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EXPLORING THE FEASIBILITY OF ASSESSING CULTURAL COMPETENCE IN POLICE OFFICERS

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ABSTRACT

Pathology, personality, and integrity-related construct assessments have been widely used in the selection of police officers. However, the incidence of police brutality and misconduct is still concerning. This study explored the feasibility of the assessment of cultural competence in police officers. We explored the extent to which the change to the agency's first ever Black CEO would affect cultural competence of the officers as well as incidence of misconduct. Results showed that scores on a cultural competence factor of an in-basket simulation used for promotional assessments at a state highway patrol agency were not predictive of either supervisor-rated performance or incidence of misconduct. Whereas results showed that misconduct was not predicted by the agency's first Black CEO, cultural competence of the officers did increase after the change in command. Practical implications for law enforcement agencies and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Reducing the occurrence of police brutality and police misconduct are topics at the forefront of researcher and practitioner interest due the unfortunate prevalence of such behavior in our society. The names Eric Garner, Michael Brown, Tamir Rice, Breonna Taylor, and George Floyd likely stand out as very recognizable victims of police misconduct and brutality. However, these names are certainly not a comprehensive list. The occurrence of this behavior is widespread and varied in severity—from racial profiling resulting in questionable searches to excessive force resulting in murder. The question stands: What can be done to prevent future incidences of police brutality and misconduct?

Diversity training is commonly used by scholars and practitioners to try to resolve or improve racial biases in organizations. Whereas suggestions exist for how to make diversity training more effective (e.g., Lindsey et al., 2019), the effectiveness of such training for longer term changes has been questioned (Roberson et al., 2013). Another possible intervention is in the selection and promotion decisions of police officers so that "bad apples" can be found early. Specifically, social learning theory (Akers, 1998) posits that peers provide models of behavior for other peers to follow. This is especially important to consider in the context of police misconduct (Chappell & Piquero, 2004). For example, if officers are engaging in suspect behavior and then continue to be rewarded (e.g., no disciplinary action,

continued promotion, etc.), then peers may also begin to engage in such behaviors. One bad apple within a unit can lead to widespread misconduct, eventually leading to "bad barrels." Thus, intervening in the selection and promotion of police officers might be the most effective tactic to deterring misconduct and brutality long term. Currently, there is limited empirical evidence on predicting police brutality in part because of the difficulty in acquiring such outcome data. However, various types of assessments have been used in previous research on assessing police, including personality tests and integrity tests.

Personality and Integrity Tests in Police Selection

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) is one of the most widely used personality tests in police selection. Whereas the MMPI is effective at screening out those with clinical levels of psychopathology, it was not designed to identify those with nonclinical levels of these relevant psychological traits (i.e., when developing the MMPI, a population of clinically diagnosed individuals was used as a comparison group against a "normal" pop-

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ulation; Hathaway & McKinley, 1940). Meta-analytic evidence also supports the idea that the MMPI is not especially relevant to performance on the job (Aamodt, 2004). For these reasons, researchers caution against using the MMPI as a stand-alone tool in police selection but acknowledge that it may provide some useful information in conjunction with other assessments (Weiss & Weiss, 2010).

Examples of other assessments commonly used in the selection of police include the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Inwald Personality Inventory (IPI). Unlike the MMPI, these assessments have the benefit of assessing subclinical levels of psychopathology. However, evidence of the effectiveness of the CPI and the IPI in predicting police performance is mixed. For example, whereas Hogan (1971) found that some CPI subscales were related to performance, Sarchione and colleagues (1998) found that there was no relationship between the CPI and performance. Interestingly, there does exist some promising evidence for the tolerance scale in predicting disciplinary problems (Aamodt, 2010). Similarly, whereas Inwald (1988) found that the IPI was predictive of who would be terminated, Cortina and colleagues (1992) found that the IPI provided no incremental validity in predicting performance over and above entrance exams. Varela and colleagues (2004) conducted a review of the MMPI, CPI, and IPI. Although they found the strongest predictive evidence for the CPI, their inclusion of misconduct as an outcome was in combination with other metrics of job performance. Thus, whereas the CPI may be best at predicting a global metric of job performance, scholars and practitioners are still not able to determine if these assessments are good at predicting misconduct more narrowly.

In addition to personality assessments, integrity-related assessments have also been explored for use in police selection. Given the empirical link between integrity and counterproductive work behaviors (Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001), it would seem logical that the assessment of integrity and related constructs may be useful for predicting misconduct in police settings. Indeed, Tatman and Huss (2020) found initial evidence for the use of an integrity test in correctional officers, and Marcus and colleagues (2016) found that integrity was useful for predicting supervisor ratings of behavioral integrity (e.g., "Acts according to the code of conduct") in the Royal Dutch Military Police. Additionally, integrity-related traits such as conscientiousness and honesty have been assessed in police selection. Interestingly, Marcus and colleagues (2016) also found that the honesty and conscientious facets of the HEXACO-PI were predictive of supervisor rated integrity in police. Unfortunately, there exists a broad literature on the detrimental effects of coachability and fakability of such self-report personality assessments in selection (e.g., Miller & Barrett, 2008).

Lough and Von Treuer (2013) concluded after a systematic review of various assessments used in police selection

that no best practice instrument currently exists. Thus, to make the best decisions, scholars and practitioners suggest integrating multiple pieces of information about a candidate (Kwaske & Morris, 2015). Importantly, Lough and Von Treuer (2013) suggest (a) it is important for an instrument to focus not just on pathology, and (b) appropriate outcome variables need to be used in the validation of such an instrument. As such, our goal was to provide evidence for the use of a new instrument that meets these criteria. Specifically, in assessing cultural competence of police officers we attempted to move beyond the pathology/personality approach. Additionally, we aimed to use more relevant and objective outcomes such as incidence of police misconduct.

Racial Bias in Policing

The use of a cultural competence assessment is fruitful because of the racial bias that underlies many cases of police misconduct and brutality. A vast literature exists on the prevalence of such a bias in police. For example, research exists on biases in a police officer's decision to shoot a target. Specifically, Ross (2015) found that the probability of being Black, armed, and shot by police was 2.94 times the probability of being White, armed, and shot by police. Additionally, they found that the probability of being Black, unarmed, and shot by police was 3.49 times the probability of being White, unarmed, and shot by police. Importantly, these statistics are averaged across all counties in America. These probabilities can actually elevate to over 20 in cities in like Miami (i.e., 20x the probability of being shot). Additionally, meta-analytic evidence of 42 studies points to evidence that participants are quicker to shoot armed Black targets and slower to not shoot unarmed Black targets compared to White targets (Mekawi & Bresin, 2015). It's crucial to point out that the findings did not differ across undergraduate, community member, and police officer participants.

In addition to racial bias in the decision to shoot, there exists a racial bias in other police decisions as well. For example, Gelman and colleagues (2012) found that, in an analysis of pedestrian stops, Black individuals and Hispanic individuals are stopped more frequently than White individuals, even after controlling for the crime rate of each group. They also found that, whereas 1 in 7.9 White individuals that were stopped were actually arrested, these ratios were larger for Hispanic and Black individuals (1 in 8.8 and 1 in 9.5, respectively; Gelman et al., 2012), indicating less effective stops, or over stopping, Hispanic and Black individuals. Similarly, Pierson and colleagues (2020) found that Black and Hispanic drivers are searched on the basis of less evidence than White drivers.

Cultural Competence

Culturally competent police officers may have fewer instances of misconduct where a racial bias is a factor but

also fewer instances of misconduct more generally. Cultural competence is a construct that is used widely in health care, social services, and mental health literature. Cross and colleagues (1989) identify five elements that make up a culturally competent individual. These individuals:

1. must value diversity,
2. must have the capacity for cultural self-assessment,
3. must be conscious of the dynamics inherent when cultures interact,
4. must continue to study and promote cultural knowledge, and
5. develop adaptations of service delivery reflecting and understanding of diversity between and within cultures.

Importantly, Fletcher urged for the introduction of this construct into a law enforcement context. She defined cultural competency specifically in the context of law enforcement as, "The collective behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in the law enforcement system, agency, and law enforcement professional, enabling each component to communicate and work effectively in cross-cultural situations." (2014, p. 15). Whereas Fletcher (2014) urged for the implementation of human resource management policies to promote cultural competence, we are interested in determining the effectiveness of assessing police officers on this competency instead. Our hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Those scoring higher on cultural competence will have fewer misconduct allegations as compared to those who score lower on cultural competence.

Hypothesis 2: Those scoring higher on cultural competence will have higher performance ratings as compared to those who score lower on cultural competence.

We are also interested in how the appointment of an agency's first ever Black CEO might affect scores on cultural competence. It is a well-known assumption that top leaders of an organization have a direct impact on the organization's culture (e.g., Schein, 2004; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Indeed, empirical evidence exists to support such a claim. For example, research has shown that an organization's values are directly related to the personality of the CEO (Giberson et al., 2009). More specifically, it has also been found that diversity in leadership is directly related to an objectively calculated integrity index of an organization (Choi et al., 2017). Whereas previous research does not exist to our knowledge related to police organizations having a Black CEO, research has shown that the having a diverse police *force* is related to integrity. Specifically, a diverse police force is related to less racial profiling (Hong, 2017) and fewer civilian complaints (Hong, 2016). As such, we are interested in the following questions:

Research Question 1: Will the change to an agency's first ever Black CEO impact scores on cultural competence?

Research Question 2: Will the change to an agency's first ever Black CEO impact incidence of misconduct?

Current Study

The current study explored the use of a cultural competence assessment to predict relevant outcomes at a state highway patrol agency. Specifically, we explored if cultural competence could predict officer misconduct and officer performance. We were also interested in exploring if cultural competence of an agency increases, and misconduct decreases, after the change of command to an agency's first ever Black CEO.

METHOD

Participants

Data were collected from highway patrol agency employees in the southeastern United States ($n = 286$) going through the agency's promotional process. Employees were either troopers testing to be promoted to sergeant ($n = 206$, 72.03%, will be referred to as troopers) or sergeants testing to be promoted to lieutenant ($n = 80$, 27.97%, will be referred to as sergeants). Of the troopers, the majority were male (96.12 %) with an average age of 44.10 ($SD = 6.53$). Additionally, the majority of troopers were White (89.32%) 6.80% were Black, 3.89% were other races. Average length of tenure for troopers was over 17 years ($M = 17.58$, $SD = 5.39$). Of the sergeants, the majority were male (98.75%) with an average age of 48.38 ($SD = 5.54$). Additionally, the majority of sergeants were White (88.75%) 10% were Black, and about 1% were Native American. Average length of tenure for sergeants was almost 23 years ($M = 22.95$, $SD = 4.88$).

Data Collection and Analysis Plan

Data were gathered across a span of 6 years (referred to throughout as Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, Y5, and Y6 to maintain confidentiality of the agency). Within each year, cultural competence, misconduct, and performance were gathered. However, not all participants have data from every year, only the years they went up for promotional assessment. For example, a participant may have competence, misconduct, and performance for Y1, Y3, and Y5. Or, they may only have data for Y4. As such, repeated measures regression was conducted because of its unique ability to handle missing data.

Materials

Cultural competence. The cultural competence factor of an in-basket simulation was used as our measure of

cultural competence. The overall in-basket simulation was used to assess how well candidates solve problems and handle various situations while on the job. The in-basket work sample items were developed using 99 critical incidents interviews with incumbent captains, lieutenants, and sergeants. Over 25% of the critical incident interviews discussed complaints involving coworkers or made by citizens. Most of those complaints involved gender and race or ethnicity, with a few citing specific religions. Using the complaints and issues from the interviews as a guide, three in-basket items were created involving internal concerns citizen complaints.

A fictional district was created within the highway patrol using a command structure similar to that of the highway patrol agency for the purposes of the in-basket. Materials given to the candidates included in-basket instructions, an organizational chart, a calendar of important dates, in-basket response instructions, and in-basket response sheets. Various response forms that candidates could use or select include a Complaint Against Department Member, a Patrol Pursuit Report, a Human Resources Request for Mediation, a Report of Work Injury or Illness, Occupational Safety and Health Administration Form 301 Injuries and Illnesses Incident Report, and a Use of Force Report.

The in-basket simulation required open ended responses from candidates (e.g., typed responses to emails, typed responses to how they would respond to voicemails). The qualitative data provided by the candidates were coded and scored by a team of researchers. A five-point behaviorally anchored rating scale (BARS) was created to assess the ability of candidates to handle situations and problems that might occur on the job. Rating options ranged from 0 to 5 (0 = *very ineffective*, 5 = *very effective*). In Y1 and Y2, 10% of the in-basket responses were randomly selected and scored twice to ensure consistency of ratings. From Y3 through Y6, at least two raters were assigned to score each in-basket simulation, and those raters were required to come to consensus on each of the in-basket ratings. As such, interrater agreement was 100%.

The final in-basket simulation for potential sergeants consisted of 33 items, with a 3-item subscale for assessing cultural competence. The final in-basket simulation for potential lieutenants consisted of 32 items, also with a 3-item subscale for assessing cultural competence. For the purposes of scoring, these three items were considered high priority per the agency's general orders (i.e., their rule handbook) regarding complaints. The BARS used to score these three items rated non-action or non-awareness of culturally sensitive issues as "Ineffective" (a 1 on the 5-point rating scale). Candidates that responded in a manner that was in line with policies and general orders were rated "Effective," while responses that demonstrated compassion, support, and sensitivity to cultural differences and issues were rated "Highly Effective" (a 5 on the 5-point rating scale). The

scores on each item of the subscale were summed to create one cultural competence score. Thus, a score could range from 0 to 15. Whereas many items were unique to the position due to unique responsibilities that each position holds, the cultural competence items were parallel across versions. See Appendix for cultural competence items.

Misconduct. Officer misconduct was computed by using a sum score of complaints on file with human resources. This is made up of a combination of administrative cases, citizen complaints, and workplace harassment cases. Administrative cases are instances where an individual is deemed to have engaged in some action relating to their duties and responsibilities on the job that results in an investigation by the Office of Professional Accountability (OPA). Citizen complaints are those lodged by citizens and investigated by OPA, which can involve a variety of issues and concerns raised by citizens against an officer. These complaints may include complaints about being treated unfairly based upon the demographic characteristics or background as well as allegations of harassment made by citizens against officers. Workplace harassment cases are those allegations filed against an officer by another employee of the agency. Although these complaints may be initially filed with the OPA, they are investigated and adjudicated by the state's Human Resources Department.

Though we are not able to provide the breakdown of type of misconduct for each officer, we are able to provide brief descriptive information about the prevalence of each type of misconduct in our sample. See Table 1 for frequencies.

Performance. The overall performance rating for each officer is assigned during their annual review. These ratings are completed by their supervisor and are made up of 70% work outcomes and of 30% behavioral competencies. Supervisors assigned ratings for each category, and then the agency's Human Resource Information System calculated an overall rating for each officer.

Black CEO. The first Black CEO in this highway patrol agency's history was appointed during the time of this study (i.e., analogous to the CEO of a company, exact position title redacted to maintain confidentiality). This change happened in Y4. As such, we operationalized cultural competence scores and total misconduct before this change in leadership as "pre change of command to a Black CEO" and cultural competence scores and total misconduct after the change in leadership as "post change of command to a Black CEO."

RESULTS

See Tables 2 and 3 for descriptive statistics. All analyses were conducted using the generalized linear mixed-effects modeling package in R (*glme*; Bates et al., 2014). First, we examined the relationship between cultural com-

TABLE 1.

Frequency of Misconduct Type Across Time

	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y6
Administrative	125	157	181	188	206	170
Citizen complaints	38	30	12	20	25	14
Workplace harassment	5	2	2	9	4	3
Total	168	189	195	217	235	187

petence and misconduct. Cultural competence score and year were entered as fixed effects with misconduct entered as the dependent variable. Cultural competence was not a significant predictor of misconduct for troopers (B = -0.006, $t(104.39)$ = -0.389, p = .698) or for sergeants (B = 0.026, $t(40)$ = 0.740, p = .464). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Next, we examined the relationship between cultural competence and performance. Cultural competence score and year were entered as fixed effects with performance entered as the dependent variable. Cultural competence was not a significant predictor of performance for troopers (B = 0.010, $t(625.70)$ = 1.738, p = .083) or for sergeants (B = -0.023, $t(269.93)$ = -1.927, p = .055). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was also not supported.

Next, we examined the relationship between cultural competence and year. Year was entered as a fixed effect and cultural competence was entered as the dependent variable. Time (year) was a significant predictor of cultural competence scores for troopers (B = 0.483, $t(881)$ = 8.535, p < .001) and for sergeants (B = 0.237, $t(290.72)$ = 3.11, p < .05). Follow-up analyses were conducted to explore mean differences in cultural competence before and after the change of command to a Black leader. An analysis of

variance indicated that mean cultural competence scores increased significantly for troopers. Scores increased from a mean of 6.185 (SD = 3.057) in pre change of command assessments to a mean of 7.659 (SD = 2.989) in post change of command assessments ($t(846.042)$ = 7.208, p < .001). Mean cultural competence scores also increased significantly for sergeants. Scores increased from a mean of 5.922 (SD = 2.790) in pre change of command assessments to a mean of 6.397 (SD = 2.035) in post change of command assessments ($t(336.527)$ = 1.810, p = < .05). Thus, in answering Research Question 1, there is initial evidence for a relationship between a change of command to a Black CEO and an increase in cultural competence.

Finally, we examined the relationship between misconduct and year. Year was entered as a fixed effect and misconduct was entered as the dependent variable. Time (year) was not a significant predictor of misconduct for troopers (B = -0.024, $t(96.18)$ = -1.351, p = .18) or for sergeants (B = -0.002, $t(51)$ = -0.058, p = .954). Thus, in answering research question 2, there does not seem to be a relationship between a change of command to a Black CEO and a decrease in total incidence of misconduct.

TABLE 2.

Descriptive Statistics for Troopers

	M	SD	1	2
1. Cultural competence	6.84	3.11		
2. Performance	3.41	0.52	.07	
3. Misconduct	1.13	0.42	-.02	-.01

Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

TABLE 3.

Descriptive Statistics for Sergeants

	M	SD	1	2
1. Cultural competence	6.13	2.51		
2. Performance	3.45	0.51	-.07	
3. Misconduct	1.17	0.55	.12	-.03

Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to explore the feasibility of assessing cultural competence in police. Scores on cultural competence were not predictive of incidence of misconduct or supervisor-rated performance. We believe there may be a couple of explanations for these findings. First, those included in the study were those officers going up for promotion within the agency. Thus, not every officer employed at the state highway patrol was assessed. It could be that who chose to go up for promotion were those with very little incidence of misconduct and good performance ratings. Second, the cultural competence assessment is used for promotional purposes. Thus, it is possible that employees who are taking the assessment are likely going to answer in such a way that follows the protocols of the agency so that they have a better chance of being promoted. Even if the employees are not necessarily lying about their responses, the assessment is partially designed to assess knowledge of the proper use of procedures. It could be that these officers know very well what they are supposed to do on the job but may not necessarily act that way while on the job under different "lower stakes" circumstances. It may be that a more fruitful way to assess cultural competence is not with incumbents on the job or in promotional assessments but in initial selection of officers. Future research should assess different types of cultural competence assessments at different stages in an officer's tenure. Additionally, future research should explore how cultural competence scores differ across ethnicities. Unfortunately, there was very little diversity in our sample, so we were unable to compare scores between groups with much confidence. However, we may expect scores to differ across groups in future research.

We also wanted to explore if scores on cultural competence or incidences of misconduct were affected by the change of command to the agency's first Black CEO. First, we found that cultural competence increased after the change of command to a Black CEO. However, we do want to be cautious in drawing causal conclusions from these findings. To further explore if the change of command may have been directly related to the increase in cultural competence scores, we also post-hoc explored the trajectories of these scores before and after the change of command (See Figure 1). To do so, a model was created with score as the outcome, year as the predictor, and a dummy coded grouping variable (scores before change and scores after change) as the interaction term. We found no significant interaction between the grouping variable and year, indicating that the slopes did not differ before and after the change. Thus, cultural competence scores were increasing at a similar rate across all 6 years. Given this, perhaps it was not the change in command to a Black CEO that drove the increase in cultural competence. As the times change, are people just becoming more culturally competent? Was it actually the increase in cultural competence that allowed for the appointment of the agency's first Black CEO? Future research may want to delve deeper into this finding. Future research may also want to explore if we see any changes in cultural competence following the events of summer 2020 – including but not limited to the BLM movement and police-related protests. Data could be collected from this same agency in 2021 to see if there might be a spike in scores.

Next, we did not find that overall incidence of misconduct decreased after the change of command. Given that we chose to explore this question in a linear fashion, post-hoc we also decided to descriptively explore the trajectory of misconduct over time for total misconduct and by each subcategory. Overall misconduct steadily increased from Y1–Y5, and then dropped in Y6 back to Y2 levels (See Figure 2). Administrative misconduct seemed to follow a very similar pattern (See Figure 3). Interestingly, both citizen complaints and workplace harassment follow different patterns. Citizen complaints decreased quite significantly from Y1 and Y2 to Y3. They then steadily increased from Y3 to Y5. Finally, they decreased back down to about Y3 levels in Y6 (See Figure 4). Finally, workplace harassment dramatically spiked in Y4 but rapidly decreased in Y5 and Y6 (See Figure 5).

Though we are cautious about drawing any conclusions based purely on these descriptive findings, it does seem like the relationship between misconduct and year might be more complex than what the statistics tell us. What we do see is that across all types of misconduct, there is a trend

FIGURE 1.

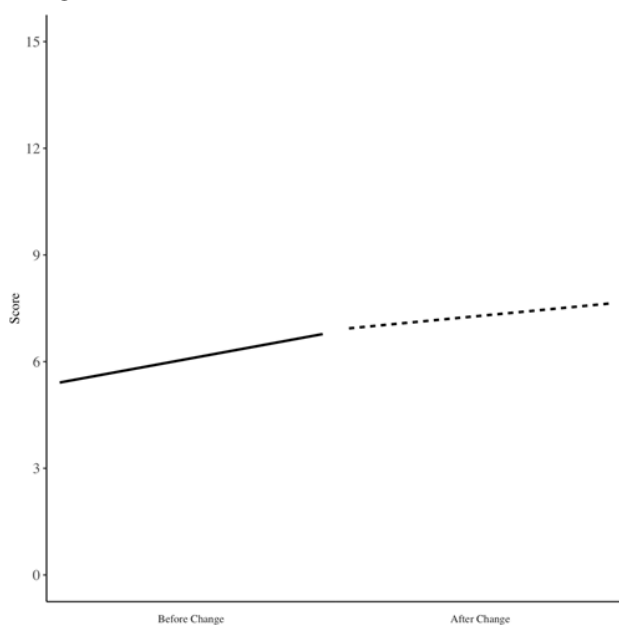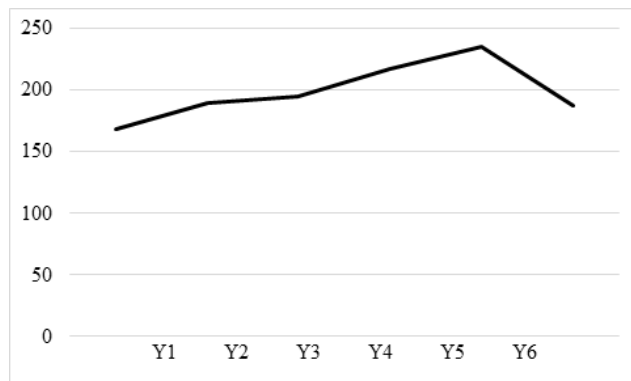Trajectory of Cultural Competence Scores Pre and Post Change of Command

FIGURE 2.

Overall Misconduct Over Time

FIGURE 3.
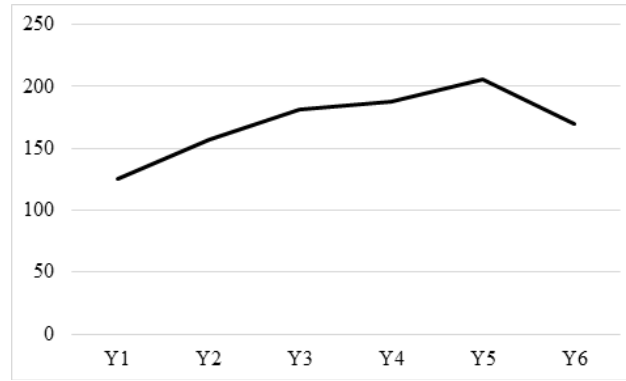
Administrative Misconduct Over Time

downward after the change of command. Interestingly, the trend downward starts in Y6. One possible explanation for this is a lagged effect of the change of command. It may have taken a while for those who work for this new CEO to learn about their expectations as a leader. Another possibility is that this could be related to the timeliness of the BLM movement and other protests around police misconduct. Future research may want to delve deeper into this finding to see if this is the case. Additionally, future research might specifically explore race-related incidence of misconduct. For example, perhaps incidence of racial profiling decreased, but we would not be able to know for certain if that was the case given our data. Finally, given that our measure of cultural competence largely explores competence related to religion, sexual orientation, and ethnicity (See Appendix), future research might explore the addition of other scenarios highlighting examples of race and gender discrimination.

We set out to explore the feasibility assessing cultural competence in police, ultimately with the goal of reducing police misconduct and increasing performance. We hypothesized that cultural competence scores would predict misconduct allegations and performance ratings. Though these

hypotheses were not supported, we want to be cautious about making conclusions about the viability of assessing cultural competence in police. Instead of advising against assessing cultural competence, we believe our study has helped shed light on how researchers and practitioners may better assess cultural competence moving forward so that we can start to build consensus in this area. First, though it was out of our control, a longer measure of cultural competence, perhaps with the inclusion of subfacets, may allow for more variability in scores and thus allowing for better prediction of outcomes. Second, assessing cultural competence at initial selection (i.e., instead of at promotion) and measuring performance and misconduct using a criterion validation approach may be a better test of its viability, especially given that the performance and misconduct of those going up for promotion may be quite range restricted.

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FIGURE 4.

Citizen Complaints Over Time

FIGURE 5.

Workplace Harassment Over Time

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Appendix

Cultural Competence Factor of the Promotional In-Basket Simulation

During the assessment, promotional candidates were presented with many memos, e-mails, and transcribed phone messages from fictional troopers and fictional civilians. The general content of the cultural competence issues are presented below. Candidates had the option to either ignore the issues, delay responding to the issue, or respond in writing to the issue in whatever manner they deemed appropriate.[1]

1.   I know this is short notice, but I need to take some time off to be with my partner, Steve, while he is in the hospital. I thought I would be able to take care of things without missing work, but everything is piling up—I need to be there for him now. Also, please can I count on your discretion? The troop does not know about this part of my life, and I am uncertain how some of them would act if they were aware of my orientation.

2.   I apologize for starting our first interaction this way, but there is an issue I wanted to bring to your attention. Trooper Elkins has been slow to respond to radio calls when he is attending synagogue services while on duty. Trooper Elkins attends these services on Friday nights, and myself and a few other troopers have had trouble getting him to respond in a timely manner to any radio calls sent to him while he is there. I had brought this issue up to Sgt. Rector before he left, but nothing was done about it. I hope you will be able to address it.

3.   I would like to start off by saying that you don't know me, but I am very upset with the treatment by your officers. I was stopped by a one Trooper Frank Mertz, and during the entire process he was nothing but rude, abusive, and ignorant. I feel that I was on the receiving end of unjust and unwarranted treatment by your officer. While he had me pulled over he continuously used slurs against me. To top it all off, the slurs weren't even accurate. He kept calling me "A-rab", and other things that were much worse. This just goes to show you how ignorant the sergeant is. I am Sikh, not Muslim like Trooper Mertz obviously thought.

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[1] Throughout 2015 – 2020, there are slight changes to the items to make parallel forms year to year (e.g., name changes, gender changes, context changes), but the content and purpose of the question generally remains the same.