistics).

## **Hypothesis Testing:**

Presented earlier in the paper was the hypothesis that racial profiling leads to more aggressive law enforcement conduct toward minorities. Therefore, the null hypothesis is that racial profiling and aggressive law enforcement conduct toward minorities are dependent of each other. The alternate hypothesis is that racial profiling and aggressive behavior toward minorities are independent of each other. In order to determine whether the null hypothesis can be accepted, various questions were taken into account. The questions were: Which ethnicities are more likely to be searched, arrested, and assaulted after a police stop? And are police officers' reasons for the stops legitimate?

In order to answer the questions and the hypothesis a couple statistical analysis tests were run. The first test was a cross tabulation that looked at the various ethnicities and their stop rates. The cross tabulation indicated that Caucasians, African Americans, and Latinos were stopped at similar rates. Caucasians were stopped 49.3 percent of the time, African Americans 45.4 percent, Latinos 50 percent. The chi-square test indicated that there is no association between traffic stops and minorities at the .05 significance level (See Appendix C). Furthermore, 12.9 percent of Caucasians felt the traffic stop was not legitimate while 22 percent of African Americans felt the traffic stop was not legitimate, and 7.7 percent of Latinos felt the traffic stop was not legitimate. Pearson's chi-square indicates that there is a strong association between ethnicity and traffic stop legitimacy at the .05 level (See Appendix D). The next test run was another cross tabulation comparing ethnicities and their search rates. The test indicates that African Americans and Latinos were more likely to be searched than Caucasians. 6.4 percent of

African Americans were searched, 7.7 percent of Latinos were searched, and 3.1 percent of Caucasians were searched. At the .05 level, there is a significant association between ethnicity and search rates (See Appendix E). Arrests and ethnicity was the next analysis which was conducted as the cross tabulation indicated that 2.4 percent of all drivers were arrested. Caucasians were arrested 1.8 percent of the time, African Americans 3.7 percent, and Latinos were arrested 6.3 percent of the time. The Pearson Chi-square indicated that at the .05 significance level there is a strong association between ethnicities and arrest rates (See Appendix F). Hit rates were also examined. At a level of .05 significance, there is a weak association between hit rates and ethnicity. Police officers found illegal evidence on African Americans 9.4 percent of the time and on Caucasians 10.5 percent of the time (See Appendix G). Next, the rate of force used among various ethnicities was compared. The cross tabulation indicated that African Americans and Latinos experienced force at higher rates than Caucasians. Caucasians experienced force 1.5 percent of the time, and African Americans 6.2 percent of the time. The Pearson Chi-square test indicated that at the .05 significance level there is a strong association between ethnicity and the use of force. Of the individuals who had force used against them, 85.3 percent felt the force was excessive (See Appendix H). Furthermore, African Americans had contact with the police 1 out of 10 times; however, African Americans had force used against them 1 out of 4 times.

The tests reveal that racial profiling did not occur within the respondents. Thus, there was no association between police stops and ethnicity. However, the tests comparing ethnicities to searches, arrests, and force indicate that there is a strong association between ethnicities and searches, arrests, and force despite the evidence that

hit rates across ethnicities are similar. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected because there is no evidence that suggests police are racially profiling individuals. However, once a police stop has initiated police do exhibit aggressive behavior toward minorities. Racial profiling and police aggressiveness are not related to each other.

### **Qualitative Findings:**

Interviews of three individuals from the American Civil Liberties Union, the League of United Latin American Citizens, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People were conducted. Within the three interviews a couple of reoccurring themes came up. Firstly, the individuals who responded to the interview questions work on policy work and advocacy. Furthermore the three agencies indicated that they mostly handle big profile cases. They usually work on cases that involve a large amount of individuals. For example, the NAACP was involved in a suit against the California Highway Patrol for racial profiling that resulted in a good settlement agreement. Another was a case in Union City where students in a school were targeted (NAACP Interview). The interviewees also indicated that there are a number of indicators that suggest racial profiling has occurred or is taking place. Indicators are revealed through information that the officer says or something they do. Often times racial profiling occurs when an individual is stopped for a minor technical violation, where the minor violation is just a pretext for doing some further investigation, which may be prompted by bias. Furthermore, the agencies also indicated that there are not many resources for individuals who have been victims of racial profiling. Individuals can file complaints with police departments. Unfortunately, they are likely not to result in any significant outcome, as often these cases involve the complainant's word against the

officer and there are no corroborating witnesses. Individuals can also file tort claims and civil suits; however, they may face similar obstacles. Also Bay Area Police Watch takes complaints and has a lawyer referral service.

The interviews with the advocates in the various agencies offer little reassurance that racial profiling is being dealt with appropriately. Racial profiling affects millions of Americans and millions of Americans are at risk of being racial profiled, yet there are limited resources available to help the individuals being affected by this police method. Furthermore, cases of racial profiling that do come forth are hard to fight because it is the police officers word against the complainant.

**Conclusion:**

Potential implications of the research may indicate that the United States is promoting a policing method that creates unfair police behavior toward individuals of a particular ethnicity unlawfully. The research may imply that the individuals are being deprived of their individual rights which have been guaranteed to them. The principles which have guided American society are being manipulated in order to alienate certain ethnicities. The limitations of the methodology include that the qualitative analysis will only take into account organizations who advocate against racial profiling. The interviews will not address those individuals or organizations that deem racial profiling to be a useful police tool. In addition, three interviews may not be a sufficient number of interviews for solid qualitative data. The cross-sectional design also has limitations which include that once the data is obtained the data may end up being altered in order to relate the data to the research interest. However, the source of the secondary data which was obtained from the United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics is of

very high quality. Another positive outcome of the data is that the data is representative of the entire United States and it is not limited to only one portion of the country; thus, the study is generalizable.

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## **Appendix A**

### **Interview Questions**

1. What is your role in the organization?
2. What is your definition of racial profiling?
3. Of the cases which you represent, what ethnicity are the majority of the individuals who are victims of racial profiling?
4. Are there identifiers that indicate that a person has been a victim of racial profiling?
5. What resources are there for individuals who have been victims of racial profiling?
6. Has the issue of racial profiling escalated over the years? Have the number of cases increased or decreased? Why do you think that is?
7. Why do you think police engage in racial profiling?
8. What fundamental civil liberties does racial profiling conflict with? And why?
9. Can you describe a typical racial profiling case?

## **Appendix B**

### **Confidentiality Agreement**

**(Ventures, M. 2007)**

It is understood and agreed to that the below identified discloser of confidential information may provide certain information that is and must be kept confidential. To ensure the protection of such information, and to preserve any confidentiality necessary under patent, it is agreed that

1. The Confidential Information to be disclosed can be described as and includes:

Information regarding racial profiling issues in the agency the interviewee is employed at. In addition, the information reflects the interviewees' personal opinions that may not reflect those of the agency.

2. The Recipient agrees not to disclose the name of the interviewee from whom the confidential information obtained from the discloser to anyone.

3. The information that is obtained will be used solely for educational purposes.

**WHEREFORE**, the parties acknowledge that they have read and understand this Agreement and voluntarily accept the duties and obligations set forth herein.

Recipient of Confidential Information:

Name (Print or Type):

Signature:

Date:

Discloser of Confidential Information:

Name (Print of Type):

Signature:

Date: