Diversity Awareness Training: A Quasi-experimental Evaluation of Changes in Trainees' Attitudes, Knowledge and Skills

Réjane Williams
EBRREJ001
Section of Organisational Psychology, School of Management Studies
Faculty of Commerce
University of Cape Town

Supervisor: Ms S. Goodman

A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements of the Master of Commerce Degree in Organisational Psychology

This work has not been previously submitted in whole or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Signature: signature removed

Date: November 2005/May 2006

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is dedicated to all individuals in the workplace who continue to experience prejudice and discrimination as a result of diversity incompetence for which we have yet to find complete solutions.

My appreciation for support graciously given during this research project and the preparation of this dissertation is extended to:

Brent for always helping me to see the big picture and offering me endless support;
Brent, Rafa'il and Misché for putting up with me and the many, many cups of tea;

All individuals who volunteered to participate in this study;
The organisation and key individuals who facilitated contact, arrangements and activities;

My supervisor, Suki Goodman, for her enthusiasm, critical feedback, patience and constant encouragement;
Susan Malcolm-Smith for taking the mystery out of statistical data analysis;

My parents, in-laws, extended family and Nozakhe for support, long-distance calls and pots of food;
Sorayah for opening and closing windows
Riverside Cottages, Houtbay for a quiet, beautiful space to write, free from life and the world's noise and interference;
Chantal for sharing the anxiety and frustration and for helping to find time to laugh and moments in which to celebrate little victories;

Jeff Bagraim whose critical challenges of Organisational Psychology orthodoxy and quirky sense of humour inspired and saw me through two years.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FIGURES

TABLES

GRAPHS

ABSTRACT

A quasi-experimental evaluation was undertaken to measure the extent to which a 1-day diversity awareness training programme resulted in changes in trainees' attitudes, knowledge and skills. A pre, post and post-post test design was employed. Changes in attitudes, knowledge and skills were measured using the Quick Discrimination Index (Ponterotto, et al., 1995) as well as a Diversity Questionnaire developed by the researcher. Results show that immediately after the training intervention, increased levels of knowledge and skill were measured. However, three months after the training, no significant changes in trainees' attitudes and levels of knowledge and skill were found, leading to the conclusion that the training had no lasting effect. Amongst other things these results offered support for the proposition that factors in the work environment critically contribute to the sustainability of anticipated outcomes of diversity training programmes.

Diversity is of increasing significance worldwide. The introduction to this dissertation briefly outlines the global and specifically, the South African (SA) context which has stimulated this research and proceeds to outline the research objectives.

Globally, the implementation of diversity management and diversity training is stimulated by globalization and the rapidly changing demographics in organizations which is presenting organisations with diversity related challenges (Adler, 1997; Cox & Beale, 1997; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Davidson & Fielden, 2003; DeRosa, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Kersten, 2000; Kirton & Greene, 2002; Maier, 2002; Prasad & Mills, 1997; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). It is also increasingly perceived that globalization is homogenizing global society according to Western socio-economic-cultural norms and values (Alloo, Monteiro, Argemi, Bakari, & Perez, 2003). Organisations will no longer be able to remain immune to people's' and communities' demands that their cultural identity, values and needs are acknowledged and preserved in all spheres of life (Alloo, et al., 2003).

In the South African (SA) context, a similar scenario has unfolded in response to its unique history and circumstances. Since the demise of apartheid, SA has enacted numerous legislative injunctions to support the participation of all its people in its economic, social, political and cultural life. Maier (2002) argues that in order for SA to be economically viable and globally competitive, it has to overcome its history of racial economic and socio-political disparities and the consequences of the systematic marginalisation of the majority of its Black (Black, Coloured and Indian) population. In organizations a central challenge is the integration of previously disadvantaged groups into all levels including senior levels (Maier, 2002). It is argued that while SA has benefited from political and legal transformation in terms of moving towards a society free from all forms of discrimination and inequities, deep social divisions continue on the ground. This view is supported by the media where there have been several reports on the persistence of racism in SA society and in institutions (Kassiem, 2005; Oellermann, 2005; Quintal, 2005; "Racism We're all in trouble," 2005; Smith, 2005). In the SA context, managing diversity and diversity training are seen as mechanisms for addressing the challenges associated with diversity related transformation (Caveleros, Van Vuuren & Visser, 2002; iNCUDISA, 2004, Maier, 2002).

As can be seen form the above, the context for implementing diversity management and diversity training initiatives globally and in SA is informed by organisations' need to address challenges relating to diversity. To enhance effectiveness, organisations are positioning themselves to embrace the possibilities and to neutralize conflict and the negative factors

associated with a diverse workforce (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Koonce, 2001). Diversity training is one of the activities or interventions that organisations are undertaking in order to achieve the broader organisational goals of managing diversity (Caveleros et al., 2002; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Ferdman & Brody, 1996). It is important then to establish the extent to which these training initiatives are contributing to the organisational goals of managing diversity.

While there are mixed opinions on the effectiveness of diversity training, few systematic empirical research studies or appropriate rigorous evaluations with reliable measurement tools, can be found in the literature (Chrobot-Mason and Quiñones, 2002; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Friday & Friday, 2003; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Rynes & Rosen, 1995). In this research it is argued that it is only by rigorously and appropriately evaluating existing diversity training initiatives that we will be able to 1) assess training effectiveness; 2) adapt and improve the training programmes; and 3) appropriately position and maximise possible positive outcomes of training.

Diamante and Giglio (1994) argue that not only have there been no empirical evaluations of training programmes but that the relationship between training and corporate cultural issues has largely been ignored. There is also evidence that uncertainty exists around how to conduct appropriate evaluations (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Chrobot-Mason and Quiñones, 2002; Ferdman & Brody, 1997; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003). Ferdman & Brody (1996) contend that assessments that have been done to date often inappropriately compare activities that vary on a whole range of dimensions. They argue that in the absence of an emerging or definitive consensus on the goals of training, diversity effectiveness should be appropriately measured by directly linking evaluations to the training programme's stated and context specific objectives and criteria. Secondly, they argue that evaluations cannot ignore that diversity training is not, and should not be, an end in itself but is part of a broader organisational diversity management strategy.

Supporting the above, Kraiger, Ford and Salas (1993, p. 311) argue that evaluations can answer either of two questions: 1) whether training objectives were achieved and 2) whether accomplishment of those objectives results in enhanced performance. The former is concerned with learning issues and addresses measurement and design, the accomplishment of learning objectives, and the attainment of the requisite knowledge and skills while the latter seeks to establish transfer of learning and involves measuring the effects of individual, organisational and training–related factors on training outcomes.

The arguments raised above indicate that it is important that an evaluation of training effectiveness differentiates between evaluating specific objectives and criteria as opposed to assessing general progress toward meeting an organisation's strategic objective of managing diversity. This distinction has been absent in many of the empirical evaluations undertaken to date.

In this research it is postulated that diversity awareness training possibly triggers a different consciousness in individuals (learning) but whether it ultimately leads to behavioural changes or organisational impact is mediated by factors in the individual's and organisation's context. An evaluation of diversity awareness training should then primarily, and as a first step, measure learning.

The objective of this research is therefore to evaluate a 1-day diversity training programme implemented by an insurance sector corporate by measuring changes in individuals' attitudes, knowledge and skills. This contributes to determining diversity training effectiveness and better positions researchers and practitioners to make claims about the implementation of diversity training alongside other strategies for managing diversity.

Chapter One presents a literature review which summarises the theoretical domains relating to managing diversity, diversity training and the evaluation of diversity training. Chapters Two and Three respectively details the research method adopted and the results found. This is followed by discussion of the results in Chapter Four. The concluding Chapter Five offers recommendations, a discussion of limitations, further areas of research as well as concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

Outline of the Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to establish a theoretical and methodological context and foundation for undertaking an evaluation of diversity awareness training. To meet this objective, a review of diversity related terminology is undertaken. This is followed by a review of managing diversity literature and conceptualizations of diversity training within this field. Thereafter, approaches to diversity training and the content of diversity training programmes are compared. This is followed by an appraisal of criteria for diversity training effectiveness. Finally, as a basis for establishing best practice for this evaluation study, empirical evaluations of diversity training initiatives as well as models and frameworks for evaluating training are reviewed. However, before embarking on a discussion of the literature reviewed, the approach taken for the literature search and review are commented on.

Approach Taken to Search and Review

Literature dealing with diversity in the United Kingdom (UK), United States of America (USA) and Canada centres on the fact that minorities are discriminated against and marginalised. The SA context is set apart from this to the extent that majorities (Blacks, Coloureds and Indians) were oppressed and discriminated against by means of apartheid and accordingly marginalised. As this evaluation is located in the SA context, an ideal approach to the literature review would have been to locate it within the SA authorship and research. This literature review confirms that limited diversity-related research and authorship has taken place in SA resulting in a reliance on research from other centres (Booysen, 2003, 2001; Cock & Bernstein, 2002; Lessem, 1996; Mbigi & Maree, 1995; Steyn, 1996, 1997 cited in iNCUDISA, 2004). Much of the authorship in SA has centred on exploring the implementation of affirmative action and the Employment Equity Act (De Beer & Botha, 1996; Goga, 2000; Herholdt, 1999; Human, Bluen & Davies, 1999; Nzimande & Sikhosana, 1996; Thomas, 1996; Shubane, 1995). Linda Human (1996), however, does contribute to debates on managing diversity but claims that her contribution is neither overly academic nor theoretical but based on her practical experiences on the African continent.

The reliance on research from other centres cannot be based on an uncritical application and generalisation of research from other countries and may be inappropriate to the SA context (iNCUDISA, 2004) given its fundamental difference in relation to the experience of majorities and minorities. The literature review is presented acknowledging a

reliance on research from foreign academic centres in the absence of a substantial body of SA literature.

Review of Definitions of Diversity & Managing Diversity

Diversity awareness training or diversity training is one of the most popular activities that organisations are undertaking in order to achieve the broader organisational goal of managing diversity (Cavaleros, Van Vuuren, & Visser, 2002; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Maier, 2002; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). The literature dealing with diversity training is generally located within the body of research and writing in the area of managing diversity. It is therefore necessary to begin a review with a discussion of literature in this broader field. The review demonstrates that the academic field of diversity management is characterised by confusion and complexity commencing with varying definitions of diversity and diversity management. This is compounded by the different philosophical underpinnings, motivations for and approaches to undertaking diversity management and diversity training and the lack of rigorous empirical research related to diversity management and training. In an attempt to begin reaching some clarity, an appraisal of terminology and definitions relating to diversity follows.

Defining Diversity

The concept of workplace diversity can be seen to have many different interpretations, connotations and definitions (Cox & Beale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003; DeRosa, 2001; Prasad & Mills, 1997). It is suggested that either a narrow or broad-based view of diversity is used in organizational contexts (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000, Moore, 1999). While the narrow concept of diversity emphasizes race and gender, the broader concept extends managing diversity to less obvious aspects of diversity such as language, background, etc. In the human resource management and development literature it appears that the broader view predominates (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000, Moore, 1999). While definitions do differ many texts do not even attempt cogent definitions. Attempts at defining diversity that are proffered are commented on below.

Diversity is most commonly defined as the extent to which individuals in the workplace differ in terms of an almost boundless list of visible and invisible factors such as race, sex, background, disability, ethnicity, personal habits, values, beliefs and language (Cox & Beale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003, Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998).

In the organisational context diversity is defined as "a mix of people in one social system who have distinctly different, socially relevant group affiliations" (Cox & Beale, 1997, p. 1). Lewis (1996, p. 29) says "Diversity represents the mix of characteristics that makes each person unique. When a business or organization embraces 'diversity awareness' it creates an environment where individual differences are valued and used appropriately." These are broad and inclusive definitions centring on all individual differences.

Ferdman and Brody (1997) state that diversity definitions can employ race, gender and ethnicity (group-based social categorizations), individual lifestyle and job function differences or cultural differences as central concepts depending on the organizations motivations and goals for undertaking diversity related initiatives. It is argued that definitions of diversity will and should vary as practitioners and managers should determine an appropriate definition of diversity that targets relevant areas of focus as well as a prescriptive dosage, based on an assessment of the prevalent organizational culture (Diamante & Giglio, 1994).. This point of view is not supported by all authors and critiques of definitions employed by the orthodox management literature are discussed below.

According to Overmyer Day (1995) a lack of a common definition of diversity is one of the reasons why diversity initiatives fail as organizations do not have a clear idea about what diversity means in practice and specifically for the organization. Similarly, Moore (1999) asserts that diversity is a selective, context dependent and relative concept and that broader definitions and generalized language could deliberately detract from dealing with difficult managerial issues and may divert attention from particular types of diversity that may be of concern.

For Kirton and Greene (2002, p.4) the US and UK management literature do precisely this by tying the term 'diversity' to 'individualistic, utilitarian, instrumental models' in which social groups are conceptualized as 'homogeneous, hermetically sealed units'. They argue for a perspective which views social groups as 'heterogeneous, overlapping and non-fixed'. In this way, issues of social identity that have traditionally been neglected in the equality debates can be drawn out (Kirton & Greene, 2002). While Dale (1997) agrees that diversity should stress difference rather than homogeneity, she says it is not clear which differences are of importance and legitimate, who is to define this and how they are to be treated within the organization.

It is also argued that meanings of diversity vary from diversity entailing proportional representation of demographic and social groups, to addressing cultural prejudice and instilling new values about difference in the organization but that it seldom encapsulates changing the very fabric of work practices based on the cultural influences of different social groups (Prasad & Mills, 1997). DeRosa (2001) agrees and asserts that diversity sometimes

refers to all human differences but mostly, it is used as a euphemism for indirectly discussing people of colour and racism in a depoliticized cultural pluralism approach which avoids directly addressing issues of oppression and racism.

As seen from the above review, there are several points of departure in relation to defining diversity which has implications for how diversity related issues are dealt with. It is apparent that adopting a broad view of diversity does ensure that aspects of diversity which traditionally have not been addressed are brought to the fore. At the same time this could serve to dilute in particular issues related to race, gender and class that may contribute to discrimination embedded in the status quo remaining unchanged. While definitions of diversity are not robust and lack uniformity, there appears to be more agreement about what the term 'managing diversity' entails. Definitions of managing diversity are now reviewed.

Defining Managing Diversity

There is agreement that diversity can and should be managed so that a productive environment is created in which everyone can make an optimal contribution to organisations achieving their goals (Cox & Beale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003; Diamante & Giglio, 1994; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Koonce, 2001; Sue, 1991; Schmidt, 2004; Swanson, 2002). Similar to diversity, there are many definitions for the term managing diversity but there are common elements (Maier, 2002).

A broad definition for managing diversity is that it is the process of creating a productive work environment (by minimizing disadvantages and maximizing advantages of diversity) (Cox & Beale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003). In this environment, all individuals are valued and their talents harnessed so that they perform to their full potential and contribute to the organisation reaching its goals (Cox & Beale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003). Another definition is that diversity management is "the systematic and planned commitment by organizations to recruit, retain, reward, and promote a heterogeneous mix of employees" (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000, p. 75). Similarly, Dale (1997) refers to managing diversity as the deployment and strategic integration of diverse people by line managers to achieve the goals of the business.

Adopting what may be considered to be either a cynical or radical view, she comments that this version leaves no room for challenging the status quo or changing structures and power relations. She points out that there is also an inherent and unresolved conflict which is often not explored. On the one hand, managing diversity promises dignity and respect between individuals and on the other hand it uses the cultural experiences of minority (or marginalised) groups or employees to gain business advantage (Dale, 1997).

This view is echoed by Kirton and Greene (2002, p.5) who claim that managing diversity is a "business-oriented catch phrase for employer-led initiatives designed to value workforce diversity, and which is more concerned with utility than justice." They warn too that managing diversity is a depoliticized mechanism for focusing on nurturing the individual as opposed to social groups to avoid backlash from already advantaged groups or individuals.

The above confirms that diversity and diversity management are not 'innocent terms' (Dale, 1997, p. 92). Instead they are controversial and loaded with different intentions and approaches. This is demonstrated further by the following review of the managing diversity literature.

Review of the Managing Diversity Literature

This review of managing diversity literature does not claim to be an extensive one but provides commentary on three broad trends or themes in the literature with a view to gaining insights into how diversity training literature is located within this broader body of literature. The two themes that predominate in a reading of the literature are that most authors firstly offer arguments and rationales for managing diversity and secondly models or frameworks for managing diversity (Adler, 1997; Arredondo, 1996; Carr-Ruffino, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Rijamampianina & Maxwell). A third theme centres on critical theorizing and empirical research related to diversity management.

Explicating Rationales for Managing Diversity

In relation to the first broad trend, this review shows that there has been a proliferation of writing on managing diversity since the 1990s in response to the changing demographics particularly in Northern American societies (Adler, 1997; Arredondo, 1996; Carr-Ruffino, 1996; Barry & Bateman, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Dale, 1997; Davidson & Fielden, 2003; Diamante & Giglio, 1994; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Kirton & Greene, 2000; Koonce, 2001; Maier, 2002; Montes & Shaw, 2003; Prasad & Mills, 1997; Rijamampianina & Maxwell, 2004; Robinson & Dechant, 1997; Swanson, 2002).

These authors recognise that managing diversity is most often positioned as an organisational business response to globalisation and the demographic changes being experienced by organizations. This informs the main rationale or arguments for managing diversity.

The rationale is that both markets and workforces are becoming increasingly diverse and that effectively managing diversity can enhance organizational performance and yield economic benefits (Diamante & Giglio, 1994; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Koonce, 2001; Prasad & Mills, 1997).

Claims are made that within organizations differences can have negative consequences such as conflict and blocking synergy (Hayles & Russell, 1997); difficulty with converging meanings and actions (Adler, 1997) and lost productivity, absenteeism, turnover, lawsuits (Lunt, 1994; Robinson & Dechant, 1997). However, it is stated that if diversity is managed appropriately it can have positive consequences such as cost savings, winning the competition for talent, business growth; increased creativity and innovation, better problem solving, leadership effectiveness and the building of effective global relations (Robinson & Dechant, 1997). Another claim is that managing diversity can create synergy by allowing organisations to successfully access a larger pool of knowledge, skills and abilities (Hayles & Russell, 1997). Managing diversity is also said to position organizations to better respond to complex problems facing organizations by engaging diverse perspectives and approaches and allowing access to and an understanding of broader markets (Adler, 1997; Prasad & Mills, 1997).

Cox & Beale (1997) support the view that the most pervasive rationale for managing diversity stems from the business and economic imperatives but add that there are moral and ethical reasons as well. The social, moral and ethical rationale for addressing diversity is best explained by Alloo, et al. (2003, p. 212) who say that "the world is characterized by economic imbalance, social inequality, an imbalance of political power, and a cultural hierarchy". Diversity initiatives in this context are seen as a means of preventing homogenization and protecting and recognizing the diversity of all people. The different rationales for implementing diversity management initiatives are not seen as mutually exclusive even by writers who primarily advocate the business argument for diversity initiatives. Often, they do also acknowledge the ethical and moral rationale for implementing diversity initiatives. For example, Hayles & Russell (1997) argue that people are recognizing the interdependence of human beings and that organisational survival is dependent on effective diversity management. Koonce (2001) says that in some organisational contexts the need to challenge 'white male norms' is recognized alongside the business rationale for implementing diversity.

It is important to recognize then that diversity management and diversity training in organisations have arisen out of different imperatives and rationales and will be located within different paradigms depending on the extent to which they are given either a business and economic or a social justice rationale.

Models, Guidelines and Frameworks

This literature review established a second broad trend: - that many writers do offer models, frameworks, guidelines and case studies for managing diversity (Adler, 1997; Arredondo, 1996; Carr-Ruffino, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1997; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Montes & Shaw, 2003; Rijamampianina & Maxwell, 2002). Examples of these follow.

Adler (1997) outlines approaches and strategies for managing diversity which include cultural dominance, accommodation, compromise and synergy. She then provides guidelines for managing diverse teams. Group and organizational development models for managing diversity accompanied by strategy variations are presented by Hayles and Russell (1997). Arredondo (1996) provides guidelines for preparing for, implementing and evaluating diversity management initiatives. In-depth information and guidelines around the people skills required to deal with minorities and marginalised groups are offered by Carr-Ruffino (1996). Gardenswartz & Rowe (1998) provide a detailed desk reference for planning managing diversity initiatives and training programmes which includes activities, worksheets and charts which may be used. Similarly, Cox & Beale (1997) offer readings, cases and activities for developing competency to manage diversity at the individual and the organizational level. In their model for managing diversity in organizations Rijamampianina and Maxwell (2002) suggest that organizational activity should centre on the motivational, interaction and visioning processes within organizations and provide guidelines for how this should be done. 'The Equity Continuum' as a tool for building an integrated diversity management strategy and for assessing the organisation's progress towards managing diversity effectively is presented by Montes & Shaw (2003, p. 392).

Models, guidelines and frameworks for managing diversity are abundant. However, it is alleged that these have no empirical basis and are often adopted uncritically based on anecdotal evidence (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Kersten, 2000; Kirton & Greene, 2000; Maier, 2002, Prasad & Mills, 1997; Rijamampianina and Maxwell, 2002). A review of authorship relating to the lack of critical theorising and empirical research relating to diversity is now presented.

Critical Theorising and Empirical Research

A third trend that emerged in the review of managing diversity literature relates to two broad areas of critique. One centres on assessing critically how managing diversity is positioned and theorized while the second asserts that there is a the lack of empirical research

relating to diversity initiatives. The implications of these critiques extend to diversity training as it is mostly located within the field of managing diversity.

Critical theorising. Prasad & Mills (1997) trace and critique the increased interest in workplace diversity management. They contend that while models, frameworks and guidelines for managing diversity are offered and written about extensively, the field remains under researched and under theorised with the role of academics being merely 'distant cheerleading' as they stress the urgency of managing diversity (Prasad & Mills,1997). Several authors claim that most researchers and practitioners accept the popular views and hype surrounding managing diversity and fail to offer a critical analysis of the positioning and implications of managing diversity (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Kersten, 2000; Kirton & Greene, 2000; Maier, 2002, Prasad & Mills, 1997). However, there has been some movement in this regard with authors presenting critical analyses of diversity management.

Kirton and Greene (2000) trace developments in equality and diversity approaches and critique theory, policy and practice in this area in the UK. Their overall summary is that managing diversity as currently practiced does not challenge the existing status quo or social attitudes in organizations which are gendered, racialised and sexualised with a 'pervasive white, male, non-disabled, aged twenty-five to forty norm (Kirton & Greene, 2000).

Espousing a general critique, Prasad & Mills (1997) contend that contributions in the field have emphasized the cultural and socio-economic advantages of incorporating diverse groups but have failed to examine the difficulties, tensions, conflicts and contradictions involved in managing diversity. Traditionally the focus is on dealing with difference in order to ensure systemic stability within monocultural organisational entities (Prasad & Elmes, 1997; Prasad & Mills, 1997).

Also critiquing popular views of managing diversity, authors such as DeRosa (2001) and Kersten (2000) argue that managing diversity is an attempt in the organisational context to de-politicize issues of racism, sexism, structural disadvantage and oppression in an attempt to dilute the impact of these issues on organisational functioning without attempting to change the status quo. Kersten (2000) argues that 'contemporary diversity management approaches' are simplistic, adopting an inclusive definition of diversity so that difference can be constructively and pleasantly valued and celebrated while assimilation to a Western White norm remains. For her the real issues of racism and other forms of systemic discrimination are largely ignored, minimized or trivialized (Kersten, 2002).

Similarly, in a research project proposal prepared by researchers at iNCUDISA in 2004, the authors differentiate between two approaches. They say that on the one hand, there are approaches to managing diversity that are little more than difference management and, on

the other hand, there are critical diversity interventions that seek to lay the ground for transformative processes which will result in more democratic and equitable modes of operation in organizations (iNCUDISA, 2004). The call is made for managing diversity to be informed by critical diversity theory that focuses on: dissecting axes of difference; power dynamics within institutional culture and interpersonal interactions; tackling issues such as the culture of whiteness; marginalisation; mainstream exclusion; entrenched practices in organisations; and hidden barriers to equity (iNCUDISA, 2004).

Lack of empirical research. On the issue of the lack of empirical research, Maier (2002) argues that the academic world has failed to effectively respond to practitioners' need for a conceptual understanding of diverse groups and a conceptual approach to influencing group processes. He changes the discourse somewhat by suggesting a conceptual framework for leading diversity as opposed to managing diversity (Maier, 2002). Barry & Bateman's (1996) views resonate with Maier (2002). They argue that while there is a great deal of literature on diversity, accounts of the efficacy of diversity initiatives are largely anecdotal and a-theoretical and that "there is a lack of systematic research examining psychological forces and processes that mediate the effectiveness of these initiatives" (Barry & Bateman, 1996, p. 782). Rijamampianina and Maxwell (2002) too state that little empirical literature exists on the dynamics of diverse groups, the effective management of such groups and, for example, the impact of racial diversity on performance of groups. Prasad & Elmes (1997, p. 373) say that a 'managerialist discourse of diversity' has been adopted that fails to take account of "cultural forms, dominant assumptions, and psycho-social processes that shape the construction and enactment of 'otherness'...". Ivancevich & Gilbert (2000) assert that there is a reluctance to address the dilemmas associated with diversity management and that these have no rigorous systematic empirical support in the literature.

In response to critiques of this nature, Thomas and Ely (2001) undertook an empirical study to develop a theory about the conditions under which diversity enhances or detracts from work group effectiveness and functioning with a view to explaining the often mixed results on the relationship between cultural diversity and work group outcomes. They identified three differing perspectives on workforce diversity: the integration-and-learning perspective, the access-and-legitimacy perspective, and the discrimination-and-fairness perspective and argued that only the first provided the necessary basis for sustained benefits from diversity. Clearly, more research of this nature is required.

What has been found in the general review of managing diversity literature is that there is an abundance of literature on making a case for diversity management and proposed models, frameworks and guidelines. However, it was also found that a critical approach and

theorizing and empirical research in support of the claims of the advantages of managing diversity is lacking. These limitations extend to the diversity training literature which in the following section is shown to be located within the management literature. . A review of the literature relating specifically to diversity training is presented.

Review of the Diversity Training Literature

In this review of the diversity training literature, diversity training is located within the management literature and approaches to diversity training and the content of diversity training programmes are reviewed. Next, in an attempt to establish what an evaluation of diversity training should assess, a review of factors impacting the effectiveness of diversity training is presented. Lastly, empirical evaluations of diversity training are examined to assess their value as precedents for this study.

Location of Diversity Training within the Managing Diversity Literature

The literature reveals that managing diversity involves a broad range of activities and initiatives. Diversity training is one of these and is generally located alongside other activities/initiatives that inform managing diversity strategies (Cavaleros et al., 2002; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Hubbard, 2001; Maier, 2002; Sue, 1991).

Hubbard (2001) lists the following as activities that are engaged in when organizations attempt to manage diversity - affirmative action hiring and retention, upward mobility of target groups, assessing the climate for diversity, monitoring employment equity complaints and legal action, ensuring compensation equity, training and development. In contrast, Cox & Beale (1997) while giving attention to many of these activities, place a heavier emphasis on training and development. They assert that a large percentage of people in the organization must first develop awareness and understanding in order to change their own behaviours which they refer to as developing diversity competence at the individual level (Cox & Beale, 1997). This then needs to be supported by engaging in activities or interventions that align the organizational culture, policies, and structure supporting learning and new behaviours (Cox & Beale (1997).

Similarly, Gardenswartz & Rowe (1998) combine activities directed at creating awareness, understanding and behaviour change with strategies for diversity cognisant recruitment, performance appraisals and organizational culture. Likewise, Sue (1991) suggests that organizational interventions and diversity training go hand in hand and she

presents a model for diversity assessment and training that targets training and other interventions in three main areas: - a functional focus (promotion, retention, and recruitment); barriers (differences, discrimination, and systemic) and competencies (beliefs/attitudes, skills and knowledge). Sanchez and Medkik (2004) also see diversity training as needing to compliment other managing diversity initiatives but say that the ultimate objective of diversity training is to capitalize on the strengths of the diverse workforce, diminish the likelihood of litigation, reduce interpersonal conflict and stress and remedy the effects of past discrimination.

Discussions of diversity training in the literature, therefore seldom stand apart from general discussions about managing diversity. Diversity training is almost always seen as an activity that is linked to the broader organizational goal or strategy of managing diversity and is very often seen as a first step in this process

Approaches to Diversity Training

Approaches to diversity training vary widely (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Arai, Wanca-Thibault & Shockley Zalabak, 2001; De Rosa, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996, iNCUDISA, 2004). Ferdman and Brody (1996) state that the variation in approach is informed by a range of factors including differences in conceptual frameworks, philosophies and orientation, motivation, goals and strategies and implementation techniques. Arai, et al. (2001) categorises diversity into 11 approaches:- Ethnic, black or feminist studies; psychotherapeutic approaches, sensitivity training, dissonance creation, cultural awareness training, legal awareness training, introduction to diversity, in-depth-focused awareness development, skill building workshops, workshops addressing sexual and other forms of harassment and lastly, integrated diversity training. Clearly, reviewing the literature to investigate how forms of training vary is a separate but necessary exercise.

For ease of reference diversity training can be said to be fall broadly into the categories of soft or hard approaches which are aligned with the differing approaches and philosophies underlying managing diversity.

Hickman & Woo (1997, p. 4) (cited in Aguilar & Woo, 2002, p. 67) differentiate between 'feel good', "I'm okay, you're OK' or 'we can all get along' approaches which are inadequate and create little change as apposed to those that 'address the hard issues of acknowledging power differentials and systems of privilege as sources of oppression'. Similarly, Jackson & Hardiman (1994) and Morrison et al (1993) (cited in Ferdman & Brody, 1996) say that an overarching differentiation that sets diversity initiatives apart can be said to be the extent to which they adopt a social diversity as apposed to a social justice approach.

Ferdman & Brody (1996) continue that the difference between these two is that the first attempts to focus on culture and individual difference by minimizing it while the second focuses on the need to actively work against discrimination and reduce systemic oppression by dealing with these issues head-on.

DeRosa (2001, p. 1) argues that diversity training is most often used to discuss "a de-politicized kind of cultural pluralism which avoids addressing the more difficult topics of racism and oppression directly". She has classified diversity training into six basic approaches each with its own ideological and philosophical basis as Intercultural, Legal Compliance, Managing Diversity, Prejudice Reduction, Valuing Difference and Anti-racism training. The critique that managing diversity fails to address issues pertaining to the status quo defined by structural inequity, race, ethnicity and gender discrimination in organisations can be seen to be applied to soft approaches to diversity training (iNCUDISA, 2004; Kersten, 2000).

The above indicates that approaches to diversity training are informed by different philosophical orientations and beliefs around what purpose diversity training should ultimately serve. This results in the two broad approaches which can be referred to as either 'soft' and 'hard' approaches or 'social diversity' and "social justice' approaches to diversity training. The literature review now addresses the extent to which these differing approaches inform the content of diversity training.

The Content of Diversity Training

While there are philosophical differences with regard to how diversity training should be approached, there is still a level of similarity or conformity with regard to the theoretical underpinnings and content of diversity training courses. Key discussions in the literature of theoretical underpinnings are presented followed by a general discussion of the content of training courses.

Theoretical underpinnings. There is a well-established body of literature that focuses on the social psychology of prejudice and inter-group conflict (Barry & Bateman, 1996) which this review has not examined. Instead this review has focussed on the extent to which theory (and, which theory) has been integrated into the diversity training literature. It was found that some authors make reference to social, ethnic or group identity models (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Elmes & Connelley, 1997; 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Lindsay, 1994; Ramsey, 1996; Sanchez and Medkik, 2004). For example, Hayles & Russell outlines several models such as - the Bennet model; Mendez-Russell model; and the Black Identity Transformation model – which can be used in bringing about attitude change. Several authors argue that these models and the processes they outline are very often not clearly linked to the practice of

diversity training or the scholarship on diversity training (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Diamante & Giglio, 1994; Elmes & Connelley, 1997; Lindsay, 1994; Ramsey, 1996). Elmes & Connelley (1997) point out that diversity issues cannot continue to be viewed independently of inter-group dynamics and that further research is required so that we better understand the interplay between social identification processes and the practical dilemmas associated with diversity. This literature found that such attempts have been made. Three authors who specifically call for and apply identity theory to diversity training were encountered in the review (Lindsay, 1994; Ramsey, 1996; Tatum, 1992). Doverspike, Taylor & Arthur Jr. (1999) also undertook an analysis of psychological theoretical perspectives as they relate to affirmative action.

However, the overwhelming finding of this review was that theoretical underpinnings are seldom made explicit in the literature dealing with diversity training. Implicit in most authorship is the assumption that diversity training changes attitudes which in turn results in changes in behaviour and organisational change (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Arai, et al, 2001; Beaver, 1995; Diamante & Giglio, 1994; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Lazarus, Stewart & Peal, 2001; Lunt, 1994; McLaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991; Tan, Morris & Romero, 2003; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). Examples of attempts to explicate theoretical underpinnings found in the literature are presented.

Hayles & Russell (1997) are amongst a few authors in this body of literature who attempt a cogent argument around what diversity training sets out to do at the individual, group and organisational level. They argue that as individuals learn more about people who are different, they appropriately change their behaviour and eventually experience a change of heart and develop authentic relationships with people who are different. This results in more effective and productive group work relations. They acknowledge that the debate about whether behaviour or attitude change comes first is ongoing and argue that while behaviour change can come more quickly a concomitant change in attitude is also required for the new behaviour to be sincere (Hayles & Russell, 1997). They, therefore recommend that diversity training be embarked upon alongside various other initiatives (such as needs assessments, team building, human resource systems reviews, reviews of vision, policies and plans) and at various stages during the implementation of managing diversity initiatives. Hayles and Russell (1997) suggest that in the early stages introductory awareness raising sessions be held followed later by sessions to help individuals undertake personal work in which they explore their own knowledge, behaviour, feelings, attitudes and emotions about specific diversity issues. In advanced stages of implementation the focus should shift to skill-oriented training

which addresses issues such as race, gender, disability, cross-functional teaming, work style diversity and intercultural marketing.

In attempting to explicate theoretical underpinnings of diversity management, Cox and Beale (1997) put forward a diversity competency model which suggests that there are three phases to achieving competency in dealing effectively with diversity. They express the view that by creating awareness and the motivation to change (phase 1) as well as generating understanding and a knowledge base about changes required (phase 2) individuals can be positioned to change behaviour in the workplace (phase 3) (Cox and Beale, 1997).

Similarly, Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones (2003) see diversity training as including three stages and goals – 1) Focusing on knowledge outcomes and increased awareness; 2) Practicing new ways of communicating with dissimilar others and being able to deal with diversity conflict; and 3) Contributing to a new more effective work environment.

Sanchez and Medkik (2004) explicate the mechanisms through which diversity awareness training attempts to positively change behaviour. They use dual process theories of social cognition to explain that early on individuals are socialized to categorise individuals according to social categories such as ethnicity, gender, and age which engender stereotypes and potentially biased behaviour towards individuals. Diversity training attempts to heighten awareness of potentially biasing categorisations and attempts to overcome the immediate and often thoughtless cognitive, affective and behavioural correlates with the view to changing behaviour towards culturally different individuals (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

While the larger body of literature offers little in relation to the theoretical underpinnings of diversity training, some authors to attempt to make this explicit. In the section of the review that follows, it is shown that many authors express the view that diversity training involves some level of providing knowledge and information, increasing levels of awareness and understanding and developing skills to increase diversity competence.

Providing knowledge and information. Firstly, Ferdman and Brody (1996), claim that most if not all diversity training attempts to provide individuals with knowledge about why it is necessary to address diversity in the workplace by sharing knowledge about legislation and organisational policies that support diversity. Secondly, diversity training programmes include opportunities to define and generate a common understanding and knowledge of key diversity concepts such as stereotyping, prejudice, discrimination, oppression, racism, and sexism (Adams, Bell & Griffin, 1997; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996). Thirdly, opportunities for exploring one's own and other's cultures, values, experiences, worldviews, social norms and difference and their impact on current realities is

another form of knowledge generation in diversity training programmes (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox and Beale, 1997; Sue, 1991; Tatum, 1992). Creating knowledge appears to be an intermediate goal which is expected to contribute to positive changes in trainees' behaviour in relation to culturally different individuals (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

Increasing awareness and understanding. The literature review shows that besides sharing knowledge and information, diversity training also attempts to bring about attitudinal change and increasing awareness and understanding (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Arai, et al, 2001; Cox & Beale, 1997; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Lazarus Stewart & Peal, 2001; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991; Tan et al., 2003; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). This is sometimes achieved by providing individuals with a model or framework for exploring group identity and group formation dynamics as well as models for understanding oppression and discrimination (Adams, et al, 1997; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Barry & Bateman, 1996; Lindsay, 1994; Ramsey, 1996; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004; Tatum, 1992). These models provide a basis on which individuals are challenged to become self-aware and open to multiple perspectives (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Tatum, 1992) so that they can examine their underlying beliefs, assumptions, stereotypes and the nature of prejudice and oppression. (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Sue, 1991).

Developing skills. Training that attempts to bring about behavioural change and skills development is often primarily delivered to managers (Ferdman & Brody, 1996 citing Wheeler, 1994). The emphasis is on building skills and changing behaviours for more effective communication, mentoring and partnering across difference, dealing with conflict and being more flexible and adaptable (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Sue, 1991). Behavioural change is also encouraged so that individuals can act as change agents who can speak out against and challenge discrimination and prejudice, foster awareness in others and act on opportunities to remove barriers to effective diversity management. (Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Sue, 1991; Tatum, 1992).

From the above it is evident that diversity training is focused on bringing about attitudinal change by providing knowledge, creating awareness and understanding and by offering specific skills training. However, the links between this activity and changes in behaviour and transferral to the workplace are less clearly articulated. If the former is the primary focus of diversity training, then this leads the researcher to the conclusion that measuring changes in attitudes, knowledge and skills must be a focus of an evaluation of

diversity training. A further review of the literature enabled clarification around the expected goals and outcomes of diversity training.

Expected Goals and Outcomes of Diversity Training

While there is extensive commentary in the literature on challenges to the effectiveness of diversity training (discussed below), fewer authors are able to clearly articulate what the goals and outcomes of diversity training should be. Aguilar and Woo's (2000, p. 69) perceptions, based on their experience of running workshops, are that diversity training has achieved its goals when individuals 1) leave training "with a greater understanding and commitment to work across differences"; 2) are more reflective about both their own privilege and pain; and 3) feel supported and better able to integrate diversity work in their team processes.

Ferdman and Brody (1996) recognize that there is no emerging consensus regarding the goals of training and how its effectiveness should be assessed. He accounts for this by arguing that the definition of effectiveness will be closely linked to an organization's reasons for undertaking training and therefore training effectiveness can only be evaluated in the context of specified objectives and criteria. The view that the outcomes of diversity training will be organisation and context specific is supported by Diamante & Giglio (1994) and Moore (1999).

This indicates to the researcher that the evaluation has to be directly linked to the goals and objectives specified by and encapsulated in the particular training programme that is to be evaluated. To offer further insights about structuring an evaluation, a review of factors associated with diversity training effectiveness and examples of diversity training evaluations were reviewed.

Factors Associated with Diversity Training Effectiveness

A useful categorization of the challenges to training effectiveness was found to be Rynes and Rosen's (1995) classification of factors into 1) variables associated with the training itself and 2) those associated with an environment supportive of and sustaining learning and training transfer. This categorization provided a framework for this assessment and synopsis of the literature addressing challenges to training effectiveness.

Factors associated with the training itself. In their exploration of perceptions of factors associated with training itself, Rynes and Rosen's (1995) hypothesized and upheld that training will be more successful if a) a larger proportion of the budget is associated with it; b)

training is sufficiently long; c) a more comprehensive range of topics is dealt with in greater depth; and d) both immediate and long-term evaluations are conducted. These in addition to factors raised by other authors are presented below.

Duration and a more comprehensive range of topics and greater depth. It was found that the duration, range and depth of training are often connected. Commenting on length of training, Ferdman & Brody (1996) express the view that organizations that see diversity training as part of a longer-term process linked to personal growth and organizational change will have more intensive training over more days with a minimum of two days, but extending to a total of 15 days over a period of time. This they claim ensures that skills and competence are built as well (Ferdman & Brody, 1996).

Similarly, Arai, et al. (2001) contrasts training that is individually motivated with systems motivated training. Individually motivated training they claim is easily and inexpensively delivered, acknowledges difference and creates awareness and empathy but does little to build skills or create any long-term change (Arai, et al., 2001). On the other hand, issues of dominance, difference and underlying discrimination that are rooted in the culture of the organization are addressed in a systems approach to diversity that seeks to create awareness and challenge the traditional power dynamics in the organization (Arai, et al., 2001). They note that this type of training is associated with significant discomfort and resistance on the part of the dominant group (Arai, et al., 2001). These views raise a commonly cited threat to diversity training - the phenomenon of backlash and resistance (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Lindsay, 1994; Mobley & Payne, 1992).

Here the criticism is that diversity training heightens group differences making prejudice and stereotypes more salient and group cohesiveness more difficult (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002). Often white males feel overexposed, targeted, blamed, threatened and guilty (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Lindsay, 1994; Mobley & Payne, 1992; Moore, 1999). The backlash effect is also attributed to the fact that diversity training deals with issues that were previously 'undiscussable', creating fear and an intense emotional experience as trainees are asked to critically examine deep-seated assumptions and behaviours (Lindsay, 1994). Moore (1999) comments that as organizations continue to desire social certainty, there is an unspoken and even unconscious drive to maintain the traditional demographics and to accept diversity in only the shallowest and most tokenistic terms – making organisations overtly or covertly diversity hostile. While diversity training attempts to heighten awareness, dominant group norms may apply more powerful pressures on individuals to conform and behave in certain ways (Moore, 1999). Failure of diversity training interventions to address

negative attitudes and problematic diversity issues are left unmentioned and unmanaged resulting in resistance (Moore, 1999). It becomes evident that Rynes & Rosen's (1995) assertions around the duration and intensity of training are important considerations in ensuring that sufficient time is allocated and that issues are dealt with in sufficient depth to allow individuals to contemplate and engage in changed behaviour with the necessary support and so preventing backlash.

An argument for countering the backlash effect, is that the concept of diversity has to be broadened to include white males as a diverse group and as trainers (Mobley & Payne, 1992). To prevent backlash and resistance, Lindsay (1994) and Hayles and Russell (1997) suggests that appropriate identity models be used to facilitate individual understanding. Adopting a relevant and workable model for dealing with difference is a very necessary ingredient for a successful diversity training initiative.

There appears therefore also to be a connection between on the one hand, how an organization defines diversity and what it sets as objectives for a diversity intervention and on the other hand, the duration and intensity of an intervention.

Factors associated with the environment. Rynes & Rosen (1995) hypothesized that diversity training will be more successful if the following environmental factors are in place a) a broad definition rather than one that includes only race gender and ethnicity is adopted by the organization; b) top management explicitly and actively supports diversity; c) diversity supportive programmes and policies are implemented; d) managers are rewarded for improving diversity outcomes. This is based on the argument that learning transfer and training benefits are only achieved when the environment is supportive.

Other parameters for diversity effectiveness listed by Ferdman and Brody (1996) are that organizations: are committed to inclusion and making diversity part of the organizational culture; are specific and clear about what they seek to accomplish with diversity training; integrate diversity into management systems, policies, and practices; link diversity training with the business strategy; ensure top management support; and that managers are held accountable once training is over.

Moore (1999) also offers support for the idea that diversity training has to be implemented in a 'diversity-supportive' environment which she says is evidenced by having in place support policies specifically addressing challenges faced by marginalized groups; recognizing the different lifestyles of a-typical individuals and by ensuring the development of networks, mentors and role-models for diverse group members.

Agreeing that training alone will not contribute to organizational changes, Arai, et al (2001) in their review of successful diversity initiatives cite the following as key factors for success: that change is part of an overall strategy which includes defining goals, measuring and assessing change, engaging in skills training; accountability and top management involvement and support, and creating an atmosphere of inclusion, fairness, openness and empowerment to support the diversity initiative.

There are authors who support the idea that effective diversity training can be achieved if the intervention is preceded by a thorough organizational analysis or audit to ensure that the diversity training intervention is appropriately responsive to the organizations unique challenges (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Diamante & Giglio 1994; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Moore, 1999; Montes & Shaw, 2003).

This raises obvious concerns about training programmes that are not positioned as part of a broader organisational strategy for achieving effective diversity management and illuminates many of the supporting factors in the environment that can ensure diversity training effectiveness. Having gained an understanding of factors that facilitate training effectiveness, a review of empirical evaluations of diversity training was undertaken to examine how researchers approached the evaluation of diversity training. This is presented in the section that follows.

Empirical Evaluations of Diversity Training

The paucity of empirical research evaluating the effectiveness of diversity training is noted in the literature (Arai, et al., 2001; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). In the SA context, iNCUDISA (2004) claims that little research has been done on different approaches and the successes and failures of training interventions. As found in this literature review, they report that isolated studies (mostly graduate theses) focusing on the success of interventions at specific institutions, have been undertaken and that these still need to be analysed and assessed (iNCUDISA, 2004). In this literature search, a limited number of empirical evaluations of diversity training workshops, programmes or courses were found. The focus and limitations of those found are examined below.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of a diversity awareness training programme in SA.

Cavaleros, et al., (2002) evaluated the impact of a two-day workshop on diversity awareness by measuring 11 organisational dimensions that are impacted by diversity awareness. These broad range of factors included awareness of self, impact of difference,

performance management, career development, teamwork, work-family needs, participation, organizational culture, relationship building and general satisfaction with the organisation. They found no significant effect of the diversity awareness training programme one month after the training. They strongly argue that unless diversity training is handled and managed as a change initiative, it will not produce the desired positive results and that training as a single-dimension approach cannot address structures and systems that impact diversity (Cavaleros, et al., 2002). They assert that individuals in the organization harbour perceptions of each other and the organization which lead to feelings of resentment, mistrust, anger, frustration and helplessness which need to be addressed directly if diversity initiatives are to work.

This study begs the question whether it is feasible to expect changes in such a broad range of organizational dimensions one month after training. It is noted too that many of the dimensions are mediated and affected by factors other than diversity training. Cavaleros, et al., (2002) acknowledge that based on cognitive theory, cognitive change is needed if behavioural changes are to occur. This demonstrates the need to have mechanisms in place that first measure whether training in fact brings about these cognitive changes before measuring the impact of training on organisational dimensions.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of a stereotype reduction workshop in SA. Kamfer and Venter (1993) measured the impact of a stereotype reduction workshop on an experimental and control group using a scale designed to measure constructs related to the aims of the workshop. They found that the post-test scores for the experimental group were significantly higher than for the control group but only at the 90% confidence level and that the experimental group produced significantly fewer negative stereotypes than the control group. Reported limitations and shortcomings of their study included that a larger sample, a more refined scale for measuring concepts underlying the workshop as well as an assessment of the permanence of the change is required. They advocated a fuller multi-method programme evaluation approach (Kamfer & Venter, 1993).

Of note in this study is the attempt to directly isolate and measure the aims of the workshop as opposed to later behaviours or impacts on organizational dimensions.

Evaluation of the effects of diversity awareness training on differential treatment. In a quasi-experimental design, Sanchez and Medkik (2004) explored whether the attendance of 125 managers and supervisors at a one day cultural diversity awareness training programme reduced differential treatment of co-workers. Based on co-workers ratings of behaviour in the

workplace, they found that diversity training did not result in decreased differential treatment of others. They found that non-white co-workers who attended the training and experienced raised knowledge of social perception biases rated supervisors and managers higher in terms of differential treatment. They attributed this negative finding to several factors. Firstly, they claimed that "negative reactions were not a result of the training program per se but a by-product of unclear communications regarding the selection of trainees" (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). Trainees resented being selected for the training programme and this resulted in punitive and unfriendly attitudes to those perceived to be responsible for the trainees' attendance on the course. Secondly, the behavioural effects of the diversity training was measured one year after of the training and so the study could not account for the evolution of training effects pointing to a need for time-series designs. Sanchez and Medkik (2004) suggest that training sessions need to be part of a more holistic approach to diversity interventions which includes pre and post-training management practices and particularly post-training coaching.

While Sanchez & Medkik (2004) confirmed that a one-day diversity awareness training programme does not bring about positive shifts in behaviour a year later, what the study failed to explore is the immediate effect of training on attitudes, knowledge and skills relating to diversity. By the authors' own admission, diversity management is a continuous process (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004) and this study does not measure whether diversity training renders an immediate effect which if appropriately managed can result in longer term positive effects.

Evaluation of a cultural sensitivity programme. Majumdar, Keystone and Cuttress (1999) also recognized the need to measure underlying concepts in relation to their evaluation of a cultural sensitivity training programme. They engaged in a pre-test-post-test design with an experimental and control group and used the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory to assess four dimensions: Emotional Resilience, Flexibility/Openness, Perceptual Acuity and Personal Autonomy (Majumdar, et al., 1999). It was expected that the experimental group would as a result of training experience positive shifts in these dimensions which would in turn result in greater cultural sensitivity. They found significant differences between experimental and control groups on three dimensions, with experimental groups showing improvement in emotional resilience, flexibility/openness and perceptual acuity control groups (Majumdar, et al., 1999).

Evaluation of diversity training intervention for social work field instructors. In an evaluation study of diversity training for field instructors, Peterson Armour, Rubio and Bain (2004) evaluated training that was delivered over a six month period with three-hour sessions each undertaken a month apart. They found that the development of self-awareness, knowledge and skills for effective practice in relation to diverse groups resulted in more culturally competent behaviours by instructors.

As can be seen from the above review, findings of evaluations of diversity training vary. The bearing that these studies have on this research study is that they raise important issues around what is being measured, how it is measured and when it is measured. They indicate the importance of measuring the proximate outcomes of training as a first step and then attempting to measure transfer of learning.

Having found few examples of empirical diversity training evaluations, this literature review had to deviate from the focus on diversity and managing diversity to a short review of the training evaluation and evaluation research literatures for specific methods and guidelines for undertaking an evaluation of training. This is presented as an excursus which is followed by a brief summation of the literature review.

Excursus: Rationale for an Evaluation Research/ Programme Evaluation Approach

This section of the literature review is labelled an excursus as it digresses from the literature reviews' focus on diversity management and training. As decisions had to be made about the best approach for evaluating diversity training, an extended exposition of what informed this is required. This section provides a bridge to the discussion and presentation of the method used in this study.

The review of the diversity literature shows that there are few guidelines and precedents for undertaking a diversity training evaluation. A reading of the training evaluation and evaluation research literature was required to establish an appropriate method and design for the evaluation and not to provide comprehensive review of the training evaluation and evaluation research literatures. A rationale for the method and design is presented in the findings of this review and highlights how each body of literature informed decisions about an appropriate research design. These findings are presented in the discussion that follows.

Two appropriate but separate bodies of literature were identified that offered information and guidelines for the development of a research method for this study – training evaluation and evaluation research or programme evaluation literature (Evaluation research

and programme evaluation are often used interchangeably in the literature (Babbie & Mouton, 2002)). The former focuses on the evaluation of training in an organizational environment while the latter looks more broadly at the evaluation of social intervention programmes. Limitations and insights from both areas are commented on below.

Commentary on Training Evaluation and Evaluation Research Literature

Training evaluation is typically defined as "the systematic collection of descriptive and judgmental information necessary to make effective training decisions related to the selection, adoption, value, and modification of various instructional activities." (Goldstein, 1993).

This researcher is supported by several authors in her conclusion that Kirkpatrick's four stage model of evaluation is the most widely known and commonly used by trainees (Foxon, 1989; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003; Sloman, 2004). While the Kirkpatrick model offered invaluable insights for this study, it was deemed inappropriate. Reasons for this are offered below.

Kirkpatrick's model (1994) proposes an evaluation of training at four levels: participants' reactions to training, participant learning, behavioural change and the results and impact of training on the organisation's efficiency and effectiveness. Kirkpatrick proposes that evaluations of training should be undertaken sequentially through levels 1-4 with effectiveness being established at each level before progressing to the next.

Critiques of Kirkpatrick's model state that it is a heuristic device or 'taxonomy of learning outcomes', is not theoretically based and that it lacks the rigor of a true scientific model (Kraiger, 2002; Kraiger, et al., 1993; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003). Bernthal (1995, p.42) says that Kirkpatrick's model 'implies that conducting an evaluation is a standardized, pre-packaged process' and argues instead that the objectives of the training as well as the needs and resources available should determine what is evaluated and how an evaluation is conducted. Kraiger (2002) adds that Kirkpatrick's framework does not take account of the purposes of evaluations and that under certain circumstances it will only be appropriate to apply certain of Kirkpatrick's levels and not others.

Ferdman & Brody (1996) contend that assessments that have been done to date often inappropriately compare activities that vary on a whole range of dimensions. They argue further that diversity effectiveness should be appropriately measured by taking into account that, firstly, in the absence of an emerging or definitive consensus on the goals of training, an evaluation must be directly linked to the training programmes stated and context specific objectives and criteria. Secondly, they argue that evaluations cannot ignore that diversity

training is not, and should not be, an end in itself but is part of a broader organisational diversity management strategy.

Kraiger, et al., (1993) also argue that evaluations can answer either of two questions: 1) whether training objectives were achieved and 2) whether accomplishment of those objectives results in enhanced performance. The former is concerned with learning issues and addresses issues of measurement and design, the accomplishment of learning objectives, and the attainment of the requisite knowledge and skills while the latter seeks to establish transfer of learning and involves measuring the effects of individual, organisational and training–related factors on training outcomes.

Holly and Rainbird (2000) support this view and state that an effective evaluation is one that is designed for a specific purpose with easily identifiable and measurable outcomes. Their views also talk to the criticism of Kirkpatrick's model that succeeding levels are caused by previous ones. They argue that individuals may learn on courses but that acting on what is learnt and the actual transfer of learning is dependent on the environmental context which may enable or prevent practice of what is learnt (Holly & Rainbird, 2000). For them, measurement must take account of the interplay between learning outcomes, the 'complex interrelationships between particular strategies' within an organisation and other contextual factors (Holly & Rainbird, 2000). Abernathy (1999) concurs and argues that especially in the case of soft-skills training, there are too many variables that can impact behaviour and performance other than the training itself. She says that measurement must take account of psychological and sociological complexity by measuring tangible and intangible and short and long-term results. She concludes that conclusively establishing the impact of training on the bottom line (level4) is not the ultimate purpose of all evaluations.

Building on the above ideas, it can be said that an evaluation of training effectiveness must differentiate between evaluating specific objectives and criteria as opposed to assessing general progress toward meeting an organisation's strategic objective of managing diversity. In this study it is postulated that diversity awareness training possibly triggers a different consciousness in individuals (learning) but whether it ultimately leads to behavioural changes or organisational impact is mediated by factors in the individual's and organisation's context.

This evaluation then primarily, and as a first step, measures learning (changes in attitudes, awareness, knowledge and skills) with a more limited focus on behaviour change. Kraiger, et al., (1993), in making refinements to Kirkpatrick's model, identified and added three additional criteria that can be used to measure learning namely, cognitive, affective and skill-based outcomes. There views have influenced this study. It is also noted that according to Kirkpatrick's model, this study will primarily be focused at level 2 but will also incorporate

aspects of level 1 and 3 evaluations. No attempt is made to measure the results and impact on organisational effectiveness of the training (level 4).

Another critique of Kirkpatrick's model is that while it indicates what outcomes (reaction, learning, behaviour or results) to assess and guidelines in terms of techniques for measuring them, it provides limited direction in terms of planning and the steps for designing an evaluation. Quiñones & Tonidandel (2003, p. 228) present a five-step model of training evaluation which points to the importance of 'identifying training objectives, developing evaluation criteria, selecting an evaluation design, analyzing change data and performing a utility analysis' as the key steps in conducting a successful evaluation.

While Kirkpatrick (1994), Kraiger (2002) and Quiñones & Tonidandel (2003) offer critical insights in terms of training evaluation from the perspective of organisational practitioners' needs, their contributions do not directly address the issue of evaluation as an academic endeavour. Here the literature on evaluation research offered critical information on methodologies for evaluation more suited to the purpose of academic research.

Michalski & Cousins (200, p. 37) argue that the "training evaluation and program evaluation literatures have developed largely in parallel, with few points of intersection". The divergence is observable, however, when the definition of evaluation research/ programme evaluation is examined. With regard to programme evaluation, Rossi, Freeman & Lipsey (1994, p. 4) define it as 'the use of social research procedures to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs' where effectiveness is determined by an assessment of the conceptualization, design, implementation and utility of a programme. Babbie & Mouton (2002, p. 335) remark that evaluation research is 'that field of (applied) social science which utilizes the whole range of social science methods in assessing or evaluating social intervention programmes'. What sets these definitions apart from those found in the training evaluation literature is their emphasis on the systematic application of social research procedures, method and design, valid and reliable tools, and on data that is consistently and systematically recorded and analysed (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Potter, Ley, Fertman, Eggleston, & Duman, 2003).

Both Rossi et al., (1999) and Babbie & Mouton (2002) argue that the purpose of the evaluation and the questions it attempts to answer give rise to specific types (conceptual and methodological) frameworks for evaluation research. They are in accord about three of four types and respectively refer to them as: needs assessment (an evaluation of need); assessment of programme process (evaluation of process); impact assessment/impact or outcome evaluation (evaluation of outcome); and efficiency assessment (evaluation of efficiency). Rossi et al. (1999) adds assessment of program theory as another type. While Babbie &

Mouton (2002) essentially present the types as discrete options from which an evaluator can choose depending on the purpose and timing of the evaluation, Rossi et al. (1999) make a strong case for a logic in the relationships among various programme issues. They suggest adopting a sequential approach of first undertaking a needs assessment followed by an assessment of programme theory and process. In this way outcome evaluations and efficiency assessments are strengthened. By implication they suggest that all evaluations will have elements of these.

Based on the above, it can be observed that evaluating the effectiveness of a diversity awareness training programme to measure the changes in attitudes, knowledge, skills and behaviours falls within the category of outcome evaluation where the focus is on measuring intended and unintended outcomes of a programme (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). Because of its focus on applying social science methods and its discussion of evaluation purposes, approaches, designs and methods, evaluation research offers the academic evaluator/researcher more appropriate direction and guidelines for undertaking a study than the training evaluation literature. The application of the principles and methodology associated with evaluation research guided the method and design of this study and are described in the method chapter which follows the summation of the literature review.

Summary

The literature review draws attention to many areas in which academia can play a role in providing clarity and a way forward. Firstly, it was found that definitions of diversity and approaches to diversity management and diversity training are underpinned by different philosophical stances which inform different approaches to and goals for diversity management and diversity training. This causes confusion around what diversity management and diversity training is meant to achieve in organisations and can result in diversity training having a limited impact on bringing about real change in the status quo organisations.

Secondly, lack of critical theorising and empirical research in the area of diversity management and diversity training, compromises understanding of the contribution that these initiatives can make but also conclusions around best practice in these areas.

Thirdly, the literature review demonstrates that comprehensively evaluating the effectiveness and impact of diversity training is complex and that best practice in this area is vague and has not been demonstrated. As the significance of diversity in organisations and society is not diminishing, rigorous and robust attempts at finding to workable solutions to all diversity related issues are required.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHOD

The objective of this research was to evaluate the extent to which a diversity awareness training course achieved its stated objectives of bringing about positive shifts in course participants' attitudes and levels of awareness, knowledge and skills in relation diversity. A programme evaluation or evaluation research approach was adopted to guide the development of an appropriate model for evaluating the diversity awareness training. The research method is described by discussing the research design, participants, procedure, instruments, data analysis and ethical concerns.

Research Design

A quasi experimental evaluation research design was chosen as it best serves the purposes of determining 1) if a real change had occurred in trainees diversity awareness, knowledge and skills, 2) whether the change is attributable to the diversity awareness training, and 3) whether the change is likely to occur again with a new sample of subjects (Goldstein, 1993). In addition, the evaluation was conducted to primarily advance scientific knowledge and not for practical purposes, warranting a scientifically rigorous design. Experimental research designs offer the possibility of controlling for extraneous factors that threaten the researcher's ability to arrive at conclusions and are generally considered the most rigorous (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Goldstein, 1993; Rossi, Freeman & Lipsey, 1999).

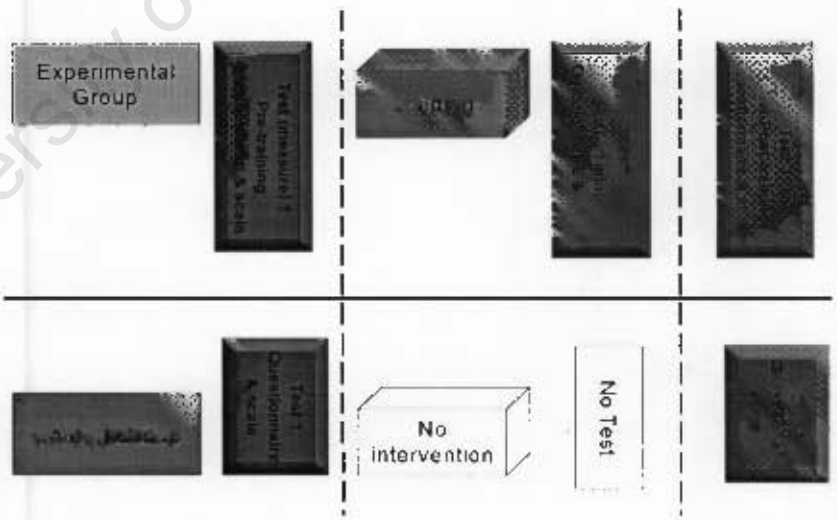


Figure 1: The quasi-experimental design

However, this research was undertaken in an organizational context in which random assignment of participants to experimental and control groups was not possible, making a pure experimental approach impossible.

Accordingly, a quasi-experimental design including pre, post and post-post tests and a control group was employed and is presented in Figure 1.

This design could accommodate the practical organizational constraints while still meeting the academic and scientific standards of rigour, reliability and validity (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Goldstein, 1993; Rossi, et al., 1999). A discussion of the reasons for selecting this design follows.

This design has its roots in the experimental tradition but is differentiated from it by the fact that there is no random assignment of research participants to experimental or control groups (Goldstein, 1993; Kraiger, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Rossi, et al., 1999). A central question in the research was whether the participants experienced a positive change in relation to their attitudes, awareness, knowledge and skills as a result of the training intervention. Researchers agree that a pre and post-test research design is best able to show this, with the post-post-test providing an indication of the stability of the change (Goldstein, 1993; Kraiger, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003; Rossi, et al., 1999). To rule out the possibility that changes were due to factors other than the training, for example, self-selection onto the course or some other external event or factors, a control group was incorporated into the design (Goldstein, 1993; Kraiger, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003).

Based on Rossi, et al's (1999) assertion that a sound programme evaluation first clearly demonstrates what is to be evaluated by establishing underlying programme theory and expected outcomes. A graphic representation of this is presented in Figure 2 below.

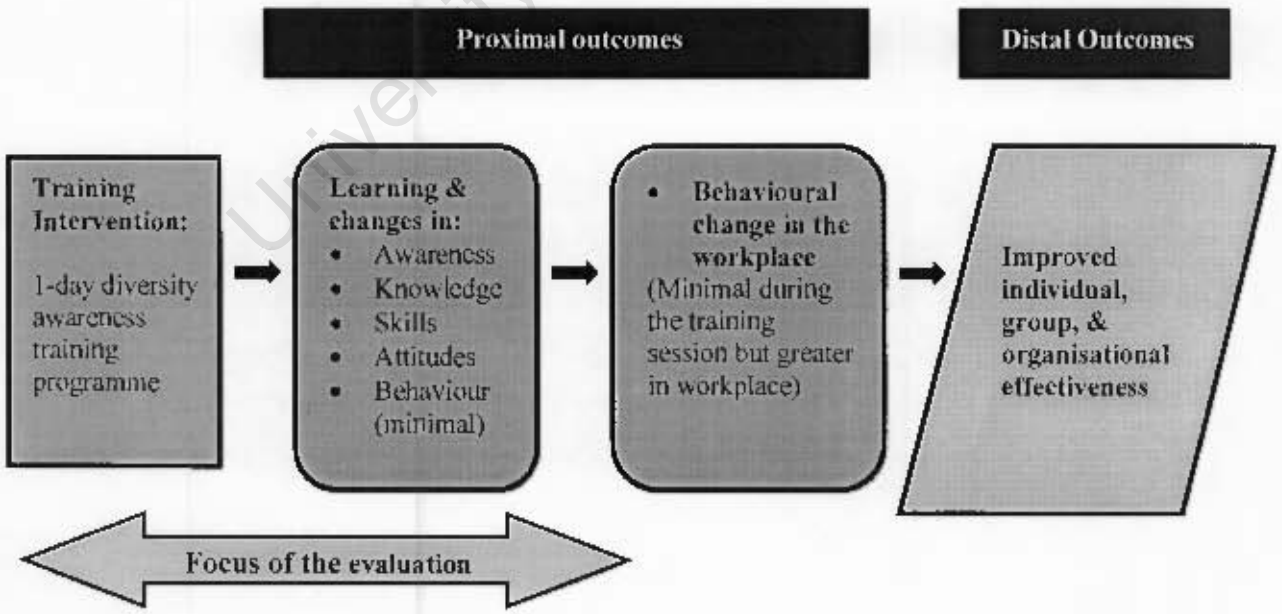


Figure 2: Underlying programme theory & expected outcomes

The Figure above illustrates that the immediate or proximal outcomes of the training were changes in attitudes, awareness, knowledge and skills. Behavioural change was an intermediate outcome with the expectation that trainees would increasingly display changed behaviour after of the session. Changes in behaviour and the impact it would have on organisational effectiveness were the distal or longer-term outcomes. This research had its focus on the immediate outcomes of the 1-day training programme as opposed to the longer term impact of training on organizational change and effectiveness.

Participants

Initially, a sample of 67 employees (40 in experimental and 27 in control group) at an insurance sector corporate voluntarily participated in the pre-test (Time 1/T1) stage of this study. At the post-post test (Time 3/T3) stage of this study, many individuals failed to return their questionnaires, despite numerous follow-ups, only 12 participants remained in each of these groups.

Sampling Technique

All non-management employees of the organization were expected to attend the 1-day diversity awareness programme being delivered throughout the organization. Attendance was encouraged but not forced and was based on self-nomination or nomination by a senior. Voluntary participation in the study was sought from trainees attending the training sessions earmarked for evaluation. Those who elected to participate formed the experimental group. Only one participant elected not to participate and two participants who failed to complete the post-training test (Time 2/ T2) were excluded.

The control group was also constituted on a voluntary basis. Employees who had not as yet attended and were not due to attend a training session during the duration of this study, were invited by the Human Resources (HR) Department to volunteer for participation in the control group in this study. Repeated requests were sent by the HR Department but only 27 individuals volunteered to participate, forming the control group.

Sample Characteristics

The initial composition of the experimental and control groups is presented in Table 1. The composition of the experimental and control groups was similar in terms of gender, language and educational level. For both groups, there were more men than women. The

median age was the 31-40 years category for both groups. 70% of all participants spoke Afrikaans. The median qualification level was matric.

	Population group		Gender		Age				Language			Educational level			
	Black	White	Men	Women	20-30 yrs	31-40 yrs	41-60 yrs	61 & over	Afrikaans	English	Xhosa	No matric	Matric	Tertiary	Other
Experimental (N = 40)	16 40%	24 60%	15 38%	25 62%	9 23%	22 55%	8 20%	1 2%	28 70%	11 28%	1 2%	5 13%	21 53%	13 33%	1 1%
Control (N = 27)	7 26%	20 74%	10 37%	17 63%	7 26%	9 33%	8 30%	3 11%	19 70%	8 30%	0 0%	2 7%	16 60%	9 33%	0 0%

Table 1: Composition of the sample at T1

The experimental and control group differed, however, with respect to population group composition. The experimental group had a 40:60% split in terms of Black (included Black, Coloured and Indian) and White participants while the control group had a 26:74% split. Another difference was the total number of participants in each group. Having voluntarily elected to participate, only 27 and 40 formed the control and experimental groups respectively.

Table 2 presents the composition of the experimental and control groups at the post-post test stage (T3).

	Population group		Gender		Age				Language			Educational level			
	Black	White	Men	Women	20-30 yrs	31-40 yrs	41-60 yrs	61 & over	Afrikaans	English	Xhosa	No Matric	Matric	Tertiary	Other
Experimental (N=12)	4 33%	8 67%	3 25%	9 75%	2 17%	9 75%	1 8%	0 0%	8 67%	4 33%	0 0%	0 0%	7 58%	5 42%	0 0%
Control (N=12)	3 25%	9 75%	4 33%	8 67%	4 33%	6 50%	1 8%	1 8%	8 67%	4 33%	0 0%	0 0%	7 58%	5 42%	0 0%

Table 2: Composition of sample at T3

Here the experimental and control groups were similar in terms of language and educational level of participants. There were fewer men than women in both groups but the ratios differed across the groups (1:4 and 1:3 in the experimental and control groups respectively). A similar picture emerged in relation to the population group demographics. Both

groups had more Whites than Blacks with the ratios differing for each group (1:3 and 1:4 for experimental and control respectively). The equivalent numbers participating in each group was purely due to chance.

Both the larger (N=40/27) and the smaller (N=12/12) samples were found to be reasonably comparable given that this study relied heavily on voluntary participation. Several attempts at increasing the sample size by appealing to individuals to participate proved fruitless. This is explained in more detail in the procedure section that follows.

Procedure

Evaluation of 1-day Training Programme

The researcher attended two 1-day training programmes held at the premises of the organisation. The organisational members attending these sessions were informed about the research being conducted and were asked to complete a consent form indicating their willingness to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Two training programmes were selected for evaluation based on their dates in relation to the time parameters of the research study and the researcher attended and observed both of these.

Programme format & content. Expected outcomes in the training manual (provided by the training service provider) indicated that at the end of the 1-day diversity awareness training session, trainees would have learned about diversity; explored their own attitudes that hinder productive diversity exchange; understood that cultural acceptance can be achieved in non-threatening and empathetic ways; understood that valuing diversity eases Affirmative Action and Equity interventions. It was also expected that trainees would be able to view valuing diversity as making business sense.

The training sessions were presented in English. Participants were invited to use their home-language if they could not express themselves in English. Afrikaans was frequently used and translations back to English were provided if participants asked. Participation levels in both training sessions were high with White participants tending to be more vociferous than Black participants. The researcher's opinion based on observations was that sessions progressed smoothly with little tension, argument, heated debate or conflict occurring. In one session, a Black participant became emotional when recollecting experiences of apartheid. The lack of observed emotional intensity or lack of discomfort amongst participants was surprising as diversity training is known to evoke this reaction (Arai, et al., 1994; Moore, 1999; Lindsay, 1994).

While sessions were unique to the extent that each was conducted by a different facilitator, the content covered remained for the most part uniform. The 1-day diversity awareness training programmes were positioned as interactive and participative learning sessions. Expectations were shared and ground rules were set to guide participation and interaction for the day. The facilitators attempted to achieve outcomes listed above by firstly exploring what diversity is, offering a definition and soliciting information from the group about indicators of diversity. Particular attention was given to diversity indicators within the organisation. Secondly, a model of the relationship between managing diversity and business success was introduced. Thirdly, group exercises were undertaken in which trainees explored attitudes they held towards individuals from other 'race' and gender groups and things they wanted to know from these groups. This was followed by an exploration of the concept of culture. Fourthly, the facilitators presented a historical account of apartheid and oppression that was followed by a discussion of how stereotypes and discrimination develop. Lastly, actions that trainees needed to take in order to improve their diversity ability were discussed.

The training delivered is typical of awareness programmes that attempt to share information, knowledge and bring about some attitudinal and behavioural change (Adams, et al., 1997; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996 Sanchez and Medkik, 2004).

Measures and Instruments

Measures

Using pre, post and post-post training questionnaires, Time 1, 2 and 3 measures were collected. Participants who wanted to remain anonymous used a code-name on each of the questionnaires they completed. Others used their name and surname. On this basis matching of the questionnaires completed by trainees was done with ease. The numbers of responses for the various measures are presented in Table 3.

Group	Pre-training Time 1	Immediate Post-training Time 2	2-months Post-post-training Time 3
Experimental Group	40	38	12
Control Group	27	0	12

Table 3: Responses for various measures

Instruments

The questionnaires administered were essentially made up of two parts. Both parts were administered at T1, T2 and T3. Part 1 was designed by the researcher and collected biographical, training and diversity related information. This will be referred to as the Diversity

Questionnaire. Part 2 was an abbreviated and tailored version of the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) (Ponterotto, et al., 1995). Ponterotto, et al., (1995) recommends that the reliability of the QDI be assessed each time it is used. This analysis along with an analysis of the properties of the Diversity Questionnaire is therefore presented in the results chapter. A discussion of the instruments as well as the validity of the QDI is now presented.

Part 1: The Diversity Questionnaire. This section of the questionnaire was designed to assess five dimensions. An additional section was added to evaluate the trainers and training when the questionnaire was administered at T2. A brief explanation and the reasons for including each dimension are listed below:

1. Training motivation: Noe & Colquitt (2002) says that training effectiveness is impacted by individuals' desire to learn and apply what is learnt in the workplace. This was tested in the questionnaire by asking questions relating to whether individuals believed that the training would be helpful to them and whether they perceived the organizational environment as enabling in terms of the application of learning.
2. Knowledge about diversity: This section of the questionnaire asked individuals to rate their level of knowledge in relation to aspects of diversity addressed in the training manual.
3. Diversity related skills: Individuals were asked to rate their level of competence in relation to various factors associated with an effective level of skills.
4. Willingness to take action: This dimension tested the extent to which individuals are committed and willing to take responsibility for addressing diversity related issues. This is said to be an indicator of an individuals' diversity competence as well as an indicator of effectiveness of the training (Aguilar, et al, 2000; Tan, et al., 2003).
5. Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy describes an individual's belief that he or she can perform or learn to perform certain outcomes (Noe & Colquitt, 2002). Colquitt, et al (2002) (Cited in Noe, et al., 2002) found that it had a positive relationship with training motivation, declarative knowledge, skill acquisition and job performance. When training influences a person's self-efficacy or level of confidence in performing certain tasks, use of skills back at the workplace is assured (Ford, Quiñones, Sego & Sorra, 1992 cited in Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003).

All these dimensions were included in the Diversity Questionnaire as it was expected that the training intervention would improve individuals' competence and performance in relation to all these dimensions and so contribute to the meeting of training objectives. The reliability of the Diversity Questionnaire is reported on in the results chapter.

Part 2:The QDI Scales. The QDI is designed to measure the multidimensional nature of prejudice in a more subtle and less social-desirability-prone manner (Burkard, Jones & Johll, 2002; Ponterotto, Potere, & Johansen, 2002). Firstly, Ponterotto, et al. (1995) state that instruments often conceptualize prejudicial attitudes as cognitive in nature. Weiten (1992) (cited in Ponterotto, et al., 1995), argues that attitudes are multidimensional and have cognitive, affective and behavioural components. Respectively, these can be described as beliefs that people hold about an object; feelings stimulated by thought of an object and a predisposition to behave in a particular way towards an object (Ponterotto et al., 1995; Ponterotto, et al., 2002). Dunton and Fazio (1997) (cited in Burkard, et al., 2002) says that research concerned with the cognitive processes related to the expression of justice shows that some individuals actively attempt to control racist behaviours indicating that the expression of prejudicial attitudes may be mediated by cognitive and/or affective processes.

Secondly, because of changing norms and practices, it is increasingly becoming unacceptable to be overtly racist or prejudiced or to be seen to be so (Burkard, et al., 2002; Ponterotto, et al., 1995). This poses a measurement dilemma in that there is an increased chance that individuals will respond in a socially desirable manner on self-report inventories. It is argued that measuring the subtler aspects and the cognitive, affective and behavioural components of prejudicial attitudes may offer deeper understanding (Burkard, et al., 2002; Ponterotto, et al., 1995).

Accordingly, the QDI consists of three factors/subscales. Subscale 1 measures Cognitive Racial Attitudes while Subscale 2, Affective Racial Attitudes, is focused on affective and personal comfort related to interracial contact (Ponterotto, et al., 2002; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999). Subscale 3 specifically assesses attitudes towards women's equity and women's issues (Ponterotto, et al., 2002; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999).

The QDI in its original form (Appendix 1) consists of 30 items placed on a 5-point Likert-type scale. However, for the purposes of this research it was altered in the following ways. Subscale 3 (a total of 7 items) was removed. The QDI was being administered to assess changes in attitudes as a result of a diversity awareness training intervention and there was no indication that the training programme would specifically cover gender-related material. The time required to administer all parts of the questionnaire was limited, making shortening of the questionnaire advisable.

Items relating to cognitive (nine items) and affective (seven items) racial attitudes were administered as scale one and two. The wording of certain items was changed to more appropriately reflect the SA context.

It is acknowledged that attitude measurement based on self-report questionnaires is subject to social desirability constraints (Cunningham, Preacher & Banaji, 2001). To

compensate for individuals tendency to present themselves in a favourable light in relation to racial attitudes, reverse coded items were included in the scales.

Validity of the QDI: The QDI has been subject to several validation studies. Ponterotto, et al., (1995) found the total and subscale scores to be internally consistent and stable over a 15-week test-retest period. They also found acceptable and promising indexes of face, content, construct and criterion-related validity. Their finding of factorial validity was supported by Utsey & Ponterotto (1999) and investigated further by Burkard, et al. (2002). In the normative data and user guidelines compiled by Ponterotto, et al. (2002) data on the content and criterion validity, exploratory and confirmatory factor structure and convergent and discriminant validity from various studies are reported at length. It is concluded that the validity of the instrument is well established.

Data Analysis

As suggested by Quiñones & Tonidandel (2003), the following analyses were performed:

- Examining within-group differences between pre-training and post-training Diversity Questionnaire and QDI Scales scores for each individual in the experimental and control groups respectively. This gain score analysis gave an indication of the changes in each individual.
- Examining the extent to which the two groups differed on post-training scores only.
- A comparison of the performance of the two groups on both sets of pre-training and post-training scores, using an analysis of variance and an analysis of covariance. This revealed whether there was a difference in performance that could be attributed to the training.

A more detailed outline of the analysis performed is presented in the results chapter. In concluding the chapter on method, ethical concerns are raised.

Ethical Concerns

In evaluating diversity training, sensitive issues around racism, sexism and privately held beliefs and values are explored. Given SA's history and recent transformation, individuals are fearful of being labelled racist or discriminatory or being stigmatised or persecuted in any way. This requires that researchers working in this area are sensitive to these possibilities. To address this, participation was voluntary with a high level of confidentiality being observed in this study. Exposure of individuals' points of view or scores on particular measures was avoided.

Similarly, organisations fear that the study will reveal that their organisational environment is riddled with discrimination and prejudice. The researcher has remained mindful and sensitive to this as well when reporting and discussing the findings.

This study attempted to evaluate the outcomes of a training programme using an initial sample of 40 training participants. Difficulties encountered (which despite several attempts, could not be transcended) resulted in this sample being greatly reduced at the post-post test stage of the research. The final results are thus based on a sample of 12 compared to a contrast group of 12. This immediately raised concerns and limitations associated with small samples. However, because very little empirical evaluation research has been undertaken in relation to diversity training particularly in the SA context, the researcher has proceeded to present these results for consideration as a basis for greater exploration and further intensive research. Limitations of this study are therefore discussed in greater detail in the concluding chapter.

This methods chapter presented the choice of method and research design and addressed details regarding participants, procedures, instruments used and data analysis procedures. The following chapter presents the results of the quasi-experimental evaluation.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

In this chapter the analysis and interpretation of the results are presented. Firstly, the reliability of the instruments used in this study was established. Secondly, descriptive statistics are presented as a basis for explaining the various analyses undertaken. Thirdly, each of the statistical analyses undertaken are presented and interpreted.

Before presenting the results the reader's attention is once again drawn to the fact that the results presented are based on a participant sample of 12 out of 40.

Reliability of Instruments Used

Reliability of the QDI scales and the Diversity Questionnaire are reported on below. The reliability of the QDI scales was assessed by calculating and comparing the means, standard deviations and coefficient alphas to normative data provided (Ponterotto, et al., 2002). The reliability of the Diversity Questionnaire was assessed by calculating the co-efficient alpha.

QDI Subscale 1 and 2: Mean, Standard Deviation and Reliability

Mean, standard deviation and internal consistency. Ponterotto, et al. (2002) recommend that the subscale means, standard deviations, and coefficient alphas for each subscale be calculated for every study and be compared to the normative data they have aggregated. They note that the subscales have differing numbers of items rendering the means and standard deviations incomparable. They suggest that comparable scaled means and standard deviations be calculated by dividing by the number of items in a particular subscale to arrive at a metric of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) characteristic of the QDI scale options (Ponterotto, et al., 2002). In this study only Subscale 1 (Cognitive component of attitudes) and Subscale 2 (Affective component of attitudes) were used.

As a measure of internal consistency, the coefficient alpha was calculated for each subscale and compared to the normative data provided by Ponterotto, et al. (2002).

Table 4 tabulates and provides the comparison to the normative data.

	Number	Means		Standard Deviations		Coefficient Alphas	
Source: QDI Measure 1/T1		This study	Normative data range	This study	Normative data range	This study	Normative data range
QDI Subscale 1 (Cognitive component)	67	3.13 (28.18)	2.87-4.02 *M*=3.43	0.63 (5.7)	0.56-0.90	0.78	0.80-0.90
QDI Subscale 2 (Affective component)	67	3.01 (21.09)	3.13–3.73 *M*=3.36	0.68 (4.77)	0.56-0.82	0.76	0.70-0.87

Table 4: QDI reliability: Comparison to normative data

Note:(Sample N=67:Pre-test Experimental (40) & Control (27))

All the means and standard deviations, except for one, fell within the range of studies surveyed by Ponterotto, et al. (2002). The coefficient alpha (as a measure of internal consistency) for subscale 1 fell slightly below the range but Ponterotto, et al. (2002) have deemed the 0.60 level as minimally acceptable. The reliability of subscale 1 and 2 was therefore acceptable.

It is noted that the Subscale 2 mean scores in this study were below the range while the mean score for Subscale 1 fell towards the lower end of the normative data range. In this sample, these mean scores indicated a higher level of negative attitudes underlying potentially discriminatory behaviour than those reported on by Ponterotto, et al. (2002). This could be attributed to the impact of SA's history of apartheid and discrimination.

Diversity Questionnaire: Mean, Standard Deviation and Reliability

This questionnaire was specifically developed for this study to assess how individuals are positioned in relation to diversity. To test for training motivation, skills, knowledge, self-efficacy and willingness to act, items were logically and not statistically categorized into these dimensions. It was necessary to test for internal consistency of the questionnaire. The overall internal consistency of the questionnaire was high (Cronbach alpha equal to 0.81, M = 98.51, SD = 9.14, N = 67). In the Diversity Questionnaire the number of questions in each dimension varied, with certain dimensions having too few questions to meaningfully calculate internal consistency for each dimension.

Having established the internal reliability of the instruments used in this study, descriptive statistics for all variables are reported.

Descriptive Statistics

Means and standard deviations for T1, T2 and T3 measures on all variables are presented for the experimental and control groups in Table 5.

Variable	E/C	T1		T2		T3	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Quick Discrimination Index							
Subscale 1: Cognitive Attitudes	E	29.50	7.85	31.5	7.48	29.00	6.99
	C	29.17	6.16			28.58	4.85
Subscale 2: Affective Attitudes	E	21.00	4.37	20.25	4.39	19.50	4.66
	C	20.00	4.88			19.67	4.85
Diversity Questionnaire							
Training motivation	E	10.75	1.54	11.92	1.73	10.33	2.19

	C	11.38	1.61			11.85	2.03
Knowledge	E	55.08	5.09	59.25	4.97	54.58	6.23
	C	53.38	6.59			52.92	8.00
Skills	E	15.83	2.08	17.75	1.86	16.08	2.31
	C	14.77	2.05			14.62	2.57
Willingness to act	E	8.17	0.72	8.00	0.85	7.92	1.44
	C	8.00	1.08			7.77	1.01
Self-efficacy	E	12.25	1.14	12.42	1.08	11.33	0.98
	C	11.77	1.59			11.54	0.66

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for all variables

Note: N = 12

The descriptive statistics presented above are used as the basis for the analysis and interpretation of the results that follow.

Presentation of Statistical Analyses

A technique of flow-charting data analysis observed in Cavaleros, et al. (2002) is used here as a basis for illustrating the analysis path taken in this study. Figure 3 indicates statistical tests conducted and conclusions obtained. The analysis and results of each step in the path is provided. As the flow chart indicates, within groups analyses were undertaken in relation to experimental and control group performance on the QDI and diversity questionnaires, followed by between group analyses on both instruments.

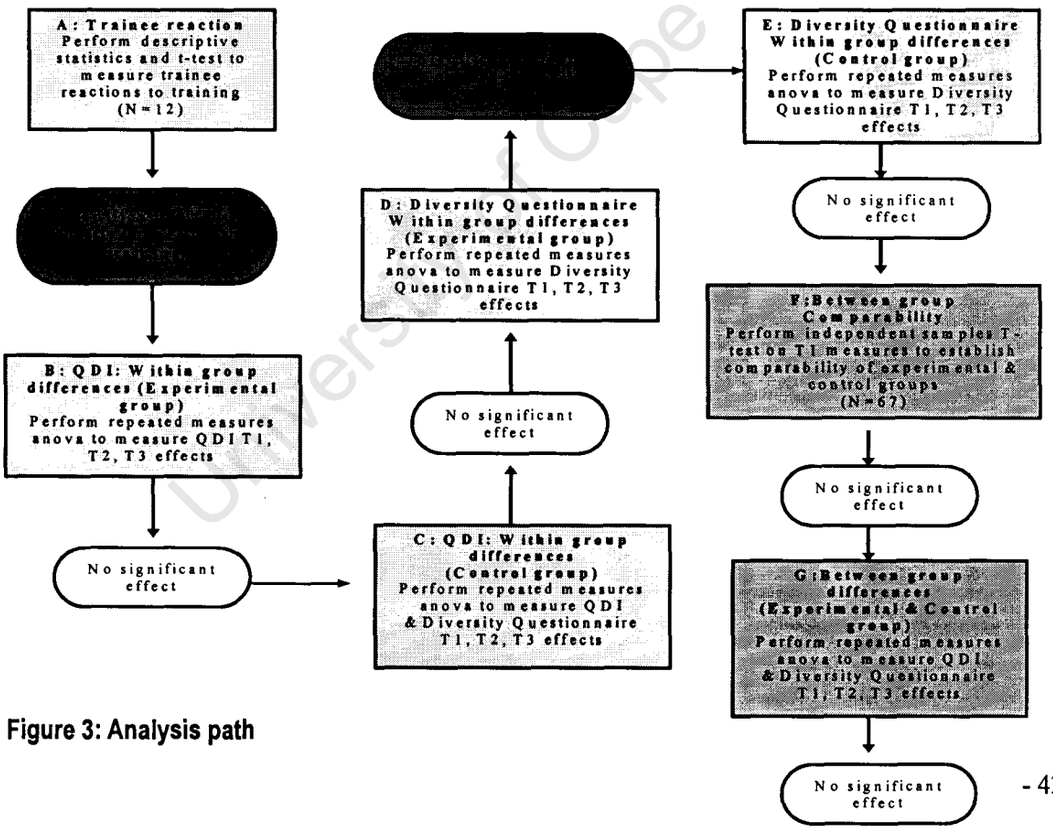


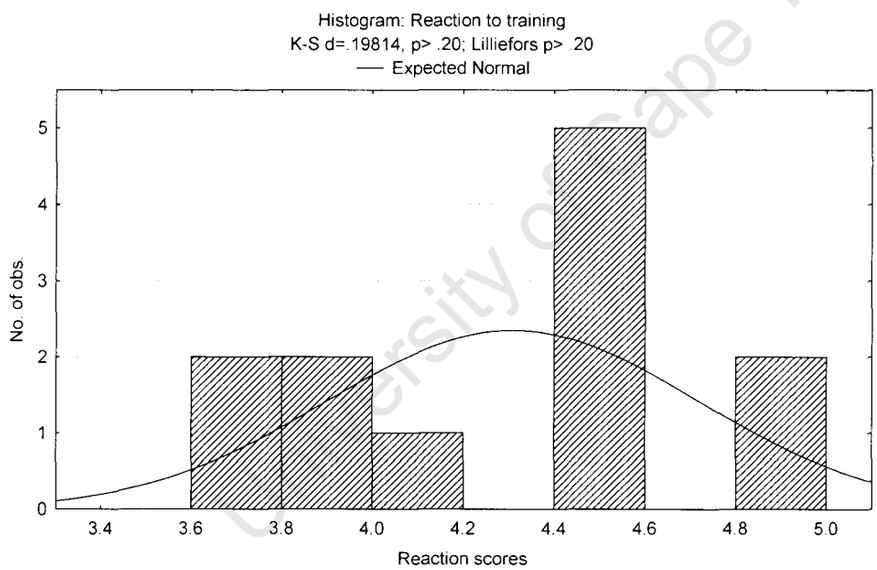
Figure 3: Analysis path

Within Group: Experimental and Control Group Performance on the QDI

To establish whether any effects were observed in relation to experimental and control group performance on the QDI, within group analysis was undertaken. This analysis is presented below.

Experimental Group: Comparison Pre, Post and Post-post training Scores on QDI: Analysis A –B: Within group analyses were undertaken to establish the extent to which any effects could be observed in the experimental group prior to, immediately after and three months after training. As a positive or negative reaction to training would impact training effects, experimental group trainee reaction to the training programme was first assessed.

Experimental group reaction to training: Analysis A. A positive reaction to training was observed among trainees ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 0.41$, on a possible scale range of 1 to 5). A t test was computed to compare this average reaction to a neutral value of 3 on this scale. A statistically significant difference (t (12) = 11.12, p <0.00), hence a positive reaction to training was found. Graph 1 below indicates the reaction to training.



Graph 1: Reaction to training

The interplay between trainee reaction scores and biographic factors was analysed. A general linear model mixed effect analysis of variance (ANOVA), revealed significant differences in reaction to training in relation to the language (Afrikaans, English & Xhosa) and

educational level (No matric, matric, and tertiary level) of trainees. The significant results are tabulated in Table 6.

	SS	*Df*	MS	*F*	*P*
Language	0.900	1	0.90092	24.431	0.004
Education	0.38554	1	0.38554	10.455	0.023

Table 6: Reaction to training: Significant biographical factors

Note: N = 12

Using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference test (Tukey HSD), further analysis revealed that a significant difference existed in the way Afrikaans speaking trainees (M = 4.16, p = 0.013) and trainees with a matric level education (M = 4.45, p = 0.031) rated the training. Afrikaans speakers and matric level trainees rated the training higher than English speakers and tertiary level trainees. These results are tabulated in Table 7.

	Reaction to training				**Tukey HSD**
	Afrikaans speakers		**English speakers**		***P***
	M	SD	M	SD	
Language: Afrikaans vs English speakers	4.16	0.32	4.06	0.44	0.013
Education level: Matric vs tertiary level	4.45	0.38	4.11	0.39	0.031

Table 7: Tukey's HSD test in relation to language and education

Note N = 12

As can be seen form the above, reaction to training overall was favourable with Afrikaans and matric level trainees rating training more favourable, indicating no negative reaction to training. Having established a positive reaction, analyses to assess within group performance of the experimental group on T1, T2 and T3 measures on the QDI was undertaken.

Experimental group performance on the QDI scales: Analysis B: The QDI subscale scores of the experimental group were compared using a repeated measures ANOVA to assess whether there was any significant change in these scores prior to (pre measure/T1), immediately after (post measure/T2) and three months after (post-post measure/T3). No significant within group differences were found between T1, T2 and T3 scores (p = 0.237). This indicated that the training intervention had no effect on trainees' cognitive or affective attitudes.

Control Group: Comparison Pre and Post- measures on QDI: Analysis C: Dependent samples t tests were used to assess whether there were any significant differences in the scores of

the control group on the T1 and T3 of the QDI scales. No significant differences in scores were found on the two QDI subscales. This indicated that the likelihood was that the effects seen in the experimental group could be attributed to the training intervention. Further corroboration of this is provided by the between groups analysis reported on later.

From the above, it is noted that neither the experimental nor the control group, experienced any significant changes in cognitive and affective attitudes as measured by the QDI at T1, T2 and T3. A similar analysis was undertaken in relation to experimental and control group performance on the Diversity Questionnaire. Presentation of these results follows.

Within Group: Experimental and Control Group Performance on the Diversity Questionnaire

To establish whether any effects were observed in relation to experimental and control group performance on the Diversity Questionnaire, within group analysis was undertaken. This analysis is presented below.

Experimental Group Performance on the Diversity Questionnaire: Pre, Post and Post-post training: Analysis D: The pre, post and post-post scores of the experimental group on the five dimensions of the Diversity Questionnaire were compared using a repeated measures ANOVA. Significant differences between scores were found on the knowledge, skills and self-efficacy dimensions of the Diversity Questionnaire and are tabulated in Table 8 below.

Effect (Pre, post, Post-post)	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
Knowledge Dimension	157.5556	2	78.77778	4.128639	0.030
Skills Dimension	26.05556	2	13.02778	4.677244	0.020
Self-efficacy dimension	8.16667	2	4.083333	5.673684	0.010

Table 8: Significant effects: Experimental group Diversity Questionnaire

Note: N = 12

To establish where the significant differences were, a Tukey HSD test was run for each significant dimension. Table 9 tabulates what was established.

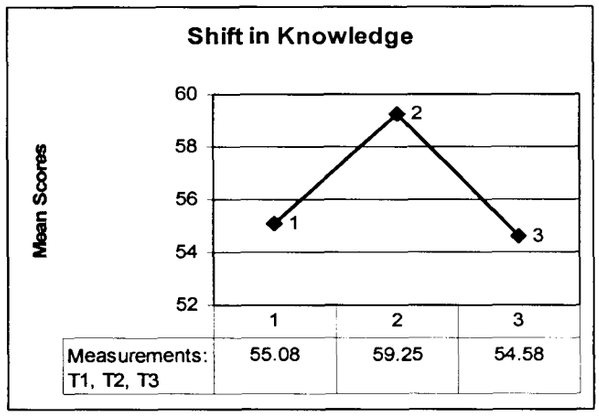
	Means			Significant Effect	*Tukey HSD P*
	T1	T2	T3		
Knowledge dimension	55.08	59.25	54.58	T2/T3: Post/post-post	0.040
Skills dimension	15.83	17.75	16.08	T1/T2: Pre/post	0.026
Self-efficacy dimension	12.25	12.42	11.33	T1/T3: Pre/post-post	0.038
				T2/T3: Post/post-post	0.013

Table 9: Tukey's HSD test in relation to knowledge, skills and self-efficacy

Note: N = 12

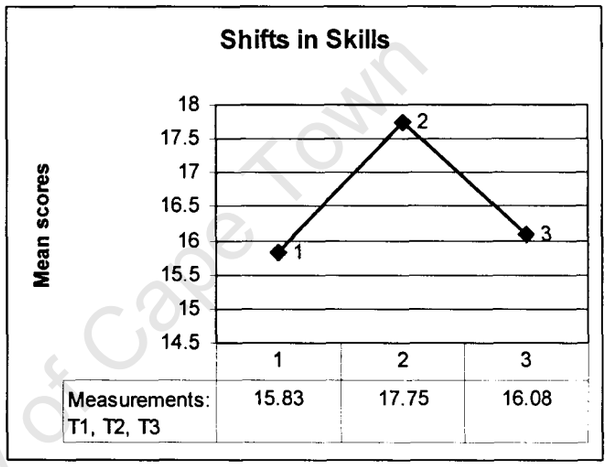
Below, these results are explained using graphs.

Changes in knowledge. The graph indicates an increase in knowledge immediately after training (T2, M=59.25) but this was not deemed statistically significant. However, a statistically significant drop was found between the measure taken immediately after training and the measure taken three months later (T2: M = 59.25, T3: M = 54.58, p =0.040). The T3 mean (M = 54.58) was slightly lower than the T1 mean (M = 55.08). This indicates that any positive shift in knowledge that may have been experienced as a result of the training was actually lost three months down the line.

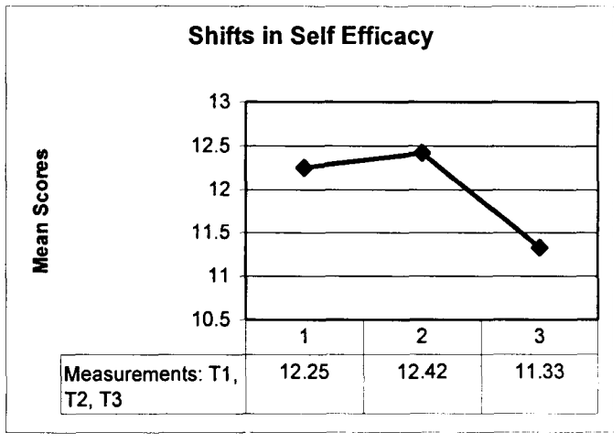


Graph 2: Shifts in knowledge

Changes in skills. A similar picture is presented in relation to shifts in skills. On this dimension, a statistically significant mean score increase was observed immediately after training (T1: M = 15.83; T2; M = 17.75, p = 0.026) but this increase was not sustained. At T3 the mean again drops (T3: M = 16.08) to slightly higher than the mean at T1. The difference between T1 and T3, however, was statistically insignificant. As with knowledge, any potential increase in skills as a result of the training was not sustained.



Graph 3: Shifts in skills



Graph 4: Shifts in self-efficacy

Changes in self-efficacy. The mean for self-efficacy increased immediately after training (T2, M = 12.42) and then dropped again three months later (T3, M = 11.33). Changes in scores were deemed significant:

1) Between the pre (T1, M = 12.25) and post-post scores (T3, M = 11.33, $p = 0.038$), with self-efficacy dropping to below the pre-training level;
2) Between the post (T2, M = 12.42) and post-post scores (T3, M = 11.33, p = 0.013) indicating a drop in self-efficacy in the three months after training.

An increase in self-efficacy is observed immediately after training. However, a more serious implication of the findings is that three months after the training intervention, self-efficacy scores are lower than before the training.

In summary, the within group analysis of T1, T2 and T3 scores on the QDI Scales and the Diversity Questionnaire revealed:

- No significant effects in QDI Scale scores
- Significant effects in relation to knowledge, skills and self-efficacy on the Diversity Questionnaire.

However, at this stage of the analyses, it was not possible to attribute the effects observed in the experimental group to the training intervention without exploring the control group's performance on T1 and T3 measures on the Diversity Questionnaire.

Control Group: Comparison Pre and Post- measures on the Diversity Questionnaire: Analysis E: Dependent samples *t* tests were used to assess whether there were any significant differences in the scores of the control group on the T1 and T3 on the Diversity Questionnaire. No significant differences in scores were found on any of the dimensions of the Diversity Questionnaire. This indicated that the likelihood was that the effects seen in the experimental group could be attributed to the training intervention. Further corroboration for this is provided by the between group analysis.

Between Group: Experimental and Control Group Performance on the QDI and Diversity Questionnaire

Between group comparability: Analysis F: To establish whether any significant differences existed between the experimental and control groups prior to the training intervention, both groups' scores on the QDI and Diversity Questionnaire administered prior to training were compared using independent samples *t* tests. The initial sample of N = 67 (Experimental = 40; control = 27) was used. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was

tested and met using Levene's test. The difference between the experimental and control groups with respect to their baseline (pre-intervention) performance on both instruments was found to be not statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. The results are tabulated in Table 10 below.

	M		*P*	*P*
	Experimental T_1 (N=40)	**Control T_1 (N=27)**	***<0.05***	***Levene***
QDI				
Sub-scale 1	27.93	28.56	0.66	0.95
Subscale 2	21.80	20.04	0.14	0.56
Diversity Questionnaire				
Motivation	11.01	11.22	0.71	0.60
Knowledge	51.8	52.67	0.63	0.22
Skills	15.95	15.81	0.77	0.47
Willingness to act	8.15	7.74	0.08	0.38
Self-efficacy	11.33	11.37	0.90	0.96

Table 10: Baseline performance: Experimental and control groups

As the two groups did not differ on T1, they were deemed comparable and this provided a basis for proceeding with the between group analysis.

Between Group Effects: Comparison Experimental and Control Group on Pre and Post Scores for QDI and Diversity Questionnaire: Analysis G: To further corroborate that the effects seen in the experimental group could be attributed to the training intervention and not any other factors, the performance of the experimental and control groups prior to (T1) and three months after training (T3) on both the QDI and Diversity Questionnaire were compared using between group analyses.

As part of the earlier assessment of the base-line performance of the experimental and control groups, it was established that no significant differences existed in their performance at T1. However, the initial sample there was larger (E =40, C =27). Working with a reduced post/post training sample (E = 12, C = 12), it was thus necessary to compare performances once again based on this smaller sample.

Repeated measures mixed effect ANOVAs, revealed that there were no significant differences between the performance of the experimental and control group on the QDI scales and the Diversity Questionnaire at T1 and T3. These results were supported by the more powerful analysis of covariance on the post-test scores. Here the pre-test scores were selected as covariates and the post-test scores as dependent variables. No effects were found.

In summary, the within and between groups analyses of performance of the experimental and control groups on the QDI and Diversity Questionnaires revealed the following:

- No significant changes in the cognitive or affective attitudes (QDI measures) of individuals in either the experimental or control groups, immediately after or three months after the training intervention.
- Significant changes in the knowledge, skill and self-efficacy levels (Diversity Questionnaire measures) of trainees in the experimental group immediately after training. These effects are, however, not sustained three months after training.
- No significant changes in the control group on the dimensions measured by the Diversity Questionnaire after three months have elapsed.

In the following chapter these results are interpreted and discussed more fully.

DISCUSSION

This quasi-experimental evaluation finds that the stated objectives or proximal outcomes of the training have not been achieved. The results of the analysis and interpretation of the pre, post and post-post-test measures used in this study revealed that three months after training:

- Trainees show no significant positive changes in cognitive and affective racial attitudes as measured by the QDI Scales
- Trainees show no significant positive changes in training motivation, knowledge, skills, willingness to act and self-efficacy as measured by the Diversity Questionnaire.

However, a more in-depth analysis of the interaction between the pre, post and post-post scores on the Diversity Questionnaire, reveals an increase in knowledge, skills and self-efficacy immediately after training that is not sustained three months later.

It is noted that the participant sample size was greatly reduced at the post-post test stage of this research. The researcher while cognisant of the concerns and limitations associated with a small sample holds the view that so little empirical research and evaluation has been undertaken in relation to diversity training in SA that even results based on such a small sample offers the opportunity for greater exploration, research and understanding.

These findings are examined more closely, taking account of previous research and authorship, to clarify and offer possible explanations as to why the proximal training outcomes have not been met. First, the lack of change in attitudes is explored and discussed. This is followed by an examination and discussion of findings in relation to training motivation, knowledge, skills, willingness to act and self-efficacy.

No Significant Positive Changes in Cognitive and Affective Attitudes as Measured by the QDI

The results indicate that trainees experienced no attitudinal change as a result of the training programme. This finding requires an exploration of reasons or possible reasons why no change was found.

These results can be understood in the context of the ongoing and inconclusive debate about the extent to which attitude change contributes to behavioural change or vice versa (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Cox & Beale, 1997). Given this debate, the expectation of most diversity awareness training is still that changing attitudes (a proximal

outcome) ultimately leads to changed behaviour which in turn contributes to organizational effectiveness (intermediate and distal outcomes). If no change in cognitive or affective attitudes was experienced, it would be unrealistic to expect behavioural changes. Therefore, accounting for the lack of attitudinal as opposed to behavioural change remains the focus of this discussion. In this regard, the appropriateness of measures used to explore attitude change and trainee resistance to training are excluded as possible reasons for the negative finding. Training course duration and depth and range of coverage are, however, considered as factors that could have contributed to there being no attitudinal changes.

Factors excluded as reasons for no changes in attitudes

In an attempt to explain the finding that trainees experienced no attitude change, certain factors are excluded as reasons for this finding. This makes it possible to be clearer about those factors that have potentially contributed to there being no attitudinal change.

The efficacy of the QDI Subscales. An obvious concern would be whether the measuring instrument used is inadequate and whether this could account for the lack of attitudinal shift. The QDI Scale was subject to careful consideration and selected because it: attempts to compensate for the social desirability constraints associated with attitude measurement based on self-report questionnaires; is a recognized and validated instrument; has high reliability indices; and because it has reported normative data and user guidelines. Ponterotto, Potere and Johansen (2002) report that Biernat and Crandall (1999) and Burkard, Medler, and Boticki (2001), social and counselling psychologists, found the QDI to be one of the more promising instruments available to practitioners keen to measure attitudes underlying discriminatory behaviour. In addition, the QDI has been subject to several validation studies (Bukard, et al, 2002; Ponterotto, et al., 1995; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1999) and in-depth normative data and user guidelines are available (Green, Hamlin, Ogden & Walters, 2004; Ponterotto, et al., 2002). Given the extensive research and validation of the QDI, and the fact that Joe Ponterotto e-mailed the researcher a version of the QDI that has been adapted for the SA context, it is unlikely that it is an unsuitable instrument. Having established that it is highly probable that the instrument is reliable and valid, the next consideration is trainees' experience of the training.

Trainee resistance to training and learning. A negative experience of training or resistance to training can reasonably be discounted as having contributed to the lack of attitudinal shift. This is based on a review of factors that could contribute to resistance or a negative reaction to training.

It is postulated that a poor trainee assessment of training (Kirkpatrick, 1994) and forced attendance on courses (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004) can contribute to training ineffectiveness. This evaluation found that trainees' reaction to the training programme was significantly positive with a mean rating of 4.31 on a scale of one to five. However, English speaking (M = 4.06) and tertiary level trainees (M = 4.11) rated the programme slightly lower. This could indicate that the programme did not meet their needs as well as those of Afrikaans and matric level trainees. While attendance on the training programme was mandatory, individuals could elect not to attend without overt consequences. During the training course high and adequate levels of participation amongst white and black trainees were observed. These factors lead to the conclusion that it is unlikely that trainees viewed training negatively or resisted learning.

It is significant, however, that a negative trainee reaction or trainee backlash is one of the most commonly cited factors for training ineffectiveness (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Mobley & Payne, 1992). Most often these claims are anecdotal and not based on a measurement of trainees' reaction to training. This attribution is easy to make if one does not thoroughly investigate all other possible factors that can contribute to training failure. The discussion that follows considers two of these.

Possible Reasons for No Changes in Attitudes

Achieving outcomes compromised by limited duration of the training course. Estimations of the appropriate duration for a diversity awareness training course are tentative at best. However, several authors do question programmes of short duration arguing that longer courses or training time can significantly impact the extent to which workshop objectives, particularly attitudinal shifts, are reached (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Rynes & Rosen, 1995, Swanson, 2002). Swanson (2002) argues that a half-day or full-day training session raises awareness and a rationale for change but seldom sufficiently challenges the broader issues of diversity to result in changes in mind-sets that can facilitate behavioural change in the workplace. The possibility that this 1-day workshop was too short to bring about attitudinal shifts is explored further.

Stated objectives of this diversity training course relating to attitude change included: that trainees would have learnt about diversity; explored their own attitudes that hinder productive diversity exchange and understand that cultural acceptance can be achieved in non-threatening and empathetic ways. As in most diversity awareness training courses, the emphasis is on deepening individual understanding of diversity, prejudice and discrimination and exploring and changing attitudes and stereotypes with a view to changing discriminatory behaviour towards

others (Arai, et al., 2001; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Lindsay, 1994; Sue, 1991).

Lindsay (1994, p.20) argues that creating a "deep awareness level" requires:

- Discussing topics that have previously been "undiscussable" which raises fears of being labelled racist, sexist or offensive in some way;
- A willingness by participants to talk about their own life experiences and about others;
- Examining interpretations and life learnings and gaining 'transformative insight' into unexamined assumptions and behaviours relating to difference; and
- Dealing with participants fears and facilitating emotionally charged processes.

Indications are that creating an environment which is conducive to this level of sharing and reflection is a challenging achievement for a one-day intervention. Tan, Morris and Romero (2003) agree and argue that changing the mindset of an often usually unreceptive, anxious, fearful and suspicious audience is difficult to achieve but remains a critically important objective that is likely to contribute to better training outcomes.

Further arguments are that stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination and negative attitudes have generally developed from early on in an individual's life and have remained unchallenged, unconscious and have often been reinforced over a long time (Moore, 1999). By implication, attitudes are difficult to modify and require intensive effort and time to change. Chrobot-Mason and Quiñones (2002), Friday and Friday (2003)and Rynes and Rosen (1995) concur that very short once-off training programmes that do not allow sufficient time and counselling are unlikely to deliver substantial changes in attitude and behaviours. This raises the question as to whether the 1-day training programme could because of its limited duration effectively result in attitudinal changes.

While training programmes can be from a two-hour programme to a three-day intervention or longer (Kay & Stringer, 2003), training that extends over a longer period of time operates from the clear premise that changing attitude or behaviour is not instantaneous (Ferdman & Brody, 1996). Instead it has the advantage of deepening learning and application in the workplace (Ferdman & Brody, 1996). Kay and Stringer (2003) suggest that organizations identify what they are hoping to achieve with diversity training and then determine the time and budget required. This can then be spread over a period allowing time for application in the workplace (Kay & Stringer, 2003).

The failure of the training course evaluated in this study to bring about positive attitudinal shifts can possibly be linked to its short duration. If it is accepted that attitudes are developed over a long period of time, are often unconsciously held and require time to mediate, it is possible that the short duration of the programme and the once off-delivery did not allow

sufficient time to mediate a significant attitude change. This proposition is linked to considerations relating to the depth and range of issues covered on the course.

No attitudinal change due to inadequate depth and range of coverage. The training course evaluated lasted only one day. It is possible that there was not sufficient time to cover a range of topics or to cover topics in greater depth. In this study, however, the evaluation questions and approach centred on whether the proximal outcomes and stated objectives of the training course were achieved and not an evaluation of content covered. A reliable and valid assessment of this course's range and depth of topic coverage will require an implementation assessment or process evaluation to determine whether the programme was delivered as intended (Rossi, et al., 2004). This would include: an assessment of programme theory to answer questions around the conceptualization and design of the course; and a process evaluation to answer questions relating to whether the course content and activities were adequately and appropriately delivered (Rossi, et al., 2004). This study cannot draw a causal link between limited duration, superficial depth and limited range of coverage the finding that no attitudinal change has occurred. At this point, the introduction of theoretical arguments around the impact of superficial depth and range of coverage of issues serves to illustrate the difficulties of bringing about attitudinal change.

It is posited that unless diversity training addresses the 'real issues' relating to factors which inhibit diversity competence, it will fail to create change in individuals. Human (1996) claims that in SA many managers do attend managing diversity workshops but fail to experience a real change of heart and that this trend is not peculiar to SA. In the earlier review of the literature it was demonstrated that the 'soft' or social diversity approach to diversity training creates a "feel good we can all get along' scenario that minimizes difference and systemic marginalization (Aguilar & Woo, 2002, p. 67; Ferdman & Brody, 1996). On the other hand, the 'hard' or social justice approach to diversity training seeks to actively address systemic prejudice, discrimination, social inequities and power differentials which create and reinforce cognitive and affective racial attitudes (Aguilar & Woo, 2002; De Rosa, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kersten, 2000). In these two approaches the 'real' issues take on a different emphasis. It is argued that the 'soft' approach is naïve and simplistic (Moore, 1999) and a 'de-politicized kind of cultural pluralism which avoids addressing the more difficult topics of racism and oppression directly' (De Rosa, 2001, p. 1). Failure to address issues of systemic oppression, marginalization and power does not support change in individuals or the status quo (Aguilar & Woo, 2002; De Rosa, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kersten, 2000). Arai, et al. (2001) also points out that training that brings about real change is not an easy process and is often

associated with high levels of discomfort and even resistance as individuals grapple with difficult issues. Organizations often have as their primary goal expanding individual consciousness and not changing the culture of the organizations with training not going far enough to encourage any long-term change (Arai, et al., 2001). This raises questions around whether the diversity training course evaluated adopted a soft, social diversity or hard, social justice approach and whether this accounts for no change in cognitive and affective racial attitudes.

On a more practical level, McLaughlin and Clemens (2004) argue that a training programme has to be a direct response to the culture and make-up of a particular organization if it is to directly address the real diversity issues faced by that organization. Prior to training the organizations strengths, weaknesses and needs in relation to diversity must be examined and analyzed with a view to identifying the organizations strengths, weaknesses, tolerances, attitudes, obstacles and challenges relating to diversity (McLaughlin & Clemens, 2004). In addition, training must take account of and respond to the racial, ethnic and gender breakdown in the organization and real and perceived policies and practices that are unintended barriers to good diversity practice. An assessment has to be made about the extent to which the training programme evaluated took account of and responded to a thorough organizational audit which identified those issues that are pertinent to the particular environment in which the training took place.

The researchers preliminary observations, having attended the training, is that there were very few 'hot-spots' and little time to mediate deeper issues and negative attitudes which raises concerns about whether the 'real issues' and issues relevant to individuals lived experience in the were being dealt with during the course. However, assertions that the duration, depth, intensity and range of coverage of training could contribute to ensuring intended outcomes need to be tested and explored further in relation to the training programme evaluated and diversity training in general if attitudinal and behavioural changes are to be achieved. The limited duration of and the approach adopted in the training in this study remain possible but untested explanations for why this intervention failed to bring about shifts in cognitive and affective attitudes.

Mixed Results in relation to Changes in Dimensions as Measured by the Diversity Questionnaire

While no significant shifts were found in cognitive and affective racial attitudes, mixed results were found in relation to the five dimensions (training motivation, knowledge, skills, willingness to act and self-efficacy) measured by the Diversity Questionnaire. Training motivation and willingness to act dimensions showed no changes. Initial changes which were

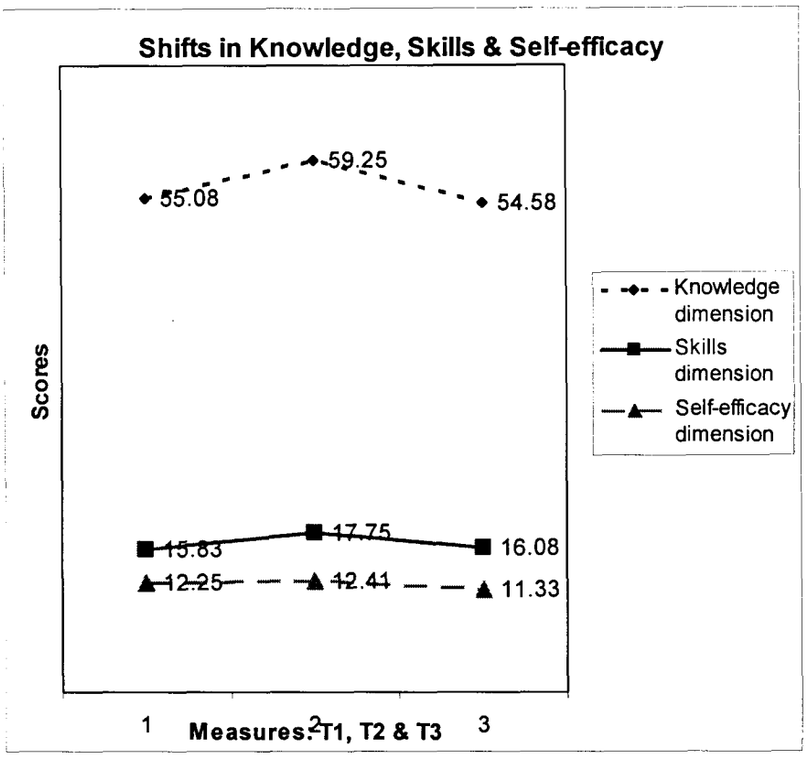
not sustained were found on the knowledge, skills and self-efficacy dimensions. These findings are interpreted and discussed more fully.

No Significant Changes in Training Motivation and Willingness to Act

No significant differences were found in pre, post and post-post training scores of two dimensions in the Diversity Questionnaire, namely, training motivation and willingness to act. Successful training is impacted by the extent to which firstly, trainees believe that the training is worth attending (Chrobot-Mason & Quinones, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Noe & Colquitt, 2002).. Secondly, it is impacted by the extent to which trainees are convinced that the organizational environment will support application of learning; and trainees' are committed to and are willing to take responsibility for addressing diversity related issues. (Aguilar & Woo, 2002; Chrobot-Mason & Quinones, 2003; Kraiger, et al. 1992; Noe & Colquitt, 2002). This evaluation shows that training did not impact these dimensions. The assessment is made that if the training failed to significantly and positively shift individuals on these dimensions, the number of factors that can contribute to training effectiveness and later transfer of learning are reduced. The discussion now turns to dimensions where significant changes were found.

Significant Changes in Knowledge, Skills and Self-efficacy

To facilitate discussion, a graphic representation of the changes found in the knowledge, skills and self-efficacy dimensions of the Diversity Questionnaire is once again presented in Graph 4.



Graph 4: Shifts in knowledge, skills & self efficacy

As can be seen from the above, means on all three dimensions increased immediately after training but dropped again three months later. It could be argued that the measures are based on self-report and that trainees tend to provide more positive responses and present themselves in a more positive light immediately after training because this is what is expected of them. While this may be part of the explanation for these findings, there are other explanations by researchers which offer support for and reasons for these findings. The obvious preliminary conclusion from the above is that the environment to which the trainees return offers little support for sustaining or reinforcing what trainees perceive as potential gains from the training course. Holly and Rainbird (2000) argue that learning is operationalised in a work environment that may prevent the realization of new knowledge and skills. They say that environments 'may create both positive and negative incentives for individuals to learn, to practice and to share skills' (Holly & Rainbird, 2000, p.265). Factors associated with an environment conducive to diversity effectiveness are explored as possible explanations for the findings in this study.

It is noted too that it was beyond the scope of this study to methodically investigate and assess the broader organizational context surrounding this diversity training intervention. Thus propositions only are offered around the ways in which this intervention was possibly not supported resulting in a waning longer term benefit. The value of this discussion is that it

highlights factors in the organizational environment that must become the focus of an integrated diversity intervention if training as a component of this is to be successful. Before exploring possible explanation for why improvement on these dimensions was not sustained, the importance of these dimensions in relation to training outcomes being achieved is reiterated. (This was discussed earlier in the section outlining the development of the Diversity Questionnaire in the chapter on method.)

Importance of these dimensions in relation to training outcomes. Knowledge, skills and self-efficacy are all very desirable outcomes for diversity training as they facilitate attitudinal and behavioural change. Knowledge builds understanding of diversity issues. It creates an awareness of the need for and an understanding of the nature of changes required (Arai, et al, 2001; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Sue, 1991). Similarly, skill building creates competence in relation to changing specific behaviours (Arai, et al, 2001; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones; 2002; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991). Changes in perceptions of self-efficacy may impact whether or not trainees apply what they have learnt and so is a useful measure of training effectiveness (Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993; Noe & Colquitt, 2002).

Explaining findings in relation to knowledge, skills & self-efficacy. While few empirical evaluations of diversity training have been undertaken, this study's finding is supported to some extent by studies that report positive shifts in attitudes, knowledge, skills or stereotypes (Bailey, Barr and Bunting, 2001; Kamfer & Venter, 1994; Majumdar, Keystone, & Cuttress, 1999; Tan, Morris and Romero, 2003). Tan, Morris and Romero (2003) in their evaluations of diversity training effectiveness, conducted pre and post-tests in which they evaluate knowledge of diversity issues (including the impact of stereotypes and prejudices and individuals' ability to identify and prevent these). They found that short diversity training workshops had brought about significant changes in participants with the percentage of change in participants ranging from 31-35% (Tan, Morris & Romero, 2003; Tan, Morris & Romero, 1996). Bailey, Barr and Bunting (2001) reported significant shifts in police attitudes towards people with intellectual disability after awareness training. Using the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory, Majumdar, et al. (1999) reported improvement in emotional resilience, flexibility/openness and perceptual acuity all associated with heightened cultural sensitivity. In a SA study, Kamfer and Venter (1994) hypothesized and confirmed that individuals who attended a stereotype reduction workshop would produce fewer negative stereotypes after the workshop.

There are, however studies that showed an absence of training effects (Cavaleros, et al., 2002; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). It is noteworthy that measurement in both these studies, focused on the impact of training on workplace behaviours and dimensions as opposed to immediate post training changes in attitudes, awareness, knowledge and skills. This focus on second order changes ignores whether changes did occur within the trainees immediately after training but then failed to transfer to workplace behaviour. The assumption here is that the training intervention has not been successful. However, it is possible that the intervention achieved a level of change in relation to attitudes, awareness, knowledge and skills but that these were not transferred and did not result in changed workplace behaviour. An exploration of factors other than the failure of the training as a possible explanation of unsustained changes in attitudes, awareness, knowledge, skills and behaviours is thus warranted.

Friday and Friday (2003) are clear that diversity training that is implemented in an environment that does not support, reinforce and sustain the desired attitudes and behaviours targeted in the training has no hope of rendering any longer-term effect. In contrast to an approach to diversity training that is solely focused on awareness raising, Jackson and Holvino (1988) and Sue and Sue (1990) (cited in Sue, 1991, p. 104) call for training that is accompanied by 'economic-structural-behavioural change'. By way of elaboration, Arai, et al. (2001) calls for a systems approach to diversity which includes developing awareness and building commitment to change; building a framework for change at all levels in the organization and the institutionalization and integration of new cultural norms and roles in the organization. Training that is part of a broader organizational level change effort and that is one of a larger set of ingredients designed to move the whole organization in a desired direction is emphasized (Ferdman and Brody, 1996).

Earlier in accounting for the lack of improvement in attitudes, it was highlighted that this study has not evaluated the impact of training on distal outcomes like workplace behaviour and organizational effectiveness (distal outcomes). This study therefore has not explored and tested why there has not been a sustained impact. The information that follows serves only to highlight factors for consideration and not draw conclusions about its absence or presence in this study.

Attention is drawn to the many practical suggestions offered around factors that need to be in place for diversity training to have a long-term impact and value in the workplace. The four themes considered critical to the sustainability and reinforcement of gains made as a result of training are that training has to 1) Have a skill-building component; 2) Be role-modelled and supported by top management; 3) Be integrated with other diversity initiatives; and 4) Be evaluated. These themes are discussed individually.

A skill-building component to training is essential. The first factor elaborated upon is that diversity awareness training has to have a skill building component. The argument is that changed awareness and knowledge levels do not translate to sustained attitudinal and behavioural change without individuals being provided with the requisite skills to enact new behaviours (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991).Suggestions are that skill-building aspects of training includes training on communication, interaction and listening, team-building, conflict resolution, the ability to be adaptable and flexible, etc. (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991). However, two caveats are noted in relation to skill-building.

Moore (1999) states that effective enactment is based on certain preconditions being met. She says that the basis for an effective skill-building component in training is that groups share a social reality. This is created when individuals are able to "decentre" and acknowledge that other's viewpoints may differ from one's own; are motivated to communicate; are able to negotiate appropriate behavioural contracts; and are able to understand the power of informal networks and engage with these.

Based on previous research, Chrobot-Mason and Quiñones (2003) recommend that the skill-building phase of diversity training must have a practical component and include opportunities for trainees to observe, practice and get feedback on appropriate and inappropriate behaviours so that they can make the necessary adaptations to future behaviours.

In summary, it is clear that sustained attitudinal and behavioural change is supported by diversity training that has a skill-building component. For the skill-building component to be successful trainees must be in a position to negotiate their way around each others realities and must have opportunities to practice and receive feedback on new behaviours.

Top management's role is critical. The second factor associated with the sustained success of diversity training is top management's involvement in driving, supporting and modelling effective diversity awareness and skills (Arai, et al, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Everett Wallace, 2004; Mclaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Rynes & Rosen, 1995; Wentling & Palma- Rivas, 1999). Rynes and Rosen (1995) argue that top management's favourable beliefs alone cannot ensure diversity training's success. This has to be supported by activities that make diversity a strategic priority such as ensuring the diversity of the top management team, rewarding managers for behaviours and activities that support diversity and publicly pronouncing the value of diversity (Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Mclaughlin and Clemons (2004) state that management must not only understand the term diversity but are responsible for deciding how the goals of diversity training will connect with business objectives. Clear

articulation of goals, adopting a results-orientated approach and measuring and reporting progress to the highest levels of management are clear indications of management's responsibility and commitment to develop successful diversity strategies (Everett Wallace, 2004). These activities motivate managers and employees to take the diversity initiative seriously (Kay & Stringer, 2003).

While top management's commitment and support is shown to be an important factor in the success of diversity training and diversity initiatives, accountability practices are equally important. They are mechanisms for enforcing diversity initiatives and contribute to employees more actively supporting and implementing effective diversity practices even when they attach little personal value to it (Kay & Stringer, 2004; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). Accountability practices should include linking performance evaluations, promotion decisions, compensation decisions and employee rewards with the extent to which managers and employees have enacted behaviours that reinforce effective diversity (Everett Wallace, 2004; Kay & Stringer, 2004; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). McLaughlin and Clemons (2004) suggest that individuals who engage in or who tolerate inappropriate behaviour should be held accountable and be counselled or subject to appropriate action.

Top management support and accountability for diversity becomes an indicator of the extent to which diversity is an integral part of the organizational culture. Montes and Shaw (2003) argue that in this scenario diversity is embedded in organizational programmes, products and services with employees taking full advantage of available programmes. Diversity training in this scenario is not seen as a once-off activity. It is expected that individuals will therefore take the training seriously as it is activity that is valued by the organization and will contribute to outcomes desired and rewarded by the organization.

Integrated diversity training is crucial: The third factor raised is associated with the extent to which diversity training is integrated with other organizational initiatives directed at organizational and diversity effectiveness. For this to happen, the organization has to audit all its systems, policies, procedures and practices to identify imbedded barriers and discrimination that could inhibit diversity effectiveness (Lunt, 1994; McLaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Moore, 1999; Sue, 1991). There has to be alignment and integration between diversity training and other organizational practices and policies (Chrobot–Mason & Quiñones, 2002; Montes & Shaw, 2003; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). Budget allocations should sufficiently support this integration (Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Support policies, networks and role-models must be in place (Moore, 1999; Lunt, 1994). In essence diversity training must be adopted as a strategic initiative, be integrated into the organisation's strategic plan, be aligned with and inform other

strategic objectives and be linked to the bottom line (Arai, et al., 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Montes & Shaw, 2003). Frameworks, models and guidelines for integrated diversity initiatives are provided by several authors (Arredondo, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Montes & Shaw, 2003; Sue, 1991; Rijamampianina & Maxwell, 2002). These authors suggest combinations of activities across all levels of the organization directed at individual, group and organizational change in terms of attitudes, behaviours, practices, policies and systems in the organization. Within this context of organization-wide integrated change, diversity training can be seen to be one of many activities (Ferdman & Brody, 1996).

The above indicates that there is consistent support for integrated diversity initiatives. The extent to which the training workshop evaluated in this study is positioned as part of an integrated diversity initiative requires further exploration. If it has been implemented as a stand-alone, once-off training initiative, the absence of these factors could have contributed to the finding that it has brought about no sustainable changes in attitudes, knowledge and skills.

Evaluation of diversity training programmes is vital: The fourth factor that ensures the success and sustainability of training outcomes is that diversity training has to be evaluated (Arai, et al, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Mclaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Potter, et al., 2003; Rosenfeld, Landis & Dalsky, 2003; Rynes & Rosen, 1995; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999).

This evaluation study was not undertaken as part of a broader evaluation study in the organization at which the training took place. Trainee reaction to the training was evaluated by the service provider that delivered the training. The findings of this study validate arguments around the importance of evaluating diversity training. It confirms too that it may be in the organization's interest to consider a broader and more in-depth evaluation which takes into account the impact of training on organizational effectiveness. Support for the importance of evaluation in ensuring training effectiveness and sustainability is provided by several authors.

Evaluation of training is generally considered critical to the success of training programmes (Goldstein, 1991; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Quiñones & Tonidandel, 2003). In diversity training it must be seen as a step in the process not only to calculate the training programmes effectiveness but also to establish whether it needs to be redesigned or not (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Kay & Stringer, 2003; McLaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Rosenfeld, et al., 2003). 1981). Training evaluation provides concrete information about the effectiveness of training content and design, learning and changes in learners and improved organizational performance

and pay-offs (Kraiger, 2002; Potter, et al, 2003). This information enables systematic improvement of the content and delivery of the programme (Rynes & Rosen, 1995).

A lack of evaluation, on the other hand, indicates a low commitment to following up on or improving programme outcomes and a low responsiveness to trainees (Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Similarly, Chrobot-Mason and Quiñones (2003) add that training evaluation and feedback on effectiveness ensures accountability amongst employees and managers ensuring commitment to changing attitudes and behaviour. They also state that evaluation contributes to maintaining a longer-term diversity strategy that changes appropriately and linking diversity training to organizational savings and improvements in productivity (Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003). These arguments indicate the centrality of evaluation to the effectiveness and impact of training.

Summary

The discussion of the findings of this evaluation show that the 1-day diversity awareness training resulted in no positive changes in attitudes, knowledge and skills three months after training. This raises the immediate concern about whether there is any point in undertaking training of this nature. However, the additional finding that positive changes in knowledge, skills and self-efficacy are found immediately after training but are not sustained in the longer-term, indicates that diversity training may have some value. Further interpretation and discussion of the results of this study revealed three focal points. Firstly, that achieving the proximal training outcomes measured in this evaluation is difficult and dependent on several conditions being met or factors being in place. It is suggested that limited duration of training and superficial depth and range of coverage of topics can contribute to scant changes in attitudes. Training that lacks a skill-building component, top management's support, is not integrated with other diversity initiatives and that is not evaluated is not assured of meeting and sustaining its objectives. Both sets of factors mentioned above correspond with factors listed as those associated with training and those associated with the organizational environment as described in the literature review.

Secondly, the discussion highlights that while this evaluation research fulfils its objective of determining whether the proximal outcomes of the training were met or not, it cannot account for all the causes for the training programme failing to make a longer-term impact. Holly and Rainbird (2000, p. 265) say:

> "The point here is not so much that evaluation lacks sound tools for measuring inputs and outputs and the relationship between them, but that if the parameters of measurement are narrowly defined, then complex interrelationships between particular strategies, their

learning outcomes and other contextual factors which may cross-cut them may be overlooked."

While possible interrelationships were not overlooked in this study, undertaking an evaluation that takes full account of these in a complex organizational environment was beyond the capacity of the researcher and beyond the scope of this study. A comprehensive evaluation of programme theory, process, implementation and impact is needed to make causal links between training failure and all the possible conditions and factors that contribute to the sustainability of training impact.

Thirdly, the interpretation and discussion of the results provides a basis for recommendations in relation to the implementation and evaluations of diversity training which are raised in the chapter on recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

In the concluding chapter of this dissertation, recommendations arising from the interpretation and discussion of the results of this research, limitations and areas for further research are raised. Finally, concluding remarks are made.

Recommendations

Drawing on previous anecdotal and scholarly work, the discussion of the research findings indicates that a range of supporting factors have to be in place in organisations for training to be of longer-term benefit. The recommendations below differentiate between recommendations for organisations and recommendations for training service providers. Firstly, organisations have to give consideration to adopting an integrated diversity strategy as opposed to 1-day, once-off training sessions. A second recommendation is that organisations are urged to consider consistently monitoring and evaluating all aspects of their diversity initiatives but particularly their training programmes to ensure that progress and the necessary adjustments to such programmes are being made. Lastly, it is recommended that training providers consider alternate approaches to creating awareness, sharing knowledge and skills development and that these are integrated into or considered alongside traditional training methods and content.

Recommendations to organisations

Integrated Diversity Strategy. The idea that diversity awareness training programmes have to be part of a larger diversity change initiative or integrated diversity change strategy is well supported in the literature but not necessarily implemented in organisational contexts (Arredondo, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Friday & Friday, 2003; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Montes & Shaw, 2003; Sue, 1991; Rijamampianina & Maxwell, 2002). Here recommendations centre on comprehensive strategies that address individual, group and organisational level change and that broadly address organisational systems, policies, procedures and practices.

Studies that have found limited or no impact as a result of diversity training have specifically concluded that in order for diversity training to contribute to organisational diversity effectiveness, focussed activities and support mechanisms have to compliment the diversity training programme (Cavaleros, et al., 2002; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004).

Cavaleros, et al., (2002) recommends that training goals need to be aligned, relevant and context specific in relation to the mission of the organisation's diversity initiative; management has to orient staff to the rationale of the training programme to build commitment and buy-in; actual day-to-day diversity and business concerns and goals have to be integrated into the training; after the training programme, trainees have to generate specific action plans to transfer learning to the workplace; and finally the training programme has to be evaluated so that necessary adjustments are made to the content, process and methodology.

Sanchez & Medkik (2004) argue that there has to be a focus on pre-training and post-training management practices. They suggest that particular attention be paid to the selection of trainees and trainee entry onto the programme to avoid stigmatization and backlash. Post-training behavioural coaching and follow-up sessions, they argue, will mediate trainee concerns and facilitate transfer of learning to the workplace.

Organisations that are seeking greater diversity effectiveness are urged to review previous research that offers frameworks, models and guidelines for implementing an integrated diversity strategy. Their specific organisational context will determine the integrated strategy that they adopt. Once this is conceptualised, diversity awareness training programmes need to be strategically positioned to contribute to realising the overarching goals of the integrated strategy. Context specific and relevant pre and post-training management practices then have to be selected to support the implementation and outcomes of the training programme. A second recommendation to organisations centres on monitoring and evaluating outcomes.

Ongoing and comprehensive monitoring and evaluation. In the discussion chapter of this dissertation, several authors are noted for their support of and claims that evaluating diversity training and diversity initiatives ensures that: the method and content of training programmes are appropriate and result in them meeting their goals; training contributes to behavioural change, broader diversity initiatives and organisational effectiveness; and ensures a higher level of commitment and accountability in the organisation (Arai, et al, 2001; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Chrobot-Mason & Quiñones, 2003; Mclaughlin & Clemons, 2004; Potter, et al., 2003; Rynes & Rosen, 1995; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1999). The dilemma for organisations, however, centres on how to go about these evaluations as there are a range of approaches and methods that can be considered. Without reviewing these options, suggestions are offered based on this research's approach and findings. In relation to evaluating training outcomes, it is recommended that:

- Organisations clearly identify the proximal outcomes of the training intervention and measure whether these have been met or not.

- Evaluations be made of concrete outcomes such as changes is attitudes, knowledge, learning and skills and whether the design and methodology of the course was appropriate in addition to the more common evaluation of reaction to training.

In relation to the broader evaluation of the impact of training on organisational effectiveness, it is recommended that:

- A comprehensive evaluation is undertaken that considers all variables in the organisational environment that could impact learning transfer, the connections between the training and other related diversity initiatives and how all of this impacts learning transfer and organisational effectiveness.

Finally, while evaluations can happen at set periods and intervals, mechanisms to measure and monitor outcomes associated with diversity training and broader diversity initiatives must be designed as part of the conceptualisation and design of the training or broader diversity initiative.

While organisations can improve diversity effectiveness by considering these recommendations, training providers also need to consider factors which can improve the delivery and effectiveness of diversity training.

Recommendations to training providers

Alternative approaches to diversity awareness and sharing of knowledge and skills. The proposition that achieving diversity related attitudinal and behavioural change is a difficult and long-term process is widely supported (Arai, et al., 2001; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Kay & Stringer, 2003; Lindsay, 1994; Tan, et al., 2003; Sue, 1991). It is argued that there is an interplay between awareness, attitudes, knowledge, skills and behaviours and that certain conditions have to be met for individuals to change both attitudes and behaviours. The broad premises of diversity awareness training are that individuals are provided with information and knowledge about diversity; an understanding of prejudice discrimination; opportunities to surface and challenge unconscious attitudes, beliefs and values; and the necessary skills to change behaviour (Adams, et al; Arai, et al., 2001; Aguilar & Woo, 2000; Carr-Ruffino, 1996; Cox & Beale, 1997; Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Hayles & Russell, 1997; Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1998). The most common format for delivering such training is in the form of a training workshop, programme or course that may take place over a couple of hours to two-three days (Ferdman & Brody, 1996; Kay & Stringer, 2003). It has been suggested that the limited duration and lack of depth and range of topic coverage limits the impact of short courses. Precisely because ensuring attitudinal and behavioural change is so difficult, it is recommended that in addition to the traditional training format alternative methodologies and approaches to bringing about change be considered by organisations.

Firstly, Ferdman & Brody (1996) alludes to an approach to training that is ongoing as opposed to a once-off event. In this format, consecutive sessions are conducted with a learning group over an extended period of time deepening learning and allowing for practice and application in the workplace between sessions. Support for this approach was found in an evaluation study of diversity training for social work field instructors. Peterson, et al. (2004) found significant changes in behaviour in relation to cultural competence. The diversity training approach taken in this study encompassed six three-hour training sessions which were each held a month apart. A similar approach is taken by Beverly Tatum (1992) who acknowledges that the pace for changing consciousness and behaviour differs amongst individuals. Using models of black and white racial identity development, she engages learners in consecutive sessions over a semester and in between provides theoretical, practical and experiential assignments to enhance learning.

Organisations could consider adapting approaches like these to their specific organisational environments and needs.

A second approach is to enable in-depth, structured and facilitated dialoguing sessions ensuring depth of coverage around issues that are deemed important by those participating in the dialogue. Lindsay (1994) argues that the very tensions and issues that individuals and organisations are uncomfortable with must be discussed in-depth in order for organisational change to occur. Dialogue of this nature forces organisations to surface unexamined assumptions and the hidden tensions associated with difference (Lindsay, 1994). These views are shared by Kersten (2000,) using Habermas's concepts of dialogue as a basis for organisational diversity management that stipulates that three things need to happen in meaningful dialogue: "1) a critical and reflective understanding of one's own world; 2) an emphatic grasping of the world of the other; and 3) a shared building of a joint world, based on an undistorted consensus."(Kersten (2000, p. 239). Dialoguing provides an opportunity to work through individual and organisational worldviews and an opportunity to deconstruct deep-seated beliefs, values, attitudes and values around differences.

It is recommended that organisations consider including dialoguing sessions of this nature in their training programmes and integrated diversity initiatives as another tool for attitudinal change.

A missing link in ensuring depth and range of coverage may be training providers' failure to consider advances made in areas other than organisational and management studies in relation to diversity effectiveness. A failure of current diversity initiatives is that their emphasis is often directed at compliance to a legal and ethical framework around diversity and equity, sensitizing and educating non-target or mainstream (most often white) participants around the effects and

impact of racism and prejudice on target groups and educating individuals about different cultures (Karp & Sammour, 2000; Lazarus Stewart & Peal, 2001; Koonce, 2001). These approaches are sometimes rooted in social identity theory and racial identity development models developed in the field of psychology and do bring about some shift in individuals consciousness around the impact of race and diversity. However, they often do not bring to the foreground the impact of race on those who have benefited from racism and discrimination and run the risk of downplaying the extent to which race and its associated power are deeply embedded in economic, social and political life (Human, 1996; Sonn, 1995). In the literature review a critique of diversity training is that it fails to address issues of structural power, oppression and discrimination. Both these are addressed in approaches adopted in the multicultural education and cross-cultural psychology literatures. They have focused on long-term re-education by addressing power, internalised dominance, whiteness and white privilege. Elaine Manglitz (2003) articulates this clearly when she writes

> "During most of the 20th century, racial relations and the problem of racism have focused almost exclusively on various aspects of the experiences of Blacks and other people of colour, revealing almost nothing about the motivators of Whites (Bowser & Hunt, 1996). Such practices derive from the belief that racial prejudice and bias grow from personal ignorance and can be addressed primarily by education and information, thus ignoring the institutional and cultural components of racism and their conflation with power and privilege (Bowser & Hunt, 1996). The problems of racism have generally focused on those affected by racism instead of those who have benefited from it, and the complex issues around the maintenance of White identity, power, and privilege were not usually examined."(pp. 119-120)

It is recommended that trainers consider the extent to which they are prematurely presenting trainees with a right way of being without providing sufficient opportunity to examine non-target trainees to also examine how they came to be privileged and racialised and how this informs their behaviour (ELRU, 1997; Sonn, 1995). Here the multi-cultural education and cross-cultural psychology literatures may offer practical insights around developing appropriate training methodologies and content.

An example of a fourth alternate approach, are programmes like the Vuka initiative undertaken by First National Bank (Maier, 2002). In this approach Vuka sessions (2-day training) are combined with Vuka immersions (2-day experiential exercises to sites in townships) and Vuka umhlanganos (interactive forums or discussion groups). Maier (2002) used the Vuka initiative to verify, explain and explore a conceptual framework for leading diversity that integrates concepts of individuation, esteem, uniqueness, inclusiveness, humaneness, dignity, cross-fertilisation, trust and isithunzi. The Vuka programme appears to combines a number of activities and processes which contribute to developing diversity awareness and competence.

It is recommended that organisations consider approaches such as these that combine novel activities that are practical, experiential and iterative and so may meet the different learning needs of individuals in the organisation.

Lastly, in considering alternate approaches to diversity awareness training, it is noted that traditional awareness, knowledge and skills training programmes are often based on research and literature emanating from the UK, Canada and the USA. In the SA context majorities and not minorities have been marginalised. Programmes are needed that directly take account of this reality.

In SA, blacks as victims of apartheid and oppression have been taught to be inferior and have internalised oppression while whites have been taught to be superior. Valerie Batts (1989) (cited in ELRU, 1997) developed a model of modern racism/internalised domination and internalised oppression that explains this interaction. They specify behaviours that both blacks and whites unintentionally and unconsciously enact that allows prejudice, discrimination, subtle racism and internalised oppression to persist. In this model both parties are held accountable for their attitudes and behaviours and for required changes and can develop an understanding of their respective roles can contribute to change. This approach moves away from sensitising individuals about diversity related issues to empowering and holding individuals accountable for specific changes in behaviour. Training programmes cannot solely be focussed on sensitising individuals to difference and effectively dealing with individuals who are different. Individuals who have been at the receiving end of differential treatment and whose experience is one of being victims of oppression, discrimination and racism may require focused training that enables them to move beyond this experience and a victim mentality.

It is recommended that organisations take account of these dynamics when designing training interventions and integrated diversity initiatives.

In summary, organisations are urged to consider alternate approaches to the traditional once-off training interventions by : engaging in longer term interventions that allow for practical application, practice and transfer of learning between sessions; incorporating dialogue as a basis for change; adopting multi-faceted programmes like Vuka that offer a range of activities; and by ensuring that their initiatives take account of the dynamics associated with internalised oppression and internalised domination as experienced in the SA context.

Recommendations have included proposals that organisations: engage in training as part of an integrated diversity strategy; consider alternate ways of enabling learning and sharing; ensure that evaluating diversity training become standard practice.

Limitations

It is acknowledged that undertaking research in an organisational context, presents researchers with many constraints (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Goldstein, 1993; Rossi, et al., 2004). In this study obtaining a site to undertake an evaluation presented the first challenge as organisations either placed little value on evaluating their diversity training or were concerned about the impact on the organisation. At the site of this evaluation, the organisation was very concerned about the amount of person-hour time that it would require of participants. The study was confined to an evaluation of only two training sessions and limitations were placed on direct liaison with participants or potential participants. This resulted in a relatively small number of individuals initially participating in the study as part of the experimental and control groups with little room for expected drop out of participants over the three month period. Initially participants totalled 67 but this reduced to 24 three months later. The small sample size placed limitations on the statistical analyses conducted in this research and particularly impacted the power and effect size where significant results were found.

In addition, the effectiveness of any diversity training is impacted by the nature and quality of the training, the trainers' level of expertise and the specific organisational context, climate and environment. Neither of these were the focus of this evaluation and were not explored in great detail. The above contributes to limiting the generalisability of the results and accounts for limitations associated with this study leading to the suggestion that further evaluation research is required across sectors and training contexts.

Measurement in this study was based on an attitude scale and self-report questionnaire. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) and Nisbett and Wilson (1971) cited in Cummingham, et al. (2001) concur that measures like these assume that individuals have the motivation and ability to accurately report attitudes and beliefs and agree that this assumption does not hold up to scrutiny. Developers of the attitude scale in this research paid careful attention to these concerns by treating and measuring attitudes as multidimensional and reverse coding certain items to prevent socially desirable responses. Diversity training evaluations can be strengthened by including measures that do not solely rely on self-report data. Constraints relating to resources and time made it difficult for the researcher to expand this study by including additional data collection methods. It is also acknowledged too that qualitative investigation of the findings in this study could have provided additional and invaluable insights.

While the limitations associated with this study are noted, the findings do provide relevant insights for further research and for increasing understanding of diversity training effectiveness. An exploration of areas for further research follows.

Further Research

Further research that is needed is considered at two levels – in relation to this study and its limitations and more generally in relation to diversity training and diversity management. Three possible areas of research are suggested that could add value to the findings in this study.

Firstly, this study found that environmental factors may contribute to sustaining progress achieved in diversity training programmes. This has been tested in one particular environment with a very small sample. While research on larger samples is required, cross-organisational studies that investigate and compare the relationship between particular organisational environments and particular approaches to diversity training could provide corroboration for best practice and models for the successful implementation of diversity training. These then need to be complemented by case-studies and in-depth analyses (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000).

Secondly, Rynes & Rosen's (1995. p.26) comments made in 1995 after an empirical survey of perceptions around factors affecting the adoption and perceived success of diversity training are still pertinent in the context of this studies findings and discussions. They say that research is required on the "clarification of causal relationships, examination of interrelationships between diversity training and other diversity initiatives, and assessment of the dimensionality of training outcomes." Research that measures not only the effectiveness of an organisation's particular diversity awareness training programme but broadly assesses its impact in relation to other initiatives and mediating variables in the organisational environment could also add to empirical knowledge of the value of diversity training.

Thirdly, because measuring diversity effectiveness remains complex, triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data and longer time-series studies may provide unique insights around diversity training effectiveness. Barry and Bateman (1996) specifically suggest that research has traditionally measured the impact of diversity initiatives on dependent variables which are often unrelated to diversity. There is therefore a need to 'develop valid operationalisations of variables in field settings' and the 'creation of reliable measures for qualitative analysis followed by qualitative approaches that collect richer information' (Barry & Bateman, 1996, p.784). They suggest interviews, stories, verbal protocols, focus-group discussions, critical incidents, observations of meetings, and the business press as qualitative data collection methods.

These suggestions for further empirical research can incrementally contribute to our understanding of diversity as it is increasingly of significance globally to the functioning of organisations and society at large.

Concluding remarks

This research has shown that diversity training does not necessarily result in long-term changes in attitudes, knowledge and skills and thereby contribute to organisational diversity effectiveness. A simplistic reaction to this conclusion may be to advocate that organisations should refrain from undertaking diversity training as it is a waste of time, energy and organisational resources. It could be argued that such a conclusion is an option only for those who are unaffected by the pervasive prejudice and discrimination still prevalent in organisations and society at large. Not addressing inequity and injustice destabilises and renders organisations ineffective. However, there are no quick-fixes. Strategies to address the challenges and opportunities associated with diversity require consistent and long-term investments of resources and time. Furthermore solutions are often complex and multi-facetted.

It is acknowledged that once-off and adhoc diversity training interventions that attempt to change attitudes, knowledge and skills may make a limited contribution to diversity effectiveness. However, if diversity training is implemented as part of a well conceptualised, organisation specific, integrated and ongoing managing diversity strategy, the contribution to individual and organisational change will be greater. This contribution will be contingent upon the nature and quality of the training and how the training is positioned in relation to other strategies to bring about diversity effectiveness.

Organisations that view diversity effectiveness as a strategic necessity and imperative are well advised to consider whether they have: the necessary will and commitment of top management; accepted that diversity effectiveness is a long-term strategy; clear goals and strategies for achieving them; the training has been sufficiently well planned and integrated with other diversity initiatives; and implemented mechanisms to consistently monitor and evaluate outcomes and adapt strategies as required.

REFERENCES

Abernathy, D. J. (1999). Thinking outside the evaluation box [Electronic version]. *Training & Development*, February, 18-23.

Adams, M., Bell, L. A., & Griffin, P. (Eds). (1997). *Teaching for diversity and social justice: a sourcebook.* New York: Routledge.

Adler, N. J. (1997). *Organizational Behaviour.* Ohio, USA: South-Western College Publishing.

Aguilar, V. & Woo, G. (2000). Team teaching and learning in diversity training for National Service Programs [Electronic version]. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education,* 87, 63-71.

Alloo, F., Monteiro, L., Argemi, A., Bakari, I., & Perez, X. (2003). Culture: cultural sensitivity, cultural production and identity. In W. F. Fisher & T. Ponniah, *Another world is possible* (pp. 212-217). Cape Town: David Philip.

Arai, M., Wanca-Thibault, M., & Shockley-Zalabak, P. (2001). Communication theory and training approaches for multiculturally diverse organizations: Have academics and practitioners missed the connection?[Electronic version] *Public Personnel Management,* 30, 445-455.

Arredondo, P. (1996). *Successful diversity management initiatives: a blueprint for planning and implementation.* Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage Publications Inc.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2002). The practice of social research. South Africa: Oxford University Press.

Bailey, A., Barr, O., & Bunting, B. (2001). Police attitudes towards people with disability: an evaluation of awareness training. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 45, 344-350.

Barry, B. & Bateman, T. S. (1996). A social trap analysis of the management of diversity [Electronic version]. *Academy of Management Review,* 21, 757-790.

Beaver, W. (1995). Let's stop diversity training and start managing diversity [Electronic version]. *IM,* July/August, 7-9.

Bernthal, P. R. (1995). Evaluation that goes the distance [Electronic version]. *Training & Development*, September, 41-45.

Brislin, R. W. (1990). Applied cross-cultural psychology: an introduction. In R. W. Brislin (Ed), *Applied Cross Cultural Psychology* (pp. 9-33). California: Sage.

Burkard, A. W., Jones, J. A., & Johll, M. P. (2002). Hierarchical factor analysis of the Quick Discrimination Index. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 62,* 64-78.

Carr-Ruffino, N. (1996). *Managing diversity: people skills for a multicultural workplace.* USA: Thompson Executive Press.

Cavaleros, C., Van Vuuren, L. J., & Visser, D. (2002). The effectiveness of a diversity awareness training programme. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology,* 28, 50-61.

Chrobot-Mason, D., & Quiñones, M.A. (2002). Training for a diverse workplace. In K. Kraiger (Ed.), *Creating implementing and managing effective training and development* (pp. 117-159). California: Jossey-Bass.

Cox, T., & Beale, R. L. (1997). *Developing competency to manage diversity.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Cunningham, W. A., Preacher, K. J., & Banaji, M. R. (2001). Implicit attitude measurement: consistency, stability and convergent validity. *American Psychological* Society, 12, 163-170.

Dale, K. (1997). Book reviews. *Industrial Relations Journal, 92-93.*

Davidson, M. J., & Fielden, S. L. (2003). *Individual diversity and psychology in organizations.* England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

De Beer, F. & Botha, R. (1996). *Affirmative action in South Africa: A special report.* Randburg: Price Waterhouse.

DeRosa, P. (2001). *Social change or status quo? Approaches to diversity training* [Electronic version]. ChangeWorks Consulting:Randolph, MA.

Diamante, T., & Giglio, L. (1994). Managing a diverse workforce: training as a cultural intervention strategy [Electronic version]. *Leadership & Organisational Development Journal*, 15, 13-17.

Doverspike, D., Taylor, M. A., & Arthur, Jr., W. (1999). *Affirmative Action: a psychological perspective.* Huntington, NY: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Early Learning Resource Unit (1997). *Shifting paradigms: Using an anti-bias strategy to challenge oppression and assist transformation in the South African context.* SA: Rustica Press.

Elmes, M. & Connelley, D. L. (1997). Dreams of diversity and the realities of intergroup relations in organizations. In P. Prasad, A .J. Mills, M. Elmes, & A. Prasad (Eds), Managing the organizational melting pot (pp. 148-167). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Everett Wallace, C. (2004). Learning the "proper" way to embrace diversity [Electronic version]. *Franchising World,* June, 21-22.

Ferdman, B. M., & Brody, S. E. (1996). Models of diversity training. In D. Landis & R. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (2nd ed., pp. 282-303). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Friday, E. & Friday, S. S. (2003). Managing diversity using a strategic planned change approach [Electronic version]. *Journal of Management Development,* 22, 863-880.

Foxon, M. (1989). Evaluation of training and development programs: a review of the literature. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology*, 5, 89-104.

Gardenswartz, L., & Rowe, A. (1998). *Managing diversity: a complete desk reference & planning guide*. McGraw-Hill: New York.

Gillespie, D., AshBaugh, L. & DeFiore, J. (2002). White women teaching white women about privilege, race cognizance and social action: toward a pedagogical pragmatics. *Race Ethnicity and Education,* 5, 237-253.

Goga, F. (2000). *Towards affirmative action.* Durban: University of Natal.

Goldstein, I. L. (1993). *Training in organizations: needs assessment, development , and evaluation.* California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Green, R. G., Hamlin, H., & Walters, K. (2004). Some normative data on mental health professionals' attitudes about racial miorities and women. *Psychological Reports,* 94, 485-494.

Hayles, R. V., & Russel, A. M. (1997). *The diversity directive: why some initiatives fail and what to do about it*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Herholdt, W. (1999). *Employment equity in South Africa: A guide to affirmative action success.* South Africa: Prentice Hall.

Hinkle, J. S. (1994). Practitioners and cross-cultural assessment: A practical guide to information and training. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling & Development, 27.*

Holly, L. & Rainbird, H. (2000). Workplace learning and the limits to evaluation. In H. Rainbird (Ed.), *Training in the workplace: critical perspectives on learning at work* (pp. 264-282). New York: St Martin Press Inc.

Hubbard, E. E. (2001). *Measuring diversity results*. Petaluma, CA: Global Insights Publishing.

Human, L., Bluen, S., & Davies, R. (Eds.) (1999). *Baking a new cake: How to succeed at employment equity.* Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

Human, L. (1996). *Contemporary conversations: Understanding and managing diversity in the modern world.* Senegal: The Goreé Institute.

iNCUDISA (2004). *SANPAD Diversity Interventions Research Project – Proposal*. Cape Town: UCT

Ivancevich, J. M. & Gilbert, J. A. (2000). Diversity management: time for a new approach. *Public Personnel Management*, 29, 75-92.

Kamfer, L. & Venter, D. J. (1994). First evaluation of a stereotype reduction workshop. *South African Journal of Psychology,* 24, 13-21.

Karp, H.B. & Sammour, H.Y. (2000). Workforce diversity: Choices in diversity training programs and dealing with resistance to diversity. *College Student Journal,* 34, 451-459.

Kassiem, A. (2005, May 13). Court told racism part of 'reality' of firm. *The Cape Times.* Retreived July, 21, 2005, from http://www.iol.co.za/general/news/newsprint.php?art-id=vn20050513065758296C80378.

Kay, R. Y. & Stringer, D. M. (2003). Designing a diversity training programme that suits your organization. In M. J. Davidson & S. L. Fielden (Eds.), *Individual diversity and psychology in organizations* (pp. 239-251). John Wiley & Sons Ltd.: England.

Kersten, A. (2000). Diversity Management: dialogue, dialectics and diversion. *Journal of Organisational Change Management,* 13, 235-248.

Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1994). *Evaluating training program: the four Levels.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Kirton, G. & Greene, A. M. (2000). *The dynamics of managing diversity: a critical approach.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Koonce, R. (2001). Redefining diversity. [Electronic version]. *Training and Development,* December, 22-29.

Kraiger, K. (2002). Decision-based evaluation. In K. Kraiger (Ed.), *Creating implementing and managing effective training and development* (pp. 302-330). California: Jossey-Bass.

Kraiger, K., Ford, J. K., & Salas, E. (1993). Application of cognitive, skill-based, and affective theories of learning outcomes to new methods of training evaluation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 311-328.

Lazarus Stewart, D. & Peal, D. A. (2001). How can we improve diversity training [Electronic version]. *About Campus*, September-October, 25-27.

Levine-Rasky, C. (2000). Framing whiteness: working through the tensions in introducing whiteness to educators. *Race Ethnicity and Education,* 3, 271-292.

Lewis, J. (1996). Practicing diversity awareness [Electronic version]. *Women in Business*, 48, 28-32.

Lindsay, C. (1994). Things that go wrong with diversity training [Electronic version]. *Journal of Organizational Change Management,* 7, 18-33.

López, S. R. (2002). Teaching culturally informed psychological assessment: Conceptual issues and demonstrations. *Journal of Personality Assessment,* 79, 226-234.

Lunt, P. (1994). Should you do diversity training? *ABA Banking Journal,* August, 53-54.

Maier, C. (2002). *Leading diversity – a conceptual framework.* Switzerland: University of Gallen, Institute for Leadership and HR Management.

Majumdar, B., Keystone, J. S., & Cuttress, L. A. (1999). Cultural sensitivity training among foreign medical graduates [Electronic version]. *Medical Education*, 33, 177-184.

Manglitz, E. (2003). Challenging white privilege in adult education: a critical review of the literature. *Adult Education Quarterly,* 53, 119-134.

McIntosh, P. (1990). White Privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. *Independent School*, 49.

McLaughlin, J. & Clemons, L. (2004). Diversity training the often-forgotten bur necessary ingredient in any employment training program [Electronic version]. *Public Management*, June, 32-35.

Michalski, G.V. & Cousins, J. B. (2001). Multiple perspectives on training evaluation. *American Journal of Evaluation,* 22, 37-54.

Mobley, M. & Payne, T. (1992). Backlash! The challenge to diversity training. *Training & Development*, December, 45-52.

Montes, T. & Shaw, G. (2003). The future of workplace diversity in the new millennium. In M. J. Davidson & S. L. Fielden (Eds.), *Individual diversity and psychology in organizations* (pp. 385-402). John Wiley & Sons Ltd.: England.

Moore, S. (1999). Understanding and managing diversity among groups at work: key issues for organizational training and development. *Journal of European Industrial Training,* 23, 208-217.

Mouton, J. (2001). *How to Succeed in your Masters and Doctoral Studies*. Van Schaik: Cape Town

Nzimande, B. & Sikhosana, M. (Eds.) (1996). *Affirmative action and transformation.* Durban: University of Natal.

Noe, R. A. & Colquitt, J. A. (2002). Planning for training impact: principles of training effectiveness. In K. Kraiger (Ed.), *Creating, implementing and managing effective training and development* (pp. 53-79). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Oellermann, I. (2005; 12 May). Bank faces R500 000 claim for alleged racism. *The Mercury.* Retreived July, 21, 2005, from http://www.iol.co.za/general/news/newsprint.php?art-id=vn20050512073034625C89597.

Overmyer Day, L. E. (1995). The pitfalls of diversity training. *Training & Development,* December, 24-29.

Pearce, S. (2003). Compiling the white inventory: the practice of whiteness in a British primary schools. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 33, 273-288.

Peterson Armour, M., Rubio, R., & Bain, B. (2004). An evaluation study of diversity training for field instructors: a collaborative approach to enhancing cultural competence [Electronic version]. *Journal of Social Work Education,* 40, 27-37

Ponterotto, J. G. et, al. (1995). Development and initial validation of the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI). *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*, 1016-1031

Ponterotto, J G., Potere, J. C., & Johansen, S. A. (2002). The Quick Discrimination Index: normative data and user guidelines for counseling researchers. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 30*, 192-207.

Potter, M. A., Ley, C. E., Fertman, C. I., Eggleston, M. M., & Duman, S. (2003). Evaluating workforce development: perspectives, processes, and lessons learnt. *Journal of Public Health Management Practice,* 9, 489-495.

Prasad, A. & Elmes, M. (1997). Issues in the management of workplace diversity. In P. Prasad, A .J. Mills, M. Elmes, & A. Prasad (Eds), Managing the organizational melting pot (pp. 367-375). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Prasad, P. & Mills, A.J. (1997). From showcase to shadow: understanding the dilemmas of managing workplace diversity. In P. Prasad, A .J. Mills, M. Elmes, & A. Prasad (Eds), Managing the organizational melting pot (pp. 3-31). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Quiñones, M.A., & Tonidandel, S. (2003). Conducting training evaluation. In J.E. Edwards, J.C. Scott, & N.S. Raju (Eds.), *The human resources program-evaluation handbook* (pp. 225-242). California: Sage Publications.

Quintal, A (2005, April, 19). Judges aware of racism in the judiciary. *The Star.* Retreived July, 21, 2005, from http://www.iol.co.za/general/news/newsprint.php?art_id=vn20050419064309219C15082.

Racism We're all in trouble. (2005, March 26). *Weekend Argus,* p. 1.

Ramsey, M. (1996). Diversity identity development training: theory informs practice [Electronic version]. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development,* 24, 229-241.

Rijamampianina, R., & Maxwell, T. (2002). The sharing principle: a way of managing multicultural organizations [Electronic version]. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 33, 1-11.

Robinson, G. & Dechant, K. (1997). Building a business case for diversity [Electronic version]. *The Academy Of Management Executive*, 11, 21-29.

Rosenfeld, P., Landis, D., & Dalsky, D. (2003). Evaluating diversity programs. In J. E. Edwards, J. C. Scott, & N. S. Raju (Eds.), *Human resources program–evaluation handbook* (pp. 343-362). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Rossi, P. H., Freeman, H. E., & Lipsey, M. W. (2004). *Evaluation: a systematic approach.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Rynes, S. & Rosen, B. (1995). A field survey of factors affecting the adoption and perceived success of diversity training [Electronic version]. *Personnel Psychology,* 48, 247-270.

Sanchez, J. I. & Medkik, N. (2004). The effects of diversity awareness training on differential treatment [Electronic version]. *Group & Organization Management,* 29, 517-536.

Schmidt, P. (2004). An approach to diversity training in Canada. *Industrial and Commercial Training,* 4, 148-152.

Shubane, K. (1995). *The wrong cure: Affirmative action and South Africa's search for racial equality*. Johannesburg: Centre for Policy Studies, Wits.

Sloman, M. (2004). Learning evaluation or not? *Training & Development,* September, 45.

Smith, A. (2005, March, 13). Rasool tackles school trouble. *The Cape Argus.* Retreived July, 21, 2005, from http://www.iol.co.za/general/news/newsprint.php?art_id=vn20050303124021757C95968.

Sonn, J. (1995). Rewriting the "white is right"model: Towards an inclusive society. In M. E. Steyn & K. B. Motshabi (Eds.), *Cultural synergy in South Africa.* Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

Sue, D. W. (1991). A model for cultural diversity training [Electronic version]. *Journal of Counseling & Development,* 70, 99-105.

Swanson, D. R. (2002). Diversity programs: attitudes and realities in the contemporary corporate environment [Electronic version]. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal,* 4, 257-268.

Tan, D. L., Morris, L. A., & Romero, J. (2003). Workable strategies and effectiveness of diversity training. In M. J. Davidson & S. L. Fielden (Eds.), *Individual diversity and psychology in organizations* (pp. 285-294). John Wiley & Sons Ltd.: England.

Tan, D. L., Morris, L. A., & Romero, J. (1996). Changes in attitude after diversity training [Electronic version]. *Training & Development,* September, 54-55.

Tatum, B. D. (1992). Talking about race, learning about racism: the application of racial identity development theory in the classroom. *Harvard Educational Review,* 62, 321-348.

Thomas, A. (1996). *Beyond affirmative action.* Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

Thomas, D. A. & Ely, R. J. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: the effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes [Electronic version]. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46, 229-266.

Utsey, S. O., & Ponterotto, J. G. (1999). Further factorial validity assessment of scores on the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI). *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 59,* 325-335.

Wentling, R. M. & Palma-Rivas, N. (1999). Components of effective diversity training programmes. *International Journal of Training & Development,* 3, 215-227.

APPENDIX 1: Sample Questionnaire

University Of Cape Town
Department of Organisational Psychology
Diversity Questionnaire Survey
Researcher: Réjane Williams

XXXXXX staff members experience of diversity and diversity training

Introduction
This questionnaire survey is being administered as part of a research effort for an Organisational Psychology Masters Degree. The researcher is interested in investigating individuals' opinions and experiences in relation to diversity and diversity awareness training. This information will contribute to our understanding of diversity-related issues.

Individuals who complete the survey, are assured that their identity will remain confidential at all times. You are also asked personal and sensitive information (for, example, age, religion and previous 'race' classification). Please be assured that this information is necessary as it relates to issues of diversity and that it will be used confidentially and sensitively.

There are no right or wrong answers in this survey. Information that is a reflection of your actual and honest opinions and experiences will be of greatest value. The researcher recognizes too that individuals have busy schedules and time constraints and therefore would like to thank each person who participates in this study.

Please answer all the questions in the survey. Directions as to how to respond to questions are provided.

1. **BIOGRAPHICAL DATA** *(If you are concerned about completing this section, please discuss this with the researcher)*

1.1 Name & Surname _____
(or code provided by HR Dept)

1.2 Age: Please indicate the age category into which you fall
[1] 20-30 years
[2] 31-40 years
[3] 41-50 years
[4] 51-60 years
[5] 61 and over

Below mark the appropriate blocks with an ***X***

1.3 Gender
[1] Man
[2] Woman

1.4 Marital Status
[1] Single
[2] Married
[3] Divorced
[4] Widow/widower
[5] Other – Specify_____

1.5 Home Language
[1] Afrikaans
[2] English
[3] Xhosa
[4] Other – Specify_____

1.6 Population group (Previously classified as)
[1] Black South African
[2] Coloured South African
[3] Indian South African
[4] White South African
[5] Other – Specify_____

1.7 Religion
[1] Christianity
[2] Hinduism
[3] Islam
[4] Non-practicing
[5] Other – Specify_____

1.8 Grade/level in organization

_____

1.9 Highest educational level

[1] No matric
[2] Matric
[3] Tertiary Qualification
[4] Other – Specify_____

2. MOTIVATION FOR ATTENDING THE COURSE

2.1
[1] Nominated by senior
[2] Nominated self
[3] Other – Specify_____

2.2 If you nominated self, what are your reasons for doing so

[1] For my own professional development as it is important to understand diversity in the workplace
[2] To explore why I personally am experiencing difficulties with diversity related issues
[3] Other – Specify_____

2.3 If you have attended any other courses related to diversity, could you please list these and the approximate dates when you attended

_____

_____

_____

_____

Below indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements

2.4 I have clear objectives about what I want to learn on the course

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.5 I believe that the training will be helpful to me in relation to dealing with diversity issues

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.6 The organization provides a supportive environment for implementing learning about diversity

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.7 The training will result in changes in the organization in terms of how it deals with diversity

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.8 I am anxious about attending this training

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3. KNOWLEDGE ABOUT DIVERSITY

3.1 I am able to define the term diversity

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.2 I understand how diversity impacts work relationships in both helpful and harmful ways

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.3 **I have a high level of knowledge about the cultures, beliefs and values of groups other than my own. Indicate your response in relation to the groups listed below.** *(By ticking the appropriate block)*

Group	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Other gender					
Individuals with disabilities					
Gays/lesbians					
Other religious groups					
Blacks					
Coloureds					
Indians					
Whites					

3.4 **I have an understanding of terminology like stereotyping, prejudice, discrimination, racism and sexism**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.5 **I understand what the term managing diversity means**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.6 **I have knowledge about Eurocentricism and Afrocentricism**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.7 **I am able to list behaviours that help to create a positive environment for valuing diversity**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.8 **I am able to identify behaviours that create a negative atmosphere and environment for valuing diversity**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

4. DIVERSITY RELATED SKILLS

4.1 **I feel empowered to address diversity issues in the workplace (in relation to, for example, race, gender, religion, sexual preference, etc)**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

4.2 **I experience anxiety and conflict when diversity issues come up in the workplace**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

4.3 **I am able to resolve diversity related conflict**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

4.4 **I believe that there are specific skills that I require to address diversity related issues**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

4.5 **I am able to adapt my behaviours as required when interacting with individuals who are different to me**

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5. ATTITUDES

The statements below require you to indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Please let us know your true thoughts, opinions and feelings.

5.1 It is my responsibility to take action to ensure that others are not discriminated against

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.2 I need to reflect on my own values, unconscious biases and prejudices if I want to be effective in dealing with diversity related issues

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.3 Neither I, nor anyone else, will be able to effectively deal with diversity related issues

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.4 I believe I have the ability to positively change the way I deal with diversity related issues

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.5 I am confident that I can develop the skills necessary to deal with everyone fairly

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.6 I really think affirmative action programmes constitute reverse discrimination

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.7 I feel I could develop an intimate relationship with someone from a different race

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.8 All South Africans should learn to speak an indigenous (African) language.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.9 My friendship network is very racially mixed.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.10 I am against affirmative action programs in business.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.11 I would feel O.K. about my son or daughter dating someone from a different racial group.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.12 It upsets (or angers) me that a black person was never president of South Africa prior to 1994

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.13 In the past few years there has been too much attention directed towards diversity, multicultural or racial issues in education.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.14 Most of my close friends are from my own racial group.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.15 I think that it is (or would be) important for my children to attend schools that are racially mixed.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.16 In the past few years there has been too much attention directed toward diversity, multicultural or racial issues in business.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.17 Overall, I think previously disadvantaged people in South Africa complain too much about racial discrimination.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.18 I think the president of South Africa should make a concerted effort to appoint more women and previously disadvantaged people to the country's Supreme Court.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.19 I think White people's racism toward Blacks and other racial groups still constitutes a major problem in South Africa.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.20 I think the school system, from primary school through university, should encourage all children to learn and fully adopt traditional Christian values

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.21 If I were to adopt a child, I would be happy to adopt a child of any race.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.22 I think the school system, from primary school through university, should promote values representative of diverse cultures.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.23 I believe that reading the autobiography of Nelson Mandela would be of value.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.24 I would (or do) enjoy living in a neighborhood consisting of a racially diverse population.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5.25 I think it is better if people marry within their race.

Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE