A**BSTRACT**

The purpose of this paper is to analyze current 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.

**Keywords:** Diversity training in organizations; Theory; Methodology; Business, Social Justice and learning Perspectives.

**INTRODUCTION**

Organizations increasingly have more diverse workforces, thereby underscoring the need 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 to interact with diverse others’ (Bezrukova, Jehn, & Spell, 2012, p.208). Esen (2005) estimated that 67% of US organizations and 74% of Fortune 500 companies invest in diversity training programs. The Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development (CIPD) (2010) found that four fifths of UK organizations integrated diversity training into talent management processes. Diversity training is primarily viewed as a strategic issue for organizations 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 research diversity training in single organizations and single countries and derive their theoretical justification from the 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, on-line and blended approaches (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). These different training designs will inevitably lead to different types and outcomes and potentially explain the inconsistency of outcomes across studies and the lack of evidence of organizational-level outcomes.

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 rational 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). Their perspectives 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 paper 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 paper 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 only included empirical studies that studied diversity training in organizational settings. We included studies that studied a diversity training intervention and excluded those studies that investigated diversity training as part of a bundle of diversity training practices. We included studies that met these criteria published between 1994 and 2014. The research base on diversity training outcomes is fragmented and disjointed and of mixed quality. Researchers have published in many different outlets resulting in a body of literature published in HRD, HRM, Education, Counselling, Psychology, Nursing and Health Care and Organization 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: (a) In what contexts (country, organization and type of training) are diversity training outcomes empirically investigated? (b) What theoretical perspectives and specific theories are used to investigate diversity training outcomes (c) How are diversity-training outcomes investigated (i.e. methodology) (d) What are the results of these investigations in terms of outcomes? We conceptualized outcomes into three categories: learning outcomes that included individual, team and organizational level outcomes; social justice outcome that included equal opportunity, procedural fairness and attitudes towards diversity, and business impacts that included individual, team and organizational performance outcomes. We begin this paper 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 DIVESITY TRAINING: MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES**

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

***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 (Thomas & Ely 1996), its connection with core business priorities (Ortlieb, Sieben, & Sichtmann, 2013), its impact on financial outcomes (Jones et al., 2013), and its emphasis on sustained competitive advantage (Ortlieb & Sieben, 2013). It operates at multiple levels: individual, team and organizational (Alcázar, Fernández, & Gardey, 2013). Individual outcomes include employee performance, the team level, team performance and organizational level outcomes of organizational performance impacts. Ozbilgin et al. (2014) argue, 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 extra role 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 (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 organization to address residual racism, gender exclusion, religion intolerance and homosexuality. Researcher also emphasize the perspective’s concern with challenging exclusion, marginalization and Isolation (Adams, Bell, & Griffin, 1997). Jones et al. (2013) suggested that diversity training should be viewed from an ethical stance. 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 and 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 relevant include a reduction in discrimination and harassment, and more development and job opportunities for minorities (Mor Barak, 2005). Members from majority groups have also reported benefits such as job satisfaction, where unfair practices and harassment is eliminated (Bond & Haynes, 2014). Negative outcomes include more discrimination (Brown, 2004), expensive lawsuits involving employment discrimination issues (Collins, 2011), decreased organizational trust amongst 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. Examples of individual outcomes include improved awareness of bias, enhanced perceptions of procedural and interactional biases, promote justice and reduced bias. Examples of team-level outcomes include increased team functioning and team diversity. Example of 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 Parke (1999) highlighted three characteristic of the learning perspective: (a) similarities and differences are considered as dual aspects of workforce diversity, (b) diversity training can achieve multiple learning outcomes including the development of employee knowledge, skills and attitude, enhanced cultures and innovation, and (c) both short-and long-term learning outcomes. Anand and Winters (2008) emphasized additional characteristic of this perspective including recognition that different viewpoints are a sign of a healthy organizational: both learning and relearning are central to diversity; personal development is a key component of effective diversity and organizational culture has a major role to play in shaping the behavior of employees.

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). These are significant gaps in our understanding of how diversity training enhances of team and organizational learning.

In this SLR we investigate the extent to which there are 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. Figure 1 provides the full list of journals and associated disciplines included in the systematic review. 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 publications for the period 1994-2014. Figure 2 provides a summary of the systematic review process. We describe each element in more detail.

**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 as well as skills to address diversity issues such as unequal treatment, discrimination and prejudice in organizations. We defined the research setting as any organization, be it public or private sector, manufacturing or service, profit or not for profit, small and medium enterprise (SME) or multinational cooperation (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 the following categories of the business and management discipline: Human Resource Management and Employment Studies and Management Development and organization Studies, as the primary sources of the literature search. The second literature source included General Management, Psychology, Public Sector Management, Social Science and Strategic Management. 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’ and ‘training’ and the secondary search term of ‘organization’ and ‘diversity training’. 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 2. 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 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 four hundred papers. When we compared the top twenty-nine items with the sixty-one 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.

We utilized two metrics to assess inter-rater 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 percent, reflecting the lowest (74.6 percent) and the type of organization the highest (98.76 percent). The median percentage of total agreement was 92.65 percent. We utilized the ICC as our second metric to assess inter-rater agreement. The average ICC was 86.5 percent 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.

**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 OB journals; however, these two outlets account for only 14% of the total research output. Other outlets used to publish diversity training outcomes research including nursing, medicine, healthcare and psychology. We found no studies in International Business or Management Journals. The academic conversation on diversity training outcomes is 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 encouraged 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 US, Canada, UK, Australia, Netherlands, Spain and Greece, dominated by the US and Canada (N= 138) followed by the UK (N= 17), Australia (N= *14)*, Greece (N = 8), Netherlands (N = 4), Sweden (N = 3), South Africa (N = 2), Spain (N = 1), Austria (N = 1), Ireland (N = 1), Jamaica (N = 1). One author wrote nineteen percent of the papers, 30% were written by two authors, 30% by 3 authors and 21% were written by four or more authors. One region – US and Canada – dominates the research landscape. A fraction of diversity training outcomes research papers are written by authors located outside of the US and Canada. This may be due to different notions of what constitute 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 is primarily gathered in the USA and Canada. Developed countries account for almost 100% of the data samples generated. Even where articles involved authors from 2 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. When we examined journal ranking using Journal Citation Reports ® from Thomson Reuters, we found that few papers are published in 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 blocks 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/multi-cultural competence theory is applied variously in 30 diversity training outcomes studies. Studies utilizing multi-cultural 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 pre-training 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 towards 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 towards people with intellectual disabilities (Bailey, Barr, & Bunting, 2001), implicit racial prejudices (Costello, Bouras, & Davis, 2007), individual differences and participation in diversity training (Kulik et al., 2007), aging and disability awareness differences (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, 2006). We observed little use of theories commonly found In the HRM, HRD and Organization Behavior 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, semi-structured 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 towards 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 et al., 2004), enhanced tolerance towards 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.

***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 training contribute to sustained competitive advantages. However, a mate-analysis by Kalinoski et al. (2012) found that one third of studies of outcomes demonstrated no outcomes or negative outcomes. We consider this to be 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 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](#_ENREF_63)) specifically investigated the value to an organizational have a diverse groups of employees as a source of power and critically for organizational success. We propose RDT to understand diversity training outcomes because of its emphasize on (a) understanding the resources that diverse employees control and which contribute to organizational success (b) understanding the design and implementation of diversity training policies and practices that help organizations to cope with strategic challenges and opportunities, and (c) its value in explaining the importance of diversity training practices that become legitimized both internally and externally to the organization.

The behavioral perspective (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, & 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 as a framework to understand diversity training outcomes. 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 may 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 can be understood through the application of learning theories. We highlighted four theories: experiential learning theory (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 (Kolb, 1984). Learning as a continual process that emphasizes both gaining and transforming experience. 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 what is learned. A fundamental dimension of the 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 can be used to study diversity-training outcomes (Wiethoff, 2004). This theory 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 towards 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 are transferred 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 impacts 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 the extent of diversity related learning outcomes will be influenced by organizational culture.

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 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? To fully answer these questions, it is necessary to conduct longitudinal studies that allow conclusions to be drawn 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 it is necessary to collect data from both participants and managers. In order to overcome the limitation of using 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 enhanced 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 given access to organizational rather than graduate samples. We acknowledge this is a complex issue because as Guillaume et al. (2013) pointed out 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 UK / US / 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, countries such as China and Russia with authoritarian pasts but with significant ethnic populations, the diversity agenda has not emerged at 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 modelling (SEM), hierarchical linear modelling and approaches appropriate for the multi-level analyses of data. It is important to consider multi-level research designs. Multi-level design help 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 multi-level 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 towards diversity (Hostage & DeMeuse, 2002). Diversity beliefs may therefore influence how individuals respond to diversity training. We need to more fully 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 help 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 (ROI, 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 wil impact a multiplicity of individual, team and organisatinal 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, Bell, & Griffin, 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). Opportunity 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.

It is therefore necessary to both broaden and integrate the perspectives used to research diversity training outcomes. There is value in the business case, learning and social justice perspectives as 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 multi-level 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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**Table1: 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 | US | US | Public | Cultural proficiency |
| **Armour, Rubio and Bain** | 2004 | Journal of Social Work Education | Social Science | US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Bailey, Barr and Bunting** | 2001 | Journal of Intellectual Disability Research | Social Science | UK, UK, UK | UK | Public | Disabilities |
| **Bassey and Melluish** | 2012 | Counselling Psychology Quarterly | Psychology | UK, UK | UK | Public | Cultural competence |
| ***Case (1)*  Bendick, Egan and Lofhjelm** | 2001 | Human Resource Planning | Management | US, US, US | US | Manufacturing | Cultural diversity |
| ***Case (2)* Bendick, Egan and Lofhjelm** | 2001 | Human Resource Planning | Management | US, US, US | US | Family-owned | Anti-discrimination |
| **Bennett (2013)** | 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**](file://C:\Users\Hussain.Alhejji\AppData\Local\Microsoft\Windows\Temporary%20Internet%20Files\Content.Outlook\AppData\Local\Microsoft\Windows\Temporary%20Internet%20Files\AppData\Local\Microsoft\Windows\Temporary%20Internet%20Files\Hussain.Alhejji\AppData\Local\Microsoft\Windows\Temporary%20Internet%20Files\Content.Outlook\HP3VKLT0\new%20version.xlsx#Sheet1!_ENREF_13) | 2005 | Journal of Transcultural Nursing | Medical | Canada | Canada | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Burch** | 2008 | Physical therapy | Medical | US | US | 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 | UK | UK | Public | Ethnic minority |
| **Combs and Luthans** | 2007 | Human Resource Development Quarterly | HRD | US, US | US | Mediumsized & public | Cultural diversity |
| **Cornett-DeVito and McGlone** | 2000 | Criminal Justice Policy Review | Social Science | US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Costello, Bouras and Davis** | 2007 | Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities | Social Science | UK, UK, UK | UK | Public | Mental health |
| **Cunningham** | 2012 | Journal of Sport Management | Management | US | US | Public | Legal understanding and cultural awareness |
| **De Meuse, Hostager and O'Neill** | 2007 | Human Resource Planning | HRM | US, US, US | US | Manufacturing | Cultural diversity |
| **Doorenbos, Lindhorst, Schim, Schaik, Demiris, Wechkin and Curtis** | 2010 | Journal of Social Work in End-Of-Life & Palliative Care | Sociology | US, US, US, US, US, US, US, | US | 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 | UK, UK | UK | Public | Lesbian and Gay |
| ***Case (1)*  Ellis and Sonnenfeld** | 1994 | Human Resource Management | Management | US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| ***Case (2)*  Ellis and Sonnenfeld** | 1994 | Human Resource Management | Management | US, US | US | MNC | Race & gender |
| ***Case (3)*  Ellis and Sonnenfled** | 1994 | Human Resource Management | Management | US, US | US | Family-owned | Cross-cultural training |
| **Ely** | 2004 | Journal of Organizational Behavior | HRM | US | US | MNC | Cultural diversity |
| **Ferguson, Keller, Haley and Quirk** | 2003 | Academic Medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges | Medical | US, US, US, US | US | Mixed public | Culture |
| **Flavin** | 1997 | The American Journal of Hospice & Palliative Medicine | Medical | US | US | Public | Race, LGBT |
| **Gany and Bocanegra** | 1996 | Patient Education and Counseling | Social Science | US, US | US | Public | Diversity sensitivity training & communication skills |
| **Gendron, Maddux, Krinsky, White, Lockeman, Metcalfe and Aggarwal** | 2013 | Educational Gerontology | Social Science | US, US, US, US, US, US, US, | US | Public | LGBT |
| **Hanover and Cellar** | 1998 | Human Resource Development Quarterly | HRD | US, US | US | MNC | Cultural diversity |
| ***Study (1)* Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald** | 2010 | Military Psychology | Psychology | US, US, US | US | SMEs | None given |
| ***Study (2)*  Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald** | 2010 | Military Psychology | Psychology | US, US, US | US | SMEs | None given |
| **Hayes, Bissett, Roget, Padilla, Kohlenberg, Fisher, Masuda, Pistorello, Rye Berry and Niccolls** | 2004 | Behavior Therapy | Psychology | US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US | US | 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 | US, US | US | SMEs | Cultural diversity |
| **Holladay and Quiñones** | 2005 | Human Resource Development Quarterly | HRD | US, US | US | MNC | Cultural diversity |
| **Israel, Harkness, Delucio, Ledbetter and Avellar** | 2013 | Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology | Psychology | US, US, US, US, US | US | Public | Training on LGBT |
| **Jain** | 2013 | Journal of cultural diversity | Management | US | US | Public | Intercultural sensitivity |
| **Johnstone and**  **Kanitsaki** | 2007 | Journal of Transcultural Nursing | Medical | Australia, Australia | Australia | Public | Cultural safety |
| **Juarez, Marvel, Brezinski, Glazner, Towbin and Lawton** | 2006 | Residency Education | Social Science | US, US, US, US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Khanna, Cheyney and Engle** | 2009 | Journal of the National Medical Association | Medical | US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural competence |
| ***Study (1)*  Kulik, Pepper, Roberson and Parker** | 2007 | Journal of Organizational Behavior | HRM | Australia, US, US, UK | UK | Public | Gender |
| ***Study (2)*  Kulik, Pepper, Roberson and Parker** | 2007 | Journal of Organizational Behavior | HRM | Australia, US, US, UK | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Lee, Anderson and Hill** | 2006 | Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing | Medical | US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural sensitivity |
| **Majumdar, Browne, Roberrs and Carpio** | 2004 | Journal of Nursing Scholarship | Medical | Canada, Canada, Canada, Canada | Canada | Public | Diversity sensitivity training |
| **McDougle, Ukockis and Adamshick** | 2010 | Journal of the National Medical association | Medical | Canada, Canada, Canada | Canada | public | Cultural competence |
| **Mooney, Bauman,**  **Westwood, Kelaher, Tibben and Jalaludi** | 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 Coope** | 2008 | Social Science & Medicine | Medical | US, US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural competence |
| **Pfund, House, Spencer, Asquith, Carney, Masters, McGee, Shanedling, Vecchiarelli and Fleming** | 2009 | Clinical and Translational Science | Medical | US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US | US | Mixed public | Mentor training curriculum (communication, cultural awareness & professional development) |
| **Psalti** | 2007 | School Psychology International | Psychology | Greece | Greece | Public | Cultural awareness |
| **Reynolds, Imran and Stacey** | 2014 | International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management | Management | US, US, US | US | Mixed Private | Cultural diversity |
| **Reynolds** | 2010 | Activities, Adaptation & Aging | Medical | US | US | Public | Age, disabilities |
| **Roberson, Kulik and Pepper** | 2001 | Journal of Organizational Behavior | HRM | US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Sanchez and Medkik** | 2004 | Group & Organization Management | Management | US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Schim, Doorenbos and Borse** | 2005 | Journal of Nursing Scholarship | Medical | US, US, US | US | Mixed Public | Cultural competence |
| **Schim, Doorenbos and Borse** | 2006 | American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine | Medical | US, US, US | US | Not for profit | Cultural diversity, awareness, sensitivity, competence |
| **Smith and Bahr** | 2014 | Professional Development in Education | Education | US, US | US | Public | Cultural competence |
| **Stanhope, Solomon, Finley, Pernell-Arnold, Bourjolly and Sands** | 2008 | American Journal of Psychiatric Rehabilitation | Medical | US, US, US, US, US, US | US | Public | Cultural diversity |
| **Thomas and Cohn** | 2006 | Journal of Advanced Nursing | Medical | UK, UK | UK | Public | Race, culture, religion |
| **Tsiantis, Diareme, Dimitrakaki, Kolaitis, Flios, Christogiorgos, Weber, Salvador-Carulla, Hillery and Costello** | 2004 | Journal of Learning Disabilities | Social Science | Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Austria, Spain, Ireland, UK | Greece | Public  Not for profit | Disability  Disability |
| **Vogt, Barry and King** | 2008 | Journal of Health Psychology | Psychology | US, US, US | US | Two Public facilities | Gender awareness |
| **Webb and Sergison** | 2003 | Archives of disease in childhood | Medical | UK, UK | UK | Public | Cultural competence & 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 | US, US, US | US | 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 2: 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. |  |
| **Bendick et al. (2001) - Case 1** | Training design theory | 25-30 per group | Individual | A qualitative study - a case study of US 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 US 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 SCI who are GLBT |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |  |  |
| **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 |
| **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 towards 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 | |  |  |
| **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 s | 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) |  | |  |  |
| **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, Pre-test, post-test | 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. |  |
| **Kulik et al. (2007)- study 1** | Individual differences theory | 420 | Individual | A quantitative study - survey | Participants (police officers and their managers) | Self-report | Post-test 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 | Post-test 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 | Pre-test, post-test | 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, | Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Post-test 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 | Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Pre-test, post-test | Training group | * Pretest (less than one month) * Posttest (end of training) |  | |  | * Enhanced motivation to participate in diversity related events |
| **Pfund et al. (2013)** | Training design theory | 144 | Individual | Mixed method study - survey and reflective writing | Participants (employees) | Self-report | Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Post-test 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 | post-test | 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, Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Pre-test, post-test | 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 - quesi-experimental design and interview | Participants (supervisors and managers) | Self-report, | Repeated measures, Post-test 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, Pre-test, post-test | 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, | Pre-test, post-test | 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 |
| **Stanhope et al. (2008)** | Multicultural theory | 42 | Individual | A qualitative study - interview professionals | Participants (health professionals and person-in-recovery) | Self-Report | Post-test 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, Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Pre-test, post-test | 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) | Post-test 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 semi-structured interview | Participants (social workers) | Self-report, | Pre-test, post-test | 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 | Post-test 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 | Post-test only | Training groups | * Pretest (greater than one month) |  | |  | * Greater organizational commitment to diversity issues |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |  |  |

***Table 3: 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 he 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 multi-level 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. |

**APPENDIX 1**

***Figure 1: List of the full journals and associated disciplined that used for the systemic review***

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 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 |

**APPENDIX 2**

***Figure 2: A Summary of Our Systematic Review Process***

**Setting the Research Objectives:**

* Investigate the outcomes of organizational diversity training programs.

**Defining the Conceptual Boundaries:**

* Defined organizational diversity training programs
* Defined and categorized the outcomes of organizational diversity training programs

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Setting the Inclusion Criteria** | | |
| **Search Boundaries**   * ABS Ranked Journals * Primary and secondary subject areas * Electronic databases | **Search Terms**   * Diversity Training and Organizations * Diversity and Training * Diversity Training Outcomes | **Cover Period**   * From January 1994 to February 2014 |

**Application of Exclusion Criteria**

* Articles that solely focused on organizational diversity training and not on other organizational diversity practices
* Articles that focused on organizational diversity training but not diversity training in educational settings focusing on students

**Validating Research Results**

* An independent literature search on organizational diversity training using Google Scholar was conducted to compare with the above search.

**Independent Data Coding**

Author B

**Independent Data Coding**

Author A

**Validating Data Coding**

* The cross-checking of coding results
* Review of articles for recoding
* Evaluation of inter-rater reliability