The Dark Side of Safety: A Call for a More Thorough Consideration of Racism and Collective Power Motivations in the Social Psychology of Firearms

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Abstract

This paper situates current social psychological research on the symbolic use of firearms (e.g., as a source of personal safety) in broader historical context to motivate a more thorough consideration of collective power motives. Historically, firearms have been used to dominate racial outgroup members (e.g., White Americans use of firearms and firearm laws to dispossess indigenous people of land or control free and enslaved Black people) or, at times, attempt to resist group-based oppression (e.g., Black Americans use of firearms to struggle against White Jim Crow terrorism). Given most gun owners report self-protection as their primary reason for firearm ownership and yet anti-Black attitudes are still a consistently important predictor of firearm ownership among dominant group members (e.g., White Americans), this paper examines how guns may function as a perceived source of personal safety and collective power. I center the persistent role of White supremacy and anti-Blackness in original U.S. firearm psychology and policy to illuminate the interrelatedness of personal safety and collective power perceptions, and how perceived threats to in-group power may motivate the use of guns and policies that selectively regulate gun access to mitigate associated safety concerns. Seeking to nudge social psychology to more thoroughly examine firearms' potential function as a symbolic source of collective power, I end by

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discussing how considering collective power can help us better understand how historically dominant and historically marginalized groups view firearms today while also illuminating some barriers to the pursuit of gun safety for all.

Keywords

History, group power, racism, safety, guns

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

- -The Second Amendment to the United States Constitution, Ratified in 1791
- -The Second Amendment isn't about guns. It is about anti-Blackness.
- -Dr. Carol Anderson, Historian, 2021

In the U.S. today, 32% of individuals report owning a firearm and 42% of households report having a firearm in the home (Nadeem, 2023). Since the 1960s, gun culture in the U.S. has shifted increasingly toward personal firearms being owned more for self-protection (Yamane, 2017), and, today, over 70% of gun owners list self-protection as their primary reason for owning a firearm (Nadeem, 2023). However, what motivates the perceived utility of guns as a source of self-protection—and what self-protective gun ownership means and implicates for an individual owner or prospective owner—extends far beyond the actual use of a gun and incorporates broader social processes.

As a field, social psychology has begun to earnestly investigate motivations underlying self-protective firearm ownership and culture in the United States. Often, the described psychological motivations center the individual, such as the function of firearms to symbolically quell individual safety concerns (e.g., from crime). These needs, and the perception that possessing a gun can satiate these needs, have imbued guns with symbolic meaning (e.g., a source of personal safety, Buttrick, 2020; Stroebe et al., 2017; Losee et al., 2021). However, less explored, is how concerns about personal safety can stem from group-level threats (e.g., concerns about the in-group's collective power and status; see, Stroebe & Leander, 2024). In particular, the historical role of gun access and ownership in attempting to resolve group-level threats to status and hierarchy may have imbued guns with symbolic meaning for the self as well as one's ingroup.

Notably, the second amendment clearly outlines a collective function of firearms rooted in the perceived threat of a more powerful collective (e.g., federal government). While commonly, concerns about government power are acknowledged as motivating the Second Amendment then (e.g., standing armies) and gun ownership today (e.g., concerns about the U.S. government restricting gun access during COVID-19 onset;

Kerner et al., 2022), White Americans' fears of the collective empowerment of racial out-groups are often overlooked in shaping the origins of U.S. gun access and modern gun culture. Today, prejudicial attitudes toward racial out-group members consistently explain meaningful variance in pro-gun attitudes and behaviors, particularly among dominant groups in the U.S. (e.g., anti-Black attitudes among White Americans; Filindra & Kaplan, 2016, 2017, 2021; Higginbotham et al., 2023; O'Brien et al., 2013). Therefore, the symbolic function of guns may not only aid individuals in managing perceived threats to the self but also managing how the in-group is perceived in relation to out-groups (e.g., power or status).

In this paper, I utilize the history of racism in firearms to stimulate greater consideration of collective power motivations underlying self-protective firearm attitudes, behaviors, and ownership in the U.S. To do so, I review recent social psychological insights on individual-level motivations for firearms and discuss how consideration of salient sociocultural identities (race) and group processes complicate and clarify understandings of individual-level firearm motivations. Then, I situate our modern understanding of firearm psychology in the long history of race and racism in firearm policies and behaviors (see, Trawalter et al., 2022). To this end, I review history and recent research that illuminates how understandings of one's in-group power are shaped by dynamic, socioecological forces (Twali et al., 2023; see also, Trawalter & Bart-Plange, 2020) that may qualitatively impact how guns are perceived as a source of collective power and linked to concerns about personal safety. In short, the differential defining of collective power and trajectory of historical gun access due to racial oppression are likely to have distinctly shaped the collective symbolism guns may represent for Black people (firearms as group empowerment) versus White people (firearms as group dominance) in the U.S. This paper ends by discussing potential avenues of study that incorporate collective power and personal safety motivations and, in joining the calls of other scholars (Anderson, 2021; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018; Metzl, 2019), implicates the persistent role of racism as impeding gun safety in the U.S.

Considering Individual-Level Motivations for Firearms in the Context of Racism

In a key organizing paper on the psychological utility of firearms, Buttrick (2020) outlines three central motivations that drive the symbolic use of guns among self-protective gun owners: a personal need for safety, control and self-efficacy, and belongingness. Guns owned for self-protective reasons function as a symbolic object that helps users maladaptively cope with their perception that the world is a dangerous place from which societal institutions/systems cannot offer protection (Buttrick, 2020; see also, Stroebe et al., 2017). These individual-level motivations outlined are undeniably important factors motivating self-protective gun ownership in the U.S. and the focus here on individual motivations makes sense. Social psychology, while acknowledging social and contextual factors, at its heart centers an individual unit of analysis (see, Trawalter et al., 2022 for discussion). Yet, these individual-level motivations are also

tied to concerns about in-group power that are important to recognize and disentangle, particularly in the context of firearms.

The most directly studied of these three central symbolic functions of firearms in social psychological literature is the personal safety guns are perceived to provide (Buttrick & Mazen, 2022; Kerner et al., 2022; Losee et al., 2021; Shepperd et al., 2018; Stroebe et al., 2017). The extent to which an individual believes firearms are a source of personal safety and security (as opposed to a source of threat) is strongly predictive of their pro-gun beliefs and support for pro-gun policies (Losee et al., 2021; Shepperd et al., 2018), personal firearm ownership (Stroebe et al., 2017), and intent to purchase firearms and ammunition (Kerner et al., 2022). In that, the firearm serves as a symbolic tool that helps owners cope with safety concerns. However, perceiving that one's safety is at risk can also elicit group processes. Perceived threats to personal safety or significance can elicit negative attitudes and aggressive behaviors toward out-group members (i.e., terror management theory; Greenberg et al., 1986; Arndt et al., 1997) and more felt interdependence with in-group members (i.e., quest for personal significance; Kruglanski et al., 2013). Given that making one's collective identity salient (Kruglanski et al., 2013) or being led to feel personally powerful (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2016) bolsters a sense of personal security, it is reasonable that feeling one's ingroup is powerful can be particularly helpful in addressing concerns about personal safety that may arise due to perceived threats.

Yet, social psychological research investigating personal safety motivations underlying firearm psychology has largely ignored the potential role of collective power motivations. In an analysis of collective power concerns in the context of racism and firearms, one might ask, what or who do people perceive guns to provide safety from? Or whose sense of safety is prioritized? And is this prioritization shaped by cultural stereotypes and myths that paint members of certain racial groups as threatening? As noted previously, while protection from crime is the most frequently cited reason for gun ownership, the perceived risk of experiencing crime does not consistently predict gun safety perceptions—while for some owners (e.g., White Americans) attitudes toward racial out-group members consistently do (Filindra et al., 2021; O'Brien et al., 2013). Concerns about crime have long been racialized (Eberhardt et al., 2004), and often elicit a perceived need for firearms as protection from an abstract, violent "other"-typically racialized implicitly or explicitly as someone Black in the minds of White Americans (Buttrick, 2020; Metzl, 2019; Stroud, 2012). In contrast, recent increases in Black gun ownership stem from concerns about personal safety due to crime but also concerns linked to in-group power—particularly the need to protect themselves and potentially others in their community from potential racist violence perpetrated by someone White (Bowen et al., 2023; Bunn, 2022). Therefore, embedded in the personal safety that guns symbolically provide are direct ties to concerns about personal safety that stem from issues of collective power—both among members of racially dominant groups and those who are members of racially oppressed groups.

Racism, Guns, and Collective Power Concerns

Undeniably, centering racism in the understanding of firearms brings the issue of collective power to the forefront. Racism functions "as a systemic force embedded in the enduring structure of society," (Salter & Adams, 2013, p. 785) located in our social context and reflected in our psyche (Salter & Adams, 2013; see also, Salter et al., 2018). In the U.S., racism manifests along multiple dimensions, including the dynamic interplay between individual (e.g., beliefs, attitudes), interpersonal (e.g., discriminatory behaviors), institutional (e.g., differential application of laws based on race), and structural levels (e.g., cultural ideas, policies, or laws developed to enhance or maintain the racial hierarchy) resulting in and reinforcing differential access to resources and positions of cultural influence dependent on an individual's race/ethnicity (see, Haeny et al., 2021). Therefore, racism is not only an individual holding prejudice and/or actively discriminating against members of racial out-groups but implicates the ability of one racial group to determine a racial out-group's outcomes over time. Although social psychology often focuses on racism as an individual-level phenomenon, racism is also embedded culturally in the U.S., meaning that individual behaviors and attitudes shape—and are shaped by—U.S. institutions, laws, practices, and core ideas that persist over time (Salter et al., 2018; Trawalter et al., 2022). Given racist, anti-Black attitudes consistently and strongly predict attributions for gun violence (Lee et al., 2020), support for who can versus cannot purchase a gun (Hayes et al., 2021), pro-gun beliefs and policy support (Filindra & Kaplan, 2016, 2017; Higginbotham et al., 2023), and the presence of a gun in the home (O'Brien et al., 2013), understanding the role of collective power in U.S. firearm psychology is vital.

Conceptually, collective power can be defined and understood at the intragroup, intergroup, and structural levels (Keltner, 2003; Simon & Oakes, 2006; Turner, 2005; Twali et al., 2023). At the structural level, understandings of collective power emphasize group dominance in social exchanges and systems (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Bergh et al., 2019), whereby groups with higher rank, greater control of resources, and more influence in shaping societal structures are defined as having collective power while those groups that lack these capabilities are considered powerless (for review see, Twali, 2023). While social psychology typically conceptualizes collective power at the structural level (Twali, 2023), members of historically marginalized and structurally oppressed groups (e.g., Black Americans, people from lower socioeconomic status backgrounds) perceive and emphasize collective power outside of typical dominance frameworks (prosocial; Belmi & Laurin, 2016; in-group resilience or building intergroup solidarity; Twali et al., 2023). Given collective power is defined and shaped by group membership and relation to structural power (Twali, 2023), it is crucial to attend to whether the symbolic collective power guns may offer differs qualitatively by race.

The cultural embeddedness of racism and racism's collective power implications requires an examination of key cultural institutions in the U.S., including historical policies that have regulated access to firearms by race over time to clarify the role of collective power motivations for firearm utilization. For example, how did race shape who could initially serve in the militias that the Second Amendment explicitly

authorizes? What role did firearm legislation play in how White citizens grew, maintained, and reinforced collective power (e.g., in-group control of social, political, and economic institutions), and how did this same legislation shape how racially marginalized groups responded? Do policies and psychologies today mirror or challenge these historical trends? Taking a critical lens to historical firearm policy and its effects can help illuminate the firearm psychology of the past and more fully understand its traces in the present (Trawalter et al., 2022).

Of note, while racism is a relatively stronger predictor of firearm attitudes compared to other salient forms of intergroup prejudice and oppression (e.g., sexism; Filindra & Kaplan, 2021), this does not preclude the continued need for further inquiry into the form and function of firearms as a source of collective power along the lines of other identities and ideologies (e.g., gender and feminism; Kelley, 2022), at the intersections of identities, ideologies, and systems (e.g., race, hegemonic masculinity, and capitalism; Cassino & Besen-Cassino, 2020; Carlson, 2015; McKevitt, 2023; O'Neill, 2007; Spraggins, 1999; Stroud, 2012; see also, hooks, 2004; Fine et al., 1997), and in important gun violence contexts (e.g., firearm-related domestic gun violence; Campbell et al., 2003; religious extremism; Leander, Kreienkamp, et al., 2020). Given this complexity, collective power dynamics along other identity dimensions may hold similarities to race and yet qualitative differences, particularly at their intersections (e.g., race, gender, and class; see, Bowen et al., 2023; Hayes et al., 2021; Metzl, 2019; Stroud, 2012; see also, Combahee River Collective, 1977/1995; Crenshaw, 1989). As the central point of the present paper is to motivate the need to more thoroughly consider collective power in the social psychology of firearms, I focus here on racism and its relevant intersections given race's centrality in modern firearm attitudes and the long history of racism in foundational U.S. firearm policy (Anderson, 2021; Diamond & Cottrol, 1991; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018; Winkler, 2011) while noting the need for further inquiry using additional lenses.

Finally, while the main thesis centers personal security, considering collective power is also applicable to understanding guns' symbolic representation as a source of self-efficacy/personal control and belongingness (Buttrick, 2020; Mencken & Froese, 2019). Taking personal control as an example, the perceived power of a person's in-group contributes to their sense of personal control (Fiske & Dépret, 1996). Accordingly, gun violence perpetrated by an in-group member can restore a personal sense of control, particularly if the observer feels their in-group is disempowered and the victim is a hated out-group member (Leander et al., 2019; Leander, Kreienkamp, et al., 2020). An analysis that considers collective power, may question the extent to which marginalized group members (e.g., Black Americans) may derive a sense of personal control from this form of intergroup gun violence that could increase the likelihood of being deindividuated and stereotyped (e.g., as violent), which functions instead to reduce a sense of personal agency (Siy & Cheryan, 2013). Noting the potentially broad applicability of considering collective power in the symbolic meaning of guns, I hone in on the interplay of racism, collective power concerns, and personal safety in U.S. firearm culture.

The Root of U.S. Gun Access Stems from White Safety Fears & Collective Power Concerns

The next sections outline a historical trajectory of often overlooked aspects of U.S. firearm policy that demonstrate the symbolic function of firearms as a source of personal safety and collective power. While there is much legal debate about the meanings and interpretations of the Second Amendment (Anderson, 2021; Cornell, 2006; Winkler, 2011), these sections do not intend to offer a legal interpretation of this core fundamental right in the U.S. nor intend to comprehensively cover every gun law passed in the history of the U.S. This section does employ an analysis of the racialized context that helped shape the Second Amendment's creation, the societal context that resulted from its ratification, and how both White and Black Americans responsively utilized firearms to foster collective power given different relations to structural power in the U.S. system. Detailing this long history of guns and racism helps clarify the dynamic and persistent role of racism and collective power in modern firearm psychologies and policies (see Figure 1) for multiple reasons. First, illuminating and fostering an understanding of historical racism can increase the perception and understanding of systemic racism in the present (Bonam et al., 2018; Fryberg & Eason, 2017; Martin & Johnson, 2023; Nelson et al., 2012). Second, given power is socially constrained and conferred (Turner, 2005), attending to group and societal dynamics over time can aid in illuminating the form and function of collective power in the context of U.S. racism. Finally, attending to this fuller history illuminates the perspectives and psychologies underlying marginalized groups' (e.g., Black Americans) orientation toward firearms in the U.S.

The use of firearms among White Americans and the implementation of firearm policy in the colonial and antebellum era most closely aligns with the conception of

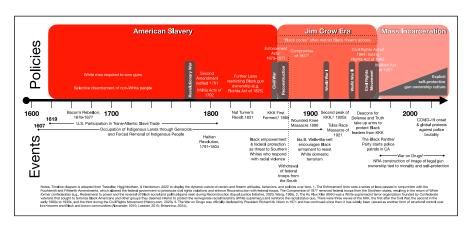


Figure 1. A brief history of policies and events centering race, racism, and firearms in the United States.

collective power as group dominance; guns were employed to control material resources, shape the outcome of other out-groups, and promote and sustain White supremacy (see, Bergh et al., 2019; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007; Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Keltner, 2003; Pratto et al., 2006). The origins of firearm access in the U.S. provided White Americans actual collective power to maintain group dominance and mitigate concerns of personal safety arising from their subordination and dehumanization people categorized as belonging to racial out-groups.

Firearm Access as Building White Group Dominance in Colonial America

In colonial-era America, firearms were used to establish and reinforce a budding racial hierarchy through the genocide and forced removal of indigenous communities from their unceded ancestral lands and the suppression and social control of free and enslaved Black people (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018; see also, Bacon's Rebellion; Morgan, 1972; Rice, 2020). Formal and informal armed settler-militias consisting of White colonists violently disrupted and/or destroyed indigenous communities to assume control of unceded land (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018). White men were required to keep guns in their homes and carry guns to public gatherings (e.g., church) out of concern of retaliation by indigenous communities (Winkler, 2011). Further, colonial laws prevented gun owners from selling firearms to indigenous people (Cornell, 2006; Winkler, 2011). For White colonists in this intergroup dynamic, the resource of interest to control was Indigenous land rather than Indigenous people, which led to the dehumanization, genocide, and centuries-long forced relocation of indigenous nations to increasingly smaller portions of their ancestral lands (e.g., reservations; Jardina & Piston, 2023; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018). This power to control land, a coveted resource among White (often poor) colonists seeking personal gain and wealth (Immerwahr, 2019; Metzl, 2019; Morgan, 1972), relied on the actual power of firearms.

While the full truth of this violent history has long been omitted from or misrepresented in mainstream U.S. collective consciousness (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018; Fryberg & Eason, 2017; Gellman, 2024; Greene 2020), attention to cultural narratives depicting firearm-related violence against indigenous communities in and long after the colonial period point to the blurring of group dominance and personal safety concerns. For example, in the Massacre of Wounded Knee in 1890, at least 146 Lakota Sioux (Miniconjou) men, women, and children were killed by U.S. Army soldiers in South Dakota (Greene, 2020; History.com, 2023). Directly after the Massacre, mainstream media narratives intentionally framed that the soldiers (of whom 25 were killed; Greene, 2020; see also, United States Army Center of Military History, nd.) were acting out of self-defense and furthered narratives about the safety threat indigenous people posed (Greene, 2020). In reality, this Lakota Sioux tribe was fleeing violence, had peaceably camped near the soldiers the night before the Massacre at the Army's demand, and had surrendered their firearms and other weapons at the forceable request of the Army under the promise of future compensation—right before the killing began. Unbeknownst to the tribe, and further signaling group dominance motives, the soldiers had intended to relocate the tribe to Nebraska after disarming them (Greene, 2020).

While these kinds of historical details may be omitted, cultural stereotypes stemming from these histories are still embedded in current media representations (e.g., "cowboys vs. Indians"; see, Fryberg & Eason, 2017) and still function to distort group dominance as self-defense:

"The best way to kill people is to dehumanize them, right? To make them into caricatures. Whether it is Peter Pan. Whether it's John Ford's The Searchers, which is considered not just the archetypes of Western movies, but one of the great American films. And this [cowboy versus Indian trope] is a classic Hollywood trope that makes invasion look like self-defense. You know, we weren't obsessed with the United States the way that the United States was obsessed with us."—Nick Estes, Sicangu Lakota (The Lakota Nation vs. The United States, 2022).

This history links early gun access in the U.S. to providing White Americans the ability to dominate indigenous nations and control land resources, even in the face of strong, continuous indigenous resistance (e.g., Battle of the Greasy Grass in 1876; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2015). Further, this early period likely developed an initial link among White American colonists among fears about personal safety, the threat of racial/ethnic out-groups, and the perception that increased in-group firearm access aids in the maintenance of group dominance and the mitigation of personal safety concerns.

In contrast to Indigenous land, the resource of interest White colonists' sought to control as it pertained to their intergroup dynamic with enslaved Africans was human labor. Therefore, instead of a strategy of genocide, dehumanization, and physical relocation/ distancing of this racial out-group, the perceived need for enslaved labor required White Americans to adopt a strategy of dehumanization and continued and violent social control given needed proximity to the enslaved human labor (e.g., to build universities on or to farm White-controlled land; Jardina & Piston, 2023; Melamed, 2015). This centuries-long proximity to subordinate, racial outgroups may have also contributed to White American colonists linking concerns about in-group power and personal safety-and, again, the role of firearms in protecting both. As such, White colonists engaged in legal, selective disarmament of "slaves, free blacks, and people of mixed race out of fear that these groups would use guns to revolt against slave masters" (Winkler, 2011, p. 116; see also, Cornell, 2006). The implementation of selective disarmament of out-groups deemed as dangerous signals an early perception that racial out-group access to firearms may serve as a threat to White in-group power and position atop the racial hierarchy. This perception itself implicates early evidence that White colonists perceived firearm access as a potential source of power at a collective level, one source from which racial out-groups needed to be kept.

Firearm Access as Bolstering White Group Dominance in Post-Colonial and Antebellum America

White colonists' concerns for personal safety and collective power intensified after the War of Independence. In addition to concerns about standing armies, the Second

Amendment's ratification is argued to have intentionally provided White citizens a mechanism to continue the genocidal dispossession of indigenous land while cementing the racialized hierarchy that distinguished White populations and free and enslaved Black populations in terms of power, status, and humanization (Anderson, 2021; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018). For example, Anderson (2021) notes that the "security of the free state" clause in the Second Amendment reflected in part White Americans' increasing concerns about controlling enslaved people. From a White perspective, at the time of ratification, slave revolts were one of the most salient threats to White Americans' perception of state security—only four months prior, the Haitian Revolution had just begun. In the Haitian Revolution, enslaved Africans in Haiti violently rebelled against their European enslavers, engaging in over a decade-long, brutal struggle against their former slave masters and multiple waves of colonial militaries to secure their freedom (Britannica, 2023; James, 1963). This racial struggle in the Caribbean was not lost on White people in the U.S., as many White plantation owners, including Thomas Jefferson, expressed fears that enslaved populations in the South would be inspired to revolt in a similar violent fashion and throughout the struggle attempted to suppress the news about the Haitian slave revolt (Anderson, 2021; Britannica, 2024).

After the ratification of the Second Amendment, the U.S. quickly passed laws to clarify and enforce aspects of the Second Amendment. Most notably, the Militia Acts of 1792 set federal standards for militia conscription and preparedness requirements:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That each and every free able-bodied white male citizen of the respective States, resident therein, who is or shall be of age of eighteen years, and under the age of forty-five years shall severally and respectively be enrolled in the militia...That every citizen, so enrolled and notified, shall, within six months thereafter, provide himself with a good musket or firelock...or with a good rifle.... (Mount Vernon Ladies' Association of the Union, nd).

Effectively, this act immediately racialized (and gendered) citizens' individual right and duty to bear arms in service of a collective purpose (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018), specifically conscripting White men to serve in state-sponsored militias and requiring personal firearm ownership by law. State militias established by the Second Amendment were employed in various capacities, but they were most effectively used within states as de facto slave patrols to reinforce the racial hierarchy (Anderson, 2021; Cornell, 2006). These militias helped to violently quell revolts by enslaved people and often assisted slave patrols to find and recapture enslaved people who had escaped from plantations (Anderson, 2021; Winkler, 2011). The collective use of firearms functioned to resolve perceived threats to White citizens' personal safety by controlling racial out-groups, land, and the racial order—thereby firearms functioned as a source of collective power by facilitating their group dominance.

As in the previous era, selective disarmament by race continued in the postcolonial and antebellum periods. Many states enacted laws that criminalized free or Higginbotham I I

enslaved Black people from carrying or possessing a gun without the explicit written permission of a White citizen (Cottrol & Diamond, 1991; Anderson, 2021). Further, restrictive gun laws dynamically responded to perceived threats of Black resistance to White group power and the racial hierarchy (Diamond & Cottrol, 1991). For example, the 1825 Acts of Florida granted white citizen patrols in Florida the ability to "enter into all negro houses and suspected places, and search for arms and other offensive and improper weapons, and may lawfully seize and take away all such arms, weapons, and ammunition" (cited in Cottrol & Diamond, 1991, p. 337). However, after Nat Turner's slave revolt of 1831, which resulted in over 50 White American deaths, Southern states increased their targeting of Black rights and lives, including Black rights to firearms. For example, six months after the revolt, Florida repealed all firearm rights for free Black people; by 1833, Florida had empowered its citizen patrols to not only seize Black firearms but also granted the ability to administer punishment to free and enslaved blacks without "a proper explanation for the presence of the firearms" (Cottrol & Diamond, 1991, p. 338).

In all, among White colonists and American citizens from 1607 to the Civil War, expanding firearm access for racial in-group members and restricting firearm access for racial out-group members occurred in response to concerns about personal safety (e.g., from retaliation from indigenous populations or revolts by enslaved Black populations) and concerns about in-group power over resources (e.g., indigenous lands, enslaved people as property) and status in the racial hierarchy (e.g., White supremacy). This historical perspective on pre-Civil War firearm policy and behaviors provides several implications about the dynamics of how firearms may operate as a source of collective power and its relation to concerns about personal safety. First, White colonists' and Americans' focus on controlling both resources and the outcomes of out-groups aligns with a conceptualization of collective power as rooted in group dominance. And, the symbolic nature of firearms as a perceived source of collective power is evident in the use of firearms to promote and sustain group dominance but is arguably most exemplified by the explicit restriction of out-group members' access to guns given the fear of out-group empowerment. Critically, this history illuminates that concerns about personal safety stemmed from concerns about in-group power and the maintenance of the racial status quo, while efforts to restore a sense of collective power were pursued to quell these personal safety concerns. Understanding that concerns about collective power and personal safety were present and intertwined in the historical origins of U.S. firearm access, helps us attend to the potential relevance of both motivations during the period where the multiracial self-protective gun ownership culture we know today is shown to originate from—the Reconstruction and Jim Crow periods (Buttrick & Mazen, 2022).

Tracing Roots of Guns as a Source of Symbolic Collective Power from the Civil War

Recent scholarship has linked the prevalence of self-protective gun ownership today to historical enslavement before the Civil War (1861-1865). Using archival, survey, and

social media data, Buttrick & Mazen (2022) investigated whether the period of violent unrest after the Civil War—and the broad availability of guns to civilians due to the Civil War—set the U.S. on its path of self-protective gun ownership, rooted in concerns about personal safety. They find that, in the South, counties with a greater proportion of enslaved Black people in 1860 have greater levels of gun ownership today; outside the South, a county's level of modern gun ownership can be reliably predicted by its residents' level of social connection (e.g., friendship) to people in Southern counties that had a higher proportion of enslaved populations in 1860. In their analysis, they investigated how this link between past and present may be mediated through concerns about personal safety. And, they find evidence of partial mediation. Residents in southern counties with greater intensity of historical enslavement (or in non-Southern counties with greater social connections in these Southern counties) report feeling less safe today, and this in turn predicts greater levels of gun ownership today (Buttrick & Mazen, 2022). Therefore, they show robust evidence that the modern use of firearms to cope with personal safety needs has roots in conditions stemming from the post-Civil War social context.

In their broader argument, the authors show that this historical period led to the crystallization of guns as a source of personal safety for all Americans including both Black and White people today. Of note however, in motivating their hypotheses, Buttrick & Mazen identify that, after the Civil War during the Reconstruction period, White Americans also used guns to address concerns about changes in the racial status quo and perceived threats to White in-group power:

Northern observers at the time noted the importance of privately held arms in the White supremacist attempt to suppress Black political power and restore the antebellum status quo, reporting on institutions such as "rifle clubs," which were aimed at "while avoiding actual bloodshed as much as possible, to so impress the blacks that they, or a number of them, will feel impelled to vote with the whites out of actual fear." Southern elites saw, in their guns, a means of protecting themselves and their interests from the social upheaval of Reconstruction, and they transmitted their beliefs to their Southern White brethren. We argue then that thanks to the sudden prevalence of firearms, which likely increased their salience, and the importance placed upon firearms by Southern leaders, White Southerners came to believe that a firearm was the sort of thing that kept one safe. (Buttrick & Mazen, 2022, p. 2)

Here, Buttrick and Mazen note that Black political empowerment during Reconstruction (where Black men voted and held political office; see, Wang, 1995) was also explicitly perceived as a threat to White group power, which elicited southern White citizens to feel unsafe (see also, Anderson, 2021; Cottrol & Diamond, 1991; Dunbar-Ortiz, 2018; Winkler, 2011). Therefore, White citizens' concerns about collective power and the status of their racial in-group in the post-Civil War period continued to implicate felt safety just as it did before the war—and guns continued to be perceived as a way to mitigate both these concerns.

Importantly, the function of guns to potentially assuage concerns about safety and in-group power was not lost on Black people during the post-Civil War period, as concerns about White backlash to Black freedom and empowerment also elicited Black Americans to feel unsafe. Following the norms of the broader society and spurred by their participation in the war for their own freedom, many Black Americans took up arms to protect themselves and their community (Winkler, 2011). As Buttrick and Mazen do, tracing the symbolism of guns from this period to the present is vital, as it helps illuminate the potential unique ways that Black Americans have come to view the purpose and symbolism of firearms.

Understanding firearms as a symbolic source of collective power among Black Americans requires understanding how individuals who belong to historically marginalized and oppressed groups define and perceive their in-group's power (e.g., Belmi & Laurin, 2016; Twali et al., 2023). For example, Twali & colleagues (2023) demonstrate that Black American's lay theories of collective power expand beyond dominant/subordinate relationships (see also, Combahee River Collective, 1977/1995; Ture & Hamilton, 1967). In their study, Black Americans who perceived their racial ingroup as having power conceptualized power as originating at the intragroup level, or from within the Black community (e.g., Black resilience to and continued resistance against racial oppression, increasing in-group solidarity). Black Americans perceived collective power derived at the intragroup level to be fungible and able to help increase collective power at the intergroup (e.g., mobilizing out-group solidarity, being respected as a group; see, Simon & Oakes, 2006; Maner, 2017; Turner, 2005) and structural levels (e.g., Civil Rights, self-determination through voting; Twali et al., 2023). Therefore, for some Black Americans, firearms may symbolize collective power, yet the perceived form of collective power may be distinct due to Black American's experience and continual resistance of racial oppression throughout U.S. history. Firearms then may function as a perceived source of collective power, but unlike White Americans, the symbolic collective power guns represent may be less rooted in group dominance, but instead rooted in collective empowerment—building in-group cohesion, resisting oppression, and obtaining out-group respect in pursuit of a racially egalitarian society (Twali et al., 2023).

Firearms as a Source of Black Collective Empowerment to Resist Jim Crow Oppression

The withdrawal of federal troops from the South and the end of Reconstruction-era policies set the stage for nearly a century of Jim Crow terrorism to commence, which saw violent attempts to intimidate and restrict Black political participation (e.g., lynchings) while also restricting Black American's access to firearms (Equal Justice Initiative, 2020). During the Jim Crow period, Black firearm access was restricted through legislation (e.g., Black codes often restricted Black firearm access), and extrajudicially by White citizens (Anderson, 2021; Diamond & Cottrol, 1991 Winkler, 2011). White supremacist groups founded after the end of the Civil War, such as the Ku

Klux Klan, terrorized Black people and communities generally but originally functioned as "disarmament posses" that targeted Black households that were suspected of possessing firearms to confiscate their arms (Winkler, 2011; see also, Metzl, 2019). In her 1892 pamphlet "Southern Horrors: Lynch Law in All Its Phases," anti-lynching activist, suffragist, and journalist Ida B. Wells-Barnett used her platform to plainly describe the realities of racist lynchings in the U.S. In her writing, Wells-Barnett invoked that a collective resistance to this specific form of oppression and the pursuit of justice generally requires Black collective power and that she perceived guns as a ready source of it:

By the right exercise of his power as the industrial factor of the South, the Afro-American can demand and secure his rights, the punishment of lynchers, and a fair trial for accused rapists.

Of the many inhuman outrages of this present year, the only case where the proposed lynching did not occur, was where the men armed themselves in Jacksonville, Fla., and Paducah, Ky, and prevented it. The only times an Afro-American who was assaulted got away has been when he had a gun and used it in self-defense.

The lesson this teaches and which every Afro-American should ponder well, is that a Winchester rifle should have a place of honor in every black home, and it should be used for that protection which the law refuses to give. When the white man who is always the aggressor knows he runs as great risk of biting the dust every time his Afro-American victim does, he will have greater respect for Afro-American life. (Wells-Barnett, 1892)

Here, Wells-Barnett connects firearms with collective power ("where the men armed themselves...and prevented it") and individual safety ("when he had a gun and used it in self-defense"). Further, derived from her experience documenting racist lynchings, Wells-Barnett calls guns to have a "place of honor" in Black households, offering a source of protection from racial oppression and a way for Black citizens to garner the respect of White citizens through normative use of gun ownership for self-protection. Distinct from the collective power goals of White firearm use in this period however, Black firearm use functioned as a means to attain group respect and resist race-based oppression from "the white man who is always the aggressor" (Wells-Barnett, 1892). This form of collective power is mirrored by Black Americans' lay conceptualizations of power today (Twali et al., 2023).

While Black Americans' attempted use of guns for personal safety may have increased the risk of encountering racist interpersonal and structural violence (e.g., from White disarmament posses), Black access to firearms at a collective level did allow greater resistance of racial oppression. Under threats of interracial violence, Black communities would at times take up arms and organize ad hoc militias (Cottrol & Diamond, 1991) to attempt to ward off White aggression. Frequently, those who took up arms included Black U.S. war veterans (e.g., Civil War, WWI) who wanted to protect their communities from violence.

One salient example is during the Tulsa Race Massacre of 1921. On May 31, 1921, in Tulsa, Oklahoma, a mob of over 1000 White Tulsans descended on a jailhouse to lynch a young Black boy who was unfoundedly accused by a White-owned newspaper of harassing a young White girl in an elevator (Parrish, 1923; Tulsa Historical Society & Museum, 2024). In response, a group of Black Tulsans, including Black WWI veterans, took up arms and traveled to the jailhouse to protect the young Black boy. These Black Tulsans lived in the racially segregated but economically prosperous and self-sustaining Greenwood District. And these Black Tulsans owned guns. This Black collective resistance to White collective aggression interfused with lingering White Tulsan resentment at the economic success of these Black Tulsans, sparked what is now known as the Tulsa Race Massacre of 1921. White citizens with the support of local and state institutions (i.e., public officials providing firearms and ammunition to White looters, Oklahoma National Guard mass arresting Black Greenwood residents; Tulsa Historical Society & Museum, 2024) murdered at least 300 Black Tulsans while looting the Greenwood Districts' businesses and homes before burning and bombing it actions that resulted in the displacement of thousands of Black Tulsan residents with no meaningful compensation for their losses (Boxley II, T., & E. W. Coasts, Inc, 1996; Crowe & Lewis, 2021; Parrish, 1923). However, lesser known is that the armed Black Tulsans held back the encroaching White mob overnight, delaying the burning of Black businesses and homes in the district while allowing thousands of Black residents to flee the more immediate danger (Crowe & Lewis, 2021; Parrish, 1923). While not fully providing an ability to stop the onslaught of White citizen violence, particularly when it was backed by structural power (e.g., local/state government), guns provided an actual source of collective safety and power among Black Americans, rooted in an increased sense of in-group solidarity and ability to resist White intergroup and structural violence.

Along with stories of Black armed resistance, research supports that Black access to firearms played a significant role in reducing lynchings, which were violent acts carried out to end Black life and disempower Black Americans through political intimidation (Equal Justice, 2017). Between WWI and WWII, Black Americans' access to guns directly related to the number of lynchings in the Jim Crow South. Looking at statelevel data between 1913 and 1950, Makowsky and Warren (2023) find that in years and states with lower levels of Black gun access, there are greater numbers of reported lynchings of Black people. Overall, Black gun access in this period declined steadily due to race-based disarmament policies (e.g., state handgun bans) and differential enforcement of these laws by police (Makowsky & Warren, 2023). Yet, even amidst race-based disarmament strategies and the continued threat of state-sponsored and White vigilante terrorism, Black access to firearms served as an actual deterrence against White intergroup violence (Makowsky & Warren, 2023). Accordingly, throughout the fight for Civil Rights and the end of Jim Crow segregation and terrorism, Black individuals and Black organizations (e.g., Deacons for Defense and Truth)including those organizations explicitly committed to non-violence (e.g., Student Nonviolence Coordinating Committee)—perceived and utilized firearms as a source of safety and collective power to resist oppression and pursue equality (Cobb Jr., 2014).

Legacy of Collective Power Concerns in Firearm Policy and Behavior in the Post-Civil Rights Era

The passing of key Civil Rights legislation in the 1960s (e.g., the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Voting Rights Act of 1965) permitted the U.S. the ability to begin moving toward an inclusive, multiracial democracy. Due to the Civil Rights movement and Cold War geopolitical pressures, the post-Civil Rights era ushered in a norm of racial egalitarianism (Bell, 1980; Guinier, 2004; Kinder & Sears, 1981). Therefore, ideas about who guns were for, how to regulate access to guns, and what role institutions may play in providing "safety" could not be tied to overt racism expression. After the Jim Crow period, laws and policies became less explicitly racist, but more systemic forms of racism persisted in the differential enforcement of "race-neutral" laws (Siegel, 1997), including gun laws.

For example, in the late 1960s, conservatives in the California state legislature with the support of the NRA passed the Mulford Act of 1967-a gun control law that prohibited the legal open-carrying of loaded firearms. While restricting gun rights generally across citizens of the state of California, the general motivation for the law's passage was to target and make illegal the specific gun right commonly utilized by members of The Black Panther Party (BPP; Anderson, 2021; Winkler, 2011). The BPP was pro-Second Amendment and saw the legal use of firearms as a way to hold societal institutions (e.g., police) accountable and prevent their brutalizing of Black citizens. Leaders of the BPP, such as co-founder Bobby Seale, explicitly connected this form of gun control legislation as a structural mechanism "aimed at keeping the Black people disarmed and powerless" (Caraccio, 2017; see also, Higginbotham et al., 2023). Police brutality against Black Americans in the 1960s generally, played a significant role in social unrest. For example, in 1967, 158 riots occurred across the U.S., most sparked by instances of disputes between White police officers and Black citizens (Evans, 2023). This salience of race, racism, and violence played a role in how Black and White Americans viewed institutions but also firearms as a means of self-protection and collective power.

In this particular racial context of the late 1960s, Feagin (1970) examined whether Black and White Americans would either prefer to rely on police to protect their homes from crime or prefer to rely on themselves to defend their home. Both a majority of Black and White Americans preferred self-defense of their homes, with Black respondents showing more distrust of police to defend their homes than White respondents. However, further investigation painted a divergent picture of how Black and White Americans sought to personally defend their home and what institutional (i.e., police) actions would make them feel safer. Regardless of self-defense or police-defense orientation, Black Americans reported similar levels of guns in households (33% and 27% respectively). However, a greater proportion of White Americans who

preferred self-defense reported having guns in the household (60%) than White Americans who preferred police-defense (35%). When asked about police treatment of Black people and protestors, Black Americans largely agreed that the police were too violent toward Black protesters and advocated for police to go easier in handling the riots. White Americans who preferred self-defense adamantly disagreed, with the large majority saying that the police treatment of Black people was fair or too soft, and supported police being tougher on protestors, with nearly half saying that it would be a good idea for the police to shoot one to two Black protestors to make a point (Feagin, 1970).

In the 1970s, several important patterns relating to firearms and politics also began to emerge. First, Democrat and Republican party elites' positions on gun policy, which traditionally had expressed high levels of agreement, started to polarize in ways that are now recognizably partisan today (Cooley, 2019; see, Burton et al., 2021 for evidence of partisan effects within gun owners today). Second, the National Rifle Association (NRA) began cultivating a salient gun owner identity around self-protection and concealed carry (rather than sports and hunting; Yamane et al., 2018). Further, the NRA began to frame the right to gun ownership and therefore the ability to identify as a gun owner—as constantly under threat from the U.S. government and groups of individuals who want to take away their guns (Bhatia, 2019; Lacombe, 2019, 2023). Alongside this continued salience, the NRA intentionally cultivated a narrative of legal gun ownership as being for "moral Americans" who value freedom and other core American values. This language not only sought to explicitly frame gun ownership as a culturally normative identity, but also implicitly linked to Whiteness (see, Filindra & Kaplan, 2016; Stroud, 2012). Lastly, and in contrast, policies including the war on drugs, mass incarceration, and use of racial dog-whistles by political elites targeted Black people and modernized perceptions of Black criminality (Alexander, 2010; Lassiter, 2015) and therefore the perceived unworthiness of Black people being legal gun owners. This period early in the post-Civil Rights era, echoed the eras prior, and continued to reinforce the idea that Black access to guns should be monitored or restricted and that White access to firearms should be permitted. Further, this period illuminated how ideas about what makes the world dangerous (e.g., Black people vs. institutional violence such as police brutality) and what institutions should do to make U.S. citizens feel protected can diverge drastically by race.

Connecting Guns as Historical Source of Group Dominance and Collective Empowerment to Modern Firearm Attitudes

Since 2020, the number of new guns owned by U.S. civilians has increased sharply. During April and May 2020—the onset of U.S. COVID-19 pandemic restrictions—3.4 million firearms were sold, a 75% average increase from the same period in 2019 (Small Arms Analytics, 2020a; b). During this period, both perceiving guns as a source of safety and concerns about government overreach were

significant drivers of firearm purchase interest (Kerner et al., 2022). However, in the next two-month period, the rate of increase in firearms sold nearly doubled. In June and July 2020—the onset of nationwide, multiracial protests against systemic racism in U.S. policing—4.5 million firearms were sold, a 140% average increase from the same period in 2019 (Small Arms Analytics, 2020c; d). While typical concerns about government overreach did lead to a large increase in firearm purchase interest at the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, gun purchase behavior showed even higher increases during the months when systemic racism was made visible, remained salient, and put the racial status quo under threat (see, Kerner et al., 2022 for discussion).

Tracing the historical trajectory of firearm access and policy sheds light on how firearms attitudes and behaviors are still tied to both concerns about personal safety and collective power. Stemming from desires to establish and maintain group dominance, early colonial U.S. laws and policies established by White colonists and citizens sought to reinforce the collective power and personal safety of their racial/ethnic in-group through gun access while limiting the potential collective power of indigenous and Black populations by restricting gun access. While many Americans today across racial/ethnic groups may perceive guns as a source of personal safety (Nadeem, 2023), the differential trajectory of historical gun access due to racial oppression likely facilitates a divergence on whether and how guns are regarded as a symbol of collective power —as a potential source of in-group dominance among some groups (e.g., White Americans) versus a source of in-group empowerment and resilience among others (e.g., Black Americans).

As social psychologists, our primary role and training is to make sense of how more immediate social contexts shape human behavior and attitudes. We recognize individuals have personal needs, but individuals also are a part of social groups and have group-level motivations that they need to satisfy (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Turner, 2005). Building an understanding of how individual-level motivations shape firearm attitudes and behaviors (Buttrick, 2020) in the context of group- and system-level processes is a task that we as social psychologists must continue to pursue. Taking a long view and trajectory of psychology over time can help further our understanding of psychology in context today (Lewin, 1939; Oishi & Graham, 2010), particularly as it relates to understanding racism and addressing its persistent and insidious effects (Trawalter & Bart-Plange, 2020; Trawalter et al., 2022).

In the next section, I highlight four areas where understanding this history of racism and considering collective power concerns in the context of present-day racism may help in the social psychological study of firearms: the interrelatedness of collective power and individual safety concerns, the unique predictive effects of collective power motivations, the interplay of in-group and out-group beliefs on collective power perceptions and consequences, and how these power concerns complicate efforts to intervene on the belief that the world is dangerous—a key driver of modern gun ownership (see Table 1).

Table 1. Sumarizing Implications of Considering Collective Power in the Social Psychology of Firearms.

Social psychological inquiries that incorporate collective power

Relevant social psychological predictions

depend on one's in-group position relative to structural power

Firearms' symbolic meaning may differentially Gun ownership may provide less generalizable psychological safety benefits for Black Americans than for White Americans. For Black Americans, the psychological safety benefits of gun ownership may be contextrestricted (e.g., in the home only), whereas may be more context-general for White Americans (e.g., in the home and in public).

Guns may provide similar levels of perceived (ingroup defined) collective power for both Black and White Americans

Threats to group status may distinctly shape firearm attitudes & behaviors

Collective power beliefs may shape the

access to in-group power

perceived threat of out-group firearm

Group status threat may predict preferences for firearm type and policy distinct from concerns about personal safety.

Group status threat may elicit a relatively greater focus on groups' access to firearms rather than focus on individual's access to firearms

The extent to which an individual is threatened by an out-group's access to firearms may be shaped by an individuals' beliefs about the source of in-group power (dominance vs. solidarity).

Social projection of group power beliefs by dominant group members (dominance) onto marginalized groups may misrepresent marginalized perspectives on and purposes of group power (resilience, equality) while simultaneously heightening the perceived threat of these groups' firearm access

Addressing beliefs underlying protective gun ownership complicated by racism & ingroup power concerns

Policy solutions that seek to address underlying beliefs that the world is a dangerous place/ institutions do not offer protection (e.g., increasing punitiveness vs. increasing social safety net) may be perceived distinctly by race, further rigidify these beliefs, and propogate further reliance on firearms to manage perceived threats to personal safety and ingroup power

Investigating the Interrelatedness of Firearms as a Symbolic Source of Safety and Collective Power in the Context of Structural Racism

The extent to which the perceived collective power of firearm access is interrelated with individual safety concerns is likely dependent on one's in-group position in relation to structural power in society. While gun purchases dramatically spiked in 2020, particularly during the period of COVID-19 and protests for racial justice, unease about political and social realities pre-COVID had already begun to spark increases in gun ownership, particularly among members of groups who have been historically marginalized in U.S. society (Carlson, 2023). With the return of more explicit forms of prejudice expression due to the sociopolitical climate (Newman et al., 2021; Schaffner, 2019) and increased attention to and uncertainties about racialized violence from civilians and state actors (e.g., police killings; Bor et al., 2018), Black Americans showed large increases in legal gun ownership. This shift included rapid increases in purchasing firearms and gun rights utilization (e.g., obtaining concealed carry permits; Aning, 2022; Fox News, 2017), and a significant increase in membership in Black gun organizations (Young, 2017).

However, for Black Americans, the personal safety and collective power legal gun ownership may be perceived to provide is likely complicated due to owning a gun increasing the threat of one's Blackness. For example, a qualitative study with Black women sought to understand the motivations behind their decision to purchase their first firearm (Bowen et al., 2023). The primary motivation the Black women described centered their personal safety—buying a gun to protect their home. However, nearly all the Black women expressed purchasing a firearm to also combat what they perceived as increasing vulnerability to experiencing racialized violence outside the home (e.g., from racially motivated gun attacks, public racial confrontations, and harassment by White people and White men in particular). While perceiving that carrying a gun may help manage these concerns, the Black women owners noted that their gun possession could create new threats. In particular, they worried that their public possession of a gun would also increase the likelihood that they would be perceived as a threat to White people and institutions (e.g., police), which could also endanger their lives. This fear led them to take additional precautions that contradicted their original personal safety intentions of carrying, such as keeping their gun in the trunk of their car rather than in the glove compartment in case they were pulled over by police (Bowen et al., 2023). This finding implicates that regardless of the extent to which a Black person identifies with their racial in-group, structural forces may incur a forced interdependence (Brannon et al., 2015; Markus, 2017) and awareness of how one's race can play a role in one's identification as a gun owner. Therefore, given the positionality of one's racial ingroup within the U.S. hierarchy, possessing a firearm as a Black person may increase the extent to which White people and institutions perceive a Black person, now with a gun, as a threat—which can detract from the sense of personal safety a firearm is perceived to provide (Bowen et al., 2023; see also, Shapira, 2017).

However, this consideration may be less impactful on the perceived collective power of firearms to aid in resisting intergroup and structural oppression. For example, the increasing number of Black Americans who are legally buying guns and joining Blackled gun organizations, such as the National African American Gun Association (NAAGA) may reflect this notion. NAAGA is a Black-led collective of gun owners that aims to increase Black gun familiarity and ownership, teach the history of Black arms, and whose official stance is that it is "a pro second Amendment organization focused on the preservation of our community through armed protection and community building" (National African American Gun Association, 2023). The collective purpose of this gun organization reflects Black lay conceptions of collective power: emphasizing community and intra-group cohesion and solidarity, with less emphasis on group dominance but the persisting of Black communities (Twali et al., 2023). While carrying a weapon may mitigate some personal safety concerns while exacerbating others for Black Americans, the collective empowerment that Black firearm access is perceived to provide may be less impacted by structural forms of racism and oppression, and instead, motivated by it.

While rates of increase in White firearm ownership were outpaced by several non-White groups in the lead-up to the COVID-19 pandemic, White American's firearm attitudes and behaviors were also linked to the salient issues of race and police brutality in this period (see, Shapira, 2017). In an interview with rural White Missourians, Metzl (2019) described how St Louis-based protests for justice for Mike Brown in 2014—an unarmed Black teenager shot and killed by police in St Louis—threatened White Americans who lived far from where the protests occurred. One White father turned to guns to protect his family in response to the broader Black Lives Matter protests against police brutality, motivated by the belief that the world was changing for the worse and that "this is what we have to do as white Americans" (Metzl, 2019, pg. 80).

White Americans, particularly White men, view their firearm possession as providing them safety but also granting them the moral responsibility and the equalizing ability to serve as a protector of their (White) family and broader (White) community from Black men; carrying their weapon reinforces the importance of this identity as well as vigilance toward racial out-group members (Stroud, 2012). Reflecting the aforementioned importance of attending to the layered intersections of identity, ideologies, and systems, White men's adherence to hegemonic notions of masculinity in the context of gun ownership (e.g., citizen protector), is considered to reflect and reinforce perceived threats "from above" (i.e., perceived government intent to control but not protect) and perceived threats "from below" (i.e., Black criminals; see, Carlson, 2023); these ideas are often propagated by common narratives found in mainstream conservative media (Carlson, 2015; Cassino, 2016) and gun communities (e.g., NRA; Lacomb, 2023; Stroud, 2012; gun shows, shops, and classes; Carlson, 2023; Shapira, 2017).

Ironically however, for White Americans (unlike Black Americans), the personal safety that guns are felt to provide and the use of guns to protect and empower one's racial in-group may not feel at tension or under threat, as engaging in actions to enhance

in-group power (patrolling communities) is consistent with culturally normative assumptions about who is a criminal and who is not (Dixon, 2008; Eberhardt et al., 2004; Welch, 2007). Further, given U.S. systems and structures privilege Whiteness (Remedios, 2022), this structural privilege is conferred whether a White person strongly identifies with their racial in-group or not (Knowles et al., 2014; Phillips & Lowery, 2018)—even in cases where one has committed severe gun violence (Leander, Kreienkamp et al., 2020; NAACP, 2021; Mystal, 2021). In short, there may be greater asymmetry in the personal safety that guns could symbolically provide Black and White Americans, but less asymmetry in the collective power guns symbolically represent for one's in-group.

Testing the Unique Predictive Effect of Perceiving Firearms as a Source of Collective Power on Firearm Attitudes and Behaviors

From a social psychological perspective, using the experimental method to shift concerns about group status (e.g., priming the numerical decline of White Americans, or the shifting prototype of who is American; Craig & Richeson, 2014; Danbold & Huo, 2015) might illuminate the unique effect of in-group power concerns on firearm behaviors to distinguish these effects from concerns about individual safety (e.g., perceiving an increase in crime victimization). Does priming concerns about collective power shape all gun attitudes and behaviors in the same manner, or are their specific firearm attitudes unique to the perception of guns as a source of collective power? For example, evoking group status threat might shape gun type preferences (e.g., handgun vs. military-style rifle; Sola, 2021), the desired quantity of guns personally owned, or policy preferences for the form of carrying one's weapon in public (e.g., preference for concealed carry vs. open-carry). Understanding and distinguishing firearm attitudes, behaviors, and policy preferences can help distill gun practices originating out of a concern for in-group power rather than a concern for personal safety and security.

Further, and maybe most distinct in how perceiving guns as a source of collective power differs from perceiving guns as a source of safety, is that collective power motivations may implicate more consideration of group, rather than personal, access to firearms. Unlike personal safety, the symbolic collective power of a firearm may not be singularly tied to personal firearm access but questions about broader firearm access of one's in-group and the restriction of firearm access among threatening out-group members (see, Stroebe & Leander, 2024). This understanding may help clarify recently published work on how White Americans who hold strong anti-Black attitudes are most supportive of gun rights, but temper their support when Black Americans are shown to legally access firearms at a faster rate than the White in-group.

In Higginbotham et al. (2023), a novel race-guns implicit association task demonstrated that White participants more strongly associate White Americans with gun rights and Black Americans with gun control. This association was driven by White Americans who held higher levels of stronger anti-Black attitudes (i.e., racial resentment; Kinder & Sanders, 1996; Kinder & Sears, 1981). This association was not

related to personal gun ownership, signaling that this bias was driven not by self-interest, but more by symbolic attitudes about who should have access to guns (i.e., my racial in-group, but not racial out-group members). In this vein, we also found that participants' perceptions of legal gun owners as a social group were driven by this racial bias and anti-Black attitudes generally. Participants who held a stronger association of gun rights with White Americans (and gun control with Black Americans) felt the most warmth toward legal gun owners.

However, when exposed to information suggesting that Black people are legally utilizing specific gun rights (e.g., concealed carry) at a faster rate than White Americans (compared to the opposite trend), White Americans who held strong anti-Black attitudes showed less support for the specific gun right Black people were using and reported less positive evaluations of legal gun owners more broadly (Higginbotham et al., 2023). Therefore, White Americans who held stronger anti-Black attitudes (but not those who did not) perceived gun rights and legal gun ownership as for White people, gun control as for Black people, and were less supportive of the gun rights Black people were described as utilizing at a faster rate than White people. This present-day psychology of White Americans mirrors the historical trajectory and symbolism of White-centric firearm access, which was employed to maintain in-group power and dominance by focusing on who can and who cannot access firearms at a group level rather than an individual level.

Identifying How Beliefs About in-Groups, Out-Groups, and Systems Influence Firearm Collective Power Perceptions and Consequences

Acknowledging within-group variation in factors predicting the symbolic perception of firearms protects from essentializing race in the context of group-relevant behavior and instead points to sociocultural and structural forces as shaping these psychological processes. Further inquiry into how one perceives and what one believes about the ingroup (e.g., group identification, collective orientation), out-group (e.g., racial resentment, cultural stereotypes/norms), and system (e.g., social dominance orientation, zero-sum beliefs) should further illuminate the social antecedents and consequences of perceiving firearms as a source of collective power in the context of intergroup relations.

Take for instance, one might seek to investigate whether concerns about group-level firearm access are tied more to in-group or out-group considerations (see, Jardina, 2021; Lowery et al., 2006). Understanding how an individual thinks about the self in relation to their in-group (e.g., do I identify strongly as a member of my racial/ethnic in-group?), thinks about the relation of their in-group in comparison to other out-groups (e.g., it is important that I feel my racial/ethnic in-group is perceived as equal in status and respect to other out-groups?), and thinks about the nature of the system they are involved in (e.g., am I likely to be categorized as a member of my racial in-group and what stereotypes does the categorization elicit?) can help illuminate if, when, and how ingroup versus out-group distinctions might matter in this particular firearm context.

Imagine an individual belonging to a historically dominant group who believes it is natural for some groups to dominate and be elevated over other more subordinate groups (e.g., high in social dominance orientation; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Ho et al., 2015) and feels the resources in their environment, such as jobs, are scarce (e.g., zero-sum realistic threat; Stephan et al., 2002; Wilkins et al., 2015). For this individual holding this set of particular beliefs, perceiving firearms as a source of collective power may elicit out-group members' access to firearms as a threat to in-group dominance and resource control. In this case, the perception of firearm access as a source of collective power may be tied to perceived benefits for the in-group, and also tied to negative attitudes toward (i.e., prejudice) or beliefs about out-group members (e.g., social projection of one's own lay collective power beliefs onto out-group members; see, Krueger, 2007).

On the other hand, a member of a historically marginalized group could identify strongly with their in-group and, while acknowledging group dominance as normative of the broader mainstream culture, personally ascribe to more prosocial and intragroup understandings of group power due to their own in-group norms (e.g., group power as originating from in-group solidarity, resilience; Twali et al., 2023). And, the collective power firearm access is perceived to provide may be particularly tied to in-group considerations (e.g., increasing in-group solidarity, protecting in-group members from out-group or structural intimidation), rather than out-group prejudice. Given their focus on intragroup-derived power, for this individual, perceiving that guns are a source of collective power may not automatically elicit an out-group's access to firearms to feel threatening to their own in-group's power. Rather the extent to which an out-group is perceived as generally hostile to the in-group or the in-group's expressed societal goals (e.g., egalitarianism; Twali et al., 2023) should predict perceived threat. Understanding the nature and ramifications of group and system beliefs underlying the association of firearms with collective power can illuminate socioecological and cultural points of contention and intervention in maladaptive gun attitudes and behavior.

Reckoning with how Racism and Collective Power Concerns Complicate Efforts to Address Worldviews Underlying Protective Gun Ownership

As outlined previously, the belief that the world is a dangerous place and that societal institutions will not offer protection from this danger are two key worldviews that motivate self-protective gun ownership (Buttrick, 2020). As posed in the historical review of the Post Civil Rights Era, what one perceives as making the world dangerous and what societal institutions should do to protect its citizens from that danger is partly shaped by one's individual and group positionality within broader social systems (Cole, 2009; Collins & Bilge, 2020). The potential to positively impact this worldview (e.g., interventions, policy) then requires the consideration of collective power concerns. For example, if a primary salient threat that elicits the world to feel dangerous for a White self-protective gun owner is Black people, what institutional actions would make this gun owner feel less threatened by the world? Relatedly, what actions could societal

institutions take to make a Black self-protective gun owner feel safe given worries about both crime and White supremacist violence? When approaching these questions with honesty, at present and historically (Feagin, 1970), system-level solutions to these concerns may feel presently at odds. Given the historical prioritization and privileging of the concerns of White Americans in U.S. society (Mills, 1997; Remedios, 2022), critical attention must be paid to ensure that proposed solutions do not cause further the harm to those most marginalized in U.S. society and instead elicits a sense of shared purpose—particularly as it relates to the pursual of gun safety.

For example, Black Americans are disproportionately more likely to be the victims of or experience firearm-related homicides and assault injuries (Marineau et al., 2023; National Vital Statistics System, 2021). This disproportionate likelihood can be traced to past racist policies such as redlining that led to racially segregated, economically impoverished neighborhoods (Poulson, et al., 2021; see also, Carlson, 2015) as well as distrust in the criminal legal system (Anderson, 2008). In part due to this reality, Black Americans support most forms of gun control at higher rates than White Americans, particularly those that do not require the involvement of law enforcement (Crifasi et al., 2021). Speaking to the strength of this position, some Black Americans who feel like they need to own guns for threats they perceive in the world, express regret for feeling the need to own a gun (Bowen et al., 2023). However, Black Americans' calls for broader gun control, even in predominately Black cities often go unheard and unacknowledged (Anderson, 2021). It seems clear that passing legislation that targets gun safety upstream or addresses underlying causes of firearm-related homicide (poverty, wealth) are institutional actions that would address gun violence that disproportionately impacts Black communities (Poulson et al., 2021)—helping reduce the perception that the world is dangerous and increasing the sense that societal systems and institutions are able and willing to help or protect Black Americans.

Sadly, it is these same policies that may draw the most resistance from White political elites and parts of the White citizenry, in part because these policies are also perceived to negatively impact their in-group (e.g., White gun owners; Lowery et al., 2006) or perceived to disproportionately benefit non-White people (e.g., social safety net programs; Cooley et al., 2019; Telser, 2012). Because of this group-based perception, policies that pursue greater gun regulation or strengthen the social safety net may elicit some White Americans to perceive that societal institutions do not have their in-group's interest or protection in mind, which in turn may elicit further concerns about in-group power and safety in society.

Reckoning with racism and collective power concerns in the context of firearm motivations pose a difficult task for people interested in pursuing gun safety given ongoing shifts in the racial demography of the U.S. If the changing racial makeup of the U.S. elicits the world to feel less safe and threatens some Americans' perceived ingroup power (e.g., increasing immigration from non-European countries; Stroebe & Leander, 2024), the question that must be asked is what policies and institutions will make these Americans feel safer and what impacts these kinds of policies would have on the lives of the broader U.S. citizenry. Without addressing the underlying motivation

of perceived threats to in-group power, the authentic pursuit of progress (e.g., a multiracial democracy) may continue to elicit a sense of group disempowerment among those most threatened by demographic change (e.g., White Americans; Craig & Richeson, 2014), which can result in support or perpetuation of gun violence as a culturally normative way to restore one's in-group status and personal sense of significance (Leander et al., 2020a, 2020b; Mencken & Froese, 2019; Stroebe & Leander, 2024). Yet, the tragedy of gun violence spurred by in-group power concerns is not limited to just the potential for increases in intergroup firearm violence, and the potential spiraling of armament in response (Depew & Swensen, 2018); it is also that with increased gun ownership comes increased risk for the most prevalent form of gunrelated death—firearm-related suicide, which disproportionately impacts poor and working-class White men (Metzl, 2019; National Vital Statistics System, 2021). Therefore, if left unaddressed, White racism and collective power concerns suggest a cyclical process: (a) fostering the conditions for high rates of gun violence in lowerincome neighborhoods, (b) promoting White resistance to social safety net policies that could mitigate firearm-related crime and make U.S. society tangibly safer and instead (c) increasing the perceived threat these policies pose to White group status, which can (d) motivate more White gun ownership and consequently increase the risk of firearmrelated harm to self and close others. This consideration of collective power adds further support for the perspective that defensive gun ownership can serve as a maladaptive coping mechanism with individual, interpersonal, and societal consequences (Buttrick, 2020).

While advocates for gun control and gun rights (and those in between) may perceive different routes to achieving gun safety, understanding collective power motivations in the context of racism and firearms, can help better inform efforts—policy and action—and promote worldviews that bring us closer to gun safety that preserves all persons' rights, dignity, and well-being. Although this paper has centered implications for social psychology, greater consideration of collective power concerns has relevance for the study of firearms across multiple specializations within psychology. This relevance includes but is not limited to developmental psychology, such as exploring the socialization of firearm collective power symbolism across generations; or political psychology, whereby considering collective power may help illuminate asymmetries in the role political ideology plays in Black and White gun attitudes (Losee et al., 2023 or explain divergent responses to state firearm violence against Indigenous peoples at Land Back protests, legal Black gun owners during police traffic stops, and armed/unarmed White insurrectionists at the U.S. Capitol on January 6th, 2021).

Conclusion

Current research on the social psychology of firearms in the U.S. context demonstrates that the embeddedness of firearms cannot be divorced from an understanding of their symbolic meaning in U.S. culture. As shared in the opening epitaph, Historian Dr. Carol Anderson places the origins of U.S. rights to gun access in the long history of and

ongoing struggle against prejudice and oppression. In this view, an understanding of firearms in the present cannot be divorced from an understanding of the potential for guns to serve as a perceived source of collective power. As social psychologists, an understanding of this history can help better inform our research, theory, and study designs as we seek to continue unearthing the modern psychology behind U.S. firearm attitudes. This understanding can help us recognize what we do know and be a little more open to saying, "I don't know" and intentionally working in community with people who have more direct and diverse experiences with both guns and gun violence (see, Wical et al., 2020 for an example in the context of hospital-based violence intervention programs). It can help us recognize nuances in behaviors and make sense of meaningful differences between people who hold distinct identities or experiences rooted in distinct cultural understandings (e.g., military service, pre-adult gun violence experiences). But most importantly, while getting to a point of gun safety will undoubtedly be a difficult and sobering task, a reckoning with this history should provide some uncomfortable comfort in that the origin and one continuing driver of various aspects of gun violence in the U.S. is not unique, but a shared root cause of issues across multiple, key societal domains—healthcare, employment, housing, environmental sustainability, voting access, education—and that is the continuing impact of racism in U.S. society.

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Note

The Massacre of Wounded Knee (1890) has been considered the last major U.S. military campaign of the American-Indian Wars (Greene, 2020; U.S. Army Center of Military History, nd), which began at the arrival of European colonists in 1607 (Wolfe, 2020) through the late 19th century (History.com, 2023b). I include this history here given its ties to firearm violence that began in the colonial era.

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