

Assessment of Public Sector Service Quality: Gauging Experiences and Perceptions of Racial Profiling

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The absence of a culturally competent public sector workforce has led to increased public scrutiny and heightened levels of distrust. In the field of public safety, this is particularly important due to the sensitive nature of the task performed and the historically strained relationships that exist between racial minorities and law enforcement. Using national survey data to gauge the prevalence of citizen's experiences and perceptions of racial profiling, this research reveals significant discrepancies amongst minorities and their white counterparts. In response, this research encourages public officials and agencies to eliminate inconsistencies in their interactions with the citizenry as a whole. Furthermore, it appeals to public administration scholars to address these issues in their classrooms as well as in their future research. Combined, these efforts can bring awareness and help mitigate the disparate delivery and administering of public-sector services.

When addressing the growing need for more equitable public sector services, George Frederickson (1990) evoked, "We have generally assumed in public administration a convenient oneness with the public. We have not focused our attentions in social and economic conditions... This assumption may be convenient, but it is obviously both illogical and empirically inaccurate" (p. 228). Numerous scholars have followed this line of reasoning and called for a more just and culturally competent public sector workforce that adapts its operations and assesses its citizen engagement tactics and organizational thinking in efforts to meet the unique cultural needs of the citizenry it is entrusted to serve (Gooden and Wooldridge 2007; Rice 2007a; Forrer, Kee, and Gabriel 2007; Rice and Mathews 2014; White 2004). Betancourt (2003) posits that successful cultural competency programs must critique incorrect and antiquated policies, practices, and attitudes regarding minority cultures. This will allow public agencies to offer higher quality public services to citizens and foster better working environments.

In the field of public safety, this is particularly important due to the sensitive nature of the task performed and the historically strained relationships that exist between racial minorities and the law enforcement community. Lisa Miller (2015) highlights the discrepancies in the interactions of African American at the hands of police and details the

routine violence that ensues. Johnson and Svava (2011) echo similar sentiments noting, “The public cannot be segmented into the favored and the slighted if the public interest is to have any meaning” (p. 22). The absence of a culturally competent public safety workforce can lead to increased instances of public scrutiny and heightened levels of distrust between the police and racial minorities; this increased fear and misunderstanding promotes the proliferation of tension between the groups.

In order to better address this issue, policymakers, scholars, and administrators should work to bridge the gap between theory and practice by assessing and critically analyzing citizen’s experiences and viewpoints. By pursuing these goals, policymakers and practitioners can better serve the needs of a culturally diverse citizenry and repair critical rifts that exist between citizens and their government. The current research takes a multifaceted approach. First, it seeks to highlight relevant literature detailing: (1) the perilous relationship between public officials and minority communities, (2) the importance of public trust, and (3) the benefits of promoting cultural competency throughout the public sector. Second, it captures the significance of citizens’ perceptions of cultural competency and law enforcement professionals by utilizing survey data regarding their personal experiences and views of the use of racial profiling tactics by the police. The analysis of citizens’ views offers evidence on the status of cultural competency within law enforcement.

Theory Development

Law Enforcement and Minority Communities

The glaring disconnect between minority communities and law enforcement officials stands in stark contrast to the meta-narrative that promotes the United States as the ideal modern liberal democracy. Rivera and Ward (2017) note, “From Ferguson to Baltimore and Tulsa to Charlotte, police- involved violence against African Americans, especially African American men, has become a matter of almost daily news reports in the United States” (p. 245). This narrative highlights the troubled history of racial minorities and the normative idea of equal treatment under the law. Gooden (2017) inserts, “While this (the proclamation that all men are created equal) represents a fundamental ideal, the exclusion of women, the enslavement of blacks, and the gross mistreatment of the first Americans—American Indians—left a huge gulf in its implementation” (p. 778). The systemic ills, woven deep within the fabric of the public sector, preclude initiatives to promote a symbiotic relationship between law enforcement and the citizens it is entrusted to serve; furthermore, it hinders law enforcement’s ability to be optimally efficient and effective (DoJ 2015).

Sunshine and Tyler (2003) chronicle the history of the interaction between law enforcement and the community and note, “Since the establishment of the first formal full-time police force in the United States circa 1837, the police have endured numerous challenges to their legitimacy as an institution of social control. Throughout their history, the relationship between the police and the public has been tumultuous” (p. 515). This disconnect is particularly evident when law enforcement officials encounter minority citizens, as studies addressing this divide reveal dire conclusions. The United States Department of Justice Civil Rights Division found a significant difference in the occurrence of incidents that led to encounters between the police and minority citizens as compared to white communities; it noted a sizable increase in the number of traffic stops, citations, fines, and the use of questionable tactics in African American communities (DoJ 2015). Plant and Peruche (2005) found widespread perceptions of African American males as potential perpetrators by police officers which served to legitimize police officers’ use of brutality on black men. In addition, Dottolo and Stewart (2008) found that police officer’s views of African Americans as being

aggressive and criminal in nature helped them justify their use of deadly force against African Americans. The historically strained relationship between minority communities and law enforcement can only be mended when the perceptions held about the opposing sides are warranted and justifiable. “The legitimacy of the police in the eyes of the public is important because it is the fulcrum of the relationship between the police and the public” (Sunshine and Tyler 2003, p. 516). Officers’ perceptions are particularly important because they create and perpetuate catastrophic realities for many minority civilians.

Generally, United States law enforcement officers kill civilians at a significantly higher rate than most developed countries (Lartney 2015). However, this unfortunate realization is especially true for minority communities. Chaney and Robertson (2015) found that, “the number of Blacks killed by police has reached epidemic proportions” (p. 46). The public outcry following the death of Michael Brown prompted the U.S. Department of Justice (DoJ) to launch an investigation into the Ferguson, MO police department. It found that the police in Ferguson, MO routinely: engaged in unconstitutional stops and arrest, violated First Amendment rights, and used excessive force when dealing with African Americans (DoJ 2015). In addition, it concluded:

Data collected by the Ferguson Police Department from 2012 to 2014 shows that African Americans account for 85% of vehicle stops, 90% of citations, and 93% of arrests made by FPD officers, despite comprising only 67% of Ferguson’s population. African Americans are more than twice as likely as white drivers to be searched during vehicle stops even after controlling for non-race based variables such as the reason the vehicle stop was initiated, but are found in possession of contraband 26% less often than white drivers, suggesting officers are impermissibly considering race as a factor when determining whether to search (DoJ 2015, p. 4).

The report concluded that this behavior damaged the trust that racial minorities felt for the police and heightened their concerns that they may fall victim to police brutality and other unethical acts.

The Importance of Public Trust

Public scrutiny, similar to outcries after the deaths in 2005 of Ronald Madison, 2006 of Sean Bell, and 2014 of Michael Brown Jr., displays heightened levels of distrust between the police and racial minorities. The Ronald Madison incident took place in New Orleans following Hurricane Katrina. The police opened fire on an unarmed family who was searching for food and supplies after the hurricane, and several family members were injured. Seventeen-year-old James Brissette and 40-year-old mentally disabled Ronald Madison were shot and killed. The officers attempted to alter the facts surrounding the incident, claiming the unarmed family opened fire on them. Five officers pled guilty to obstructing justice due to their efforts to cover up the crime; they later pled guilty to reduced charges in exchange for shorter sentences (Funke and Susman 2016).

The Sean Bell incident took place on November 25, 2006. Police officers, including some who were plain clothed, opened fire on Bell’s vehicle outside of a New York nightclub the night before his wedding. Bell was shot in the neck and upper body resulting in his death. There was no gun located in the vehicle or on the three men (Maskaly and Donner 2015). The officers subsequently claimed that the driver of the vehicle tried to run them over (Fernandez 2008). Three officers were charged and put on trial for manslaughter, reckless endangerment, and other crimes; however, they were acquitted of all charges in 2008. The officers were later either fired or forced to resign after an internal investigation revealed they acted improperly,

and a multi-million-dollar lawsuit was settled with the family. The ruling sparked outrage in minority communities across the country.

On August 9, 2014, Michael Brown was stopped while walking down the middle of the street by officer Darren Wilson (Basu, Yan, and Ford 2014). Officer Wilson reported that Brown resisted arrest and a ‘scuffle’ between the two resulted in the discharge of his firearm. Six of the twelve rounds fired struck Brown, which ultimately led to his death. Officer Wilson reported that he was responding to a call involving the robbery of a local convenience store. However, Ferguson’s Police Chief, Thomas Jackson, later stated that the death of Michael Brown was not a result of that robbery. Ultimately, the grand jury chose not to indict Officer Darren Wilson. As a result, widespread violence erupted in Ferguson, MO (Seabrook and Wyatt-Nichol 2016).

Although the rioters were not successful in obtaining the conviction of Officer Wilson as expected, their actions prompted the U.S. DoJ to launch a thorough investigation into the actions of the Ferguson, MO police department (fpd). The investigation showed that there were concerted efforts to violate the rights of African Americans. It concluded, “These disparities occur, at least in part, because Ferguson law enforcement practices are directly shaped and perpetuated by racial bias” (DoJ 2015, p. 70). The report also went into great detail when explaining the ramifications of Ferguson’s race-based policies. The DoJ (2015) report explained that unlawful police and court practices have led to distrust and resentment (p. 79); fpd’s exercise of discretion, even when lawful, often undermines community trust and public safety (p. 81); and fpd’s failure to respond to complaints of officer misconduct further erodes community trust (p. 28).

Public trust is vital due to the sensitive nature of the tasks performed by law enforcement. The absence of culturally competent law enforcement officials has led to the erosion of public trust (Goldsmith 2005). In particular, law enforcement agencies can enhance their effectiveness by promoting a climate of both fiduciary trust (Barber 1983; Kass 1994) between public sector institutions and the citizenry, as well as mutual trust (Thomas 1998) between citizens and public sector agencies. The aforementioned incidents are not intended to be encompassing of all of the tense incidents between law enforcement and minority communities since 2000. However, they were included because they epitomize the levels of distrust between minority communities and law enforcement. Also, these cases depict how distrust promotes the proliferation of unnecessary and avoidable tension.

Cultural Competency

George Frederickson (1999) highlights the pervasive racial inequality that plagues the public sector. He laments that it is the responsibility of public administration to respond to what he labels, “modern challenges of high fragmentation and the disarticulation of the state” (p. 710). This response is found in a commitment to cultural competency, which is the optimal bridge for addressing divides between minority communities and public sector agencies (Borrego 2011; Rice 2007). By pursuing these goals, policymakers and practitioners can better serve the needs of a culturally diverse citizenry and repair critical relationships that exist between minority citizens and public sector agencies.

Cultural competency is “having the knowledge, skills, and values to work effectively with diverse populations and to adapt institutional policies and professional practices to meet the unique needs of client populations” (Satterwhite and Teng 2007, p. 2). Cultural competency seeks to change the color-blind paradigm into one that is color-cognizant (Lea and Sims 2008) and values the differences amongst individuals within public administration. In addition, cultural competency encourages public administrators to embrace these

differences in their interactions and service delivery and take into account the values, attitudes, and assumptions of others in the provision of public services (Rice and Mathews 2015). These are elements essential for the development of a cultural competency ethos in the public sector, which itself is necessary to produce better outcomes for all constituents (Foldy and Buckley 2014; Rice 2007) and better diversity management (Thomas 1990) throughout the public sector.

Susan Gooden (2017) notes that cultural competency, “focuses on improving organizational effectiveness by understanding and recognizing diversity” (p. 780). Rollins and Grooms (2018) add that cultural competency requires significantly expanded efforts toward understanding the needs for and benefits of cultural competency on the part of public administrators. This work not only includes systemic reforms, but concerted efforts to comprehend and alter administrators’ problematic perceptions of citizens.

Furthermore, a culturally competent agency explicitly addresses structural and sociocultural barriers (Betancourt 2003; McManus 1988), acquires knowledge about cultural differences (Collins 1990; Delpit 1988), develops culturally appropriate interventions (Ladson-Billings 1995; Sue et al. 1992), and continuously evaluates cultural awareness (McManus 1988; Rice 2007). Cultural competency is an essential component of good government (Norman-Major and Gooden 2014), and any barrier that hinders the development and autonomy of all constituents must be met with great resistance (Johnson and Svava 2011). This internal critique will allow public agencies to offer higher quality public services and create better interactions amongst their staff and the citizenry.

Methods

Data used in this analysis is a subset of that collected through a national public opinion survey conducted by the Survey Research Laboratory at the Social Science Research Center at Mississippi State University during the fall semester of 2008. The survey was designed to provide a snapshot of citizens’ views on race and public service sensitivity/awareness, as well as other social and economic policy areas. Approximately 1,210 adults across the United States were interviewed through a computer assisted telephone interviewing system (CATI). The CATI system is one of the oldest and most accepted forms of computer assisted interviewing techniques. It allows the researcher to collect large amounts of data in a short amount of time, while simultaneously decreasing selection bias by utilizing a stratified random digit dialing technique to select households to contact. Upon initial contact, trained interviewers then further randomize and diversify the sample population by asking to speak with the adult who has had the most recent birthday. Once this individual is identified and agrees to participate in the study, the computer will prompt the interviewer to read a series of multiple-choice questions from the computer monitor and enter the appropriate responses. The multiple-choice format allows the interviewer to point and click on the right answer. The answer is then converted into a code by the CATI system and uploaded into a database.

All calls were made between the hours of 5 pm and 9 pm during the week, from 10 am to 6 pm on Saturdays, and 1 pm to 9 pm on Sundays. The overall response rate was 54.9%, and the sample error was 3.5%, indicating that, if every adult U.S. resident was interviewed, the results could differ up to 3.5% from the reported results. In an effort to address bias and present a representative sample, characteristics of the survey respondents were compared to 2007 U.S. Census Bureau data. A weighting scheme was created and applied to adjust the data by selected demographic characteristics, including age, race, gender, and education (Holmes and Goodman 2010).

Variables and Measurement

Citizens' views on how public employees treat or engage all members of society is essential to the success of program reforms emphasizing cultural competency training and awareness for public employees. The two overarching hypotheses posit that (1) citizens who are most likely to be negatively impacted by the absence of culturally competent employees are most likely to indicate they have been the victim of discriminatory practices by public servants. Further, (2) they are more likely to believe that discriminatory practices against racial minorities are prevalent and widespread in the public arena. Understanding the views and experiences of these vulnerable citizens and finding ways to better serve them is one of the underlying goals of cultural competency initiatives. This analysis contributes to exploring and pursuing this goal by analyzing citizens' views on the engagement tactics of law enforcement officers.

Discussing cultural competency issues through the lens of law enforcement is critical to the reform of the longstanding contentious relationships that exists between the African American community and public safety and criminal justice professionals. Michelle Alexander (2012) highlights the lack of understanding that professionals in law enforcement and the criminal justice system can have about African American citizens. Her sentiment correlates with a sizable number of high profile cases involving the police and African American citizens across the country in recent years. Examples include the aforementioned cases, as well as other well-known cases, such as Eric Garner, Freddie Gray, Sandra Bland, Samuel DuBose, Brendon Glenn, and countless others. Given the importance of street level bureaucrats (Lipsky 2010) in public safety and criminal justice functions, and the fear many minority citizens have of them, it is important to understand citizens' perceptions and views of those who are hired to serve them, ostensibly, in an equitable manner. Assessing views along demographic lines will inform researchers, policymakers, and public servants of which group(s) of citizens, if any, believe they have been neglected or discriminated against. Such awareness can lead to meaningful reforms in policy and/or practice.

Independent Variables

The cultural competency literature proposes that racial minorities are more likely to be adversely affected by culturally insensitive public servants. In accordance with these theories, the primary hypothesis for this study is that racial minorities are more likely to report having experienced discriminatory acts by public employees compared to their Caucasian counterparts. They are also more likely to report believing that discriminatory actions are more widespread than their white counterparts in the general population. Race was measured by asking respondents whether they were white/Caucasian, black/African American, Hispanic, Latino, Asian, Pacific Islander, or other. A large majority of racial minorities self-identified as African American. All other racial minorities comprised less than 3% of the racial respondents. Due to low statistical power caused by a small number of respondents in several racial categories, the researcher coded the variable race to include the categories of white and minority.

The remaining variables (e.g., income, education, and political ideology) were included as control variables. This allowed the analysis to provide a more holistic view of the presence of discriminatory practices. Education was measured by asking, "What was the highest grade of school you completed: less than 12th grade, 12th grade, some college, college graduate, graduate work." Income was measured by asking, "Last year what was your total family income before taxes: below \$20,000, \$20-40,000, \$40-60,000, \$60-80,000, \$80-100,000, or \$100,000 and above." Although the researcher acknowledges the issues regarding

the coding of overlapping values, for example \$40,000, it does not diminish the significance of the findings. The variable was recoded into the following categories, less than \$40,000, \$40,001 to \$80,000, and \$80,001 and above. Party identification was measured by asking respondents whether they considered themselves to be Democrat, Republican, or some other party affiliation. The variable was recoded into Democrats, Republicans, and Independents. Parental status was measured by asking respondents whether they had school aged children living with them. Political ideology was assessed by respondents self-identifying themselves as liberal, moderate, or conservative. Residency was measured by asking, "Which of the following best describes the place where you live: rural area, urban subdivision or suburb, or urban area not a suburb?"

Dependent Variables

Citizen's views regarding police officer's awareness of and sensitivity to cultural competency elements served as the dependent variables. The variables were constructed based on responses to two questions. The first question asked: "Do you believe racial profiling is a widespread practice in this country?" Respondents could answer yes, no, don't know/not sure, or refuse to answer. The second question asked: "Have you ever been the victim of racial profiling?" Respondents could answer yes, no, don't know/not sure, or refuse to answer. Respondents answering yes were coded with the number one. Those responding by choosing no were coded with number two. All those who responded don't know/not sure, or refused to answer were excluded from the data set. Lower values of the dependent variable indicated the respondent was either a victim of racial profiling and/or more supportive of the belief that racial profiling is a widespread practice as it relates to minorities, thereby indicating concerns about and/or need for an emphasis on cultural competency training and understanding for law enforcement officers.

Because the dependent variables are dichotomous (yes or no responses), binary logistic regression was utilized to analyze the relationships among the variables. The reference categories for both dependent variables was yes responses to the survey questions regarding racial profiling views. The Hosmer-Lemeshow Test was performed to test the goodness of fit of each model. Its assessment revealed the models fit the data for the analysis of both dependent variables. The data was also assessed for multicollinearity. A review of collinearity diagnostics and correlation matrix revealed multicollinearity was not a problem for the analysis. The table highlighting the descriptive statistics has been added to the Appendix.

Variations in the first dependent variable, racial profiling views, was assessed by incorporating the following independent variables: different racial, economic, education, and ideological groups.

$$Y1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X1 + \beta_2 X2 + \beta_3 X3 + \beta_4 X4$$

Where,

Y1= Racial Profiling is a Widespread Practice (0=no, 1=yes)

X1= Race (0-Caucasian, 1-Minority)

X2= Income (Categories 0-4, 1-less than 20,000; 5-\$100,000+)

X3= Education (Categories 0-3, 0-high school dropouts; 3-college graduates)

X4= Ideology (Categories 0-2, 0-Conservative; 2-Liberal)

Next, variations in racial profiling victimization/experience was assessed by including the previously stated demographic groups. The following equation was employed:

$$Y2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X1 + \beta_2 X2 + \beta_3 X3 + \beta_4 X4 + \beta_5 X5 + \beta_6 X6$$

Where,

Y2= View of Racial Profiling (0-no, 1-yes)

X1= Race (0-Caucasian, 1-Minority)

X2= Income (Categories 0-4, 1-less than 20,000; 5-\$100,000+)

X3= Education (Categories 0-3, 0-high school dropouts; 3-college graduates)

X4= Ideology (Categories 0-2, 0-Conservative; 2-Liberal)

Findings

Table 1 includes the assessment of citizens’ views on the identification of racial profiling as a widespread problem across the country. The coefficients for race, political ideology, income, and education reveal support for the research hypotheses. Notable among the finding is the statistically significant relationship between race and racial profiling views. The positive beta coefficient indicates that African Americans are more likely to believe racial profiling is a widespread practice when compared to their Caucasian counterparts. This finding is concerning given efforts to promote cultural sensitivity/understanding in the public arena, because citizens may not believe that the sense of social justice Abel (2014) identified as being essential to good governance is present. When this occurs, minority citizens’ frustration, fear, and concerns that they will not be respected and treated fairly by bureaucrats can be intensified, thereby undermining the pivotal relationship of trust that should exist between citizens and their government.

Table 1: Citizen’s Perceptions of Racial Profiling

	B	Std Err	Wald	Exp(B)	VIF
Income	-.142	.052	7.403**	.867	1.320
Education	.168	.095	3.097+	1.183	1.317
Ideology	.423	.099	18.390***	1.526	1.011
Race	1.485	.277	28.779***	4.414	1.032
Constant	.002				
Nagelkerke	.124				
R Square					
Chi Square	70.992**				
Sample Size	1100				

+p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01

Notable variations in views regarding discriminatory law enforcement practices are found among respondents with different levels of education, income, and ideological beliefs. More specifically, a one-unit increase in the education category resulted in a .168 increase in the log odds that the respondent would likely believe that racial profiling by law enforcement officers is a widespread practice or problem across the country. The opposite is true for income. The negative coefficient of -.142 denotes a decrease in the likelihood that respondents will fall into the target category as their level of income increases. The finding is statistically significant. Statistically significant findings are also found for the ideological hypothesis that liberals are more likely to believe that discriminatory practices against racial minorities are prevalent and widespread in the public arena.

Given the significance of economic standing in discussions regarding the delivery of culturally competent public services, additional analysis was performed regarding the

relationship between income and discriminatory or profiling views. The results reveal minorities across income categories are more likely to raise concerns about police tactics than were their white counterparts. However, the level of variation in views is particularly notable between whites and minorities in the lowest income categories. Low income minorities’ awareness of the issues and higher probability of being a victim of racial profiling than their white counterparts might contribute to their more pointed belief that racial profiling exists. Minorities’ personal experiences also increase their awareness of the injustices others encounter when engaging with public servants. They may also be more intimately aware that all public servants do not display knowledge of Rice and Mathew’s (2015) postulation that, even though people of different cultures think and act differently, they are still deserving of respect. The plethora of cases involving the police and minority citizens and the views of minority survey respondents raise questions regarding the existence of respect.

Table 2 includes an assessment of the number of survey respondents who believe they have been the victim of racial profiling, while assessing the demographic variables of interest. The analysis of responses to this question provides a more personal view of the respondents’ experiences with law enforcement officers. Similar to the previous discussion, racial minority respondents were significantly more likely to indicate they had been the victim of racial profiling compared to their Caucasian counterparts. This finding supports the research hypothesis that minorities would be more likely to believe they had been the victim of discriminatory practices compared to whites. The finding is important because street level law enforcement officers are the face of government to many citizens. Whether they purposefully or inadvertently treat citizens’ unjustly, it can carry long-term implications for the citizens, causing them to distrust and question the actions of all public servants.

Table 2: Citizen’s Experiences with Racial Profiling

	B	Std Err	Wald	Exp(B)	VIF
Income	-.018	.07100	.063	.982	1.331
Education	.115	.129	.788	1.121	1.320
Ideology	.249	.131	3.604*	1.282	1.010
Race	2.266	.276	100.15***	9.641	1.034
Constant	-2.738				
Nagelkerke	.208				
R Square					
Chi Square	106.766**				
Sample Size	1100				

+p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01

Additional analysis capturing the interaction of race and education revealed highly educated minorities were more likely to indicate they had been the victim of racial profiling than their white counterparts. In fact, when compared to all other demographics, highly educated minorities were among the groups with the largest number of respondents indicating they had been victimized. When compared to minority respondents with the least amount of education, the highly educated were still notably more likely to state they had personally experienced racial profiling. This is an interesting finding warranting further research. Educated individuals are likely to be more aware of social equity and public servants’ responsibilities, and to possess the ability to more readily identify discriminatory acts. Given their sensitivity and awareness, self-identified higher rates of victimization among this group

highlights the vital need to expand efforts to ensure public employees are cognizant of cultural competency and that they take pointed steps to treat members of the public justly.

While the reported levels of discriminatory practice reported by political ideology appear noteworthy, the results should be interpreted with caution. The vast majority of minorities included in the sample population self-identified themselves as liberal. Very few identified themselves as conservatives. A broader sample of conservative minorities would strengthen the ability to make generalizations about those in the general population. However, this study is significantly limited in its ability to do so.

Conclusion

This research highlights stark contrasts between African American and white citizens regarding perceptions and personal experiences with racial profiling by combining national survey data, findings from the U.S. Department of Justice, and relevant literature. It assesses the prevalence of systemic racism (Feagin 2013) throughout the public sector and supports Seabrook and Wyatt-Nichol's (2016) claim that "Racism, criminal behavior, and brutality are learned—a reflection of the external environment to which one is exposed" (p. 39), as well as Applewhite's (1998) assertion that public administration, as it currently is administered, has an inability to embrace cultural competency.

The findings uphold Alvez and Timney's (2008) position, which encourages public administration to veer from the status quo and create a culturally competent public-sector workforce in order to foster more socially equitable, higher-quality services and a society in which all citizens believe they are valued, recognized, and treated justly. In addition, it addresses Fitzpatrick et al. (2011) call for the study of administrative reform (including police reform), and Seabrook and Wyatt-Nichol's (2016) call for a critical reflection evaluating the meaning of unlearning racism, criminal behavior, and police brutality. It offers a two-fold approach, suggesting policy and practice alterations by public officials, as well as public administration scholars. First, it encourages public officials and agencies to address the discrepancies in their relations and interactions with minority citizens (Alexander 1997; DoJ 2015). It also encourages public administration scholars to tackle issues relating to diversity, cultural competency, social justice, and equity in their curricula (Blessett et al. 2016; Lopez-Littleton and Blessett 2015) and their scholarship (Carrizales and Gaynor 2013). Combined, these efforts provide a solution to address the unique and emerging needs of a diverse citizenry by establishing a public-sector workforce that is culturally competent and committed to providing more socially equitable services for all citizens.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Ideology	1149	.00	2.00	.9124	.8256
Education	1210	.00	3.00	1.6052	.9720
Race	1210	.00	1.00	.1558	.3628
Income	889	.00	5.00	2.1919	1.7448
RP Perception	1043	.00	1.00	.6001	.4901
RP Victim	1205	.00	1.00	.1416	.3488

Appendix 2: Variable Coding

Variable	Original Coding	Recoded Variable
Political Ideology	1=Very Liberal 2=Somewhat Liberal 3=Moderate 4=Somewhat Conservative 5=Very Conservative	0 = Conservative (4 & 5 combined) 1 = Moderate 2 = Liberal (1 & 2 combined)
Education	1=Grades 11 or less 2=12 th grade 3=Some college 4=Graduated college 5=College +	0 = Highschool Dropout 1 = 12 th grade 2 = Some college 4 = College grad + (4 & 5 combined)
Income	1 = Below \$20,000 2 = \$20,000 to \$40,000 3 = \$40,000 to \$60,000 4 = \$60,000 to \$80,000 5 = \$80,000 to \$100,000 6 = \$100,000 and Above	0 = Below \$20,000 1 = \$20,000 to \$40,000 2 = \$40,000 to \$60,000 3 = \$60,000 to \$80,000 4 = \$80,000 to \$100,000 5 = \$100,000 and Above
Race	1 = White or Caucasian 2 = Black or African American 3 = Hispanic, Latino, or Latina 4 = Asian or Pacific Islander 5 = Other---specify	0 = White 1 = Black (2-5 combined)
Racial Profiling	1 = Yes 2 = No	0 = No 1 = Yes
Racial Profiling Victim	1 = Yes 2 = No	0 = No 1 = Yes