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Authors	Alhejji, Hussain;Garavan, Thomas N.;Carbery, Ronan;O'Brien, Fergal;McGuire, David
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Diversity Training Programme Outcomes: A Systematic Review

Hussain Alhejji, Thomas Garavan, Ronan Carbery, Fergal O'Brien, David McGuire

This article analyzes the scholarship on diversity-training outcomes utilizing a systematic literature review (SLR) and provide insights for future research. The article advances our understanding of diversity-training outcomes through the integration of three perspectives: the business case, learning, and social justice perspectives. The SLR revealed: (a) a literature that is fragmented and diverse in terms of publication outlets; (b) researchers conduct diversity-training outcomes research in a diverse range or organizations, sectors, cultural and training contexts; (c) studies primarily reflect the business case or learning perspectives; and (d) existing studies have significant methodological limitations. We argue the need for future research to adopt multiple perspectives ensure better cross-fertilization of perspectives and make use of more sophisticated methodologies.

Key Words: diversity training in organizations, theory, methodology, business, social justice, learning perspectives

Introduction

More diverse workforces underscoring the need for organizations to invest in diversity training (Boekhorst, 2015; Brooks & Clunis, 2007; Curtis & Dreachslin, 2008). Diversity training has gained significant international currency among HRD researchers and learning and development practitioners (Qin, Muenjohn, & Chhetri, 2013; Schmidt, Githens, Rocco, & Kormanik, 2012). Conceptually diversity training is defined as "a distinct set of programs aimed at facilitating positive inter-group interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination and enhancing the skills, knowledge and motivation of people

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to interact with diverse others" (Bezrukova, Jehn, & Spell, 2012, p. 208). Esen (2005) estimated that 67% of U.S. organizations and 74% of Fortune 500 companies invest in diversity-training programs. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD, 2010) found that four-fifths of U.K. organizations integrated diversity training into talent management processes. Diversity training in these situations is a strategic issue underpinned by the "business case" (Noon, 2007). There are many advocates and evangelists of diversity training; however, notwithstanding the growth in research on how to design and implement diversity training in organizations, the evidence of its positive impact on organizational performance is far from conclusive (Anand & Winters, 2008).

There are additional problematic issues with the existing research base. First, existing studies often focus research diversity training within individual organizations and single countries and derive their theoretical justification from an Anglo-Saxon perspective. There are difficulties of translating these models and concepts to non-Western contexts (Peretz, Levi, & Fried, 2015). Second, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the outcomes of diversity training given the variety of training designs utilized. Organizations utilize multiple approaches, including classroom-based delivery, online, and blended approaches (Kulik & Roberson, 2008) Differences in training design will inevitably lead to different impacts and potentially explain the inconsistency of outcomes across studies and the lack of evidence at the organizational level.

Third, those who emphasize the need for performance outcomes draw heavily on a business case (Noon, 2007). The business case may have relevance to commercial organizations, where there is a focus on short-term profits; however, in public-sector and not-for-profit organizations, the rationale for investment in diversity training will be significantly different. In public-sector and voluntary organizations, the focus may be on a social justice and/or learning issues (Bond & Haynes, 2014). They emphasize outcomes such as procedural fairness, equity, equal opportunity, compliance with legal regulations, and enhanced individual and organizational learning. However, few studies have investigated diversity-training outcomes using these perspectives. Fourth, the measurement of the diversity-training outcomes is methodologically deficient. Studies to date utilize different types of outcomes (Wang & Wilcox, 2006), and they measure them in different ways. These differences make the comparison of results difficult. Few studies utilize objective measures of outcomes.

Based on these problems, the aim of this article is to offer a broader set of perspectives through which to more rigorously explore diversity-training outcomes in a multiplicity of contexts, including different organizational types, sectors, countries, and categories of employees. We seek to facilitate dialogue across the theoretical perspectives (business, social justice, and learning) and promote methodological approaches that link different levels of outcome.

Overall, the article provides a more holistic set of perspectives to facilitate understanding and interpretation of diversity-training outcomes. We achieve this objective through conducting a systematic literature review (SLR) of the literature on diversity-training outcomes. We included only empirical studies that studied diversity training in organizational settings that studied a diversity-training intervention rather than a bundle of diversity practices and published during the period 1994–2014. Research on diversity training outcomes is fragmented, disjointed, and of mixed quality. Researchers have published in many different outlets, resulting in a body of literature published in HRD, HRM, education, counseling, psychology, nursing and health care, and organizational behavior journals. An SLR is suitable in the context of our overall objective due to its replicable, transparent, and scientific methodology (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003).

The following research objectives guided this SLR:

1. In what contexts (country, organization, and type of training) are diversity-training outcomes empirically investigated?
2. What theoretical perspectives and specific theories are used to investigate diversity-training outcomes?
3. How are diversity-training outcomes investigated (i.e., methodology)?
4. What are the results of these investigations in terms of outcomes?

We conceptualized outcomes into three categories: learning outcomes, which included individual-, team-, and organizational-level outcomes; social justice outcome, which included equal opportunity, procedural fairness, and attitudes toward diversity; and business impacts, which included individual, team, and organizational performance outcomes. We begin this article by summarizing the most important theoretical perspectives that help us to understand the outcomes of organizational diversity training. Next, we explain the method used for selecting and reviewing the literature, with details of our search strategy, analysis, and assessment of the quality of the studies selected for inclusion in the SLR. Then we present our findings of the SLR on empirical papers that have investigated diversity-training outcomes. We conclude by offering suggestions for theory, methodology, and content areas.

Understanding the Outcomes of Diversity Training: Multiple Perspectives

Three theoretical perspectives have achieved prominence on the literature: the business case (Noon, 2007), social justice (Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010), and learning (D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996).

The Business Case Perspective

The business case perspective is highly influential in the diversity-training literature (Noon, 2007). The essential argument is that employers are reluctant to invest in diversity training because they lack awareness of the benefits of such practices. The business case argues that diversity training is good for business and profitability (Johnson & Schwabenland, 2013) or what Ozbilgin, Tatli, Ipek, and Sammer (2014) call impacts. This perspective derives its legitimacy from a number of sources: its market-based motivation (D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996), its connection with core business priorities (Ortlieb, Sieben, & Sichtmann, 2013), its impact on financial outcomes (Jones, King, Nelson, Geller, & Bowes-Sperry, 2013), and its emphasis on sustained competitive advantage (Ortlieb & Sieben, 2013). It operates at multiple levels: individual, team, and organizational (Alcázar, Fernández, & Gardey, 2013). Ozbilgin et al. (2014) argue that in the context of diversity training, the focus is on impacts rather than feedback from participants. They argue that these impacts should consider economic benefit and environmental impact. Research based on the business case arguments is disappointing, particularly in the case of team and organizational impacts. Organizational impacts highlighted include improved productivity (Ely, 2004), enhanced organizational commitment (Tsui, Egan, & Iii, 1992), but it may also result in less favorable outcomes such as absenteeism (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999), poor in-role and extrarole performance (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998), and less effective team functioning. Alternative perspectives are therefore required to understand the impacts of diversity training in organizations. Diversity-training outcomes are highly context specific, and therefore the emphasis given to business case outcomes will vary across organizations (Kochan et al., 2003).

The Social Justice Perspective

The social justice perspective emphasizes impacts such as equal opportunity (Anand & Winters, 2008), fair treatment (D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996), the numbers of employees promoted from different minority groups (Noon, 2007), and the extent of assimilation (Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010). Brown (2004) suggested that the social justice perspective challenges organizations to address residual racism, gender exclusion, religion intolerance, and intolerance of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) employees. Researchers also emphasize the perspective's concern with challenging exclusion, subjugation, marginalization, and isolation (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 1997). Jones et al. (2013) suggested that diversity training has ethical dimensions. Gotsis and Kortezi (2013) proposed a moral framework for the design and implementation of diversity practices. They suggested three distinct frameworks focusing on dignity, organizational virtue, and care. These perspectives have the potential to emphasize diversity as an end goal. Diversity training should contribute to fair and socially responsive decision-making

processes (Tomlinson & Schwabenland, 2010), the development of a justice-responsive organization (Fujimoto, Härtel, & Azmat, 2013), and enhanced perceived organizational support (Jones et al., 2013).

Diversity training can lead to both positive and negative social justice outcomes. Positive outcomes include a reduction in discrimination and harassment, and more development and job opportunities for minorities (Mor Barak, 2005). Members of majority groups have also reported benefits such as job satisfaction, where unfair practices and harassment are eliminated (Bond & Haynes, 2014). Negative outcomes include more discrimination (Brown, 2004), expensive lawsuits involving employment discrimination issues (Collins, 2011), decreased organizational trust among underrepresented groups (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008), and the illusion of fairness concerning the treatment of underrepresented groups (Kaiser et al., 2012). There is scope to investigate additional outcomes at individual, team, and organizational levels. Individual outcomes include improved awareness of bias and enhanced perceptions of procedural and interactional biases, and promote justice and reduced bias. Team-level outcomes include increased team functioning and team diversity. Organizational outcomes included changed norms around the expression of discrimination and increased organizational trust. A fundamental test of the social justice approach concerns the extent to which organizations are motivated to implement diversity training without the accrual of economic or business impacts. Tomlinson and Schwabenland (2010) have highlighted fundamental contradictions between business and social justice perspectives.

The Learning Perspective

Proponents of diversity training emphasize the learning outcomes derived from such practices (Pendry, Driscoll, & Field, 2007). Dass and Parker (1999) highlighted three characteristics of the learning perspective:

1. Similarities and differences are considered as dual aspects of workforce diversity.
2. Diversity training can achieve multiple learning outcomes, including the development of employee knowledge, skills, and attitude; enhanced cultures; and innovation.
3. Both short- and long-term learning outcomes.

Anand and Winters (2008) emphasized additional characteristic of this perspective, such as recognition that different viewpoints are a sign of a healthy organization, that both learning and relearning are central to diversity, and that organizational culture has a major role to play in shaping the behavior of employees. The learning perspective is also valuable in making employees aware of privilege and how unearned advantages come with such privilege (McIntosh, 1998).

Studies have highlighted positive and negative learning outcomes. Positive outcomes include enhanced self-knowledge (Brickson, 2000), skills to work with different groups (Ely & Thomas, 2001), and improved skills to work with different cultural groups (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004). Negative outcomes include negative interpersonal attitudes (Pendry et al., 2007), greater levels of interpersonal conflict (Harrison & Klein, 2007), and a lack of managerial skills to create and manage diversity (Kochan et al., 2003).

In this SLR we investigated the extent to which there is evidence of outcomes that support the business case, social justice, and learning perspectives. This multiplicity of approaches, we suggest, will generate a stronger evidence base to justify the value of diversity training and help to move the research base away from traditional business case arguments.

Study Methodology

We analyzed 61 papers published from January 1994 to February 2014 found in 48 journals. We followed the systematic review process (SLR) (Denyer & Tranfield, 2008; Tranfield et al., 2003) using Business Source Premier, JOTOR, SAGE, Psych, Info, and ProQuest. Figure 1 provides a summary of the systematic review process. We describe each element in more detail. Figure 2 summarizes the trends in publication during the years 1994–2014.

Defining the Conceptual Boundaries

We started the systematic review with the specification of the research objectives and definition of the conceptual boundaries for the review. We started with a broad definition of diversity training as training that addressed issues related to employees' knowledge, awareness, and skills to address diversity issues such as unequal treatment, discrimination, and prejudice in organizations. The research setting was any organization—public or private sector, manufacturing or service, profit or not-for-profit, small to medium enterprise (SME) or multinational corporation (MNC)—that provides diversity training to employees.

Building of Database

To build a comprehensive database of studies on diversity training conducted in an organizational context, we applied the following criteria. First, we set the search boundaries within academic journals listed in the Association of Business Schools (ABS) Academic Journal Quality Guide Version 4, by subject area (Harvey, Kelly, Morris, & Rowlinson, 2010), Second, we used categories presented in Table 1. We focused on these categories because they primarily included journals and published diversity-training research. Third, we conducted searches using the electronic databases indicated. We searched the title and abstract fields using the primary BOOLEAN search terms of "diversity training and organizations," "diversity and training," and "diversity training

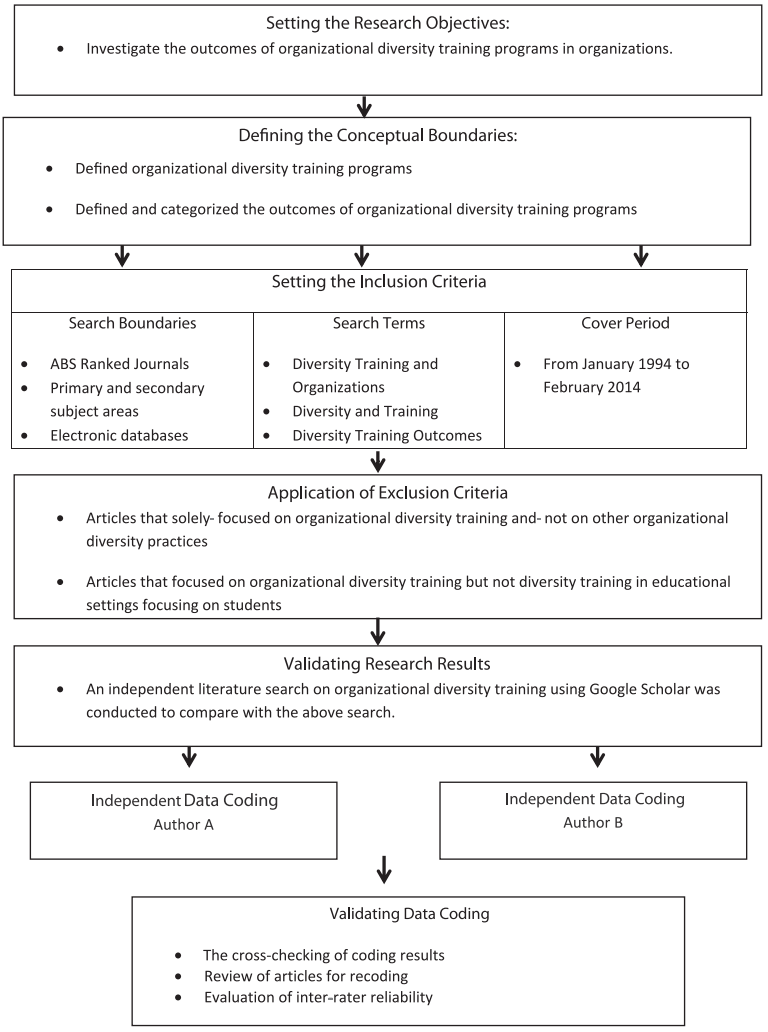
Table 1. List of Journals and Associated Disciplines

Journals	*Disciplines*
Human Resource Development Quarterly, Human Resource Development International, European Journal of Training and Development	HRD
Human Resource Planning, Human Resource Management, Journal of Organizational Behavior	HRM
Public Personnel Management, Group and Organization Management, Journal of Sport Management, Evaluation and Program Planning, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring	Management
Professional Development in Education, Journal of Learning Disabilities, Patient Education and Counselling, Educational Gerontology, Social Work Education, Residency Education, Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in Social Work, Journal of Multi-cultural Counselling and Development, Journal of Social Work Education, Journal of Cultural Diversity, Journal of Social Work in End-of-Life and Palliative Care, Aboriginal and Islander Health Worker Journal, Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disability Research, International Journal of Culture and Mental Health, Journal of Intellectual Disability Research, Criminal Justice Policy Review	Social Science
Journal of Nursing Scholarship, Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing, Journal of Advanced Nursing, Journal of Transcultural Nursing, Journal of the National Medical Association, Archives of Disease in Childhood, Contemporary Nurse: A Journal for the Australian Nursing Profession, Nursing and Health Sciences, Academic Medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges, American Journal of Psychiatric Rehabilitation, Physical Therapy, American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine, Clinical and Translational Science, Palliative Medicine, Activities Adaptation and Aging, Social Science and Medicine	Medical
Military Psychology, School Psychology International, Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, Counselling Psychology Quarterly, Journal of Health Psychology, Behavior Therapy, Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology	Psychology

outcomes." These search terms were sufficiently inclusive to capture the most relevant papers that fell within our conceptual boundaries and exclusive enough to ensure the elimination of irrelevant papers.

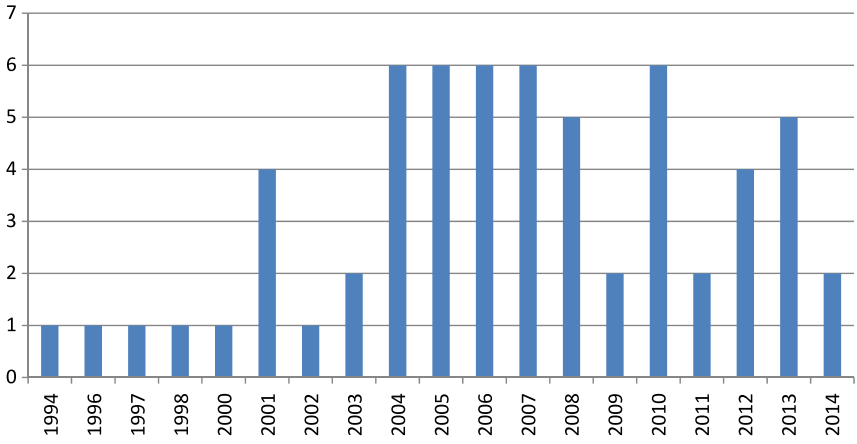
We generated a large number of articles, some of which were easily excluded based on a reading of the title and/or abstract. This process narrowed the result to 200 published articles. We then excluded any article that researched diversity education programs or was not specifically about diversity training. We excluded these studies from the analysis following the exclusion criteria listed in Figure 1. This exclusion process produced 61 academic journal articles that were included in our final review. We manually cross-checked our list of articles against two recent reviews by Bezrukova et al. (2012) and Kalinoski et al. (2012) to ensure that our search process had captured all

Figure 1. A Summary of Our Systematic Review Process



of the relevant articles. Finally, to ensure we had not excluded key articles due to the parameters of our search process—the second author conducted an independent literature search in *Google Scholar* to replicate the results of our primary literature search. We searched for articles using the same phrase, "diversity training," in *Google Scholar* from 1994 to February 2014. We found 400 papers. When we compared the top 29 items with the 61 papers included in our systematic literature review, we achieved a 67% match. We found a large number of additional published items including working papers, non-peer-reviewed articles and articles that did not fall within our search criteria.

Figure 2. Diversity Training in Organizations Publication Distribution



***Note*: Studies published over the period from 1994 to 2014 inclusive.**

We utilized two metrics to assess interrater agreement. First, we focused on the total percentage agreement. We achieved an average percentage of total agreement for all themes in our coding process of 87.56%, reflecting the lowest (74.6%) and the type of organization the highest (98.76%). The median percentage of total agreement was 92.65%. We utilized the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) as our second metric to assess interrater agreement. The average ICC was 86.5%, with needs identification displaying the lowest ICC (0.671) and program duration displaying the highest (0.945). We encountered some conceptual discrepancies. We discussed each discrepancy individually, and following discussion, we achieved greater clarity on the distinctions. The median ICC was 0.861. The majority of the total variance in theme coding was due to between-rater variance.

Current State of the Diversity-Training Outcomes Literature

We begin by examining the journal outlets in terms of geographic distribution and data sources. This analysis is informative when interpreting the pattern of theory, methods, and outcomes investigated. The number and types of countries included in studies is relevant in explaining the relevance and generalizability of findings. Tables 2 and 3 summarize the papers included in the SLR.

Journal Outlets

The two journals that have published the most diversity-training outcomes research are *Human Resource Development Quarterly* and the *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (See Table 1). Diversity-training outcomes research is published primarily in HRD or organizational behavior (OB) journals;

Human Resource Development Quarterly • DOI: 10.1002/hrdq

Table 2. Summary of Studies on Diversity Training Outcomes

Author(s)	*Year*	*Journal*	*Journal Categorization*	*Country of Authors*	*Country Where Data Collected*	*Type of Organization*	*Type of Training*
Abernethy	2005	*Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*	Social Science	United States	United States	Public	Cultural proficiency
Armour, Bain, and Rubio	2004	*Journal of Social Work Education*	Social Science	United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Bailey, Barr, and Bunting	2001	*Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*	Social Science	United Kingdom, United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Disabilities
Bassey and Melluish	2012	*Counselling Psychology Quarterly*	Psychology	United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Cultural competence
Case (1) Bendick, Egan, and Lofhjelm	2001	*Human Resource Planning*	Management	United States, United States, United States	United States	Manufacturing	Cultural diversity
Case (2) Bendick, Egan, and Lofhjelm	2001	*Human Resource Planning*	Management	United States, United States, United States	United States	Family-owned	Anti-discrimination
Bennett	2013	*International Journal of Culture and Mental Health*	Social Science	Jamaica	Jamaica	Public	Cultural competence
Berlin, Nilsson, and Törnkvist	2010	*Nursing & Health Sciences*	Medical	Sweden, Sweden, Sweden	Sweden	Public	Cultural competence

Brathwaite	2005	*Journal of Transcultural Nursing*	Medical	Canada	Canada	Public	Cultural diversity
Burch	2008	*Physical Therapy*	Medical	United States	United States	Public	LGBT
Carr and Seto	2013	*International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*	Management	Canada, Canada	Canada	Public	Cultural awareness
Celik, Abma, Klinge, and Widdershoven	2012	*Evaluation and Program Planning*	Management	Netherlands, Netherlands, Netherlands, Netherlands	Netherlands	Public	Diversity sensitivity training
Chevannes	2002	*Journal of Advanced Nursing*	Medical	United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Ethnic minority
Combs and Luthans	2007	*Human Resource Development Quarterly*	HRD	United States, United States	United States	Medium-sized and public	Cultural diversity
Cornett-DeVito and McGlone	2000	*Criminal Justice Policy Review*	Social Science	United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Costello, Bouras, and Davis	2007	*Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*	Social Science	United Kingdom, United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Mental health
Cunningham	2012	*Journal of Sport Management*	Management	United States	United States	Public	Legal understanding and cultural awareness

Continued

Table 2. (*Continued*)

Author(s)	*Year*	*Journal*	*Journal Categorization*	*Country of Authors*	*Country Where Data Collected*	*Type of Organization*	*Type of Training*
De Meuse, Hostager, and O'Neill	2007	*Human Resource Planning*	HRM	United States, United States, United States	United States	Manufacturing	Cultural diversity
Doorenbos et al.	2010	*Journal of Social Work in End-Of-Life & Palliative Care*	Sociology	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States,	United States	Public	Cross-cultural communication
Downing and Kowal	2011	*Contemporary Nurse: A Journal for the Australian Nursing Profession*	Medical	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Indigenous cultural training
Dugmore and Cocker	2008	*Social Work Education*	Social Science	United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Lesbian and gay
Case (1) Ellis and Sonnenfeld	1994	*Human Resource Management*	Management	United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Case (2) Ellis and Sonnenfeld	1994	*Human Resource Management*	Management	United States, United States	United States	MNC	Race and gender
Case (3) Ellis and Sonnenfled	1994	*Human Resource Management*	Management	United States, United States	United States	Family-owned	Cross-cultural training

Ely	2004	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	HRM	United States	United States	MNC	Cultural diversity
Ferguson, Keller, Haley, and Quirk	2003	*Academic Medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*	Medical	United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Mixed public	Culture
Flavin	1997	*The American Journal of Hospice & Palliative Medicine*	Medical	United States	United States	Public	Race, LGBT
Gany and Thiel de Bocanegra	1996	*Patient Education and Counseling*	Social Science	United States, United States	United States	Public	Diversity sensitivity training and communication skills
Gendron et al.	2013	*Educational Gerontology*	Social Science	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States,	United States	Public	LGBT
Hanover and Cellar	1998	*Human Resource Development Quarterly*	HRD	United States, United States	United States	MNC	Cultural diversity
Study (1) Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald	2010	*Military Psychology*	Psychology	United States, United States, United States	United States	SMEs	None given

Continued

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Table 2. (*Continued*)

Author(s)	*Year*	*Journal*	*Journal Categorization*	*Country of Authors*	*Country Where Data Collected*	*Type of Organization*	*Type of Training*
Study (2) Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald	2010	*Military Psychology*	Psychology	United States, United States, United States	United States	SMEs	None given
Hayes et al.	2004	*Behavior Therapy*	Psychology	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Age, race, religion, LGBT, ethnicity, gender
Hill and Augoustinos	2001	*Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*	Psychology	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Ethnicity
Hite and McDonald	2006	*Human Resource Development International*	HRD	United States, United States	United States	SMEs	Cultural diversity
Holladay and Quiñones	2005	*Human Resource Development Quarterly*	HRD	United States, United States	United States	MNC	Cultural diversity
Israel, Harkness, Delucio, Ledbetter and Avellar	2013	*Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*	Psychology	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Training on LGBT

Jain	2013	*Journal of cultural diversity*	Management	United States	United States	Public	Intercultural sensitivity
Johnstone and Kanitsaki	2007	*Journal of Transcultural Nursing*	Medical	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Cultural safety
Juarez et al.	2006	*Residency Education*	Social Science	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Khanna, Cheyney, and Engle	2009	*Journal of the National Medical Association*	Medical	United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural competence
Study (1) Kulik, Pepper, Roberson, and Parker	2007	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	HRM	Australia, United States, United States, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Gender
Study (2) Kulik, Pepper, Roberson, and Parker	2007	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	HRM	Australia, United States, United States, United Kingdom	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Lee, Anderson, and Hill	2006	*Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing*	Medical	United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural sensitivity
Majumdar, Browne, Roberts, and Carpio	2004	*Journal of Nursing Scholarship*	Medical	Canada, Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	Public	Diversity sensitivity training

Continued

Table 2. (*Continued*)

Author(s)	*Year*	*Journal*	*Journal Categorization*	*Country of Authors*	*Country Where Data Collected*	*Type of Organization*	*Type of Training*
McDougle, Ukockis, and Adamshick	2010	*Journal of the National Medical association*	Medical	Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	public	Cultural competence
Mooney et al.	2005	*Aboriginal and Islander Health Worker Journal*	Social Science	Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Aboriginal cultural awareness
Motsoaledi and Cilliers	2012	*South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*	Psychology	South Africa, South Africa	South Africa	Not for profit	Cultural diversity
Paez, Allen, Carson, and Cooper	2008	*Social Science & Medicine*	Medical	United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural competence
Pfund et al.	2009	*Clinical and Translational Science*	Medical	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Mixed public	Mentor training curriculum (communication, cultural awareness and professional development)

Psalti	2007	*School Psychology International*	Psychology	Greece	Greece	Public	Cultural awareness
D. Reynolds, Rahman, and Bradetich	2014	*International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*	Management	United States, United States, United States	United States	Mixed private	Cultural diversity
L. Reynolds	2010	*Activities, Adaptation & Aging*	Medical	United States	United States	Public	Age, disabilities
Roberson, Kulik, and Pepper	2001	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	HRM	United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Sanchez and Medkik	2004	*Group & Organization Management*	Management	United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity
Schim, Doorenbos, and Borse	2005	*Journal of Nursing Scholarship*	Medical	United States, United States, United States	United States	Mixed public	Cultural competence
Schim, Doorenbos, and Borse	2006	*American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine*	Medical	United States, United States, United States	United States	Not for profit	Cultural diversity, awareness, sensitivity, competence
Smith and Bahr	2014	*Professional Development in Education*	Education	United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural competence
Stanhope et al.	2008	*American Journal of Psychiatric Rehabilitation*	Medical	United States, United States, United States, United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural diversity

Continued

Table 2. (*Continued*)

Author(s)	*Year*	*Journal*	*Journal Categorization*	*Country of Authors*	*Country Where Data Collected*	*Type of Organization*	*Type of Training*
Thomas and Cohn	2006	*Journal of Advanced Nursing*	Medical	United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Race, culture, religion
Tsiantis et al.	2004	*Journal of Learning Disabilities*	Social Science	Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Austria, Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom	Greece	Public Not for profit	Disability Disability
Vogt, Barry, and King	2008	*Journal of Health Psychology*	Psychology	United States, United States, United States	United States	Two Public facilities	Gender awareness
Webb and Sergison	2003	*Archives of Disease in Childhood*	Medical	United Kingdom, United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Public	Cultural competence and antiracism
Williams	2005	*Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in Social Work*	Social Science	Canada	Canada	Not for profit	Cultural diversity
Wilson, Sanner, and McAllister	2010	*Journal of Cultural Diversity*	Social Science	United States, United States, United States	United States	Public	Cultural competence
Yap, Holmes, Hannan, and Cukier	2010	*European Journal of Training and Development*	HRD	Canada, Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	Private	Cultural diversity

Table 3. Diversity Training Outcomes Studies: Theoretical Perspectives, Methodology and Outcomes

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Abernethy (2005)	Multicultural competence theory	31	Individual	Mixed method study - survey and group discussion	Participants (clinical managers)	Self-report,	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced individual cultural competence. Enhanced organizational cultural competence	Improve awareness of cultural issue Enhanced manager–subordinate relationships
Armour et al. (2005)	Experiential learning theory	11	Individual	A quantitative - on survey	Participants (social workers)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced knowledge of diversity issues. Enhanced supervisor skills to handle diversity	Enhanced supervisor-subordinate relationships
Bailey et al. (2001)	Individual differences theory	57	Individual	A quantitative study - quasi-experimental design	Participants (police officers)	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced attitudes towards people with intellectual disability	
Bassey and Melluish (2012)	Cultural competence theory	10	Individual	A qualitative study - focus group and interview	Participants (Participants)	Self-report	Post-test only	Training group	Posttest (time not given)		Enhance knowledge of culture Enhanced organizational cultural competence.	

Continued

Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*	
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Bendick et al. (2001) - Case 1	Training design theory	25–30 per group	Individual	A qualitative study - a case study of United States manufactory company	Participants and managers	Non-given	None given	None given	None given		Enhanced knowledge and understating of diversity issues	Enhanced diversity awareness among employees Increased number of women and minorities on career advancement
Bendick et al. (2001)- Case 2	Training design theory	None given	Individual	A qualitative study - a case study of United States family owned company	Participants and managers	Non-given	None given	None given	None given		Enhanced knowledge understating of diversity issues	Increased people of racial/ethnic minorities
Bennett (2013)	Cultural competence theory	51	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (mental health providers and staff)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Significant change in diversity knowledge and skills after training	
Berlin et al. (2010)	Cultural competence theory	51	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (nurses)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced cultural knowledge Improved cultural skills	

Brathwaite (2005)	Cultural competence theory	76	Individual	Mixed method study - a survey	Participants (nurses)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Better performance in interacting with divers groups	Enhanced individual and organizational cultural competence	
Burch (2008)	Individual differences theory	402	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (health care provider)	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)	Enhanced performance in providing service to people with diverse sexual orientation		More positive organizational attitude of tolerance for people with spinal cord injury who are LGBT
Carr and Seto (2013)	Diversity awareness theory	14	Individual	A qualitative study - written accounts of coaching experiences and interviews	Coaches from government HR organizations	Self-report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Enhanced coaching performance	Improved cultural awareness	Improved cultural diversity
Celik et al. (2012)	Diversity awareness theory	31	Individual	Mixed method study - a survey, semi-structured interview, observation and group discussion	Participants (nurses and their managers)	Self-report,	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced knowledge of diversity	More positive attitude towards diversity Increased satisfaction with diversity issues
Chevannes (2002)	Individual differences theory	22	Individual	Mixed method study - semi-structured interview, focus groups and survey	Participants (health professionals)	Self-report,	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Enhanced performance for small number of manager	Better knowledge of culture	Greater confidence to engage with colleagues from different ethnic groups

Continued

Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*	
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Combs and Luthans (2007)	Individual differences theory	276	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employee and managers form three organizations)	Self-report,	Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Development of diversity competence	Greater focus on sustaining a positive organizational climate for diversity
Cornett-DeVito and McGlone (2000)	Multicultural competence theory	40	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (law enforcement officers)	Self-Report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced cultural competence to deal with diversity issues	
Costello et al. (2007)	Individual differences theory	131	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (care staff and their managers)	Self-report,	Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced knowledge about mental health problems in people with intellectual disabilities	
Cunningham (2012)	Training design theory	None given	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (senior level administrators)	Survey Self-Report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (Time non given)		Improved knowledge of diversity issues	Enhanced organizational diversity culture Enhanced learning about diversity issues

De Meuse et al. (2007)	Individual differences theory	57	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (senior managers)	Self-Report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (less than one month) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced emotional competence	Enhanced of hiring/ promotion on moral rather than skin color
Doorenbos et al. (2010)	Cross-cultural theory	21	Individual	A qualitative study - focus group	Participants (hospice provider)	Self-Report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced competence to deal with cross-cultural communication	Enhanced organizational cross—cultural communication
Downing and Kowal (2011)	Cross-cultural theory	6	Individual	Mixed method study - a survey and interview	Participants (nurses)	Self-report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (time not given)		Enhanced participants' knowledge about indigenous culture. Enhanced communication skills.	
Dugmore and Cocker (2008)	Individual differences theory	None-given	Individual	A qualitative study - feedback and interview	Participants (social workers)	Self-Report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Some evidence of enhanced employee attitude toward diversity	
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)-Case 1	Multicultural theory	25	Individual	Mixed method study - case study and survey	Managers and supervisors	Seminar evaluations	None given	Non-given	None given			
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)-Case 2	Learning theory	None given	Organization	Mixed method study - case study and survey	Participants (employee)	Self-Report	None given	Non-given	None given	Evidence of higher productivity		

Continued

Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)-Case 3	Learning theory	92	Individual	Mixed method study - case study and survey	Participants (employees)	Survey	Post-test only	Non-given	Posttest (After training)		Little evidence of enhance knowledge and skills of employees	
Ely (2004)	Group diversity theory	486	Organization	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (retail branches)	Self-report	Post-test only	Non-given	None given	Enhanced organizational performance including sales revenue, customer satisfaction, referrals and productivity		
Ferguson et al. (2003)	Cross-cultural competence theory	137	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (clinical faculty)	Self-report	Post-test only	Training group and control group	2 Posttest (greater than one month)			Greater intention to change individual behavior
Flavin (1997)	Cross-cultural theory	11	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (nurses)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Improved behavioral skills to handle diversity issue	

Gany and Bocanegra (1996)	Cross-cultural theory	80	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employees of maternity infant care)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced knowledge of immigrant health issues Changed employee attitude towards immigrate health issues	
Gendron et al. (2013)	Cross-cultural competence theory	158	Individual	Mixed method study - survey, observation and interview	Participants (health care professionals)	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced knowledge about LGBT issues	
Hanover and Cellar (1998)	Training design theory	99	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (middle managers)	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)			Enhanced diversity management practices Greater engagement with diversity issues on the job
Hauenstein et al (2010) study 1	Training design theory	46	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employees from SMEs)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)			
Hauenstein et al (2010)-study 2	Training design theory	55	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employees)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)			

Continued

Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Hayes et al. (2004)	Multicultural theory	90	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (substance abuse counselors))	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced multicultural knowledge	
Hill and Augoustinos (2001)	Theory on social prejudice and stereotype	62	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employees)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced knowledge of Aboriginal cultures and Indigenous issues.	A reduction in prejudiced attitudes towards Aboriginal Australians Decrease in negative stereotypy of Aboriginal Australians.
Hite and MacDonald (2006)	Training design theory	11	Individual	A qualitative study - semi-structured interview	Participants (HR managers and diversity practitioners)	Varies by organization	Varies by organization	None given	None given		Some evidence of enhanced knowledge	
Holladay and Quiñones (2005)	Cross-cultural theory: individual differences	493	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (employees and managers)	Self-report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)			More positive culture of diversity

Israel et al. (2013)	Individual differences theory	120	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (police officers)	Self-report	Repeated measures, Pre-test, post-test	Training group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)	Enhanced participants knowledge Enhanced skills in using LGBTQ affirming tactics on the job.	
Jain (2013)	Intercultural theory	9	Individual	A quantitative study - quasi-experimental design	Participants (employees)	Self-report	Pre-test, post-test	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)	Enhanced intercultural communication Enhanced attitude towards cross-cultural differences	Significant increase in interaction between different groups
Johnstone and Kanitsaki (2007)	Individual differences theory	145	Individual	A qualitative study - interviews and focus group	Participants (nurses, health care managers and other health professionals)	Interviews and focus group	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)	Some improvement in cultural knowledge Some improvement in communication skills	Greater tolerance around health care issues of minorities
Juarez et al. (2006)	Individual differences theory	11	Individual	Mixed method study - self-assessment and observation	Participants (medicine residents)	Self-report, observation	Repeated measures, Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)	Enhanced skills to deal with patents from different groups	
Khanna et al. (2009)	Cross-cultural competence theory	43	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (health care providers and administrators)	Self-report	Post-then-pre post	Training groups	Posttest (end of training) Pretest (end of training)	Enhanced knowledge and skills to the provision of culturally competent health care.	

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Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Kulik et al. (2007)- Study 1	Individual differences theory	420	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (police officers and their managers)	Self-report	Posttest only	Training groups	Posttest (none given)		Enhanced Equal opportunity knowledge	Evidence of grater equal opportunity Greater willingness to participants in equal opportunity training
Kulik et al. (2007) Study 2	Individual differences theory	110	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (research assistants))	Self-report	Posttest only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)		Evidence of enhanced diversity skills	Greater willingness to participants in voluntary training around diversity
Lee et al. (2006)	Multicultural theory	7	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (nurses)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced Knowledge of selected Hispanic health beliefs and practices	
Majumdar et al. (2004)	Multicultural theory	114 staff & 133 patients	Individual	Mixed method study - survey and interview	Participants (health care providers and patients)	Self-report,	Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Enhanced performance in integration with minority patients	Enhanced knowledge of multiculturalism Enhanced leadership skills around diversity	

McDougle et al. (2010)	Cross-cultural competence theory	379	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (nurses, public health educators program coordinators, licensed social workers, health care, human services support staff, administrators)	Self-report	Posttest only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced diversity knowledge and skills	
Mooney et al. (2005)	Cross-cultural competence theory	84	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (non-indigenous health workers)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (less than one month)		Enhanced knowledge and understanding of aboriginal health issues	Some evidence of impact on organizational culture and beliefs
Motsoaledi and Cilliers (2012)	Individual differences theory	6	Individual	A qualitative method - discourse analysis	Participants (six executive	Self-Report	N/A	Training groups	N/A	Enhanced effectiveness in organizational role performance	Enhanced skills to gain insights into below the surface diversity issues in coaching	
Paez et al. (2008)	Cross-cultural competence theory	49	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (primary care providers)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)			Enhanced motivation to participate in diversity related events

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Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Pfund et al. (2013)	Training design theory	144	Individual	Mixed method study - survey and reflective writing	Participants (employees)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training group	Pretest (more than one month) Posttest (during training) Posttest (end of training)		Some evidence of skills of individual mentors to deal with diverse groups Some evidence of enhanced knowledge of diversity	
Psalti (2007)	Individual differences theory	70	Individual	A qualitative study - evaluation sheet	Participants (teachers)	Self-report	Posttest only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training	Some evidence of improved individual performance	Enhanced participants' cultural awareness Enhanced skills to communicate with diverse groups.	
Reynolds et al. (2014)	Training design theory	242	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Hotel managers	Self-report	Posttest	Training groups	Posttest (time not given)	Enhanced job performance		Some evidence of enhanced organization culture
Reynolds (2010)	Individual differences theory	18	Individual	Mixed method study - survey and open-ended questions	Participants (taxi driver)	Self-report,	Repeated measures, Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced knowledge of aging Enhanced skills in how to assist customers	Decrease in negative attitudes

Roberson et al. (2001)	Training design theory	98	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (teaching assistants)	Self-report, supervisor performance rating	Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Limited evidence of enhanced knowledge or skills	
Sanchez and Medkik (2004)	Training design theory	125	Individual	Mixed method study; quasi-experimental design and interview	Participants (supervisors and managers)	Self-report,	Repeated measures, Posttest only	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) 2 Posttest (end of training)		Limited impact on knowledge or awareness issues	
Schim et al. (2005)	Cross cultural competence theory	145	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (health care provider)	Self-report	Post-test only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced knowledge and skills in cultural competence	
Schim et al. (2006)	Cross cultural competence theory	130	Individual	A quantitative study survey	Participants (hospice workers)	Self-report,	Repeated measures, Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced cultural competence	
Smith and Bahr (2014)	Cross cultural competence theory	57	Individual	Mixed method study survey, written questions and interview	School psychologists, clinical psychologists, counseling psychologists, school social workers, drug and alcohol counselors and supervising psychologists	Self-report,	Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	3 Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)		Enhanced cultural awareness, knowledge and skills	Enhanced willingness to participate in diversity development opportunity

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Table 3 (*Continued*)

	Theoretical Perspective	*Methodology*								*Outcomes*		
Author(s)	*Theoretical Perspectives*	*Sample Size*	*Unite of Analysis*	*Method*	*Key Informants*	*Study Measures*	*Pre-Post Measurement*	*Training Group and/ or Control Group*	*Number and Timing of Measurement*	*Business*	*Learning*	*Social Justice*
Stanhope et al. (2008)	Multicultural theory	42	Individual	A qualitative study - interview professionals	Participants (health professionals and person-in-recovery)	Self-Report	Posttest only	Training groups	Pretest (greater than one month)	Improved service levels	Enhanced cultural competence	
Thomas and Cohn (2006)	Cross cultural competence theory	47	Individual	Mixed method study - survey and discussion	Participants (health care professionals)	Self-report,	Repeated measures, Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month) Posttest (greater than one month)	Enhanced performance in handling sensitive communication issues	Enhanced communication skills	
Tsiantis et al. (2004)	Individual differences theory	36	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (care staff)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training groups	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Enhanced care performance	Enhanced awareness on mental health issue.	

Vogt et al. (2008)	Individual differences theory	167	Individual	A quantitative study survey	Participants (health care workers)	Self-report	Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training) Posttest (greater than one month)	Some evidence of performance improvement	Enhanced gender awareness, sensitivity and knowledge.	
Webb and Sergison (2003)	Cultural competence theory	92	Individual	A quantitative study - survey	Participants (health services and their managers, staff from local school and social services)	Self-report (satisfaction)	Posttest only	Training groups	Posttest (end of training)	Enhanced performance in communication across linguistic and different culture.	Enhanced cultural knowledge and understanding. More positive attitude and behavior	
Williams (2005)	Cultural competence theory	47	Individual	Mixed method study survey, open-ended questions and semistructured interview	Participants (social workers)	Self-report,	Pretest, posttest	Training group and control group	Pretest (less than one month) Posttest (end of training)		Enhanced cultural competence knowledge, awareness and skills	
Wilson et al. (2010)	Cultural competence theory	40	Individual	A qualitative study, focus groups interview, group discussion, and open-ended questions	Participants (faculty mentors and their students)	Interview, group discussion, and open-ended questions	Posttest only	Training group	Posttest (greater than one month)	Positive impact on mentee academic performance	Enhanced skills in realizing the success of the program	
Yap et al. (2010)		110	Individual	A quantitative study survey	Participation (mangers, professionals and executives)	Self-report	Posttest only	Training groups	Pretest (greater than one month)			Greater organizational commitment to diversity issues

however, these two outlets account for only 14% of the total research output. Other outlets used to publish diversity-training outcomes research include nursing, medicine, health care, and psychology. We found no studies in international business or management journals. The academic conversation on diversity-training outcomes is a dispersed one and not confined to a particular subject area. Diversity-training outcomes research is a niche; however, we found few published studies in specialist diversity and inclusion journals. The dispersed nature of the field is not helpful and potentially explains the lack of strong theoretical development. It can, however, be an advantage if it encourages interdisciplinary dialogue where scholars share and build upon related findings; however, we found very little evidence of this type of dialogue. The key publication outputs are the *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (*N* = 3), *Human Resource Development Quarterly* (*N* = 3), and *Human Resources Planning* (*N* = 2). The majority of the research is published in a broad mix of HRD (*N* = 3), HRM (*N* = 3), management (*N* = 6), social science (*N* = 16), medical (*N* = 15), and psychology (*N* = 8) journals.

Geographic Analysis of Authorship Origins and Data Sources

Our systematic review revealed 182 authors from institutions in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, the Netherlands, Spain, and Greece, dominated by the United States and Canada (*N* = 138) followed by the United Kingdom (*N* = 17), Australia (*N = 14)*, Greece (*N* = 8), the Netherlands (*N* = 4), Sweden (*N* = 3), South Africa (*N* = 2), Spain (*N* = 1), Austria (*N* = 1), Ireland (*N* = 1), and Jamaica (*N* = 1). Nineteen percent of papers were solo authored, 30% were written by two authors, 30% by three authors, and 21% were written by four or more authors. One regionthe United States and Canada—dominates the research landscape. A fraction of diversity-training outcomes research papers are written by authors located outside of the United States and Canada. This may be due to different notions of what constitutes diversity training in different cultural contexts. We found few authors from Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and mainland Europe. This is a surprising finding given the number of international conferences devoted to diversity and inclusion and the emergence of research networks in these areas.

Empirical data are gathered primarily in organizations in the United States and Canada. Developed countries account for almost 100% of the data samples generated. Even where articles involved authors from two or more countries, the primary data tended to be gathered in one country. It was uncommon for authors to work with data from outside their country. We found that few papers published in Institute for Scientific Information (ISI)-ranked journals. The majority are niche journals, well respected within a particular field. This has major implication for citation rates and the overall reputation of the field of study in general management, business, and psychology.

Theory

Next, we examined the theoretical perspectives employed in diversity-training outcomes research (see Table 2). In order to undertake this task, we defined theory as the building block that answers what, why, who, where, when, and how questions (Sutton & Staw, 1995). We experienced in many of the papers considerable difficulty in identifying the theoretical perspective utilized. Therefore, we had to make a judgment call based on the stated purpose, stated contributions, and/or implications set out in the paper. Only 25% of the articles provided an explicit explanation of the theoretical background, how theory was developed, and the contribution of the paper to theory. The majority of papers simply described the context, the diversity-training program, and the empirical findings.

The most frequently used theories included cultural/cross-cultural/multicultural, competence theory, training design theory, individual differences theory, and a variety of learning theories. Cultural/cross-cultural/multicultural competence theory is applied variously in 30 diversity-training outcomes studies. Studies utilizing multicultural theory, for example, empirically investigated the impact of diversity training on cultural proficiency (Abernethy, 2005), the effects of participation in a cultural awareness program (Schim, Doorenbos, & Borse, 2006), and the evaluation of a cultural competence intervention (Brathwaite, 2005).

Ten studies derived their theoretical justification from training design theory. These papers drew on theories and models that explained when and how training works in organizations. Examples included the pretraining context, the design characteristics of effective training, and the transfer of training. They focused on the characteristics of individuals in the training context, such as motivation to learn and transfer and general attitudes toward diversity training (Wiethoff, 2004). Examples of studies included the use of tests to assess trainer effectiveness (Hauenstein, Findlay, & McDonald, 2010), the design features of diversity-training programs in SMEs (Hite & McDonald, 2010), the design considerations for diversity training (Downing & Kowal, 2011), and how training design features explain outcomes (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

Thirteen papers utilized theories that utilized individual differences to investigate diversity-training outcomes. Examples of studies included attitudes toward people with intellectual disabilities (Bailey, Barr, & Bunting, 2001), implicit racial prejudices (Costello, Bouras, & Davis, 2007), individual differences and participation in diversity training (Kulik, Pepper, Roberson, & Parker, 2007), aging and disability awareness differences (L. Reynolds, 2010) and the impact of diversity training on self-efficacy (Combs & Luthans, 2007). Other theoretical perspectives utilized include group diversity theory (Ferguson, Keller, Haley, & Quirk, 2003) and social prejudice and stereotyping (Hite & McDonald, 2010). We observed little use of theories commonly

found In the HRM, HRD, and OB literatures such as human capital theory, the resource-based theory of the firm, institutional theory, organizational justice, and perceived organizational support theory.

Methods Used

Our SLR provides useful insights concerning methodological approaches (Table 2). The primary unit of analysis is the individual and/or the program. The field is dominated by microanalysis that focuses on the individual learner and/or particular program of training. The most common dependent variable is a measure of subjective or perceptual outcomes such as satisfaction, relevance, and utility. The majority of studies (90%) utilized a single key informant. This high percentage of single informant studies is unsatisfactory as is the over-reliance on survey instruments (N = 37). We did, however, find use of both pre and post measures. Cascio (2012) argued that when survey-based measures are purely attitudinal or perceptual and come from one key informant the results are more likely to be subject to random error. This problem is likely to occur when the same respondents are the sources of organizational performance data.

A particularly striking feature of diversity-training outcomes research is the use of small samples (< 100, N = 42). Sample size is important because large samples enable the testing of statistical relationships. The majority of studies utilized cross-sectional designs with a total absence of longitudinal studies. A significant number of studies combined qualitative and quantitative approaches (N = 28). A mixed methodology approach is valuable provided both approaches serve complementary purposes. A good example is Celik, Abma, Klinge, and Widdershoven (2012) where they combined surveys, semistructured interview, observation, and group discussion to study cultural awareness among patients and health professionals.

Outcomes of Diversity Training

The SLR revealed evidence of business, learning, and social justice–type outcomes. A significant number of studies reported learning outcomes such as enhanced employee knowledge and awareness of diversity issues (N = 38), enhanced diversity behaviors and skills to handle diversity issues (N = 9), and changed attitudes toward diversity (N = 5). We found some evidence of business impacts such as productivity increases, enhanced employee performance, enhanced customer satisfaction, and financial performance. We found two studies that reported organizational performance impacts (Ellis & Sonnenfield, 1994; Ely, 2004). One study (Ely, 2004) reported performance impacts such as increased sales, customer satisfaction, and productivity gains. These impacts were measured using archival data on employees in each branch annual survey and branch performance data. We found limited evidence of social justice outcomes. The exceptions were studies on improved relationships (Armour, Bain, & Rubio, 2004), enhanced tolerance toward

minorities (Burch, 2008), and improve confidence to work with diversity groups (Williams, 2005).

Discussion of Future Directions

The outcomes of the SLR highlight significant potential for future research to investigate diversity training in a more rigorous and methodologically sophisticated way and facilitate dialogue and integration across business, learning and social justice perspectives. The SLR highlights four important findings that highlight opportunities for future research direction. First, research on outcomes is less than convincing with few studies demonstrating a strong business case. Second, the research covers a very narrow base of organization types, categories of employees, sectors, countries, and types of employment. Third, the level of methodological sophistication of existing studies is low, with very few research endeavors that longitudinally investigate outcomes. Fourth, there is little evidence of studies that investigate outcomes using multiple perspectives. Therefore, following the structure of the SLR, we highlight theoretical, methodological and content gaps that should be the focus of future studies. Table 4 summarizes key research issues in respect of theory, methodology, and content.

Theory: Future Directions

Our SLR highlights the need to utilize multiple theoretical perspectives to investigate diversity-training outcomes. We consider a number of theoretical perspectives that researchers can utilize to investigate the three perspectives discussed earlier in this paper.

Business Case Perspective. Given the focus of the business case on impacts, it is imperative to utilize appropriate theories from both the HRM and HRD literatures to develop a more convincing research base on the individual, team, and organizational impacts of diversity training. Four theories that can serve this purpose are the resources-based view (RBV), human capital theory, resources dependency theory, and the behavioral perspective. These theories can help move the research away from theories that focus solely on individual level outcomes.

The RBV helps researchers to explore the organization-level impacts of investment in diversity training. Consistent with this view, diversity training helps to align the knowledge and skills of employees with business strategy thus resulting in competitive advantage (Richard, Murthi, & Ismail, 2007). The RBV suggested that sustained competitive advantage is possible where organizations possess the managerial capabilities to recognize and exploit the productive opportunities that investment in diversity training may confer on human resources. The RBV is valuable in understanding how human resources are enhanced because of diversity-training interventions. Proponents of the business case insist that diversity management practices such as diversity

Table 4. Suggestion for Future Research and Theorizing on Diversity Training Outcomes

Theory

- Identify and define different types of diversity training interventions and develop prepositions on their relationships with outcomes.
- Focus theorizing on integrating the three perspectives to understand outcomes.
- Utilize a broader spectrum of underpinning theories to investigate the business case learning and social justice perspectives.
- Investigate the antecedents of diversity training outcomes. Explore individual, team, and organizational antecedents.
- Investigate mediators related to the three perspectives. These include diversity climate, social exchange, organizational identification, and organizational justice.
- Embrace Insights and theoretical developments from research on human resources management, dynamic capabilities and organizational behavior.

Methodology

- Use theory-based rationales to select organizational contexts, employee group, and cross-cultural contexts.
- Move beyond the individual unit of analysis to investigate team and organizational levels of analysis within the three perspectives.
- Greater samples that are more robust. Gather data from multiple informants and conduct longitudinal analysis to establish causality.
- Engage with the use of multilevel models to investigate unique and cross-level effects.
- Make greater use of qualitative research designs to capture subtle dimensions of context and outcomes.

Content

- Understand the impact value of the business case at individual, team, and organizational levels. Place particular focus on team and organizational outcomes.
- Study how diversity training enhances perceptions of organizational justice, employee moral awareness, and organizational ethical climate.
- Understand the interdependence of individual, team and organizational level outcomes.
- Study bundles of diversity training practices and the unique outcomes derived from complementary practices.

training contribute to sustained competitive advantages. However, a meta-analysis by Kalinoski et al. (2012) found that one-third of studies of outcomes demonstrated no outcomes or negative outcomes. We consider this a troubling finding given that the business case advocates a positive relationship between training and business performance.

Human capital theory has significant explanatory power in the context of the business case perspective. This theory argues that people possess knowledge, skills, and attitudes that have economic value to an organization. It acknowledges the value of a diverse group of employees (Shore et al., 2009), in terms of knowledge and skills sets. Diversity training enables organizations to build KSAs that have value both to employees and an organization that

employee them. It can lead to both generic human capital and specific KSAs. These KSAs potentially include knowledge and awareness of diversity challenges and more socially desirable diversity attitudes (Cocchiara, Connerley, & Bell, 2010; Kalinoski et al., 2012). These outcomes of diversity-related KSAs potentially enhance the career prospects of employees and contribute specific human capital to enhance organizational success (King, Gulick, & Avery, 2010).

Resources dependency theory (RDT) is a particularly useful theoretical perspective in the context of the business case (Ortlieb & Sieben, 2013). RDT argues that organizational effectiveness depends on valuable people resources over which it has control (Alcázar et al., 2013; Ortlieb & Sieben, 2013). Ortlieb and Sieben (2013) specifically investigated the value to an organizational have a diverse groups of employees as a source of power and critically for organizational success. RDT is valuable to understand diversity-training outcomes because of its emphasis on: (a) conceptualising the resources that diverse employees control and that contribute to organization success, (b) its capacity to conceptualize the design and implementation of diversity-training practices in organizations, and (c) its value in explaining the importance of diversity-training practices that have become both internally and externally legitimized.

The behavioral perspective (Jackson et al., 1991) postulates that different business strategies require different role behaviors from employees in order to increase their effective realization. It places primacy on the role of employee behavior as a mediator between business strategy and organizational performance. In the context of the business case perspective, the behavioral approach helps researchers to understand how investment in diversity training develops appropriate employee behavior that contribute to the achievement of strategic goals (Groggins & Ryan, 2013). Diversity training is therefore likely to bring about desirable behavior outcomes that help the achievement of business strategy. The behavioral approach can help open up the black box that is the role of mediators in the context of the relationships between diversity training and individual, team, and organizational impacts. Mediators that can be investigated include organizational climate concepts (Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001), diversity climate theory (Groggins & Ryan, 2013), and social exchange theory. Greater use can be made of concepts such as organizational identification, organizational justice, and the AMO model. The AMO model suggests that the ability, motivation, and opportunities to perform are keys to explaining the impact of diversity training on firm performance (Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer, 2012). Dynamic capabilities theory can explain the influence of mediating mechanisms (Leiblein, 2011). Dynamic capabilities relevant to understanding diversity-training outcomes relationships include the extent of knowledge integration, the flexibility and ambidexterity of the organization, and its capacity to absorb new knowledge.

The Social Justice Perspective. We suggest a number of theoretical perspectives to enhance our understanding of social justice outcomes of diversity

training. Insights can be gained from the use of various social justice theories and help emancipate diversity training from its strong anchorage in the business case perspective. Conceptualization of social justice that emphasizes social harmony (Chavez & Weisinger, 2008) can help researchers to understand how diversity training helps employees to understand their talents and how they contribute to positive outcomes in organizations.

Theoretical traditions such as those put forward by Kant (1956) and Rawls (1971) are valuable. For Kant, the focus of social justice is equality. Emphasis on equality can help researchers understand how diversity training contributes to organizational decision making on diversity issues. In contrast, Rawls emphasizes equity rather than equality. Equity notions help researchers to understand both the positive and negative consequences of diversity training and whether it reinforces social inequity and social injustice. Other theorists view social justice differently and highlight the important role of ethics. Ethical perspectives suggest that individuals are worthy of respect simply because they are human being. Jones et al. (2013) argued that diversity training could be used to increase employees' moral awareness of diversity issues. Gotsis and Kortezi (2013) emphasized notions such as dignity and respect, the importance of virtue and a focus on care. This in turn should contribute to enhanced diversity related behavior in the workplace. They consider moral awareness theory (Butterfield, Trevin & Weaver, 2000) to have value in emphasizing both individual and organizational diversity behavior.

Another stream of social justice related theories focus on organizational justice (DiTomaso, Post, & Parks-Yancy, 2007). Fujimoto et al. (2013) argued that this theory set has value in the context of diversity training given the reality that minority groups are more likely to report discrimination and marginalization (Wooten & James, 2004). Organizational justice theory emphasizes distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Fujimoto et al. (2013) proposed a diversity justice management model. They emphasized that organizational justice can both mediate and moderate the relationships between diversity-training practices and outcomes. There outcomes can be negative in nature, for example, where diversity-training programs that focus on reducing managerial biases towards racial groups can lead to subsequent decreased rather than enhanced racial diversity (Kalev, Kelly, & Dobbin, 2006). Kaiser et al. (2012) suggested that diversity training might not reduce bias or increase diversity. Social exchange theory has emerged as a particularly well-researched theory in the context of justice concepts. Cropanzano and Rupp (2008) proposed contemporary social exchange as an interpersonal relationship and highlighting the role of symbolic resources and notions of reciprocity.

Learning Perspective. Both individual and organizational level learning theories help us to understand diversity-training outcome. Given that diversity training is about learning, the development of diversity-related knowledge, skills, and attitude learning theories are considered appropriate. We highlighted four theories: experiential learning theory (D. A. Kolb, 1984),

the theory of planned behavior (Wiethoff, 2004), learning climate theory (Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, & Baert, 2011), and organizational learning culture theory (Froehlich, Segers, & Van den Bossche, 2014)

Experiential learning theory is an appropriate theoretical lens through which to examine the learning outcomes of diversity training (D. A. Kolb, 1984). Learning as a continual process that emphasizes both gaining and transforming experience. A. Y. Kolb and Kolb (2005) have highlighted the value of experiential learning theory in explaining learner's skills and cognitive attitudes, the ability to apply knowledge in work situation and the encouragement of self-directed learning behavior. The theory is particularly valuable in the diversity-training context in explaining differences in individual-level learning outcomes. Moreover, Combs and Luthans (2007) emphasized that self-efficacy is central to experiential learning theory. The choices and actions that learners engage in both during and post-training influence learning outcomes. A fundamental dimension of the D. A. Kolb (1984) framework is its emphasis on tacit learning and the transformation of that learning with new diversity related experiences (Lenartowicz, Johnson, & Konopaske, 2014).

The theory of planned behavior (Wiethoff, 2004) helps us to understand why employees will be motivated to learn diversity related behaviors. It places particularly salience on the role of perceived social norms in explaining how employees develop behavioral control toward diversity training, beliefs about the value of diversity training and about the availability of resources to engage in diversity-training activities. The focus on diversity-training-related attitudes is a potential valuable contribution to understanding how diversity-related knowledge and skills transfer to the workplace.

Learning climate theory also has value in explaining individual, team, and organizational learning outcomes. Learning climate influences the transfer of new diversity knowledge and skills to the workplace and the emergence of diversity climate (Govaerts et al., 2011). The openness of a learning climate helps explain the functioning of climates that espouse diversity and the emergence of positivity and values such as connectedness and commonalities (Bond & Haynes, 2014). Our fourth theory focuses on organizational learning culture (Froehlich et al., 2014). Marsick (2013) argued that organizational leaning culture affects the learning outcomes of both formal and informal learning processes. Therefore, in contexts where an organizational learning culture is conducive to learning it will result in more positive diversity learning outcomes. Ely and Thomas (2001), for example, found that organizational culture influenced outcomes of diversity training.

The various theories that we propose should help researchers to explain the learning, social justice, and business impact outcomes (individual, team, and organizational) that are derived from diversity training. Consistent with the arguments of Shore et al. (2009), we need to broaden our perspective and explore diversity from multiple perspectives. We currently lack an integrative theory of diversity-training outcomes.

Methods: Future Directions

Consistent with the three theoretical perspectives, we proposed in the theory selection, we emphasize the need to enhance the methodological rigor of diversity-training outcomes research. Some of our suggestions address necessary steps to overcome significance weakness, whereas others call for significant advancement and development of existing methodological approaches.

Data Collection and Samples. In the future, researchers need to collect data in a number of different ways. Cross-sectional designs are not effective in demonstrating causality or the impact of mediated relationships (Chen, Thomas, & Wallace, 2005). We need to understand for how long the outcomes of diversity training will be evident or observable. What is the lasting effect of investment in diversity training? It is necessary to conduct longitudinal studies that allow conclusions about the impacts of diversity training over time. Second, the measurement of diversity-training outcomes by simply asking participants does not capture the complex effects of diversity training at different levels within the organization. How participants perceive outcomes may be significantly different from manager reported outcomes. Therefore, researchers should collect data from both participants and managers. To overcome the limitation of using a single key informant, Cascio (2012) proposed that researchers should "(1) obtain data on independent and dependent variables from different sources (2) measure the independent and dependent variables at different times, or (3) counterbalance the order in which variables are measured" (p. 2536). Third, researchers need to collect pre and post measures of outcomes and to utilize measures other than those that are self-report in nature. The use of archival training records or measures of diversity training that are based on multiple rather than single items (Chen et al., 2005) will significantly enhance the quality of diversity outcomes research. Fourth, our SLR highlighted the need to research diversity-training outcomes in a variety of organizational and country contexts. It is also important for researchers to be given access to organizational rather than graduate samples. We acknowledge this is a complex issue because as Guillaume, Dawson, Woods, Sacramento, & West (2013) pointed out that there may be gatekeepers in organizations who do not wish to have organizational-level outcomes investigated due to the fear of negative results.

There is a strong bias in existing studies in the countries investigated. Our analysis revealed that diversity has been a particular concern in countries such as the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, and Australia, where there are significant indigenous or immigrant populations and where as a result, diversity issues have surfaced in national and organizational policy agendas. We acknowledge that outside of these countries with an Anglo-Saxon perspective, there is a need to investigate the outcomes of diversity training differently. Theodorakopoulos and Budhwar (2015) suggested that India represents an exemplar with a scarcity of research on diversity issues. Similarly, in countries

such as China and Russia with authoritarian pasts but with significant ethnic populations, the diversity agenda has not emerged at the national level as a policy priority. Methodological approaches must account for these contextual and cultural differences.

Data Analysis and Levels of Analysis. We recommend that researchers utilize a more diverse and sophisticated set of analytical tools and statistical techniques. The most important innovations in this context include the creative combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, the analysis of archival data, the use of field studies, and experiments in order to collect rich data. There is major scope to utilize advanced statistical technique including structural equation modeling (SEM), hierarchical linear modeling, and approaches appropriate for the multilevel analyses of data. It is important to consider multilevel research designs. Multilevel design helps researchers to understand the complexity of diversity-training outcomes and relationships across different levels of analysis.

Context: Future Directions

Our SLR highlights two major content gaps that should be the focus of future research. First, there is a major lack of research on the antecedents of diversity-training outcomes, and second, we have a paucity of research that focuses on multilevel outcomes of the business, learning, and social justice perspectives.

Antecedents of Diversity-Training Outcomes

There is a paucity of research on the antecedents of diversity-training outcomes. Increasingly, there is a literature emerging that investigates a variety of individual-, team-, and organizational-level concepts that serve as antecedents of diversity-training outcomes. The theoretical perspectives we suggested earlier point to a number of potential antecedents at individual, team, and organizational levels. However, we discuss here a number of unique antecedents that have particular salience to diversity-training outcomes. Diversity beliefs has emerged as an important individual-level antecedent. Diversity beliefs are individual beliefs and attitudes toward diversity (Hostage & DeMeuse, 2002). Diversity beliefs may therefore influence how individuals respond to diversity training. We need to understand how these beliefs operate in the diversity-training context (Homan, Van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & De Dreu, 2007). Homan, Greer, Jehn, and Koning (2010) found that diversity beliefs play a major role in shaping how individuals will construe diversity and diversity initiatives.

Scholars have also highlighted the important role of team level antecedents. Konrad, Yang, and Maurer (2015) suggested that the more organizations make use of team structures as part of their work processes. These processes will influence diversity-training outcomes. Similarly, the diversity

of work groups or teams is an important antecedent. Researchers have highlighted the important role of social category diversity (e.g., gender, age, and ethnicity) and informational/functional diversity, which focuses on job-related dimensions such as educational background and functional differences (Van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan 2004).

Organizational-level antecedents that have relevance include the strategic goals of the business, the extent of internationalization (Way & Johnson, 2005), the integration of HRM practices with business strategy (Konrad et al., 2015), and the presence of a diversity or training expert (Kalev et al., 2006). The presence of HRD or training experts helps to make the case for diversity and ensure its effective implementation. Scholars have highlighted the important role of organizational and unit diversity climate and the role of cultures that value diversity (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Ely and Thomas (2001) suggested that a positive diversity culture would lead to more favorable diversity outcomes.

Proposition 1: Pro-diversity beliefs are more likely to result in positive diversity-training business, learning, and justice outcomes.

Proposition 2: Team diversity characteristics such as social category and informational/functional diversity will influence diversity-training business, learning, and justice outcomes.

Proposition 3: Organizational characteristics such as its strategy, extent of internationalization, alignment of HRM practices, organizational culture and climate, and existence of diversity/training expertise will influence diversity-training business, learning, and justice outcomes.

Outcomes of Diversity Training

Business Case Outcomes. Studies have primarily investigated individual outcomes. We have knowledge gaps on particular types of individual-, team-, and organization-level outcomes. Research on individual outcomes should focus on both task and contextual performance dimensions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Task performance will relate to the effective execution and maintenance of technical processes within an organization; however, this may be less the focus of diversity training than contextual performance dimensions such as individuals' contribution to team diversity climate, and the social/psychological environment within an organization. We have limited understanding of the impact of diversity training on team level performance. Team-level performance outcomes should include both behavioral and performance affects (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). We also need to understand how team performacne outcomes impact organizational performance outcomes.

Complexities exist in measuring organizational level performance outcomes. Dyer and Reeves (1995) and Tharenou, Saks, and Moore (2007) suggested a framework that has direct relevance to diversity-training research. Their categorization essentially breaks down into HR impacts (employee performance, discretionary behavior), operational impacts (customer service, quality) and financial impacts (return on investment, profitability). The latter is terra incognita in the context of diversity-training outcomes research. The organization-level impact is complex theoretically and methodologically because of the need to establish causality. We need to explore the role of mediators that affect organizational level impacts. It is also necessary to follow the suggestion by Ortlieb et al. (2013) to consider multiple benefits when investigating organizational-level impacts using the business case perspective.

Proposition 4: Diversity training will impact a multiplicity of individual, team, and organizatinal performance outcomes such as task and contextual performance, HR impacts team effectiveness, profitability, customer mix and sales.

Social Justices Perspective Outcomes. The diversity-training outcomes literature provides few insights on social justice outcomes at individual, team, and organizational levels of analysis. At the individual level question that can be investigated include the impact of diversity training on employee belief about diversity (Tatto, 1996) perception of fairness (Bies, 1987) perceptions on employees of different race, culture ethnicity of gender, religion, and society (Harrison & Klein, 2007), the influence of diversity training on employee perceptions of fairness and moral judgments (Roberson & Stevens, 2006). Team-level social justice outcomes include how diversity-training impacts the extent of team diversity (Harrison & Klein, 2007), team climate for diversity (Roberson & Colquitt, 2005), team perceptions of interpersonal and interactional fairness (Chavez & Weisinger, 2008), team communication processes, and team integration (Adams et al., 1997). Organizational-level social justice outcomes include the impact of diversity training on perceived organizational support (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), cultural belief about diversity (Roberson & Stevens, 2006), tolerance of ethnic and racial diversity (Brown, 2004), the extent of equal opportunity and recognition and development opportunities (Dickens, 1999).

Proposition 5: Diversity training will lead to a multiplicity of social justice outcomes at individual, team, and organizational level such as employee beliefs about diversity, fairness, and moral judgments, team climate of fairness and cultural tolerance of differences.

Learning Perspective Outcomes. There is scope to investigate a number of individual-level outcomes including changed attitude (Holladay,

Knight, Paige, & Quiñones, 2003), openness to new perspectives (Holladay & Quiñones, 2005), enhanced social skills to work with others (Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999), skills to work with different groups and knowledge about different groups (Moore, 1999). Opportunities to investigate team-level learning outcomes are considerable. We suggest that research should investigate the impact of team-focused diversity training on team leadership competence (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004), team skills to address diversity issues (Ely, 2004), team norms of interaction and communication (Moore, 1999) and team skills and capabilities to work in diverse settings (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004). It is important to be clear as to the team diversity-training construct. Does it focus on the team as the unit of analysis or is it training designed to enhance team functioning (Kochan et al., 2003)?

There are considerable opportunities to investigate organizational level learning outcomes. We suggest the investigation of outcomes such as organizational skills/competences to create and sustain diversity initiatives (Collins, 2011), collective skills to develop specific organizational diversity norms (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999), development of management skills and capability to create and maintain a diversity climate and organizational competences to address different diversity situations and customer groups.

Proposition 6: Diversity training will enhance individual knowledge, awareness, and attitudes team skills to cope with diversity and organizational learning outcomes such as collective skills around diversity norms.

Conclusion

This SLR is the first synthesize of empirical studies analyzed diversity-training outcomes studies conducted in organizational settings. The review seeks to enhance our understanding of the organizational setting, research focus, type of outcomes, and methodological issues central to diversity-training outcomes research. A number of trends emerged: (1) research on diversity-training outcomes is published in a diverse set of publication outlets; (2) studies utilize a narrow range of theoretical perspectives; (3) methodologically, studies suffer from significant limitations including small sample sizes, poor use of diversity-training measures, too much reliance on self-report measures and little longitudinal investigation of outcomes. Therefore, the research base is a theoretically, methodologically flawed and fragmented.

Researchers need to both broaden and integrate the perspectives used to investigate diversity-training outcomes. The business case, learning, and social justice perspectives have value as a lens through which to investigated outcomes; however, they must not operate as separate silos. The business case by itself does not capture the complexity of outcomes and is not appropriate to all organizational contexts. Shore et al. (2009) has argued that business case represents something of a distraction that does not do justice to

the multiplicity of outcomes derived from diversity-training social justice and learning perspectives provide alternative lens through which to make sense of diversity-training outcomes. We call for the use of more sophisticated research methodologies, more detailed investigation of both the antecedents of diversity-training outcomes and the use of multilevel models. From a practice perspective, diversity-training outcomes research should yield better insights for HRD practitioners and organizational decision makers to help them select diversity-training interventions and evaluate outcomes. From a policy perspective, it may be possible to identify best practice diversity training that help national diversity agencies to realize diversity objectives. We recognize that this review will generate more questions than it answers; however, we believe that it will help scholars to better understand the complexities of researching the outcomes of diversity training in organizational settings.

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Hussain Alhejji, Doctoral Researcher, is with the Kemmy Business School, University of Limerick.

Professor Thomas Garavan, Research Professor - Leadership, is with the Edinburgh Napier Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland.

Dr. Ronan Carbery, Senior Lecturer, is with the Management and Marketing, University College Cork.

Dr. Fergal O'Brien, Senior Lecturer, is with the Kemmy Business School, University of Limerick.

Dr. David McGuire, Reader, is with the Edinburgh Napier Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland.

Corresponding author:

Professor Thomas Garavan, Edinburgh Napier Business School, Edinburgh, Scotland can be contacted at t.garavan@napier.ac.uk

