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An analysis of the influence of internal and external factors on diversity training design: a case study of a multinational corporation in Saudi Arabia

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UNIVERSITY of LIMERICK

OLLSCOIL LUIMNIGH

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE INFLUENCE OF
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS ON
DIVERSITY TRAINING DESIGN: A CASE
STUDY OF A MULTINATIONAL
CORPORATION IN SAUDI ARABIA**

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University
of Limerick

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

ABSTRACT

Diversity training is a significant topic in human resource development literature and one that merits theoretical and practical attention. Over the past 20 years, a considerable body of research has been accumulated. However, diversity training research is still in its infancy as a body of research compared to training and development (T&D) and human resource development (HRD) research. There is limited knowledge of the organisational context of diversity training programmes and the design features of these training interventions. This thesis reviews the literature in order to assess the status of diversity training design features. The findings reveal: (1) relatively little diversity training research has emerged from an HRD perspective, (2) the majority of diversity training literature has focused on the public sector, (3) organisations have utilised a wide range of methods to deliver diversity training to employees, (4) methodologically, studies have suffered from significant limitations, including small sample sizes, overreliance on quantitative methods, and little use of qualitative or longitudinal designs, and (5) the majority of diversity training literature has emerged in Western cultural contexts. In addition, this thesis analyses the influence of internal and external factors on the design of diversity training programmes. To do so, 17 in-depth interviews were conducted with key managers from an MNC operating in Saudi Arabia and institutional actors responsible for shaping policies on diversity management. The findings show that external and internal factors directly influence diversity training design. Therefore, managers and HRD practitioners should consider such factors when designing diversity training programmes. Moreover, the results suggest that diversity training is culturally specific, and global managers must understand the cultural and institutional contexts of the host country before implementing and designing diversity training programmes.

STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for any award or any other higher education institution except as specified. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where the reference is made.

Signature: _____

date: ____/____/____

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Affirmative Action
CDSI	Central Department of Statistics & Information in Saudi Arabia
CAQDAS	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development
CSO	Case Study Organisation
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
D&I	Diversity and Inclusion
EO	Equal Opportunity
GCC	Gulf Council Corporations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRDQ	Human Resource Development Quarterly
HRDR	Human Resource Development Review
HRM	Human Resource Management
KSAs	Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
L&D	Learning and Development
MD	Managing Diversity
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
OB	Organisational Behaviour
RBV	Resources-Based View
SHRD	Strategic Human Resource Development
SHRM	Society of Human Resource Management
SMEs	Small and medium-sized enterprises
T+D	Training + Development
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
US	United States

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of this thesis. First, it elucidates the background and rationale for pursuing this research. Second, it highlights the research aims and objectives. Finally, it outlines the overall structure of the remaining chapters.

1.2 Background and Rationale for this Study

Diversity training has emerged as a major topic in human resource development (HRD) in recent years (Brooks and Clunis 2007; Byrd 2007). Globalisation has resulted in major demographic shifts, and now more than ever, organisations are required to hire employees from different ethnic, racial, and cultural backgrounds, and of different genders. Diversity is typically defined as differences between individuals in terms of a variety of attributes that may lead people to perceive that they differ from others (Qin *et al.* 2013). In the context of diversity, such differences may refer to individual characteristics, such as demographics, personality, values, religious and cultural beliefs, mental and physical ability, and sexual orientation. The challenge for organisations around the world is to integrate and manage these differences within the workforce and to optimise employees' job satisfaction and fit within the organisation (Kormanik and Rajan 2010). To meet this challenge, organisations must facilitate effective cross-cultural communication; understand and manage diversity-related conflicts; accommodate differences in behaviour, cognition, and attitudes; and create a culture and climate that understands and values diversity (Hite and McDonald 2010; Ng 2008).

Organisations are gradually providing more diversity management programmes (King *et al.* 2012; Kulik and Roberson 2008), an important component of which includes diversity training. Diversity training programmes have a strong educational or developmental focus (Kormanik and Rajan 2010; Kossek and Pichler 2007). Studies have shown that around 74%

of all Fortune 500 companies have implemented some form of diversity training (Kalinowski *et al.* 2012). More than 67% of US organisations cumulatively invest around \$10 billion per year in diversity training programmes (Jones *et al.* 2013). In large organisations, Frankel and Millman (2007) estimated that diversity training can cost the organisation \$1 million annually.

Organisations implement diversity training in order to promote a positive diversity climate, to develop employees' skills at communicating in diverse organisations, and to develop employees' cognitive dispositions, allowing them to be more aware of diversity issues (Kormanik and Rajan 2010). Diversity training may also be used to increase the participation of historically excluded groups in the workplace, enhance decision-making processes by incorporating a wide range of perspectives, facilitate entry into emerging markets, and enhance interaction with a diverse customer base (Pendry *et al.* 2007). However, the extent to which these goals are achieved and actually lead to better outcomes is controversial (Kalinowski *et al.* 2012; Konrad *et al.* 2015). This is because there has been relatively little discourse among HRD scholars regarding methodologies for designing diversity training in organisational settings (Alhejji *et al.* 2015), compared to the literature addressing diversity education at college and university (e.g. Anand and Winters 2008; Avery and Thomas 2004; Bierema 2010; Hite and McDonald 2010; Kormanik and Rajan 2010). There has been even less discussion on the factors influencing organisations to adopt diversity training, what kinds of diversity content should be taught, and how learning objectives can be effectively delivered. In light of these observations, the rationale for pursuing this thesis is as follows:

- First, the current literature has not paid sufficient attention to how organisations justify the provision of diversity training. The literature suggests that organisations may adopt diversity training for different rationales, including institutional (Scott

1987), social or ethical (Chavez and Weisinger 2008), or business-related (Ortlieb *et al.* 2013) rationales. Each of these cases may exert a different influence on how organisations design diversity training

- Second, the diversity training literature has not sufficiently addressed the issue of training employees in the workplace. Although three recent reviews on the topic of diversity training have made significant contributions (Bezrukova *et al.* 2012, Kalinoski *et al.* 2012; Kulik and Roberson 2008), they did not distinguish between diversity training and diversity education. Diversity education typically targets graduates in order to prepare them for the world of work, whereas diversity training is usually directed at employees in the organisational context. Furthermore, their analyses were grounded in psychological and educational perspectives. Such empirical studies on diversity training have not been systematically reviewed and evaluated from a management perspective, such as HRD and/or HRM. The methodologies for teaching diversity to employees are still underdeveloped.
- Third, there has been little discussion on methodologies for teaching diversity in organisational settings. Prior literature on diversity training (e.g., Curtis and Dreachslin 2008; Roberson *et al.* 2003; Roberson *et al.* 2013) has outlined some of these aspects independently, but recent reviews have not attempted to integrate these aspects into an overall framework. More specifically, some aspects of diversity training design have been investigated separately (e.g., voluntary vs. mandatory attendance and top management support; Kulik and Roberson 2008; Wentling and Palma-Rivas 1999), but never integrated together with the rationale for introducing diversity training.
- Fourth, to the best of my knowledge, no single study has focused on understanding how both the internal and external factors may influence diversity training design.

The literature has highlighted a number of external and internal factors that need to be considered in designing and implementing HRD practices (Garavan *et al.* 2004). Internal factors may include the demographics of the workforce, top management support, organisational characteristics, and other factors that are generally under the control of the organisation. External forces consist of government rules and regulations, cultural factors, local skills and competencies, and other factors that are beyond the control of the organisation. In response, and following Pitts *et al* (2010), I empirically examined a large set of the external and internal factors that might affect diversity training programmes. In this context, managers and HRD practitioners must understand and respond to all factors that affect their organisations when designing and implementing diversity training programmes.

- Fifth, much of the existing literature has examined diversity training in the public sector (Budhwar and Boyne 2004; Pitts 2005). Relatively few studies have attempted to understand how private organisations design and implement diversity training programmes. In order to deeply understand diversity training design, different sectors need to be explored, as management's perception of diversity varies between public and private organisations. In addition, prior studies have shown that each sector has its own distinctive organisational roles, structures, and processes that could affect diversity training design (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012).
- Sixth, the available empirical literature on diversity training programmes has been largely grounded in a positivist approach. In the context of diversity training, scholars have often relied on questionnaires or statistical analysis to understand aspects that can significantly influence diversity training design. In fact, there has been limited use of a constructivist approach (i.e., qualitative approach) to understand the broad picture of how internal and external factors influence diversity training design. A qualitative

approach can deeply enhance the understanding of how such factors affect diversity training design in a way that would not be otherwise possible in a hidden population (Yin 2013) such as Saudi Arabia.

- Finally, the majority of the diversity training literature has evolved from Western cultural contexts such as the United States and, to lesser extent, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia (Holladay *et al.* 2003). Therefore, the findings from such studies could have limited applicability to non-Western cultural contexts (Aycan *et al.* 2000). National culture may have a direct influence on the provision of diversity training, and on the design features of diversity training programmes. Research focusing on the cross-cultural aspects of diversity training has been scarce, especially given the explosion of multinational corporations (MNCs) in non-Western cultures (Chavez and Weisinger 2008).

1.3 Aim of the Study

The intent of this study was to deeply investigate the factors influencing Western Multinational Corporations (MNCs) operating in non-Western countries to adopt diversity training and how those factors influence diversity training design. As such, this study aimed to answer one broad question:

How do external and internal forces in Saudi Arabia promote diversity training, and how do these forces influence diversity training design?

This question was answered through the accomplishment of three main objectives:

Objective 1: To review the diversity training literature in order to understand the current state of diversity training design at the organisational setting.

Objective 2: To empirically draw on a qualitative case study to explore the external and internal forces that influence MNC operating in Saudi Arabia to implement diversity training, and how these forces influence the design features of diversity training programmes.

1.4 Research Method

Given the lack of research on diversity training programmes in non-Western cultural contexts, there was a need to select a research method that could facilitate the exploration of the phenomenon within such a context. There was also a need to select a research method that could allow me to collect a variety of data from multiple sources and apply them to a real-life context. For these reasons, I decided to adopt a case study approach. The case study approach provided the opportunity to study a problem in depth through the examination of a ‘practical instance’ (Creswell 2012).

The selection of this research method is appropriate for the following reasons. First, according to Yin (2013), the case study approach is grounded in a constructivist paradigm, which implies that truth is relative and that it is dependent on people’s perspective. This paradigm suggests that reality is socially constructed for people. Within the context of this research, selecting a different research design may not have allowed me to deeply identify and understand the multiple factors influencing diversity training design in Saudi Arabia. The case study approach provided a powerful lens through which I could better explore the context. Second, this approach allowed me to establish a close collaboration with the participants, which enabled participants to provide more detailed explanation of the external and internal factors involved. Through these explanations and the analysis of multiple sources, I was able to better understand the phenomenon under investigation.

According to Yin (2013), a case study approach might be important when: (a) the main focus of the research is to answer “how” questions; (b) the researcher cannot manipulate the actions of people involved in the study; (c) the researcher wants to include multiple factors and a variety of data sources because he or she believes they are important to the phenomenon being investigated; or (d) the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context of the investigation are not clear or are hidden. Two different types of case study can be used: “single case” or “multiple cases”. For this study, qualitative data were collected from a single British MNC operating in Saudi Arabia. I relied on a single case study for four reasons.

- First, it was difficult to select multiple good case studies in Saudi Arabia as the context has never been explored and relevant information was hidden. According to Creswell (2012), a single case study approach is more appropriate in contexts where limited information is available to the researcher.
- Second, the case study organisation that I selected provided me with rich data and all the information was accessible. As I was able to deeply understand the context and provide good explanations of how the internal and external factors interacted to influence diversity training design, there was no need to select multiple cases and thereby spend less time exploring each one.
- Third, in this thesis my aim was not to compare and contrast between multiple case studies. Instead, I was trying to establish the context for future research. Establishing the context is important, as this study is the first to examine the effects of multiple factors on diversity training design implemented in the organisational context.
- Fourth, I was aware of the issues related to the external validity or generalisability of data drawn from a single case study. It is very important to note that in this thesis I did not delude myself that it would be possible to identify typical cases that could be used to validate my findings. In other words, in this thesis my aim was not to

generalise my findings to a bigger population. Instead, my intention was to establish a degree of theoretical generalisability with respect to diversity training. In future research, the findings of this study can then be engaged in a theoretical analysis.

In terms of the data collection, I used two primary methods: in-depth interviews with managers and institutional actors, and document analysis. Collecting data from multiple sources, such as managers and institutional actors, was important as it enabled me to deeply understand the context. It also ensured that the issue was not explored through a single lens, but through a variety of lenses, allowing for multiple facts. Discussions and document evidence were used to study the case organisation in order to understand and identify the various interactive processes in the workplace that influenced the introduction and design features of the organisation's diversity training programmes.

1.5 Significance and Contributions

The findings of this study make significant contributions to the field of diversity training:

- First, the literature review compiles the current body of empirical literature investigating diversity training in organisational settings. In the literature review process, I aimed to include only empirical papers published in academic journals that were subject to double-blind peer reviews. The results of this review helped to examine the contextual features shaping the design of diversity training programmes in organisations and to address practical implications for HRD academics and practitioners. To the best of my knowledge, this review is the first to specifically focus on diversity training programmes in organisational contexts. Recent literature reviews (Bezrukova *et al* 2012; Kalinoski *et al* 2012) have enhanced the knowledge of diversity training, but not distinguished between diversity training and education.

Kalinoski *et al* (2012) conducted a meta-analysis, but only included diversity education studies focusing on students. A similar trend is evident in Bezrukova *et al*'s (2012) review. Moreover, both studies positioned their reviews within the scope of psychology and education literature.

- Second, this research contributes to the literature by moving beyond the traditional rational factors influencing the adoption of diversity training, such as firm size, ownership, and market competitions (Daniel *et al.* 2012), to focus more on the external factors that influence or explain the adoption of diversity training programmes. This paper offered the first detailed analysis of the factors explaining the adoption and perceived success of diversity training design in organisations.
- Third, a significant contribution of this research comes from its focus on diversity training programmes implemented in a subsidiary of a foreign MNC operating in Saudi Arabia. The results of this dissertation outline how the national context plays an important role in influencing how subsidiaries of Western MNCs operating in Saudi Arabia adopt and design their diversity training. To date there has been very little research on the topic of diversity training in the Saudi Arabian context.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This chapter has provided a brief introduction and outlined the rationale for conducting this study. It has pointed out the major gaps in the literature regarding diversity training programmes in organisations, identified the aims and research method, and delineated the potential contributions of this study.

Chapter 2 presents an introduction of the topic 'diversity training', covering key definitions and the history of diversity training. In this section, I present an overview of affirmative

action and equal employment policies as the roots of diversity training programmes. The next section on this chapter describes the literature review method I used to review diversity training and HRD literature and to examine the various elements related to the implementation and design of diversity training. I conclude this section with a critique of the current research and practice in diversity training and how this thesis can bridge at least some of these gaps.

Chapter 3 presents an overview of HRD in Saudi Arabia, setting the context of this study. In this chapter, I discuss the cultural and religion contexts of Saudi Arabia and how these contexts have influenced employment and the national HRD system. Then, I briefly outline the issues and challenges facing organisations (i.e. MNCs) operating in Saudi Arabia in terms of the implementation and design of their HRD policies and practices. Finally, I discuss government interventions that have been implemented to bridge the knowledge and skills gaps in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology used to address the research question. I outline the rationale for selecting the case study and offer a description of the case study in the Saudi national context. This chapter also outlines the methods of data collection and analysis using NVivo (a qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer software package). The ethical considerations of this research are also outlined.

Chapter 5 reports the results of the in-depth interviews and documentary analysis, presenting an overarching picture of the rationale for MNC operating in Saudi Arabia to introduce diversity training and how those rationales influence diversity training design.

Chapter 6 concludes by discussing the main findings and outlining the main contributions of the research to the field of diversity training programmes in organisations. I also identify the

limitations of this research. At the end of this chapter, I outline some personal lessons that I have learned during my PhD journey.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE

REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a relevant literature review of diversity training in organisations. The review begins with a definition of diversity. Next, I will present the literature review process and how I integrated different ideas from a number of significant contributions in the areas of HRD and diversity training in order to analyse diversity training design.

2.2 Understanding Diversity and Diversity Management in the Workplace

The problem is not getting them [minorities and women] in at the entry level; the problem is making better use of their potential at every level, especially in middle-management and leadership positions. This is no longer simply a question of common decency it is a question of business survival

(Thomas 1991, p.108)

2.2.1 The Conceptualisation of Diversity

The discussion about diversity usually traces back to the mid-1980s when the *Workforce 2000* report was released by the Hudson Institute under a United States Department of Labour contract (Johnston and Packer 1987). The report highlighted that by year 2000 the workforce in the US would become more heterogeneous, with significantly greater numbers of women, minority groups, immigrants, etc. The report went on to note that policy makers and organisations should take actions to consider such a diverse labour pool if the US was to sustain its economic dominance in the 21st century. It also aimed to alert employers to prepare themselves in order to compete for top talent. For example, as the percentage of women is continually increasing and expected to grow, employers might consider providing more flexible work arrangements for them so that women can continue working while taking care of their children. In addition, the report proposed the need for policies and practices that

could serve as tools to remove or eliminate cultural and attitudinal barriers that prevent minorities from fully integrating into the workplace.

As a result of this perceived need, the use of the term *diversity* has been growing substantially including in business magazines, trade books, the popular media and evidently the academic literature (Cox 1994; Ely and Thomas 2001). For example, Roosevelt Thomas published six books in the area of diversity including the most popular trade book, *Beyond Race and Gender*, in which he mentioned that “diversity includes everyone” (1991, p.10). In 1998, a survey conducted by the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM) indicated that among Fortune 500 firms, around three out of four provide some diversity programs (Stockdale and Crosby 2004). However, there is still unresolved tension around how diversity is defined and conceptualised. Although so far some progress has been made, more research is needed especially in understanding diversity from different cultural and institutional perspectives (Jonsen *et al.* 2011; Konrad 2003; Qin *et al.* 2013). The absence of conceptual clarity in social science research with regard to the term diversity can be explained by a number of reasons.

First, diversity is often understood as only relating to a “member of minority groups partly because much of the work focuses on the dynamic of minority-group oppression in majority dominated social systems” (Cox 1994, p. 52). However, such a focus may suggest that people will either derive advantages or disadvantages by their identities. If diversity was only related to minority-groups, then majority groups would be disadvantaged and thus the aim of distributing justice among everyone would not be achieved.

Second, the term diversity has multiple overlapping meanings. Some of the overlapping terms may include ‘inequity’, ‘equality’, ‘differences’, ‘heterogeneity’, ‘homogeneity’, ‘relationship demography’, and more. This is because diversity can be viewed and interpreted from

multiple perspectives in different national contexts. In addition, the term diversity has an ambiguous connection to North American legal practices and public policy constitutions such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, different types of anti-discrimination legislation, affirmative action (in the United States) and employment equity (in Canada) (Konrad *et al.* 2006). Despite the visibility of diversity in organisations, overlapping concepts both within and between diversity and employment equity still exist. Ferner *et al.* (2004) argued that a large number of organisations in the US view diversity from a very narrow perspective (i.e., equity legislation). Viewing diversity from a legal focus means that diversity may not promote equality as it only focuses on particular groups.

Third, the concept of diversity originated in the US where it was rooted in Affirmative Action (AA) and Equal Opportunity (EO) (see table 1), and from here it has spread to most Western countries including the UK, Canada, and Australia (Agócs and Burr 1996; Syed and Ozbilgin 2009). The applicability of the US approach to other national contexts has been a major concern in a large quantity of diversity management literature (Lauring 2013; Ozbilgin *et al.* 2010; Sippola and Smale 2007). Additionally, the broad definition of diversity that has been implemented in most Western countries includes a variety of characteristics that are, unfortunately, not acceptable legally or culturally in most non-Western countries such as India and China (Cooke and Saini 2010), or Muslim Middle Eastern countries (Syed and Ali 2010). Studies have highlighted that the focus on single countries has limited the advancement of knowledge in this area (Jackson and Joshi 2001; Jonsen *et al.* 2011). Syed and Ozbilign (2009) argued that there is a need to understand the rational framework that captures multilevel structural and institutional factors “when developing a context-specific approach to diversity” (p.2436).

Table 1 Comparison of Affirmative Action, Employment Equity, and Managing Diversity

	AA	EEO	MD
Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Action favouring those who tend to suffer from discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It requires employers to engage in proactive employment practices to increase the representation of four designated groups: women, people with disabilities, and visible minorities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A voluntary organisational program designed to create greater inclusion of all individuals into informal social networks and formal company programs
Rationale for adoption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal compliance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Legal compliance for contractors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strategic advantages
Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eliminate and undo the damage of past discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eliminate discrimination and promote fair treatment (remedy past wrongs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inclusiveness
View of the problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited access and individuals bigotry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited access, coupled with limited networks and skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organization loses out by requiring workers to assimilate to White male system
Solutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increases the percentage of women and racial minorities in the workplace A business can expand its opportunities to include government contracts Provides businesses with a means of making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increases the percentage of women, disabled, aboriginal, and minority racial employees in the workplace Eliminates discriminatory barriers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aims to change the organisational culture and develop skills and knowledge that get the best from all individuals

<p>a moral commitment to the ideal of justice or equal treatment for all</p>			
Practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policies, statements, grievance procedures, internal dispute resolution systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affirmative action plans • Revision of performance review criteria • Interaction skills training • Networking programmes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversity policies • Top Management Support • Diversity staffing • Diversity training • Diversity in leadership • Promotion strategic • Mentoring programmes • Accountability • Networking and support groups
Gaps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overlooks highly qualified applicants in favour of only marginally qualified applicants who meet affirmative action standards • Bases hiring decisions on numbers and not the overall qualifications of the applicant • Creates reverse discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hiring based on minorities' status rather than on job criteria may reduce occupational standards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited understanding of the impact of institutional contexts on the adoption of diversity management programmes • Limited knowledge of how MNCs manage global integration and local responsiveness with respect to diversity management • Limited understanding of the extent and dynamics of the alignment of diversity management programmes with other HRM practices • Few studies considering the effect of diversity climate on the design of diversity management programmes • Limited understanding of the diversity beliefs of top management, despite their importance • Limited understanding of the accountability structures that are important for the

implementation of diversity initiatives and their impact on diversity training

- Limited evidence on the relationship between rewards and sanctions in diversity initiatives
- Limited evidence on whether broad or narrow definitions of diversity impact the effectiveness of diversity management programmes
- Limited evidence on the impact of inclusive and exclusive approaches on the effectiveness of diversity management programmes
- Limited understanding of how cross-cultural differences influence the framing of diversity management programmes
- Limited understanding of the different roles that line managers play in the implementation of diversity management programmes
- Limited understanding of the influence of needs development processes on the framing of diversity management and take-up
- Little research on the influence of voluntary versus mandatory take-up requirements

Sources: Adapted from Agócs and Burr (1996) and Kelly and Dobbin (1998)

In spite of the differing views on the scope outlined above, diversity refers to any mixture of items characterized by differences and similarities (Thomas and Ely 1996). In an organizational setting, diversity deals with issues of discrimination, bias and prejudice at the individual, group, and system levels (Kelly and Dobbin 1998). Recognising these issues and being able to manage them effectively allow organisations to succeed in the marketplace. As such, effective diversity management fully integrates all diverse groups into the various structural and level relationships of an organization (Pendry *et al.* 2007). In comparison to equal opportunities and affirmative action, which are driven by law, diversity management is primarily a company initiative (Thomas 1991). The major objective of diversity management is to create an organizational culture that is heterogeneous and utilises maximum participation of all individuals to their full potential (Agócs and Burr 1996). In organizational contexts, this objective is often achieved through the implementation of diversity training programmes which is the main focus of this thesis.

2.2.2 Diversity Management

The terms ‘diversity management’, ‘managing cultural diversity’, or simply ‘managing differences’ have been assigned to the policies and practices for managing diversity in many organisations around the world. Diversity management, according to Theodorakopoulos and Budhwar (2015), is primarily concerned with enhancing interpersonal and inter-group communication between all individuals involved within the organisation (i.e., among managers, supervisors, employees, and peers), and with individuals outside the organisation (i.e., customers, suppliers, government actors, etc.). Diversity management also aims to promote understanding and acceptance among all individuals in order to benefit from heterogeneous teams (Kochan *et al.* 2003).

The term diversity management has no specific definition, unlike affirmative action or equal

employment opportunity for which legislative definitions offer guidance. There appear to be almost as many definitions as there are articles on managing diversity, and many human resources books have included managing diversity in their studies. Bartz *et al* (1990, p.321) stated that managing diversity involves:

. . . understanding that there are differences among employees and that these differences, if properly managed, are an asset to work being done more efficiently and effectively. Examples of diversity factors are race, culture, ethnicity, gender, age, disability, and work experience.

A representative definition of diversity management provided by Gilbert *et al* (1999, p.61) states that “diversity management is a voluntary organisational program designed to create greater inclusion of all individuals into informal social networks and formal company programs”. According to Risberg and Söderberg (2008), diversity management then becomes a management practice whereby organisations offer women and minority groups opportunities to access the marketplace in order to benefit from the diversity of the workforce. In comparison to equal opportunity and affirmative action, which are driven by law, diversity management is primarily a company initiative (Thomas 1991). In addition, diversity management not only focuses on eliminating discrimination in the workplace, but also serves as a strategy that can improve business and the bottom line, while sustaining the organisation’s competitive advantage.

The meaning of diversity management, according to Cox (2001), refers to the ability to lift morale and enhance productivity. Thomas and Ely (2001) described managing diversity as understanding paradigms, assumptions, and intentions. Agócs and Burr (1996) argued that the use of categories of persons (e.g., men, women, disabled, and minorities) serve as repositories of the differences on the ground that they are dividing. Others have gone further to argue that

it is not about managing diversity as such, but about managing the negative side effects of unaccepted diversity: the fight against racism and discrimination (Maxwell *et al.* 2001).

As can be seen from the above discussion, the definition of diversity management has taken many different forms. For this reason, organisations across different countries have implemented a variety of diversity management practices in response to the increase in diverse groups. Table 2 outlines different types of diversity management programmes implemented in the organisational context.

Given the variety of diversity management practices implemented in organisational settings, this thesis focuses only on diversity training programmes. It is also important to note that this thesis focuses on diversity training design and not outcomes. Although research to date has not documented conclusively that diversity training yields measurable benefits at the employee, group, or organisational levels (Kalinowski *et al.* 2012; Kochan *et al.* 2003; Sanchez and Medkik 2004), I argue that understanding how organisations design and implement diversity training is a crucial step prior to determining training outcomes.

Table 2 Different Types of Diversity Management

Different types of diversity management	Explanation
Top Management Support	Programmes implemented to incorporate managers and supervisors in diversity management programmes.
Diversity Training	Programmes that aim to increase diversity awareness, knowledge, and attitude as well as to provide employees with proper skills to deal with diversity issues.
Promotion Strategy	Diversity programmes are expected to help to create environments within which all people have the opportunity to advance and succeed.
Compensation Programmes	Programmes aimed to ensure pay equity among all employees.
Job Design	Practices designed and implemented to accommodate diverse employees include disabled workers, women, etc.
Diversity Staffing	Organisations considering diversity staffing strategies designed to access, entice, and identify talent among this diverse applicant pool.
Diversity Evaluation for Managers	Feedback is thought to reduce bias by directing managerial attention and motivation; for example, some firms receive regular equal opportunity performance evaluations.
Networking Programmes	Diversity networking programmes vary in structure. Some take the form of regular lunch meetings, whereas others include lavish national conferences. Social networks encourage trust, support, and informal coaching.
Career Development	The extent that career development itself is equally available to employees across various dimensions of demographic diversity.
Diversity in Leadership	Programmes aimed to increase the percentage of diverse employees in leadership positions.
Mentoring Programmes	Formal mentoring programmes that give minorities the kinds of relationships that the majority get through the old-boy network. These programmes often designed for women and minorities are thought to provide useful contacts and information.
Accountability	Managers and employees are held accountable for taking appropriate actions to achieve the objectives of the diversity programme. Some organisations use measures (e.g. productivity, performance) to assess the effectiveness of their diversity programmes in achieving stated objectives.
Communication	Diversity management programmes include the use of communication media (e.g. internal emails, magazines, newsletters, the intranet) to enhance diversity awareness and knowledge.
Informal Practices	Organisations implement a number of informal programmes including a diversity council/group charter, informal mentoring programmes, informal meetings/lunches, etc.

Sources: Kalev *et al* (2006), Naff *et al* (200)

2.3 Diversity Training: An HRD Focus

Diversity training has been a significant topic in the human resource development literature (Holladay and Quiñones 2005; Kormanik and Rajan 2010), meriting theoretical and practical attention. Globalisation has resulted in major demographic shifts and organisations increasingly hire employees from different ethnic, racial and cultural backgrounds (Ortlieb and Sieben 2013). They are then challenged to integrate and manage these different diversities, and to optimise employee job satisfaction and fit with the organisation (Curtis and Dreachslin 2008). Organisations achieve this through the implementation of a variety of diversity management practices (D'Netto *et al.* 2013). Diversity training has gained significant international currency among HRD researchers and learning and development practitioners (Qin *et al.* 2013).

Esen (2005) estimated that 67% of US organisations and 74% of Fortune 500 companies invest in diversity training programs. The Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development (CIPD) (2010) found that four-fifths of UK organisations integrated diversity training into management development programmes. Diversity training is primarily viewed as a strategic issue for organisations underpinned by the 'business case' (Noon 2007). There are many advocates and evangelists of diversity training; however, notwithstanding the growth in research on how to design and implement diversity training in organisations, the evidence of its positive impact on organisational performance has been far from conclusive (Anand and Winters 2008).

Recently, a considerable amount of attention has been placed on diversity training as an object of interest for scholars and researchers in areas such as diversity training design (e.g. King *et al.* 2010; Roberson *et al.* 2013), and the characteristics of diversity training programmes (e.g. Holladay and Quiñones 2008; Liberman *et al.* 2011). Researchers have

argued that diversity training research is still in an embryonic stage of development (Bond and Haynes 2014), and having generated only limited theoretical insights (Paluck 2006).

The diversity training programmes in organisations are complex and present HRD practitioners with significant challenges. Diversity training programmes are difficult to design and implement. First, these programmes address complex, deep-seated behaviours and attitudinal issues of employees. They address emotionally laden issues and employees may be resistant to receiving them (Chrobot-Mason *et al.* 2008). Second, there are significant costs incurred resulting in organisations implementing less effective diversity training programmes. They make organisations more vulnerable to legal action and backlash from employees. Third, organisations may consider the simple provision of these practices as doing something about diversity issues. However, these programmes do not lead to the outcomes anticipated (Konrad *et al.* 2015). As a result, senior organisational decision makers have doubts about their impact. Given the impacts of diversity training, it is important that HRD and diversity scholars pay more attentions to their effective design.

Additional methodological problems with diversity training design have been identified (Fowler 2006; Holladay and Quiñones 2005; Yang *et al.* 2009). Existing studies have researched diversity training in single organisations and single countries, and derived their theoretical justification from the Anglo-Saxon perspective. There are difficulties translating these models and concepts to non-Western contexts (Peretz *et al.* 2015).

Despite the above discussion, HRD scholars and practitioners have argued that there is a need for more discussion on methodologies for designing diversity training that target employees in organisational settings (Alhejji *et al.* 2015; Curtis and Dreachslin 2008; Roberson *et al.* 2013). There has been, however, much discussion on methodological aspects that should be considered when teaching diversity to college or university students (Anand and Winters

2008; Hite and McDonald 2010). Meanwhile, there has been less discussion on factors influencing organisations to adopt diversity training, what kinds of diversity content should be taught, and how learning objectives can be effectively delivered. This presents a major gap in the HRD literature, given the importance of diversity and equality in the workplace. This thesis, therefore, focuses on diversity training design in the organisational context. Before examining the diversity training literature, the next section explains some definitions that are used throughout this thesis.

2.4 Diversity Training: A Cultural Perspective

Studies (Kulik 2014; Luring 2013) have suggested that diversity management is culturally specific and that organisations should design and implement diversity training programmes to align with cultural differences. However, the literature and research on diversity training has been primarily developed in North America, Europe, and, to some extent, Australia (Anand and Winters 2008; Roberson *et al.* 2013), which raises concerns about the generalisability of these findings across national cultures. Jonsen *et al.* (2011) and Theodorakopoulos and Budhwar (2015) argued that there is limited knowledge on how national culture influences organisations' decisions to adopt and implement diversity training in non-Anglo-Saxon contexts. Peretz *et al.* (2015) found that the level of congruency between organisational diversity training and national culture is important in explaining the effectiveness of these practices.

Therefore, surprisingly, research focusing on the cross-cultural aspects of diversity training has been scarce, considering the explosion of interest in cross-cultural organisational behaviour (Gelfand *et al.* 2007) and human resource management (Aycaan *et al.* 2000). Unfortunately, the era has not yet arrived when cross-cultural research is emphasised in diversity training. Thus, it is crucial that cross-cultural perspectives on diversity training be

implemented in order to facilitate the advancement of knowledge in this area, specifically with regard to context, training design, learning characteristics, and evaluation.

Moreover, it has been widely acknowledged that the utilisation of cross-cultural perspectives is complex and fraught with conceptual differences (Dickson *et al.* 2008). Some more particularly challenging aspects include the problematic area of cultural definitions, especially with regard to cultural regions along national borders. Additionally, there are also methodological challenges, such as the levels needed to analyse and utilise measurement equivalence (see Fischer 2009). However, it is also imperative to note that there is enormous value in considering the cultural differences that exist within and between countries and regions. Simultaneously, it is essential to acknowledge that within countries there are different layers of culture and significance, as well as many national differences.

Research on culturally inclusive diversity training has manifold benefits in several areas, including expanding researcher understanding of how programmes are designed, their articulated goals, the methods used to deliver diversity training in organisations, and diversity training outcomes (Stone *et al.* 2007). It is also imperative to consider cultural differences throughout this thesis since, at a practical level, the lack of attention to culture and the dynamics it produces can create problems for researchers who attempt to understand how national culture influences diversity training programmes. From an organisational perspective, for diversity training programmes to be effective, they need to be implemented with an acknowledgement and incorporation of different cultural contexts; otherwise programmes may result in unanticipated outcomes and misunderstandings.

Although empirical research has begun to explore the cross-cultural aspects of diversity, more research is still needed to consider national culture in the design and implementation of diversity training. Therefore, in this thesis, I draw on some of the Hofstede's (1980) cultural

dimensions and their effects on diversity training design; however, these are not a focal point of this thesis. Despite the various criticisms that have been raised about Hofstede's (1980) work (see McSweeney), his theory on the cultural dimensions of national culture has provided a greater understanding of the role and use of national culture in influencing a wide variety of diversity management practices. On a theoretical level, the analysis provides insights into how dimensions of culture can influence diversity training. On a practical level, the analysis articulates the view that there are inherent differences in transferring diversity training practices across cultures.

2.5 Scope of Diversity Training

A number of attempts have been made to define the scope of diversity training (Paluck 2006). However, reviews of diversity training literature ignore important distinctions such as the differences between diversity training and diversity education, diversity training and diversity development, etc. Researchers have suggested that there is a need to develop more clearly articulated definitions that take into account the complexity and variety of practices found in organisations (Tatli *et al.* 2012). In order to design effective diversity training programmes, organisations and HRD practitioners must first understand what it is in terms of objectives, intentions, scope, and outcomes. Much of the diversity management literature has focused on how diversity training should be managed and frequently included a diverse and eclectic set of activities within its remit. Several key definitions need to be considered before further examining diversity training design.

Diversity Training and Diversity Education. An important distinction has been made between diversity training and diversity education. Advocates of managing diversity have identified four best practice strategies to effectively manage diversity in the workplace. Both diversity training and diversity education are considered best strategies (Badhesha *et al.* 2008;

Wentling and Palma-Rivas 1999). The terms 'training' and 'education' have been used synonymously, but others have viewed them as distinct (Garavan 1997). King *et al* (2010) suggested that both represent separate streams of research and, ostensibly, separate sets of practices. Diversity education is typically undertaken in educational institutions or campuses and is designed to enhance the diversity awareness of students and graduates to prepare them for the world of work and effective functioning in organisations. Diversity training is undertaken in organisations and is directed towards employees. It includes diversity training activities linked to specific organisational goals, and is designed to address specific diversity training needs. These needs focus on diversity awareness, knowledge acquisition, and skills development (Cocchiara *et al.* 2010).

Diversity Training and Diversity Development. A distinction has also been made between diversity training and diversity development (D'Netto *et al.* 2013). Diversity training tends to focus on task requirements and addresses knowledge and skill gaps that are directly linked to role performance. Diversity training also has as its focus the building of a common understanding of the importance and value of diversity as a strategy to enhance individual and organisational outcomes (Rynes and Rosen 1995). Diversity development focuses on the personal development of individuals, including coaching, mentoring, and planning, to help individuals reduce the negative effects of a lack of diversity (Cox 2001).

Scholars have also distinguished between diversity training focused on enhancing employees' awareness and/or diversity training focused on improving diversity knowledge. Diversity awareness training practices focus on the initial stages of changing employees' attitudes and beliefs (Dass and Parker 1999), whereas knowledge objectives emphasise the acquisition of knowledge about diversity concepts and world views concerning diversity (Ferdman and Brody 1996). Sue (1991) noted that knowledge and awareness learning objectives typically

emphasise the benefits of diversity, the legal responsibilities for diversity, and the importance of understanding diversity concepts. Skills-based objectives emphasise the acquisition of skills to communicate, engage effectively in intercultural situations, and acquire relationship management skills to work with diverse work groups (Kulik and Roberson 2008).

Throughout this thesis, diversity training is defined “as a distinct set of programmes aimed at facilitating positive intergroup interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination, and enhancing the skills, knowledge, and motivation of people to interact with diverse others” (Bezrukova et al. 2012, p. 208). I adopt this broad definition for a number of reasons. First, most diversity training begins with two forms of awareness training (cultural awareness training and legal awareness training). Holladay and Quiñones (2005, p.535) indicated that legal awareness focuses on harassment and discrimination issues in the workplace, and cultural awareness is viewed “as instrumental in enhancing the benefits of and perceptions toward diversity”. Employees then can use their awareness to respond to differences by using specific skills. Thomas (2008, p.408) indicated that participation in diversity training should focus on making quality decisions “in the midst of differences, similarities and the related tension and complexities”. Second, awareness training and skills building training are usually combined in one course (Cox and Blake 1991). Third, the study of human resources strategic management indicates that positive management practices should be observed and compared between different organisations across different cultures (Becker and Huselid 2006). A large review study conducted by Foster *et al* (2008) found that two training interventions have been widely examined in multicultural studies: awareness and knowledge studies and skills development studies.

2.6 Current Status of Diversity Training Design Literature

The focus of this thesis is on diversity training programmes provided by organisations. While I acknowledge that organisational diversity training programmes have educational dimensions, the context of the literature review proposed in this thesis is organisational. A host of MNCs provide diversity training to their employees, and similar diversity training activities are undertaken by public-sector organisations and small and medium sized organisations (SMEs) across the globe (Dobbin *et al.* 2011). My objective in this paper is to review the diversity and HRD literature in order to capture the various contextual and design issues that organisations must consider when designing diversity training programmes. Marquis *et al.* (2008) observed that the diversity training literature has been short on ideas for implementation. The ideas generated in the literature have been too abstract and have not given sufficient consideration to the strategic context of diversity training initiatives in organisations or to the impact of other diversity initiatives on approaches to diversity training. In order to examine diversity training design in organisational settings, I utilised all 61 articles found in my recent systemic review (Alhejji *et al.* 2015). One major difference between the first analysis and this analysis is that the former focused on diversity training outcomes, whereas here I focused on diversity training design.

I classified the 61 articles as presented in Table 13 and 14 (see Appendix A). Table 13 includes: (1) Name(s) of the Authors; (2) Year of Publication; (3) Journal Title; (4) Journal Categorisation; (5) Country of Author(s); (6) Country Where Data Collected; (7) Type of Organisation; and (8) Type of Training. Table 14 includes: (1) Dimension of Diversity Training Programmes; and (2) Trainee/Trainer Characteristics. Consistent with other literature reviews, I utilised manual coding. This enabled me to develop a detailed and careful reading of the relevant areas related to the pre-defined themes. To triangulate the coding, my supervisor and I independently read and recorded data from each article.

2.7 Diversity Training Design

To understand what aspects need to be considered in diversity training design, I integrated ideas from a number of significant contributions—some of them directly related to diversity training and others drawn from the general training and HRD literature. These contributions are as follows: Bezrukova *et al* (2012), Cocchiara *et al* (2010), Curtis and Dreachslin (2008), Holladay *et al* (2003), Pitts *et al* (2010), and Roberson *et al* (2003), who focused specifically on diversity training; and Garavan (2007), Gegenfurtner *et al* (2009), Day *et al* (2006), and Salas *et al* (2012), who focused on training and HRD issues in general. I built on these important contributions to develop a comprehensive picture of what aspects should be considered when implementing and designing diversity training programmes in the organisational context and provide examples from the 61 articles.

2.8 Strategic-Level Issues

At the strategic level, there are two key issues: (1) type of organisation (public, private, MNC, SME, or non-profit), and (2) strategic rationales for introducing diversity training programmes (external regulatory requirements, strategic goals of the organisation, requirement by customers or suppliers, identified skills or knowledge gaps).

2.8.1 Type of Organisation

An understanding of the unique context of organisations is important when designing and implementing diversity training programmes (Konrad *et al.* 2015). Unique contextual factors of interest here include organisation size, type of organisation and sector.

The analysis indicates that the majority of organisations that implement diversity training programmes are public sector organisations (N = 45). Only a small proportion of the studies

were conducted in MNCs (N = 7), not-for-profit organisations and small- and medium-sized enterprises (N = 6), and manufacturing and family-owned (N = 4). These findings are consistent with other studies. Public sector organisations generally invest more in training and development than private sector organisations (Bezrukova *et al.* 2012; Paluck 2006). It has been argued that private organisations face more challenges in creating an organisational culture that enables employees from different backgrounds to succeed (Pitts *et al.* 2010). Public sector organisations are more likely to emphasise social gain and interest and as a result invest in diversity training (Aycaan *et al.* 2000). Public sector organisations also have more diverse workforces than private sector organisations, therefore creating a need for diversity training (Pitts 2005). Groeneveld and Verbeek (2012) found that public sector organisations have more extensive diversity policies than private sector organisations. In the US, for example, a significant number of public sector organisations implement diversity training programmes designed to enhance the cultural awareness of employees, develop their skills to cope with diversity issues, and reduce discrimination, prejudice, and bias (Soni 2000). However, not all public sector organisations worldwide provide diversity training. Cooke and Saini (2010), for example, found that public sector organisations in India are likely to resist diversity programmes especially if these programmes include the adoption of Western HRM practices.

The lack of research on diversity training in MNCs is surprising. Ghoshal and Nohria (1989) argued that the MNC represents “the quintessential case of an organisation facing heterogeneous task environments” (p. 323). US MNCs are more likely to implement diversity training programmes than is the case with domestic organisations (Egan and Bendick 2003). Ferner *et al.* (2004) found that the majority of US MNCs had some diversity policies and practices. MNCs typically prefer to implement consistent policies and practices globally in order to ensure standardisation across subsidiaries. A major theme in the institutionalised

literature concerns the transfer of diversity training programmes from home to host countries and the role of country of origin in modifying diversity management programmes.

The way in which diversity training is designed and implemented in SMEs will be different to that of large organisations. Saru (2007) found that firm size will influence the approach taken to training as well as the sophistication of the practices implemented. Within SMEs diversity training practices are more likely to be more informal and flexible (De Kok and Uhlaner 2001). Consistent with the notions of complexity resource-based theory which suggests that informal diversity training practices may be competitively advantageous because they enable an SME to be flexible and responsive to the external environment. The contrasting situation is likely to be found in large organisations where diversity training practices will be more formal or structured (Rynes and Rosen 1995).

The analysis revealed a few studies reporting research on diversity training in SMEs, family firms, and not-for-profit organisations (Hauenstein *et al.* 2010; Schim *et al.* 2006; Tsiantis *et al.* 2004; Williams 2005). This represents a significant gap in the current literature. Few studies have engaged explicitly with the role of organisation ownership in explaining diversity training provisions.

2.8.2 Strategic Rationale for Diversity Training Programme

Organisations implement diversity training programmes for a multiplicity of reasons. The literature highlighted a number of perspectives that can be used to understand organisational strategic rationale for introducing diversity training programmes.

The business case perspective is highly influential in the diversity training literature (Noon, 2007). The essential argument is that employers are reluctant to invest in diversity training because they lack awareness of the benefits of such practices. The business case argues that

diversity training is good for business and profitability (Johnson and Schwabenland 2013) or what Ozbilgin *et al* (2014) call impacts. This perspective derives its legitimacy from a number of sources: its market-based motivation (Thomas and Ely 1996), its connection with core business priorities (Ortlieb *et al.* 2013), its impact on financial outcomes (Jones *et al.* 2013), and its emphasis on sustained competitive advantage (Ortlieb & Sieben, 2013). According to Ortlieb *et al* (2013), the business case perspective proposes firms that adopt diversity training will have: (a) better access to top talent; (b) an enhanced capacity to meet the needs of a diverse customer group; and (c) enhanced creativity in problem solving resulting from diverse perspectives and knowledge (Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich 2013, Qin *et al.* 2012). The business case can be considered a normative pressure; therefore, organisations will adopt best-in-class diversity training practices (Jayne and Dipboye 2004, Konrad *et al.* 2015) to address pressures.

Several articles built their ideas around human capital theory. This theory focuses on how diversity training can enhance the human capital value of employers. Human capital has as its central proposition the notion that diversity training helps to build Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities (KSAs), which are of value both to employees and the organisation that employs them. Diversity training will produce both generic human capital and HRM-specific KSAs. These KSAs in the context of diversity training include knowledge and awareness of diversity issues, skills to handle diversity issues, and a more socially desirable attitude towards diversity (Kalinowski *et al.* 2012). The combinations of KSAs will not only enhance the career prospects of individual employees in and outside of organisations, but also contribute specific human capital to achieve greater organisational effectiveness.

Another theoretical perspective focuses on the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm. It argues that diversity training helps organisations to develop and exploit human resources that

are valuable, rare, and inimitable, which can enhance competitiveness. Firms with more diversity training and practices will achieve a competitive advantage (Richard 2000). What is most observable from existing research studies concerns the lack of discussion about how business strategy predicts diversity training practices and how diversity training practices are linked to other HRM practices. A central premise of the RBV is the idea that the establishment of diversity training with other Human Resource practices provides competitive advantage because they are difficult to imitate (Yang and Konrad 2011). However, there is a lack of convincing evidence of a link between diversity training and business strategy (Yang and Konrad 2011).

An important theoretical perspective found within the literature is institutional theory (Pitts *et al.* 2010). In particular, institutional isomorphism argues that organisations in the same field will over time adopt the same practices (DiMaggio and Powell 1983). Dobbin *et al.* (2011), for example, proposed that organisations will adopt diversity training practices to respond to both external pressures and as a result of internal advocacy. These pressures are particularly salient in the case of public sector organisations (Pitts *et al.* 2010). Institutional theory proposes that managerial decisions concerning diversity will be influenced by three institutional mechanisms: coercive, mimetic, and normative isomorphism. Coercive isomorphism suggests that organisations will adopt diversity training practices because they are required to do so by statutory and regulative frameworks. Garavan (2007) argued that organisational actors are influenced by public laws, regulations, and agency directors. Scott (2008) argued that the regulative frameworks constrain and regulate the activities that organisations will adopt around diversity. Each country has a unique set of laws, regulations, and agency influences that will find expression in organisational policies and practices. Özbilgin and Tatli (2011) proposed that regulative forces may be self-regulating by organisations. Organisations typically respond to the demands of the local or national

business environment. Some countries, for example, implement quota systems, whereas others have specific laws that have implications for diversity training practices. One instance of this is a piece of legislation highlighted by Theodorakopoulos and Budhwar (2015) in England under the Qualities Act (2010). This Act requires that private firms who supply services to public sector organisations are required to demonstrate that they implement inclusive diversity policies. Konrad *et al* (2015) outlined that in Canada organisations are governed by employment equality legislation. These are just two examples of how firms must comply with basic institutional requirements. However, organisations have the choice to go beyond the minimum regulatory requirements (Lawrence and Suddaby 2006).

In addition, mimetic isomorphism suggests that organisations will adopt diversity training practices similar to their competitors in order to cope with uncertainty, whereas normative isomorphism suggests that organisations will adopt diversity training practices due to the influence of normative pressures in the institutional environment. Organisations that experience environmental uncertainty may use diversity training initiatives to minimise ambiguity. Therefore it follows that organisations will utilise diversity training to insulate themselves from environmental uncertainty (Pitts *et al.* 2010). Alternatively, organisations may respond with investment in diversity training because the environment promotes such investment. Where there is a significant financial resource this may lead to investment in diversity training (Ortlieb *et al.* 2013). The normative dimensions will be reflected in a multiplicity of influences, such as social obligation, moral responsibilities, and professionalism. Jones *et al* (2013) argued that organisations will adopt diversity training practices to enhance equality and ethical practices among employees.

Institutional theory also explains why MNCs seek to define best practices in order to aid subsidiaries in different locations to achieve consistency. This is conceptualised as ‘institutional duality’ (Kostova and Roth 2002), where subsidiaries face the dual pressures to

adopt diversity practices from headquarters and/or conform to pressures exerted from competitors within the local environment. Collings and Dick (2011) proposed that subsidiaries may adopt diversity training practices in a ceremonial manner. They seek legitimacy for reasons other than economic ones. In such a scenario, the outcomes of diversity training practices are not the primary issue. Legitimacy “is a generalised perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions” (Suchman 1995, p.574).

An important debate concerns the standardisation or customisation of diversity training programmes. The decision to implement standardised or customised practices will depend on the diversity knowledge, skill level, and behaviour of employees (Cogin and Williamson 2014). It will also depend on the characteristics of the organisation and the external environment. In the context of MNCs and their subsidiaries, tensions may arise between the desire for global integration and local responsiveness. In cases of large institutional dissimilarity, MNCs face greater challenges in establishing and maintaining legitimacy within the local institutional context (Kostova and Roth 2002). These challenges may also reduce MNCs’ effectiveness in managing foreign affiliates and in diffusing “best practices” to other subsidiaries in order to achieve consistency throughout the organisation (Ferner *et al.* 2004). Despite the great interest in studying the transfer of diversity management from home country to host country (e.g., Luring 2013; Özbilgin *et al.* 2012), relatively little is known about how MNCs deal with large institutional dissimilarity between home and host countries when transferring and implementing gender equality policies and practices.

However, the majority of the studies reviewed indicated that organisations use diversity training to address a performance gap or deficit (Cocchiara *et al.* 2010; Curtis and Dreachslin

2008) rather than as a visionary approach whereby diversity training is provided as part of a strategic proposition or far-sighted and stretching vision. Anand and Winters (2008) advocated the latter approach, suggesting that it can lead to significant organisational transformation.

Given the above discussion, it is also vital that organisations understand how to communicate the rationale for diversity training programmes. Organisations can choose how they communicate their rationale for implementing diversity training programmes. They may communicate the rationale as part of an organisation-wide strategic agenda, or it may be linked to specific skill development initiatives for managers (Chrobot-Mason and Quinones 2002; Garavan 2007). Furthermore, whether it is communicated as something that is developmental or remedial is important. The communication process will signal to employees (1) the extent to which the provision of diversity training programmes is part of the strategic agenda; (2) how these programmes are linked to other diversity management initiatives; and (3) the extent of senior management's support for the implementation of these practices organisation-wide. Holladay *et al.* (2003) found that whether a diversity training programme was described as remedial or advanced influenced employee perception. Male employees viewed training as a threat when it was framed as a remedial activity, whereas female employees viewed it as something that would generate backlash when it was framed as an advanced, developmental activity. Sanchez and Medkik (2004) found that how supervisors understood the reasons behind their selection for participation in diversity training subsequently influenced their behaviours towards team members.

2.9 Tactical-Level Issues

Tactical-level highlighted eight issues: (1) alignment with other diversity and HR initiatives (stand-alone or integrated), (2) organisational diversity management and diversity training, (3) diversity climate and diversity training, (4) managerial support for diversity programmes, (5) top management diversity beliefs, (6) accountability structures, rewards and sanctions, (7) diversity training learning objectives, and (8) approach to diversity training utilised (inclusive or group-specific).

2.9.1 Alignment with Other Diversity and Human Resources Practices

Many organisations implement diversity training as a stand-alone initiative (e.g., Brathwaite 2005; Celik *et al.* 2012; Costello *et al.* 2007; Lee *et al.* 2006; Sanchez and Medkik 2004). In 11 of the studies reviewed, diversity training was implemented as part of an integrated set of diversity or human resource initiatives (e.g., Ely 2004; Ferguson *et al.* 2003; Hayes *et al.* 2004; Hill and Augoustinos 2001). Consistent with the resource-based theory, human resources practices should be horizontally aligned to achieve additive and synergistic outcomes (Wright *et al.* 2001). Therefore, it makes sense to ensure that diversity training programmes are part of a wider set of diversity initiatives. Organisations that adopted a holistic or integrated approach to diversity training achieved positive human resources outcomes. Celik *et al.* (2012), for example, found a number of positive outcomes for both employees and organisations.

Diversity training as a stand-alone initiative may be part of an organisation's efforts at ceremonial adoption. Stand-alone initiatives are less likely to contribute to a wide interest in diversity (Gegenfurtner *et al.* 2009; Wentling and Palma-Rivas 1999). However, almost half of the studies reviewed reported that stand-alone diversity training initiatives also reported positive outcomes. The evidence on the relative merits of both approaches is therefore mixed.

Consistent with the arguments of the RBV theoretically it makes sense to argue that stand-alone diversity training approaches will not achieve synergistic outcomes due to the lack of integration with other diversity practices. Integrated approaches have greater potential to contribute to an organisation's human capital development strategy (Lepak and Snell 1999).

The implementation of effective diversity management and diversity training is a key focus of contemporary HRM and HRD (Avery and McKay 2010; Day *et al.* 2006). Guillaume *et al.* (2014) proposed that these practices signal to employees the extent to which an organisation is concerned with issues of well-being and fairness. Diversity training will also influence the extent to which employees reciprocate diversity-focused behaviours. Strategic human resource theory emphasises the importance of bundles of diversity training programmes (Richard *et al.* 2007; Subramony 2006). Diversity management and diversity training form 'bundles of practices' when each individual practice works to create a consistent set of diversity actions that are aligned with HR and business strategy. When organisations articulate a strong bundle of diversity training, it helps employees to understand why these practices are important. This, in turn, should lead to greater employee buy-in, participation in, and take-up of these practices. Employees should be able to clearly understand how different practices are linked to each other. Therefore, a key challenge concerns the gap between the rhetoric and the reality of implementation (Maxwell *et al.* 2001). Jayne and Dipboye (2004) emphasised the importance of fairness in the ways in which practices are implemented. Diversity practices that cover all employees will demonstrate the fairness of these practices.

Way and Johnson (2005) suggested that organisations will have a more effective configuration of diversity training practices if they are consistent with strategic goals and priorities. Vertical alignment, in which diversity training practices are effectively aligned with strategic imperatives, according to extant theory, will make a more effective added value

contribution to a firm's performance. A configurational or contingency approach suggests that it is important to strategically link diversity training practices to produce a better ROI (Garavan 2007; Wang *et al.* 2009). Wright and McMahan (1992) emphasised that a strategic HR system will implement HR practices that enable an organisation to achieve its goals. Diversity training programmes are clearly linked to strategic goals and will enhance their effectiveness. Ostroff and Bowen (2000) found that effectiveness is enhanced when there are clearly defined goals for training and the training is made highly visible to employees.

In addition, Bezrukova *et al* (2012) found that organisations frequently implement diversity training as a stand-alone practice or in a piece-meal fashion, rather than as an integrated set of practices. They further argued that diversity training programmes will be more effective when they are consistent with each other. The implementation of a single programme may be part of an organisation's efforts towards ceremonial adoption and will do little to contribute to a widespread interest in diversity.

In spite of the above discussion, most diversity training studies reviewed have not paid attention to understanding why and how organisations can integrate the diversity training programmes. It follows that there is a need to consider the fundamental process behind how integrated training conveys individual commitment and top management support.

2.9.2 Diversity Climates and Diversity Training

The developmental or learning climate communicates to employees whether learning is prioritised in an organisation (Beier and Kanfer 2010; Day *et al.* 2006). Climate perceptions influence individual behaviours (Schneider 1990). Spell *et al* (2014) used social information processing theory to propose that developmental climate consists of shared perceptions of support for learning. Sitzmann and Weinhardt (2015) defined training culture as the extent to

which an organisation is perceived as encouraging continuous learning. They highlighted dimensions, such as the resources allocated to training and development, the extent of opportunities to use skills, feedback frequency, and the extent that organisational policies support learning. Supervisors and managers have a key role to play in the context of training culture (Noe 1996). Developmental climate and culture shape training effectiveness in a number of ways. First, supervisor and manager support for development creates an organisational context within which employees perceive that the organisation supports voluntary participation in and take-up of diversity training programmes. Second, through the process of co-worker support, employees support each other to allow employees to be absent from work in order to undertake training and development. Third, HRD practices that encourage developmental behaviour contribute to the enhanced take-up of diversity training programmes and the application of learning in the workplace.

The concept of diversity climate is central to diversity training effectiveness. A strong diversity climate evokes collective norms about diversity issues. Guillaume *et al* (2014) distinguished the strength and content dimensions of diversity climate. The strength dimension reflects the extent to which diversity practices are reinforced and implemented throughout an organisation. Diversity climate strength is influenced by policies, practices, procedures, and processes related to diversity (Rentsch 1990), and the support of top management or organisational leadership. Bell (2011) suggested that diversity climate content consists of individual-level factors, such as identity, prejudice, and discrimination; group/inter-group factors, such as similarity effects, in-group/out-group bias, and cultural differences; and organisational-level factors, such as structural integration, informal integration, and bias in human resource management systems. Diversity training programmes are essentially focused on enhancing an organisation's diversity climate. In general, the

majority of diversity training studies reviewed did not engage with developmental climate, training culture, and diversity climate issues. I found references to the importance of organisations valuing learning and diversity (Svetlik *et al.* 2007). However, simply valuing learning and diversity is not sufficient to guarantee the success of diversity training programmes.

2.9.3 Managerial Support for Diversity Training

Managerial support for diversity training is highlighted as an important contextual issue. Wending and Palma-Rivas (1998) highlighted the importance of support from senior management as an important dimension of effective diversity training success. Akinola and Thomas (2008) highlighted the role of leaders as agents of change in organisations. Ely and Meyerson (2000) suggested that leaders play a role in challenging power structures and dismantling institutionalised practices. Leaders provide support for diversity training in the form of symbolic actions and the provision of resources needed to implement diversity training (Cocchiara *et al.* 2010; Thomas and Gabarro 1999). Garavan *et al.* (2001) highlighted three dimensions of managerial support: ownership/resources, participation, and feedback. Ownership and resources emphasise the role of senior management in articulating a clear vision for diversity training, understanding its value and contribution, and committing resources to the delivery of diversity training. Participation focuses on senior management demonstrating behaviours consistent with diversity, participating in development activities, and rewarding the development behaviours of managers and employees. Feedback focuses on stipulating requirements for diversity training and listening to feedback on diversity issues.

In addition, Rynes and Rosen (1995) demonstrated the importance of senior management support in impacting the perceived adoption and success of diversity training. Chrobot-Mason (2004) found that senior management support impacted the adoption of diversity training in

an educational setting. Cocchiara *et al* (2010) argued that it is important for executives to attend the same programmes as employees because it sends strong messages concerning the value of diversity training. These actions signal to employees the importance of diversity training. They help ensure that these programmes are viewed as a high-level priority and employees are motivated to buy into and actively participate in them. The attention-based view proposes that one of the most significant barriers to the effectiveness of diversity training is the lack of attention by senior leaders to recognise the importance of diversity training and cognitively focus on it. Leaders' managerial attention may be constrained due to competing work demands and higher priority issues (Ocasio 1999).

However, a large number of the studies reviewed have not considered top management support as an important aspect in designing diversity training. In eight studies, diversity training was delivered to both managers and employees (e.g. Bendick *et al.* 2001; Celik *et al.* 2012; Costello *et al.* 2007). However, none of these studies provided any rationale for selecting both managers and employees for the same diversity training programmes.

2.9.4 Top Management Diversity Beliefs

Van Knippenberg *et al* (2004) proposed that diversity beliefs reflect the extent to which leaders believe there is value in diversity. Diversity beliefs are individual beliefs and attitudes towards diversity (Hostager and Meuse 2008). Diversity beliefs may therefore influence how leaders respond to diversity training. Homan *et al* (2010) found that diversity beliefs play a major role in shaping how individuals construe diversity and diversity initiatives.

Diversity beliefs will generate positive responses by leaders to diversity training programmes. Therefore, having leaders with strong diversity beliefs will have a positive impact on the effectiveness of diversity training programmes. The literature has highlighted the role that

leaders play to ensure that diversity training programmes are effective. However, it has not discussed diversity beliefs other than to suggest that beliefs about diversity are important for fostering diversity. Diversity beliefs help enhance team functioning, increase identification with a work group, and foster more positive perceptions of diverse others (Ely and Thomas 2001).

At the group level, diversity beliefs will eliminate barriers for diverse groups to benefit from their diversity training. According to Homan *et al* (2007, p.1190), “intergroup biases engendered by subgroup categorization disrupt the elaboration of task-relevant information in diverse groups and, thus, stand in the way of groups’ effective use of their informational resources”. Van Knippenberg *et al* (2004) argued, however, that salient subgroup categorisations need not necessarily provoke intergroup bias. Diversity beliefs may lead members of the group to react positively to the group and its diverse membership. Diversity beliefs may thus increase the likelihood that groups benefit from their diversity training by inviting group members to share new experiences and information from fellow group members, thereby enhancing performance.

In general, diversity beliefs are particularly salient to diversity training programmes because they are specific to aspects of diversity. There is a call for more emphasis on diversity beliefs when designing diversity training programmes.

2.9.5 Accountability Structures, Rewards, and Sanctions

Organisational accountability structures that assign responsibility for diversity training programme implementation are important (Gegenfurtner *et al.* 2009; Kalev *et al.* 2006). These accountability structures enhance the effectiveness of diversity training programmes by assigning responsibility for the implementation of practices and ensuring that the

programmes do not fall 'between the cracks'. Therefore, various organisational stakeholders, such as senior management, line managers, and diversity and HRD specialists, are accountable for diversity training programme implementation. Akinola and Thomas (2008) proposed that accountability structures help to ensure that the actors or stakeholders responsible for implementation demonstrate the required behaviours and actions.

The effectiveness of diversity training programmes may be enhanced when their implementation is associated with rewards or the avoidance of sanctions (Sun *et al.* 2014). When employees perceive that participation in training and the take-up of diversity training programmes is linked to desired outcomes, their motivation to participate will be significantly enhanced (Hurtz and Williams 2009). The same reasoning applies to the transfer of training (Aguinis and Kraiger 2009). Sitzmann and Weinhardt (2015) highlighted the role of sanctions, such as bypassing employees for promotions or project opportunities, or disciplinary actions. The potential for sanctions may impact employee persistence in training (Schmidt and DeShon 2009). Welsh *et al.* (2003) found attraction rates to be lower when organisations held employees accountable for completing their training. In general, the diversity training literature has had little to say about making employees accountable for training. More generally, the literature has suggested that employees should be motivated to take up diversity training. This recommendation is consistent with research and theory.

2.9.6 Diversity Training Learning Objectives

Diversity training programmes are provided by organisations to achieve a number of objectives such as: (a) to provide knowledge and information about diversity; (b) to increase awareness and understanding about diversity issues; (c) to develop skills to deal with

diversity issues; and (d) to change the attitudes of employees towards diversity issues (Cox and Blake 1991; Kaplan 2006; Mor Barak 2005).

The diversity training literature reveals that organisations are more likely to implement diversity training awareness as an initial step (Holladay and Quiñones 2008; Roberson *et al.* 2013). Diversity training awareness focuses on the initial stages of changing participants' attitudes and beliefs (Dass and Parker 1999). Knowledge objectives focus on participants acquiring knowledge about diversity concepts and world views concerning diversity (Ferdman and Brody 1996). Skills-based objectives emphasise the development of communication, and inter-cultural and relationship management skills. Sue (1991) highlighted that knowledge and awareness learning objectives typically emphasise the benefits of diversity, legal responsibilities for diversity, and the importance of understanding diversity concepts.

Diversity training learning objectives are influenced by a multiplicity of factors, including organisational philosophy about what constitutes diversity, and organisational and cultural characteristics (Mor Barak *et al.* 1998). Consist with Hofstede (1980) argument; organisations in individualistic cultures (i.e. UK) will place more emphasis on skills-based objectives given the focus on individual skills and behavioural actions. These objectives will emphasise behavioural change to help participants manage a diverse workforce or customer base. These learning outcomes will be more valued in individualistic cultures. In some cultures (i.e. cultures that value the group needs rather than individual preference), organisations will emphasise learning objectives that focus on diversity awareness. Awareness learning objectives emphasise the entire organisation, the sharing of experiences with each other, and the awareness of other cultures and world views (Ely 2004; Fowler 2006). These types of learning objectives address diversity training in a more holistic way and align with the characteristics of cultures.

In addition, Kulik *et al* (2007) suggested that diversity training learning objectives have broadened considerably to focus on issues such as disability and cultural characteristics in addition to the more traditional focus on race and gender. King *et al* (2012) emphasised the developmental and educational goals of diversity training, whereas Bendick *et al* (2001) found that many diversity training programmes focused on efforts to decrease discrimination.

The analysis revealed that the majority of diversity training programmes explained awareness (N = 40), knowledge (N = 7), and skills (N = 15). The majority of programmes were too short in duration to focus on attitude change objectives.

2.9.7 Approaches to Diversity Training Utilised

The literature highlighted two approaches to the way diversity is defined for the purpose of the design of diversity training. Definitions may either be inclusive or exclusive in approach. Inclusive approaches emphasise the participation of all organisational groups irrespective of gender, ethnicity, or race, whereas exclusive approaches focus on particular diversity issues (Mor Barak *et al.* 1998; Stewart and Harte 2010). Bezrukova *et al* (2012) made the argument that there are considerable benefits in adopting an inclusive approach, and King *et al* (2012) suggested that the trend is now to adopt more inclusive approaches.

Unlike other training practices, the definition of diversity training differs from one organisation to another (Pendry *et al.* 2007; Wentling and Palma-Rivas 1999). One reason that explains this variation is the lack of consistency in conceptualising diversity (Green *et al.* 2009). Kulik *et al* (2007) noted that the initial focus of diversity training practices was on eliminating racial and gender discrimination in the workplace. This type of training was described as equal opportunity training that aims to increase the number of women and minorities in the workplace. The narrow focus then expanded to include a broad range of

diversity dimensions, such as sexual orientation, disability, education level, economic class, cultural differences, and so on. Roberson *et al* (2003) proposed that the majority of large organisations adopt the broad definition of diversity when they design diversity training programs. Advocates argue that by adopting a broad definition of diversity, participants have the space to look at the overall differences that they face in the workplace, whereas a narrow definition of diversity is the intention of affirmative action training that can only benefit some particular groups (e.g., race and gender) (Mobley and Payne 1992).

In addition, Bezrukova *et al.* (2012) argued the benefits of adopting an inclusive approach and King, Dawson, Kravitz and Gulick (2012) have suggested that the trend is now to implement inclusive approaches. Public sector organisations and MNCs are more likely to adopt inclusive approaches (Groeneveld and Verbeek 2012). Public sector organisations typically adopt inclusive approaches because of their focus on social justice and equal treatment. Egan and Bendick (2003) found that large US MNCs had a preference for inclusive approaches. These approaches are more conducive to employee participation in and take-up of diversity training because they are less likely to be viewed as affirmative action initiatives (Roberson *et al.* 2003). Organisations may emphasise an exclusive approach arising from cultural or religious reasons. Cooke and Saini (2010) found that inclusive approaches favoured in Western cultural contexts do not travel well to Asian and Middle Eastern countries. In Japan for example, due to an emphasis on a social responsibility approach as a way of describing diversity, inclusive approaches are favoured (Magoshi and Chang 2009). Risberg and Sørderberg (2008) found in European countries such as Denmark, that a social responsibility approach is intertwined with a business case resulting in more inclusive approach to diversity training programmes. In general, the literature explicitly emphasise the importance of inclusive approaches and clear communication around the purposes of diversity training programmes.

However, a number of researchers have criticised the broad definitions of diversity, arguing that such a definition might weaken the effectiveness of diversity training to facilitate the integration of women and minorities in the workplace (Risberg and Söderberg 2008). “With a broad definition, it is unlikely that every diversity dimension will receive sufficient attention during a brief training session” (Roberson *et al.* 2003, p.155). Scholars have also indicated that, when organisations focus the diversity training on race and gender, it can be a powerful way to present diversity issues. Despite this argument, organisations can design their diversity training practices based on their greatest interests and based on what they are trying to achieve from diversity training.

I found that of the 61 studies reviewed 23 reported that the diversity training provided was inclusive in approach, whereas 13 reported that it was exclusive or group specific. I found that large public sector organisations and MNCs were more likely to focus on inclusive approaches to diversity training provisions. Broad or inclusive approaches are potentially more conducive to employee participation because they are less likely to be perceived as an affirmative action initiative (Cocchiara *et al.* 2010; Fowler 2006). However, the analysis was less clear cut on the influence of the national setting. Some countries may or may not be as focused on race and gender, whereas others emphasise broader approaches such as diversity, personality, behaviour differences, and disability.

2.10 Operational-Level Issues

At the operational level, there are six key issues: (1) the nature of the needs identification process (person-based analysis, nomination by manager or department, requirement by employee), (2) participation take-up requirements (voluntary vs. mandatory), (3) diversity training setting/location (on-the-job or off-the-job), (4) the duration of diversity training, (5) instructional strategic and learning methods, and (6) the composition of training groups.

2.10.1 Nature of the Needs Identification Process

Needs assessment is an important dimension of the diversity training context; however, it is frequently not undertaken or is done with very little rigour (Chavez and Weisinger 2008). Needs analyses are typically undertaken when designing programmes and workshops in order to prioritise the diversity learning needs, develop material to prepare case scenarios, and articulate the benefits of participation. Needs assessments may be undertaken at individual, team, and organisational levels of analysis (Garavan *et al.* 2004; Roberson *et al.* 2003). A variety of techniques can be used, including audits, surveys, interviews, focus group activities, and task force activities. The needs analysis process plays an important role in determining the attitudes of employees towards diversity issues, the strength of these attitudes, their commitment to diversity issues, and their intention to participate in diversity training (Aguinis and Kraiger 2009).

Tracey *et al.* (2001) highlighted the value of training needs analyses in the context of the training design process. It can highlight issues related to perceived support and recognition for diversity training, and provide a training specialist with an assessment of pre-training motivation, self-efficacy, and reactions to prior diversity training initiatives. It can help to reduce the anxiety of trainees about diversity training, perform a valuable educative function in demonstrating the value of diversity training before it begins, and provide trainees with an opportunity to participate in the training design process. King *et al.* (2010) argued that trainers can utilise the outputs of needs analyses to pitch the training at the appropriate level, select appropriate learning methods, and focus on particular gaps in knowledge that need to be addressed during the programme.

The analysis indicated that the decision to provide diversity training is rarely based on the systematic analysis of needs. Most studies included in the literature review were vague as to

the precise process used (Bennett 2013). However, it generally involves a combination of requests from employees and nomination by managers or from human resources departments. Most organisations relied on a number of approaches include: the initiatives of employees or managers, suggesting a lack of systematic analysis of the learning gaps to be addressed.

2.10.2 Participation and Take-up Requirements

This contextual factor concerns the participation and take-up requirement, and whether it is mandatory or voluntary (Rynes and Rosen 1995). Participation or take-up requirement will influence participants' motivation to learn and transfer learning to the workplace (Roberson *et al.* 2009). Cocchiara *et al.* (2010) argued that take-up or participation in diversity training should be mandatory. Rynes and Rosen (1995) reported that 65% of organisations surveyed made attendance mandatory for managers and supervisors. Frankel and Millman (2007) reported that best-practice firms made diversity training attendance mandatory for managers and a significant proportion of other employees. However, other scholars have suggested that a mandatory participation or take-up requirement may result in negative perceptions of the value of diversity training programmes (Kaplan 2006; Kulik *et al.* 2007). Hicks and Klimoski (1987), for example, found that where diversity training was mandated by supervisors, employees were less motivated to participate and learn. Employees may interpret mandatory attendance requirements as some form of remedial action as punishment for demonstrating negative diversity behaviours (Sanchez and Medkik 2004).

In general, voluntary participation will lead to positive outcomes. This finding is consistent with general training theory. Noe (2002), for example, argued that adults are more aware of their needs and therefore should be in control of training participation decisions. In contrast, DeRouin *et al.* (2004) suggested that employees may be poor judges of their learning needs

and require guidance to better assess their skill development needs. Kulik et al., (2007) found that to simply have a voluntary requirement may not reach those employees most in need of development. They found that employees with greater diversity competence were more likely to participate in training. Those with low competence were less aware of their learning needs and less likely to take up training and development opportunities. Esen (2005) suggested that attendance should be mandatory for managers but voluntary for employees. The mandatory requirement should also apply to new managers and supervisors.

National culture impacts attendance and take-up requirements. Consistent with Hofstede (1980), trainees in individualistic cultures (i.e. UK) should have more freedom to take-up diversity training programmes. Guerrero and Sire (2001), for example, found that the decision to participate is contingent on personal goals learning. Facticeau *et al* (1995) found that in high power distance cultures (i.e. Saudi Arabia), mandatory attendance is more likely to be viewed in a negative way. Whereas in some organisations (i.e. located in high power distance cultures) the emphasize will be in mandatory diversity training attendance. Power distance is manifested in the degree of respect that employees have for supervisors (Yang *et al.* 2009). Diversity training attendance is one such manifestation. Respect for a superior is generally related to more compliant behaviours, and training attendance will be viewed as a sign of respect and obedience. This in general conflicts with the research that suggests that voluntary rather than mandatory diversity training programmes may enhance employee motivation to learn and participate.

The research studies reviewed highlighted no significant relationship between attendance requirements and diversity training outcomes (Hill and Augoustinos 2001, Kulik *et al.* 2007, Sanchez and Medkik 2004). In some situations, there was a legal mandate to provide diversity training to employees (Nemetz and Christensen 1996). In these situations, a

voluntary attendance requirement was not an option. Overall, the arguments for mandatory versus voluntary attendance are unsettled, and, as Bezrukova *et al* (2012) pointed out, this remains an unresolved issue in the literature.

2.10.3 Diversity Training Setting/Location

Bezrukova *et al* (2012) highlighted the location or setting of a diversity training programme as a key design feature of diversity training programmes. The analysis revealed that the majority of organisations provided diversity training off the job (N = 43) (e.g., Combs and Luthans 2007, Doorenbos *et al.* 2010; Schim *et al.* 2006; Tsiantis *et al.* 2004). I found five studies that did not specify the training location (e.g., Bailey *et al.* 2001; Bendick *et al.* 2001; Ely 2004).

Day *et al* (2006) suggested that the location of the learning or training is important because of its implications for both the transfer of training and minimisation of performance errors. Off-the-job diversity training programmes typically take place in classroom settings usually located in a corporate training centre or external location. On-the-job diversity training will be part of one-to-one instruction, coaching, or e-learning. Off-the-job training programmes typically take the form of lecture-driven content programmes, interactive workshops, and programmes that have a strong educational focus (Baba and Hebert 2005). These programmes vary in duration, the nature of instruction, and the diversity of learning objectives (Roberson *et al.* 2009). Off-the-job programmes focus more on general principles of diversity rather than the customisation of content to particular contexts (Roberson *et al.* 2003). King *et al* (2010) suggested that classroom-based programmes focus on developing awareness of diversity, educating employees about the principles of diversity, and making the business case for diversity.

On-the-job locations facilitate the delivery of diversity training as part of day-to-day work and involve a variety of approaches including coaching and instruction, team-based activities, and technology-assisted delivery (Mor Barak 2005). King *et al* (2010) highlighted that on-the-job locations enable diversity training to be more task and results focused, and facilitate skills development and the application of learning on the job. Kormanik and Rajan (2010) suggested that on-the-job training locations enable the integration of diversity issues with mentoring, coaching, and leadership development programmes, and the use of more customised and context-sensitive approaches.

Overall, existing studies have provided limited evidence on the impact of the diversity training location on the success of the training. Few studies have explained whether the diversity training setting is relevant in explaining training outcomes. One study by Baba and Herbert (2005) that explicitly engaged with the training location issues acknowledged its relevance in terms of the generalisability of findings. This suggests that future research needs to empirically investigate whether the training location impacts on diversity training outcomes.

2.10.4 The Duration of Diversity Training

The analysis revealed that off-the-job diversity training tends to be of significantly longer duration than on-the-job diversity training. Off-the-job training programmes are typically of one to two days in duration, whereas on-the-job training programmes tend to be specified in terms of hours. I found no consistent pattern in the relationship between the location of the diversity training and its duration. In fact, the analysis suggested something of a misalignment between programme duration and the types of learning objectives specified. Programmes that focused on changing employees behaviours in areas such as skills were very

short in duration, whereas programmes with awareness and educational learning objectives tended to be much longer in duration, though one would expect the opposite to be the case. Skills-based learning objectives require time for hands-on practice (Anand and Winters 2008), and active practice is necessary to facilitate diversity skills acquisition. Day *et al* (2006) suggested that the amount of time required depends on both the extensiveness of the diversity training (i.e. the depth of training) to ensure that trainees achieve the appropriate level of skill proficiency and understand the complexity of the learning objectives. The majority of diversity training programmes specify learning objectives that are relatively low on extensiveness and complexity.

2.10.5 Instructional Strategies and Learning Methods

Salas *et al* (2012) defined instructional strategies as “tools, methods, and context that are combined and integrated to create a delivery approach” (p.85). Instructional strategies in the context of diversity training are selected to achieve a number of outcomes: (a) to convey diversity information and knowledge to employees; (b) to demonstrate appropriate diversity behaviours, cognitions, and attitudes; (c) to provide trainees with opportunities to practice; and (d) to provide opportunities for feedback to employees (Salas and Cannon-Bowers 2001). Bezrukova *et al* (2012) distinguished between diversity programmes that utilise one instructional method versus those that utilise a variety of different methods. The analysis revealed that a significant proportion of programmes used lectures (N = 39). This finding is consistent with the general industry trend whereby lectures are the instructional strategy of choice (Burke and Hutchins 2007). This instructional strategy is problematic in that it is effective in facilitating the transfer of knowledge, but significantly less effective in producing behavioural outcomes (Cannon and Witherspoon 2005).

I found that awareness-based diversity training typically used workbooks, lectures, PowerPoint presentations, videotapes, and some aspects of role-play. Programmes with a narrow knowledge focus used more didactic methods such as lectures, audio-visual presentations, and presentations by experts (Paluck 2006). Skills-based programmes used more blended approaches, including workshop formats, role-play, case studies, and simulation activities (Bendick *et al.* 2001; Rynes and Rosen 1995). Employees are likely to react more favourably to diversity training that incorporates a variety of instructional methods. However, there is very little evidence from existing studies that the outcomes of diversity training programmes utilising single versus multiple instructional methods are significantly different. An important debate in the context of diversity training concerns the use of instructional methods that explore confrontation and challenge the prejudices and participants. This line of thinking argues that diversity training should contribute to employees changing both their attitudes and behaviours (Roberson *et al.* 2003). I found little evidence in existing studies between the relative value of positive experimental-based instructional methods and those that involve more confrontational approaches.

2.10.6 Composition of Training Groups

A particular area of controversy concerns whether organisations should assemble homogeneous or heterogeneous groups of trainees in terms of their demographic characteristics. A variety of arguments have been proposed for both approaches (Roberson *et al.* 2003). Those in favour of heterogeneous training groups have pointed to the potential for participants to develop a greater awareness of differences and sensitivity to diversity issues (Ferdman and Brody 1996). However, those in favour of homogeneous training groups have pointed to the opportunities to have frank discussions about diversity issues, rather than communicating through guarded comments (Avery and Thomas 2004). Whether

organisations utilise homogeneous or heterogeneous groups depends on the prior experience of trainees, their level of cultural competence, and the cultural context in which the training takes place. Roberson *et al* (2003) suggested that in cases where trainees have limited experience of diversity issues, the composition of training groups may not matter that much.

2.11 Trainee and Trainer Characteristics

Trainee/trainer levels highlighted five issues: (1) trainee demographic characteristics, (2) trainee learning style preference, (3) trainee motivation to learn and transfer, (4) trainee self-efficacy, and (5) trainer characteristics.

2.11.1 Trainee Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristic of trainees most frequently mentioned in the reviewed studies was vocational background. In some cases, the age, gender, and ethnic background of participants were mentioned. Demographic characteristics impact on people's attitudes towards diversity training and their willingness to participate in diversity training. Women and people of colour are more likely to be motivated to take up diversity training opportunities. Kulik *et al* (2001) suggested that employees with less experience or confidence on diversity issues are less likely to take up diversity training opportunities, whereas employees with greater skill and experience are more likely to take advantage of diversity training opportunities. The findings on the influence of demographic characteristics on diversity training outcomes have been largely inconclusive.

The diversity training literature indicated that the majority of studies provided relatively limited details on both trainer and trainee characteristics (Roberson *et al*. 2003). Few studies described in detail the characteristics of trainees. Where such details were provided the

studies invariably highlighted demographic characteristics, but provided little information on other individual characteristics such as attitudes towards diversity, trainee motivation, motivation to transfer, and trainee learning style.

2.11.2 Trainee Learning Style Preferences

Learning styles are highlighted as an important learner characteristic (Kolb 1984). Learning style consist of three interrelated elements; information processing approach, instructional preferences and learning strategies. Information processing differences focus on modes of processing and organising information. Instructional preferences focus on learner predispositions towards learning in a particular way and learning strategies highlight trainer differences in how leaners respond to learning specific subject matter (Kolb and Kolb 2005). Debate arises concerning whether learning styles consist of stable fixed genetic trends or whether they are dynamic (Salas *et al.* 2012).

There is a significant body of research evidence indicating that there are significant cultural differences in learning style (Holtbrügge and Mohr 2010). For example, trainees in cultures that characterised as group based will place more value on methods that encourage collaboration, goal sharing, perception, and the learning involvement (Hofstede 1980). In addition, there is evidence that the training situation will be enhanced when the instructional methods are aligned with the learning preferences of trainees. McIntyre (1996), for example, found that Hispanic learners had a stronger preference for unstructured learning methods, greater informality of the training situation, group-focused learning activities, and learning methods that enable learners to experiment and engage in active practice. He also found that learners in more Western cultures show a preference for methods of learning that involve the completion of competitive tasks and linear knowledge-based methods.

2.11.3 Trainee Motivation to Learn

Motivation to learn has frequently been studied as an influence on whether employees decide to attend diversity training, the effort they direct towards learning, and their persistence in applying skills on the job post-training (Sitzmann *et al.* 2009). Another individual difference used to understand the design of diversity training is individual potential to transfer (Grossman and Salas 2011). Tannenbaum *et al.* (1991) hypothesised that trainee fulfilment, trainee reaction, and trainee performance would be related to the development of post-training attitudes. Their findings indicated that trainees who had more positive reactions to training were more likely to have higher post-training motivation. Egan *et al.* (2004) studied the circumstances under which employees were more likely to be motivated to attend training. They found some factors directly related to employees' motivation, including trainee choice to attend training programs, how helpful the training would be to them on their job, and managerial support.

I have established that demographic characteristics are particularly important in the context of motivation to learn. Motivation to learn is typically conceptualised as elements of curiosity, self-efficacy, attitude, need, and external motivational factors (Day *et al.* 2006). In the context of diversity training, motivation to learn is a key determinant of the chances that trainees will engage in and undertake diversity training programmes. When motivation to learn is high, it leads to more robust diversity training outcomes, such as programme satisfaction, knowledge acquisition, and changed attitudes (Salas *et al.* 2012). It is generally acknowledged that motivation to learn has a cultural basis.

In all of the diversity training studies reviewed, trainee motivation to learn was relatively ignored. One study by Wiethoff (2004) proposed a planned behaviour model that could be used to understand employees' motivation to attend and learn in diversity training. According

to Wiethoff's model, learner readiness, perceptions of positive and negative personal outcomes, and managerial and peer support are positively related to motivation to learn in diversity training. It is also important to note that all of these aspects have relevance in the context of diversity training and vary across different cultural contexts. In general, the diversity training literature has focused little on employees' motivation to attend and learn in diversity training.

2.11.4 Trainee Self-efficacy

Trainee self-efficacy is defined as "a cognitive, self-regulating attribute of trainees that may be applicable to assessing the effectiveness of diversity training" (Combs and Luthans 2007, p.95). Researchers have indicated that there has been limited research examining diversity training success or failure (Holladay *et al.* 2003; Wiethoff 2004). Self-efficacy is commonly seen as an important component in training design. It has been found to strongly relate to both learning (Combs 2002; Mathieu *et al.* 1992) and transfer of training (Combs and Luthans 2007; Holladay and Quiñones 2003). Furthermore, some studies (e.g. Ford *et al.*, 1998) have indicated that trainees with higher self-efficacy are more likely to transfer the training to the job. Hence, when a trainee feels confident in his or her ability to perform, he or she will likely transfer such knowledge and/or skill to the job.

In the literature review, only one study empirically examined the effectiveness of diversity training by incorporating self-efficacy components with intentions to engage in positive diversity initiatives (Combs and Luthans 2007). It has been found that self-efficacy is positively related to diversity training outcomes. However, more research is needed in order to examine the effect of self-efficacy on diversity training design and outcomes.

2.11.5 Trainer Characteristics

Trainer characteristics focus on issues such as demographic attitudinal personality and trainer style issues (Holladay and Quiñones 2005; Salas *et al.* 2012). Trainer characteristics have salience in the context of diversity training. Issues such as gender, race, and ethnic background potentially influence the trainer–trainee relationship. They impact on trainer behaviour, approaches used to deliver training, and how participants perceive the effectiveness of diversity training. I found little information on the demographic background of trainers in the studies reviewed with the exception of whether the trainer was an external professional or an employee of the organisation. Other demographic factors mentioned with less frequency included the gender and ethnic background of the trainer. Holladay and Quiñones (2008) found that the relevance of trainer demographics to diversity training depends on whether the programme focuses on similarities rather than differences. Trainer characteristics have a greater impact when diversity training focuses on differences. Some have suggested that diversity training should be delivered by two trainers, one representing the minority and the second representing the majority (Hayles 1996, Karp and Sutton 1993).

2.12 A Critique of Research on Diversity Training

There is a growing body of literature on the context and design of diversity training in organisations. This literature has been published in a very diverse set of journals; however, it remains fragmented and lacking direction. There are a number of significant issues that need to be addressed in order to improve scholars' and HRD practitioners' understanding of diversity training. First, the majority of literature on diversity training has been published in Western cultural contexts. I have not encountered any studies examining diversity training in non-Western cultural contexts. An organisation's approach to diversity training will be influenced by the national cultural context within which the training takes place. Aycan *et al*

(2000) indicated that diversity training programmes that have evolved in Western cultural contexts may have limited applicability in non-Western cultures. Second, studies on diversity training have used field studies and empirical tests of theoretical models to understand the impact of diversity training on employees' behaviours, attitudes, and skills. Third, given the diversity of training programmes encountered in the literature review, it is difficult to reach conclusions about how best to design diversity training and how to explain when and why diversity training contributes to human resource and organisational performance outcomes.

2.13 Theoretical Issues with Current Diversity Training Research

The review indicated a fragmented set of theoretical foundations informing existing studies on diversity training in organisations. The majority of published studies on diversity training have been deficient in terms of their theoretical justification. There are, however, exceptions in this regard (e.g., Flavin 1997; Holladay and Quiñones 2005; Sanchez and Medkik 2004). Considering all of the studies reviewed in this thesis, only 25% of the articles provided an explicit explanation of the theoretical background, how the theory was developed, and the contribution of the paper to the theory. I experienced considerable difficulty in identifying the theoretical perspective utilised in many of the papers. Therefore, I had to make a judgment call based on the stated purpose, stated contributions, and/or implications set out in the paper. The majority of the papers simply described the context, the diversity training programme, and the empirical findings.

Diversity training research draws on theories and models that explain when and how training works in organisations. These theories in general focus on the pre-training context, design characteristics of effective training, and transfer of training. Theories also focus on the characteristics of individuals in the training context including their motivation to learn, motivation to transfer, and general attitudes towards diversity training (Bertolino *et al.* 2011).

An example of a general model that has informed the literature on diversity training is that proposed by Alvarez *et al* (2004). They argued that the effectiveness of a training programme is related to trainee-related characteristics, organisation characteristics, training context, and design models. A similar model has been proposed by Lim and Morris (2006). These models propose a similar set of factors that are theoretically and practically relevant. Organisational characteristics emphasise the importance of organisational culture, supervisory support, a reward process, and systems on diversity training design. Roberson *et al* (2009) highlighted the salience of these features to the post-training transfer context, and others have highlighted their importance to the pre-training environment as well (Quiñones 1995). Trainee-related characteristics highlight issues such as self-efficacy and motivation to learn (Bertolino *et al*. 2011). Combs (2002), for example, argued for the importance of self-efficacy and its beneficial role in implementing diversity training and its transfer to an organisation.

Another set of concepts drawn from training design theory concerns the influence of organisational characteristics on diversity training design. Researchers have investigated these organisational characteristics in the context of diversity training. Roberson *et al* (2009), for example, examined the influence of supervisory support and learning culture. Rynes and Rosen (1995) highlighted the importance of rewards and Ferdman and Brody (1996) emphasised the importance of role models. Roberson *et al* (2009) concluded that post-training implementation is significantly influenced by trainees' perceptions of environmental factors. Other authors such as Holladay *et al* (2003) have emphasised the importance of framing diversity training and the characteristics of trainees as important factors in design and outcomes.

Within the 61 studies reviewed, the most frequently used theories included cultural/cross-cultural/multicultural, competence theory, training design theory, individual differences theory and a variety of learning theories. Cultural/cross-cultural/multi-cultural competence

theory is applied variously in 30 diversity training studies. Studies utilising multi-cultural theory for example empirically investigated the impact of diversity training on cultural proficiency (Abernethy, 2005), the effects of participation in a cultural awareness program (Schim *et al.* 2006), and the evaluation of a cultural competence intervention (Brathwaite, 2005).

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

Thirteen papers utilised theories that utilised individual differences to investigate diversity-training design and outcomes. Examples of studies included attitudes towards people with intellectual disabilities (Bailey *et al.* 2001), implicit racial prejudices (Costello *et al.* 2007), individual differences and participation in diversity training (Kulik *et al.* 2007), aging and disability awareness differences (Reynolds 2010) and the impact of diversity training on self-efficacy (Combs and Luthans, 2007). Other theoretical perspectives utilised include group diversity theory (Ferguson *et al.* 2003) and social prejudice and stereotyping (Hite and McDonald 2006). I observed little use of theories commonly found in the HRM, HRD, and Organisation Behaviour literatures such as human capital theory, the resource-based theory of

the firm, institutional theory, organisational justice and perceived organisational support theory.

Few studies have sufficiently located diversity training within the Strategic Human Resource Development (SHRD) literatures or shown the connections between diversity training and other HRD strategies. This lack of emphasis on the study of configuration models of SHRD impacts our understanding of the interdependence of diversity practices and other HRD practices. Many of the studies have provided relatively few details of the internal complexities within which diversity training is delivered. Diversity training is most frequently studied as a single practice, which offers little insight into how it can be combined with different configurations of diversity practices.

I also note the tendency of studies to ignore the influence of organisational decision making, human resources management, and development practices as important antecedents to the operation of diversity training in organisations. The majority of studies have placed too much emphasis on the individual level of analysis and ignored theoretical concepts that operate at the organisational level of analysis.

2.14 Methodological Issues with Current Studies

The majority of the studies presented in Table 16 had a number of methodological limitations with respect to sample size, the measurement of diversity training outcome variables, the organisational context, and the levels of outcome investigated. I found few studies that could be described as longitudinal or that addressed issues such as the direction of causality. The majority of the studies used cross-sectional research designs and therefore provided little clarity concerning the causal direction of the results. The majority of the studies had very small sample sizes. The average sample size for the studies reviewed was 82. The range was

from 7 to 493. In light of these methodological limitations, there is a clear need for studies with larger sample sizes and higher response rates.

In addition, there was an overreliance on quantitative methodological approaches for studying diversity training in organisational settings. The analysis revealed that the majority of studies relied on questionnaires (N = 38) (e.g., Costello *et al.* 2007, Ferguson *et al.* 2003, Khanna *et al.* 2009, Mooney *et al.* 2005, Paez *et al.* 2008). There was less use of mixed methods (N = 13) (e.g., Celik *et al.* 2012, Juarez *et al.* 2006, Pfund *et al.* 2013, Thomas and Cohn 2006) and qualitative methods (N = 10) (e.g., Bendick *et al.* 2001, Carr and Seto 2013, Doorenbos *et al.* 2010, Psalti 2007, Wilson *et al.* 2010). Given the limited information on methodologies for designing diversity training in the workplace, I expected to find more qualitative than quantitative studies. A qualitative approach is best when a researcher is exploring a subject about which he or she does not know much about, or when he or she wants to deeply understand the multiple factors that influence diversity training design (Yin 2013). Another reason that explains the overreliance on quantitative methods is that the majority of studies reviewed examined aspects of diversity training separately, and few of these endeavoured to integrate the multiple aspects that may influence diversity training design.

2.15 Summary

As can be seen from this review, understanding diversity training from an HRD and cross-cultural perspective is an important task for the success of diversity training. There are many aspects that impact the design features of diversity training programmes, trainee characteristics, diversity training outcomes, and approaches to the evaluation of diversity training programmes. Culture, in particular, can impact the choices that are made by organisations and individuals in relation to these four characteristics. Therefore, this chapter has provided an extensive review of the diversity training literature through the lenses of

HRD and cultural theory. The available research reveals a lack of both theoretical and empirical investigations of the role of HRD as well as national culture in the context of diversity training.

It is also important to note that not all aspects included in the literature review were empirically investigated in the data collection process. In particular, this study did not investigate the outcomes of diversity training because it would have been a very complex task beyond the scope of this study. It is difficult to draw conclusions about the outcomes of diversity training given the variety of training designs utilised. Organisations utilise multiple approaches, including classroom-based, online, and blended approaches (Kulik and Roberson 2008). These different training designs inevitably lead to different types of outcomes. Consequently, these different designs may potentially explain the inconsistency of outcomes across studies and the lack of evidence of organisational-level outcomes. Another difficulty is that the literature has offered limited knowledge on how organisations, particularly MNCs, operating in Saudi Arabia might design their HRD programmes.

CHAPTER THREE
DIVERSITY &
EMPLOYMENT IN
SAUDI ARABIA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the nature of the HRD system in Saudi Arabia and how it has impacted workforce diversity. First, this chapter offers an overview of the cultural and religious contexts and their influence on employment in Saudi Arabia. The next section discusses the major skills and knowledge gaps of Saudi home nationals and how the government has attempted to overcome these issues by initiating localisation policies.

3.2 Demographic Changes in the Population

The fast growth, modernisation, and diversification of the economy has been accompanied by a significant change in the demographic composition of the country. Labour migration began following the initial discovery of oil, but increased significantly only after the 1973 oil boom (Rutledge *et al.* 2011). The decision to diversify Saudi Arabia's economy has encountered some major challenges, primarily due to the presence of a national workforce that is not able to meet market demands, either because the talent pools are too small or because domestic employees lack the requisite skills and expertise (Al-Dosary and Rahman 2005). Although foreigners have constituted a majority in most GCC countries, particular in terms of the workforce (Achoui 2009), Saudi Arabia has managed to maintain a relatively low proportion of foreigners (about 32 percent in 2012).

The World Bank (2012) predicted that the population of Saudi Arabia would continue to rise by a third over the next few decades. Indeed, Saudi Arabia is among the fastest growing nations in the world in terms of population growth. Its population grew from 7.3 million in 1975 to almost 30 million in 2013. The average age in Saudi Arabia is 27 years, with over 30 percent of the population below the age of 15 (World Bank 2012). By 2025, around 50 percent of Saudi Arabia's population will be under the age of 25, which is perceived to be a serious challenge to the future development of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the increase of the

general populations raises significant questions as to how Saudi Arabia's HRD policies and practices should respond to these various sources of economic, cultural, and political instability (Salih 2010).

The United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) provides a great source for analysing demographic changes and HRD. A 2013 United Nations Development Program (UNDP) report confirmed that progress has been made in terms of human development. The HDI provides scores ranging from 0 to 1,000 and classifies countries into low (<0.500), medium (0.500 – 0.700), high (0.700 – 0.800), and very high (>0.800) human development categories. In 2013, Saudi Arabia was considered to be in the very high bracket, with an HDI score of 0.836 and ranking 34th among 187 countries. It is also important to note that Saudi Arabia has shown great improvements in its human development compared to the last 30 years. In addition, the average life expectancy of Saudi Arabia was 75.5 in 2013. These figures indicate that Saudi Arabia is enjoying growth in its HRD at the national level.

3.3 Cultural & Religious Influence on Employment

Saudi Arabia, officially known as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), is the second largest geographical region in the Arab world, and the largest state by size and population among the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. The country is bordered by the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba to the west; the Republic of Yemen and the Sultanate of Oman to the south; the Arabian Gulf, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar to the east; and Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north.

Saudi culture is largely influenced by traditions of tribe, household, and, more importantly, Islamic ideology (Metcalf 2008). These factors have greatly affected how the HRD system functions at the national and organisational levels. Hofstede (1980) described Saudi culture as a 'high power distance culture' in "which the less powerful members of organisations and

institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally” (p. 89). In addition, he classified Saudi Arabia as a ‘collectivistic culture’ in which people work as part of a social structure dominated by tribal and personal relationships. This social dynamic affects people’s behaviours and attitudes. Although international influences, such as globalisation and industrialisation, have impacted the national cultures of most Arab countries, Saudi Arabia still holds onto its strong cultural identity. At the same time, women’s mobility is restricted, and they remain underrepresented in education and employment. Indeed, gender segregation in the workplace seems to be more problematic in Saudi Arabia than in other Gulf countries (Bhuiyan *et al.* 2001). This segregation relates directly to the structure of HRD policies and practices.

Islam is the only religion that is permitted to be openly practised in Saudi Arabia. All Saudi citizens are Muslim—the majority being Sunni Muslims who practise the strict *Wahhabi* interpretation of Islam (Williams *et al.* 2011). The Qur’an (the Islamic Holy Book) and the Shari’ah (Islamic law) are the main foundations of the legal system. Given that the country was established by, and is still dominated by, a religious group, religion affects all aspects of social life (Mellahi 2007; Salih 2010). According to Showail *et al.* (2013), Islam is not just a religious belief, but is central to the Saudi way of life and the source of all legal, political, social, economic, and financial services. Islam forms the basis of the constitution, employment relations, and business practices.

In Islam, the concept of HRD is given a central role (Akdere *et al.* 2006). The Holy Qur’an is seen as the most important source of knowledge, providing Muslims with guidance on what actions to take for their salvation. The meaning of learning in the Qur’an runs deep and can be applicable across generations. However, the Qur’an does not detail many of the operational matters of daily Muslim life that were delegated to the Prophet Mohammed,

identified as the ultimate role model: “You have indeed in the Messenger of Allah an excellent exemplar” (The Holy Qur’an 33:21). At the organisational level, any practice that complies with Islamic rules is acceptable. As a result, management practices in Muslim countries (i.e. Saudi Arabia) have been found to differ from management practices in non-Muslim countries (Afiouni *et al.* 2013).

3.4 The Saudi Labour Market

Since the discovery of oil in the 1930s, it has been Saudi Arabia’s main source of revenue. Consequently, the economic and social structures, including the HRM/HRD system, have been influenced by an oil-based growth model (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner 2012). The massive export of its resources has allowed Saudi Arabia to enjoy substantial revenues from oil and gas production. However, the Saudi government has recognised that further improving competitiveness will require it to address and remove a number of constraints, including restrictive labour regulations, the lack of national manpower, an inefficient government bureaucracy, and limited access to financing (Achoui 2009). In order to support and sustain this growth in the face of a shortage of indigenous educated and skilled labour, expatriate and foreign workers have been imported to fulfil this role. Currently, expatriates and foreign workers represent more than 80 percent of the total workforce in the private sector. The GCC countries have quickly realised that the over-reliance on expatriate and foreign workers will have serious long-term political, economic, and social consequences (Showail *et al.* 2013). The rapidly increasing youth population has led to even more challenges to the national HRD system.

Nowadays, the Saudi labour market can be described as largely dependent on expatriate and foreign workers, especially in the private sector. For example, in 2013, foreigners dominated private sector jobs, comprising 83% of the workforce (see Table 2). Meanwhile, nationals

have been absorbed into the public sector, which offers comfortable, well-remunerated jobs with high job security (Williams *et al.* 2011). In effect, non-national workers dominate the private sector, whereas national workers dominate the public sector. In 2008, for example, non-national workers in private sector organisations accounted for 80 percent of the workforce, while national workers in the public sector represented 94 percent (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014). This steady stream of non-national workers has created some serious problems. According to Rutledge *et al* (2011), these multifaceted problems include the creation of a highly segmented labour market between nationals and non-nationals, unemployment among local citizens, the over-reliance on outsider workers, strain on government budgets, and the outflow of local currency. Moreover, many people believe that the substantial imbalance in the composition of the workforce poses a threat to social as well as national security.

Table 3 Employment Percentages in Saudi Arabia’s Private Sector by Gender & Ethnicity from 2009-2013

Gender	Male				Female				Total	
	Saudi N	%	Non-Saudi N	%	Saudi N	%	Non-Saudi N	%	N	%
2009	633,075	(9.18)	6,125,028	(88.83)	48,406	(0.70)	89,039	(1.29)	6,895,548	(100)
2010	669,037	(9.57)	6,178,130	(88.37)	55,618	(0.80)	88,415	(1.26)	6,991,200	(100)
2011	744,990	(9.57)	6,823,554	(87.69)	99,486	(1.28)	113,466	(1.46)	7,781,496	(100)
2012	918,793	(10.83)	7,244,206	(85.35)	215,840	(2.54)	108,694	(1.28)	8,487,533	(100)
2013	1,068,315	(11.04)	8,051,394	(83.18)	398,538	(4.12)	161,388	(1.67)	9,679,635	(100)

Sources: Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development in Saudi Arabia (CDSI) (2013)

It is also becoming increasingly expensive for the public sector to employ nationals only. Bozionelos (2009) noted that the public sector has now become saturated, causing the Saudi government to turn its attention to the private sector. The private sector is large and capable of meeting the high labour demand (Mellahi 2007). At the same time, the sector depends on low-wage foreign labourers who generally work long hours, accept lower wages, and tolerate poorer working conditions—none of which would be accepted by home nationals (Jackson and Manderscheid 2015). Al-Dosary and Rahman (2005) further argued that, in Saudi Arabia, profit-based organisations search for the cheapest unskilled labour and seem to have little interest in investing in national HRD. Nationals, on the other hand, typically seek education and training that prepares them for jobs in the public sector. As a consequence, the government wage bill comprises a significant percentage of its GDP. Ramady (2013) argued, however, that with Saudi Arabia's labour force projected to increase over the next 5 to 10 years, it will be difficult for the government to continue to absorb new labour market participants. Unless the employment of nationals in the private sector increases, unemployment will likely rise.

Moreover, the issue of balancing between equipping citizens with suitable jobs and meeting market demands has remained unresolved (Budhwar and Mellahi 2007). The level of unemployment among nationals is relatively high, given the level of economic growth and large government spending. For example, Saudi youth unemployment among both men and women has been estimated at 26 percent (World Bank 2012). What makes the issue more difficult to tackle is the lack of reliable data in Saudi Arabia and other GCC countries (Rodriguez and Scurry 2014). The government, as the holder of major resources, used to be able to direct its budget towards the creation of public sector jobs for its citizens (Forstenlechner and Baruch 2013). However, even with high oil prices, it is becoming

impossible for the government to make enough public sector jobs available for all those entering the labour market. The rise in unemployment among young nationals has fuelled resentment over jobs being held by foreigners, even though those jobs are not the ones that citizens find attractive.

3.5 Workforce Diversity

Despite the economic growth and large government spending on education and vocational training, the participation of diverse groups in the labour force has been classified as the lowest in the region (Lauring 2013). For example, around 51% of Saudi Arabia's population is under the age of 25 (as of December, 2013) (CDSI, 2013). In total, there are 4.1 million people between the ages of 15 and 29 who are out of the workforce; more than 87% of them are studying or completing training programmes and they will be ready to join the workforce in the near future. In addition, the female population (15 years and above) in Saudi Arabia was last measured at 9 million in 2013, and from this number only 1.2 million Saudi females are included in the workforce.

In addition, the discussion of diversity within the Saudi labour market has mainly focused on the issue of gender imbalance due to the fact that local women in Saudi Arabia have historically faced a number of discriminatory practices (e.g., Metcalfe 2006, 2007, Vidyasagar and Rea 2004). The latest figures show that the unemployment rate for Saudi Arabian women increased from 28.4% in 2009 to 33.2% in 2013 (CDSI 2013). At the same time, Mellahi *et al* (2011) argued that the nature of Saudi Arabia's economy has limited the supply and demand of diverse workers, and as a result, men have held almost 100% of the jobs in the engineering sector for a considerable period of time (Rutledge *et al.* 2011). The economy of Saudi Arabia relies heavily on oil and gas production, and this sector remains one of the most gender-segregated professions in the country (Bozionelos 2009).

Existing studies have found that both the formal and informal institutions in Saudi Arabia have directly influenced workforce diversity. Metcalfe (2007) noted that cultural norms and local traditions have shaped the status of women in Islamic societies. Under Islamist ideology, women are seen primarily as housewives and mothers (Syed 2008). Since family and traditions are emphasised, any practice that appears to threaten that traditional familial structure will more than likely receive resistance (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014). As a result, even women who have high literacy levels and professional opportunities cannot work without permission from a male relative. When a married woman works, she usually struggles to create a balance between work and family life due to the lack of child care support and maternity policies. In addition, women often face cultural resistance when working alongside man, such as in hospitals (Bozionelos 2009). Studies have indicated that the impression persists in Saudi Arabia that women are not qualified to hold responsible positions normally considered to be masculine jobs. Elamin and Omair (2010) found that Saudi Arabian men believe that they are more dominant, independent, and capable of holding leadership positions than women, who are considered to be dependent and better at household activities. Because of such preconceptions, gender equality is not easily implemented in many Muslim countries (Syed and Ozbilgin 2009).

The education system in Saudi Arabia has played a critical role in perpetuating the gender inequalities in the workforce. Despite large government spending on education, constituting 6.8 percent of its GDP (World Bank 2012), the education system is often criticised for its lack of rigorous standards, weak teaching in scientific and technical fields, and limited choices for women. In fact, the majority of local academic institutions have barred women from studying in engineering or technological fields (Metcalfe 2008). In doing so, Ramady (2010) argued that the education system in Saudi Arabia has not met the demands of the labour market. There remains a major gap between what organisations require and what female graduates

can offer (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014). Despite this significant social and cultural resistance, in recent years, education for women has been a high priority for the Saudi government. Recently, the first generation of female engineers has entered the workforce (Jackson and Manderscheid 2015).

3.6 Skills and Knowledge Gaps

Empirical evidence has shown that people's formal educational qualifications are frequently unrelated to their actual area of employment, particularly in Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, a great number of employees in the public sector believe that their current jobs require them to use only a small portion of their perceived skills and capabilities (Mellahi 2007). Ramady (2010) claimed that the education system and vocational training institutions have not placed enough emphasis on developing soft skills, such as communication, teamwork, analytical skills, and innovative thinking.

A survey of the private sector also found that 46 percent of regional managers do not believe that the education and training system in Saudi Arabia prepares students adequately for the workplace (Madhi and Barrientos 2003). These findings suggest that there is an immense divide between current regional human capital levels and the skills demanded by private sector employers. As the government sought to re-nationalise the workforce, "citizens found themselves competing, for positions in both the public and private sector, as they began to realize they could no longer expect to find abundant employment" (Forstenlechner and Baruch 2013, p.630).

Despite an ongoing tendency to increase funding for education in Saudi Arabia, meeting the combined demands of increasing access and improving quality in education and vocational training remains a challenge (Baqadir *et al.* 2011). Moreover, regional human capital

development and the ability of Saudi Arabia to compete in the global economy continue to be hindered by poor quality education. The problem seems to lie with Saudi Arabia's higher education system, which is failing to produce the right quality and mix of human capital for knowledge-based development.

3.7 Training and Development: An Organisational Level

Studies on HRD in the GCC, in general, or in Saudi Arabia, in particular, have been very scarce. Most of the literature has outlined the importance of understanding the national HRD in emerging economies (Lynham and Cunningham 2006, McLean 2012), with limited country-specific HRD focus. A number of scholars have attempted to analyse the HRD in Saudi Arabia: see for example Achoui (2009), Al-Asfour and Khan (2014), Al-Dosary and Rahman (2005), and Alzalabani (2002). However, most of these studies have been conducted at the national level. There is still limited research available related to the field of HRD at the organisational level.

Vocational training has long been used to address a perceived skills gap in the Kingdom. However, Baqadir *et al* (2011) suggested that the skills gap has not diminished. One of the major challenges facing Saudi Arabia is the misalignment between universities' learning outcomes and organisational skills needs. Achoui (2009) noted that there is still a major gap between what universities teach and what organisations demand. Most academic institutions in Saudi Arabia are focused on improving low skill levels and do not emphasise other important skills, such as communication and managerial skills. In studying the perspective of private employers, Baqadir *et al* (2011) found that vocational training fails to offer Saudi graduates a sufficient level of KSAs for employers to employ them. The authors further indicated that "the perceived skills gap centres on three factors: work ethics, specialised knowledge and generic skills" (p.551). A study conducted by Al-Turki (2011) applied

enterprise resource planning programmes as a solution to business issues in Saudi Arabia. Al-Turki found that the majority of HRD practices within private organisations were influenced by poor management commitment and lack of clear strategic objectives. Change management behaviours and attitudes, along with extensive training, are essential for HRD practices to be successful. In a study examining the training needs of employees in Saudi Arabia, Alzalabani (2002) found that the appropriate use of performance evaluation methods was important for training effectiveness, and that such measurements should be incorporated at the individual, group, and organisational levels.

Institutional dualism is also an important aspect to consider when studying HRD in Saudi Arabia. Within the Kingdom, there are many foreign subsidiaries of MNCs (Mellahi *et al.* 2011). Many of these subsidiaries operate in the public sector, which is characterised by formal roles and regulations. In addition, there are a large number of family-owned businesses, which represent the majority of firms in the private sector (Alzalabani 2002). For these reasons, networks and personal relationships are highly valued, which has affected the development of national HRD. Harry (2007) noted that personal relationships can enhance individuals' employability and skills development in most GCC countries.

3.8 Saudi Government Intervention

Aiming to tackle the issue of the high unemployment rate among women and youth, in 2010, the government introduced localisation policies designed to increase the percentage of home nationals in the private sector and re-nationalise the workforce (Elamin and Omair 2010). The introduction of an employment quota system, *Nitaqat*, means that every Saudi company is mandated to reserve 30% of its jobs for the local population. This system has greatly stimulated the number of jobs available for Saudi home nationals (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014). The Nitaqat scheme requires companies to comply with the minimum local

employment percentages in order to continue to enjoy access to resources. Non-compliant companies face financial penalties and other damaging restrictions. To reduce the gender gap, mandatory practices have been initiated, such as a gender quota system, which aims at creating more sustainable employment for local women (Rutledge *et al.* 2011).

The government has also invested heavily in education and vocational training (Al-Dosary and Rahman 2005), and developed a number of channels for employers to seek qualified employees. Furthermore, the government has established a “Saudi Employment Strategy” to encourage private organisations to create job opportunities that are suitable and attractive to home nationals. The “Saudi Employment Strategy” seeks to achieve three fundamental goals. Its short-term goal is to control unemployment by recruiting both men and women who are willing to join the workforce. The mid-term goal is to reduce unemployment by encouraging the participation and productivity of home nationals through growth stimulation policies. In the long term, the Saudi economy seeks to sustain its competitive advantages by relying on national human resources.

Importantly, the government hopes that localisation policies may change people’s negative attitudes towards working in the private sector. These negative attitudes stem from the general belief among home nationals that private sector jobs are less secure and lower status (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014). The government also hopes to change employers’ views that home nationals are less capable, costly, and difficult to manage. In general, localisation policies are designed to regulate the labour market by reducing organisations’ reliance on foreign workers and by increasing the proportion of nationals in posts previously occupied by non-nationals (Ramady 2013).

Although the legal framework of this strategy (including localisation) has contributed to an increase in the workforce diversity of the private sector (Mellahi 2007), some studies have

criticised the localisation policies. Al-Asfour and Khan (2014), for example, argued that focusing on recruitment and staffing alone may not lead to gender equality. The new labour laws overlook issues of equal opportunity in training, promotion, and pay, which may still lead to discriminatory gender practices (Ramady 2010). Although Saudi Arabia has signed the UN declaration to eliminate discrimination against women, the UK policy rarely translates into practical actions. The absence of EO has also affected the rights of migrant workers who usually suffer from the discriminatory practices of their employers (Metcalf 2007). The legal system has banned professional associations and labour unions, which has further slowed the progressive movement towards gender empowerment.

Ramady (2010) argued that the issue of female participation in the engineering sector goes far beyond legal complaints; the majority of home nationals have negative perceptions towards private sector jobs, while most women lack the skills and level of social integration necessary to work in a multicultural environment. Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010) showed that the majority of employers perceive the localisation policies as costly, as such policies limit organisations' abilities to compete locally and internationally. Rutledge *et al* (2011) argued further that in fact most private organisations are not yet prepared to accommodate Saudi female employees. As a result, gender segregation in the workplace remains a major problem in most private sector organisations (Bozionelos 2009).

The majority of home nationals seek employment in government organisations because of the high level of job security, fewer working hours and less workload, greater pay equity, and more suitable working environments for women (Nishii and Özbilgin 2007). Yet, young graduates are expected to compete against foreign workers who are often willing to work longer hours at significantly lower salaries. Harry (2007) noted that simply replacing expatriates with local citizens may not be a good strategy, as many of the jobs that are occupied by foreign workers are traditionally perceived by Saudi Arabians as low-status

employment. Consequently, the differences between employment in the public and private sectors has created a highly segmented labour market divided between home nationals and foreign workers (Forstenlechner and Mellahi 2011).

3.9 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the cultural and religion contexts of Saudi Arabia and how these have affected the diversity and the national HRD system. The chapter has shown that Saudi Arabia's rapid economic growth along with its limited national skills and knowledge have forced private organisations to rely on expatriates and foreign workers for labour. Although the government has initiated localisation policy aimed at reducing the over-reliance on foreigners and increasing the participation of home workers in the private sector, studies have shown that the issue is more complicated and requires a more effective policy that considers the demands of the labour market and the level of national workers' skills and competencies.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology and the techniques used to collect, interpret, and analyse the data. The chapter is structured as follows: The first part discusses the importance of understanding the research philosophy guiding the study prior to conducting contemporary research. This is followed by a discussion of the research approach used in this study. The second part outlines why the case study approach was the most suitable approach for conducting this study. The third part outlines the context and the case study organisation, as well as the method used for collecting the data. The last section describes how the thematic analysis approach was used to analyse and interpret the complex data.

4.2 Research Philosophy

When undertaking contemporary research, it is very important to understand the philosophical assumptions of science and social science in order to assure the quality of the research, the research design, and the outcomes (Babbie 2013). The reality is that researchers bring different thoughts, beliefs, and philosophical assumptions to their studies, which not only shape the research questions, but also how data are collected and analysed. It is therefore essential to recognise and explain these different assumptions, and to acknowledge their respective strengths and weaknesses. In doing so, the researcher can ensure that the research is congruent and coherent, and that personal biases are exposed and minimised. Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) argued that understanding the philosophical assumptions embedded in social theories and methodologies can enable researchers to identify and create research designs that may stretch beyond their previous experiences. Creswell (2012) highlighted three important reasons as to why understanding these philosophical assumptions is essential for conducting effective research:

- These assumptions influence how scientists and researchers formulate research problems and questions, and how they attempt to answer these questions in contributing to scientific knowledge.
- Researchers are guided by these assumptions, which are rooted in their training and educational background, and influenced by the people in their particular environment.
- External reviewers make philosophical assumptions about studies as they evaluate them. Making clear links between ontology and epistemology, and delineating any assumptions shaping the study can help to eliminate any unfair judgment.

Blaikie (2007) clarified that there are three main types of research questions: ‘what’, ‘why’, and ‘how’ questions. These logics of enquiry enable researchers to determine which research strategies may allow them to answer their questions or apply certain theories. As this research was not exploratory, the use of ‘how’ question was essential, as such questions could enable me to better understand the relationships between diversity training and complex institutional and cultural factors. Therefore, I used an *inductive* approach in this research, moving from the more specific to the more general in a ‘bottom-up’ process. By contrast, a *deductive* approach would move from the more general to the more specific in a ‘top-down’ process.

Although such research strategies only play a secondary role in answering the research questions, they help the researcher to select appropriate methods of data collection (Blaikie 2007). Before discussing the research philosophy of this study, it is very important to briefly discuss a number of philosophical assumptions that are embedded in key research paradigms.

4.3 Research Paradigms

Paradigms can be defined as the “basic belief systems based on ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions” (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p.107). They represent

worldviews that explain the nature of the real world, people’s place in it, and the variety of possible relationships between that world and its parts. Therefore, a research paradigm sets the context and guidelines for a researcher’s study. There are a number of paradigms that guide research across disciplines; researchers adopt different paradigmatic patterns to conceptualise and organise their research (Ponterotto 2005).

A paradigm consists mainly of four philosophical assumptions: *ontology* (the nature of reality), *epistemology* (what counts as knowledge, how we gain it, and who can be a knower), *methodology* (bringing a philosophical framework together with the methods used), and *method* (a technique used for data collections). In qualitative research, researchers often make their values explicit in a study. These are the *axiological* assumptions that characterise qualitative research, integrating with each other and influencing the process of research. Table 4 provides an outline of some core definitions of these four components.

Table 4 Ontology, Epistemology, Methodology, and Method

Ontology	Philosophical assumptions about the nature of social reality, i.e., what can be known and how (is reality objective or subjective?)
Epistemology	A general set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature of the world (who can be a knower, and how does the knower gain knowledge?)
Methodology	A combination of techniques used to inquire into a specific situation (bringing a philosophical framework together with the methods used)
Method	A technique or tool that researchers use for data collection, analysis, etc.

Sources: Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008)

These philosophical assumptions are embedded in the research paradigms or interpretive frameworks that researchers use when conducting studies. Although the social sciences have highlighted a wide range of interpretive frameworks, both positivism and interpretivism have been commonly used in management research because they shape the ‘poles’ from which other paradigms are derived (Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2008). Although similar assumptions have been developed in parallel across different disciplines, these two approaches may be employed under different names.

4.3.1 Positivism

Positivism is an approach that has often been considered the most widely used in management and marketing (Ponterotto 2005). It assumes that reality exists and is driven by absolute natural laws and regulations (Guba and Lincoln 1994). The positivist paradigm is grounded in the objectivist dichotomy, which assumes that data should be measured objectively and not subjectively, given that ‘reality is objective’ (Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2008). Positivism also presumes that knowledge is only reliable if it is based on hard data, rather than on values and opinions. Values and bias should not influence a study’s outcomes. Researchers and scientists who conduct controlled experimental studies often gather data to test hypotheses and present the results of their statistical analyses in light of existing theory. Thus, it is a type of deductive approach that converts quantitative data into mathematical form, expressing an ontology in functional relationships (Hatch and Cunliffe 2006).

Although positivism has its strengths, there are several reasons as to why the positivist approach was not appropriate for this research. First, this study adopted an inductive argument whereby no hypotheses were tested. Rather, there were a number of research issues to be investigated and explored. Second, as this study aimed at identifying the multiple realities that have shaped and influenced diversity training design, the positivist approach

would not have been appropriate. Third, while there are several testable theories in the area of diversity training, these theories could not have been tested within the scope of this study because of the limited knowledge on diversity and how this concept has been applied in the Saudi Arabian context.

4.3.2 Interpretivism / Constructivism

Interpretivism or social constructionism has been developed by philosophers who argue that ‘reality’ is not always objective. Instead, reality is socially constructed and given meaning by people (Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2008). Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) described this paradigm as anti-positivist, whereas Blaikie (1993) described it as post-positivist. Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) indicated that the development of this paradigm was necessary because of the limited applicability of the positivist approach in the social sciences.

Under this paradigm, people—individually and collectively—make sense of the world based on their perceptions and experiences. Reality, conceived in this way, is subject to multiple interpretations. Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008, p.59) argued that “social scientist should not be to gather facts and measure how often certain patterns occur, but to appreciate the different constructions and meanings that people place upon their experience”. For this reason, it is essential to investigate and understand these meaning and the factors that have direct and indirect influence on various individuals’ constructions.

The interpretivist approach seemed particularly suited to the focus of this study for a number of reasons. First, the aim of this study was to identify and investigate the socially constructed realities within a real case organisation. The findings of this study have been interpreted in the context of HRM/HRD literature in order to explore how multiple factors have influenced diversity training design. Second, the study did not set out to test pre-existing theories; the

literature was used to provide the foundation for the study. Moreover, this research relied upon qualitative data gathered from different actors and diverse employees in order to discover and understand their sense of meaning and how it is socially embedded within the organisation. Therefore, this study was inductive, rather than deductive—theory building, rather than theory testing. It sits within the interpretive paradigm, pursuing a Constructionism ontology that views multiple forms of reality. This research, therefore, has taken a subjectivist epistemology, accepting that social interaction is essential to interpretation and knowledge creation (see table 5). .

Table 5 The Major Paradigms

Description	Positivism	Post-positivism	Interpretivism / Constructivism
Ontology: what is true?	Objectivist; findings=truth, realism	Modified objectivist; findings probably true, transcendental	Local, relative; co-constructed realities, subjectivity, relativism
Epistemology: how can knowledge be obtained?	The only knowledge is scientific knowledge, which is truth; reality is apprehensible	Findings approximate to the truth; reality is never fully apprehended	Co-created multiple realities and truths
Methodology: how do I examine what is real?	Quantitative – primarily experimental, quasi-experimental	Usually quantitative – experimental with threats to validity, qualitative (e.g., case study)	Often qualitative and/or quantitative
Rationale for discounting / counting research method	Reality is not objective No verification of hypotheses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reality is not dualist/objective • No falsification of hypothesis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More suitable because reality is objective • The methodology aimed at the reconstruction of previously held constructions

Sources: Guba and Lincoln (1994).

4.4 Comparing Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

The decision for selecting the appropriate research approach should be based on a broad philosophical assumption that the researcher brings to the study. This decision should also be based on the nature of the research problem or issue being investigated, the researchers' interests and personal experiences. The two main approaches are qualitative and quantitative. The major differences between these two approaches are related to the use of words (qualitative) instead of numbers and figures (quantitative), and to the use of open-ended (qualitative) rather than closed-ended questions (quantitative) (table 6). It is vital to keep in mind, however, that these are two different philosophies, and, as such, they should not be "viewed as rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites, or dichotomies. Instead, they represent different ends on a continuum" (Creswell 2012, p.3). In exploring and interpreting phenomena to provide a detailed description and understanding of events, situations, and interactions between people and realities, the methodology for this study could not employ close-ended question. Instead, it was clear that open-ended questions with key people holding rich information about the issue under investigation would be more effective.

Previous studies have highlighted a number of steps that need to be considered before deciding upon the research method. First, the selection of the research methodology should be determined by the type of research questions to be answered, not by the preferences of the researcher (Marshall 1996). Indeed, the research questions are critical because they can shape and direct the study in a way that is often underestimated. Quantitative studies usually seek to answer more mechanistic 'what?' questions, whereas qualitative studies aim to understand a phenomena or to investigate people's perspectives; they often rely on answering humanistic 'why?' and 'how?' questions (Blaikie 2007). 'What?' questions were not appropriate for this study as they would have provided single answers insufficient to understanding the overall picture of diversity and diversity training in organisations operating in Saudi Arabia.

Second, the state of knowledge and information available can also influence the selection of research methodology. Scholars have often suggested that if there is little known about the variables involved in the research problem, then a qualitative study is more applicable. On the other hand, if a body of literature exists, the variables are known, and the theories exist, a quantitative study can be used to determine which hypotheses should be tested in order to produce generalisable results. Marshall (1996), however, argued that even if the variables are known, their nature may not always allow the use of experimental methods. As the chapter two has shown, there is relatively little extant knowledge on diversity and diversity training in Saudi Arabia. In addition, there are more questions than answers in the context of diversity training in non-Western countries. After reviewing both the quantitative and qualitative approaches, I determined that a qualitative approach would be the most useful for answering the research questions. The results of this study are not intended to be generalised to a general population because of the limited information on how organisations implement their diversity training in Saudi Arabia.

There were a number of benefits derived from the adoption of a qualitative approach. First, this approach was better for outlining the complex textual descriptions of how key informants understood the relationships between diversity training and the external environment. Second, the qualitative approach was helpful for understanding the effect of personal expressions and behaviours, and enabled me to study artefacts and collect evidence from different sources. In other words, it allowed me to develop a deep understanding of the beliefs, values, attitudes, behaviours, opinions, and social contexts of managers and institutional actors, and their perceptions and feelings towards diversity training.

Table 6 Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Approaches

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeks to test hypotheses • Instruments use more rigid style of selecting and categorising responses to questions • Deductive • Component analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeks to investigate phenomena • Instruments use more flexible, iterative styles of eliciting and categorising responses to questions • Inductive • Searches for patterns
Epistemology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facts have an objective reality • Primacy of method • Variables can be identified and relationships measured 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reality is socially constructed • Primacy of subject matter • Variables are complex, interwoven, and difficult to measure
Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses highly structured methods such as questionnaires, surveys, and structured observation • Closed-ended questions • Large sample size • Numerical data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses structured and unstructured methods such as semi-structured interviews, in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participant observation • Open-ended questions • Small sample size (key informants) • Textual data
Research objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To quantify variation • To predict causal relationships • To describe characteristics of a population • Generalisation is scientific 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To describe variation • To describe and explain relationships • To describe group norms • Generalisation is fuzzy
Researcher involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited, controlled to prevent bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High: researcher is participant or catalyst
Data analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computerised analysis: statistical and mathematical methods dominate. • Maintains clear distinction between facts and judgments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manual analysis following computer or human coding, primarily non-quantitative • Always ongoing during the study

Sources: Creswell (2012)

4.5 Case Study Research

There is a set of qualitative approaches that are commonly used in the social sciences, including ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, narrative analysis, and case study (Creswell 2012). The philosophical assumptions underpinning these approaches differ based on the research aims and intended outcomes. Although each method can be used differently, researchers can apply more than one approach in a single research project in order to better answer the research problem. Each qualitative research approach has its advantages and disadvantages (Flyvbjerg 2006).

The case study approach seemed to be more suitable for the nature of this study, considering the study's goal to understand an organisation's rationale for introducing diversity training, and how these rationales influence diversity training design. Case study research involves the study of a case within a particular real-world situation. It is a qualitative approach in which the researcher explores and gets involved in a real-life boundary system (case) or multiple boundary systems (cases) over a period of time (Creswell 2012). Although some scientists (e.g., Stake 1995) have claimed that a case study is not a research methodology but a method of what is to be studied, Yin (2013) and his followers argued that it is in fact a methodology, or even a comprehensive research strategy. This approach has been applied in many social science disciplines, including psychology, political science, and management (Creswell 2012). The unit of analysis in a case study might be a single case or multiple cases.

According to Stake (1995), two different types of case studies are often highlighted in qualitative research: intrinsic and instrumental. An *intrinsic case* means that the researcher uses this approach to explore a unique case—a case that has rare interest in and of itself and needs to be outlined and detailed. An *instrumental case* can be used to understand a specific problem in a particular environment, as in this study. Regardless of which type of case study

is chosen, the effective use of a qualitative case study requires in-depth understanding of the case and the problem under investigation. For this reason, research can use a variety of methods, including interviews, observation, and document analysis. In most cases, researchers tend to spend a long time collecting and analysing the data until the problem is fully understood.

Although there are a number of research strategies available to researchers, Yin (2013) highlighted three main conditions that can determine the strategy to be used in a given study: (1) the form of the research question, (2) the extent of control the researcher has over behavioural events, and (3) the focus on contemporary or historical events. Table 7 outlines the different types of research strategies, and how each is related to these three conditions and this study.

Table 7 Different Research Strategies and their Relevance to this Study

Strategy	Form of research question	Requires control over behavioural events?	Focus on contemporary events?	Relevant to this study?
Experiment	How, why?	Yes	Yes	Not relevant
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes	Not relevant
Archival analysis	Who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes/No	Maybe when describing the case background
History	How, why?	No	No	No
Case study	How, why?	No	Yes	Yes, primary focus is on in-depth interviews

Source: (Yin 2013)

Forms of research question. The research question can take different forms, such as who, what, where, how many, how much. To answer all of these questions, a survey or archival analysis would be best. As already outlined at the beginning of this thesis, the aim of this study was to answer how and why questions: “*How do the external and internal forces in Saudi Arabia promote diversity training, and how do these forces influence diversity training’s designs?*” Given the ‘how’ questions, a case study or history approach was the most appropriate for this study.

Extent of control over behavioural events. Yin (2013) proposed that the extent of the researcher’s control over and access to actual behavioural events can determine the appropriate research strategy. Given the fact that this research aimed at answering ‘how’ questions and was not dealing with the ‘dead’ past, I had no control over the behaviour of key informants. Also, there was no experimental control or manipulation involved in this study; therefore, case study research seemed most relevant in this situation.

Contemporary events. This aspect refers to whether an event takes place during the time of the study and can be observed and detailed by the researcher (Yin 2013). This study was based on contemporary events occurring in a real case in Saudi Arabia. As Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008) emphasised, in case study research, the main focus should be on one aspect of the business. In this case, that aspect was the influence of external and internal factors on diversity training. Stake (1995) indicated that when using case study research, it is important to analyse the real-life challenges faced by people involved in the case study. In this study, several issues were investigated, including national, cultural, and institutional characteristics.

4.5.1 Single Case Study

In qualitative research, there has been a large debate over using multiple cases or single cases as the unit of analysis (Piekkari *et al.* 2008). Dyer and Wilkins (1991) argued that a single case is a useful unit of analysis for theory building, as it enables researchers to seek theoretical insights. The multiple case method is more practical for researchers when making comparisons across organisational contexts (Eisenhardt 1989). A single case study, on the other hand, leads to the deep understanding of a particular context and more contextual insights. For the nature and purpose of this study, I selected a single case approach in order to develop an in-depth understanding of how multiple forces have influenced the implementation and design of diversity training in a MNC operate in Saudi Arabia.

Flyvbjerg (2006) criticised the notion that one cannot generalise from a single case study, arguing that it implies a misunderstanding or oversimplification of the nature of case study research. He further argued that researchers undertake their studies for multiple purposes; one of them is to gain knowledge from a real-world experience. Consequently, it is incorrect to state that generalisation is the only aim of research, “just as it is incorrect to conclude that one cannot generalize from a single case. It depends on the case one is speaking of and how it is chosen” (Flyvbjerg 2006, p.225). According to Yin (2013), case studies can still be considered experiments, as they represent powerful strategies for expanding and generalising theories, rather than enumerating frequencies. Similarly, Stake (1995) asserted that researchers use the case study approach not with the aim of demonstrating the validity of an argument for a statistical population, but with the aim of expanding a theoretical framework that would be valuable in analysing similar cases. Similarly, I did not choose a case study to generate a sample-to-population logic. Rather, my focus was on generalising from the results to develop a conceptual framework, or theory building.

Although a multiple case study approach might be considered more rigorous (Yin, 2013), it would have been difficult to use multiple cases given the timeframe and nature of this research. The reality is that researchers who conduct their field work in developing countries, particularly in the Middle East, often find it difficult to access a large number of good real cases (Dieleman and Boddewyn 2012; Luring 2013). The data collection procedure for this study took more than 8 months for the single case, and more than 3 months to gain access to government actors. In light of this, rather than using multiple cases without giving sufficient time to each one, I decided to rely on a single case study for developing a deep understanding of the micro and macro contexts and their influence on diversity training practices.

4.5.2 The Rationale for Selecting the Case Study Organisation (CSO)

As in most research, finding a good case for extremely small samples is a challenging endeavour (Seawright and Gerring 2008). Given the fact that explaining aspects of a broader population is seen as an important goal of the case study, the case selected is asked to perform a heroic role in representing an entire population. For example, the population might be understood as a region (e.g., Middle East), a specific type of industry (e.g., manufacturing, financial), or even the general workforce. Clearly, the issue of representativeness should not be overlooked if the desired goal of the case study is for individual or multiple cases to reflect the broader population (Stake 1995). Accordingly, even in qualitative research, the case selected should be “a representative sample” and “useful variation on the dimensions of theoretical interest” (Seawright and Gerring 2008, p.296).

The case study organisation was selected based on the following criteria: (1) a MNC organisation (5000+ employees) operating in Saudi Arabia; (2) it demonstrates an explicit

commitment to promoting diversity and equality; (3) it has diversity training in place; and (4) it has been operating in Saudi Arabia since before 2005 (to examine the effect of recent changes). In order to find a list of all organisations matching the above criteria I relied on the database from the Ministry of Commerce and Industry in Saudi Arabia. The initial list identified more than 170 large organisations operating in Saudi Arabia. However, it was not possible to obtain all information from the company websites. Therefore, I used a 'snowball method' for sampling. A snowball method is often used in hidden populations when information is difficult to access, as recommended by researchers when studying organisations in the Middle East (Forstenlechner and Mellahi 2011), or when some degree of trust is required to initiate contact (Merriam 2002). This method helped to narrow the list to 10 large MNCs that could be used for this study. Subsequently, I sent an official letter, along with an email (if an email address was provided), to the chief executive officer (CEO), HR, or diversity managers in each organisation. The invitation letter stated the purpose of the study, its importance, the method of data collection, and how confidentiality/identification of participants and their organisations would be managed (see Appendix C). After three months of communication, an MNC had agreed to participate in this study. The CSO selected had an interest in participating in this study, making access to potential data easier.

The selection of a Western MNC was appropriate for the following rationales. First, following Ferner *et al's* (201) recommendations, I focused on selecting a Western MNC because it was more likely to implement diversity training programmes than a domestic organisation. Second, despite the fact that I used a snowball method for selecting a good case study, the CSO selected was recognised as a potential case study even before I compiled the initial list. This is because I was well aware of the CSO's enormous investment in diversity management in the UK and in different countries. The CSO has been awarded various prizes

for its excellent implementation of diversity management practices in both the UK and Saudi Arabia. Third, when I started collecting data from the CSO, I found that the information gathered from the interviews and document analysis was rich, deep, and enough to establish the context. For this reason, there was no need to look for alternative organisations within the same context given the aim of this thesis.

4.5.3 Description of the Case Study Organisation

4.5.3.1 Overview of the CSO

The CSO¹ is a UK-based global engineering company with over 107,000 employees worldwide, including about 5,500 in Saudi Arabia. The CSO provides a range of products and services for land and air forces. The key business areas include land and air armament, electronics, intelligence and support, information technology solutions, and international business. The CSO's vision is to be the premier global engineering and security company. It operates across four principal home markets in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Saudi Arabia. These four markets are recognised as having a sustained commitment to improving security. In addition, the CSO has a robust international market presence with well-established customer relationships worldwide, supported by regional sales offices in a variety of countries. Lasting relationships with key customers and sustained in-depth knowledge and experience of working in international markets are highly essential to the company as growth markets remain. Success in these international projects is evident in the significant order intake in markets outside of the United Kingdom and United States.

'Total Performance' is the company's business model that focuses on delivering sustainable growth in shareholder value. The Total Performance model includes four elements: customer

¹ CSO refers to the Saudi' subsidiary not the headquarters in UK

focus, programme execution, financial performance, and responsible behaviour. Customer focus refers to the company's priorities to understand their customers' needs and expectations, and to deliver on its commitments through the life of its products and services. Programme execution means that the performance of the company is dependent on the successful execution of its projects. Financial performance refers to the challenging financial targets set through its integrated business planning process in order to maximise financial performance and drive long-term shareholder value. Responsible behaviour refers to the code of conduct that provides guidance on the principles and standards of business conduct expected of all employees.

The Board of the CSO is responsible for the good governance and business ethics of the whole company. It sets the overall strategy, provides leadership in implementing the strategy, supervises management, and reports to shareholders on a regular basis. The Board believes that clear structure and strong leadership play a pivotal role in embedding corporate responsibility. For this reason, the board promotes an operational framework that sets out the way business should be done across the company's different locations. This framework outlines a common corporate culture, policies, and values that are mandated across different business units, and describes five factors including organisation, culture, governance, core business processes, and delegated authorities. The Board and its committees review compliance with the requirements of the operational framework on a regular basis. All leaders are responsible for ensuring that the requirements of the framework are implemented through appropriate resources within the business.

4.5.3.2 Diversity and Inclusion at the CSO

Diversity and inclusion at the CSO is an essential part of its corporate social responsibility (CSR). The CSR consists of policies and practices that go beyond financial benefits. The CSO's 2009 strategic report articulated four key priorities for responsible behaviour that could affect the company's reputation and overall performance: (1) ethics, (2) safety, (3) diversity and inclusion, and (4) environmental performance. To support and achieve these four key strategies, the company implemented a group strategic framework that is consistent with the elements underpinning the Total Performance model. Within the context of the broad CSR strategy, the company formulated a code of conduct, which includes a set of ethical standards and examples to help employees understand and deal with ethical and diversity issues. To sustain the best ethical practices, the CSO benchmarks its code of conduct against those of other global companies.

The CSO has recognised the need to sustain the world for future generations. Its mission statement is to invest in diversity practices through effective commitments from different stakeholders and to address issues related to the Total Performance agenda. The CSO's commitment to diversity and inclusion is reinforced by its ethical code of conduct, which promotes accountability, honesty, integrity, openness, and respect for others. Fostering an inclusive work environment is considered an important aspect of the business due to the pressures of globalisation and the demographic changes in the population. For this reason, employees must abide by the rules and regulations of the code of conduct to ensure a positive working environment. In terms of diversity and inclusion, key actors believe that investing in diversity and inclusion will help the CSO to achieve multiple objectives at the individual, group, and organisational levels, and in turn to sustain its competitive advantages.

Recognising the growing importance of diversity and equality, the CSO issued a statement of intent to become a leader in this area. A committee was set up with responsibilities for reviewing actions and progress and making necessary amendments to the diversity practices in accordance with the Total Performance model. The CSO also implemented a maturity matrix to track progress and to help the company identify and share examples of good practice across different business units.

4.5.3.3 The Subsidiary in Saudi Arabia

Through collaborative efforts with Saudi customers and local industry partners, the CSO is helping to build Saudi Arabia's engineering capabilities by supplying and supporting the operations of the Saudi air and land services. The CSO is also focused on Saudi localisation (Saudisation) and industrialisation efforts to promote infrastructure development, training, education, and the transfer of technology to the Kingdom. In 2013, the Saudi subsidiary represented 20% of the overall sales by principal market.

Despite the fact that the CSO has been a part of Saudi Arabia's corporate landscape for nearly 40 years, the CSO has started to consider how it can continue its excellent track record in Saudisation and promoting equality, while remaining competitive. To continue enjoying good relationships with Saudi customers, the CSO has recently established a Saudisation department that looks after Saudi employees, including male, female, and disabled workers. The aim of the Saudisation department is also to comply with the new laws (*Nitaqat*) that seek to bolster Saudi employment in the private sectors. In 2011, the Saudi subsidiary opened a female business support centre, employing locally recruited Saudi national women for the first time. That year, the Saudi government recognised the MNC for its commitment to the Saudisation schemes.

4.5.4 Method of Data Collection

Although there are a number of data collection methods in qualitative research, I chose to conduct in-depth interviews for the following reasons. First, the in-depth interview method has been recommended by several scholars conducting research in developing countries, particularly Arab countries (e.g., Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner 2010). For this study, this method was effective at stimulating participants to share their experiences and stories, and at building a level of trust. In addition, as indicated earlier in this chapter, the aim of the study was not to have a large sample size, as in quantitative research; instead the study focused on people with rich information about the research problem. Second, as the key participants of this study had different roles and responsibilities, in-depth interviews allowed for a greater degree of flexibility and made it possible to gain multiple insights (Robson 2011). Third, in light of the limited knowledge on diversity and diversity training in the Saudi Arabian context, in-depth interviews could generate new ideas and thoughts that were not taken into account when designing the interview questions. Throughout the interview process, the answer to one question led to another and initiated new discussions in related areas.

4.5.5 Key Informants

Data collection involved interviews conducted over a one-year period. In order to include multiple perspectives (Robson 2011), I conducted interviews with two groups of key informants in the United Kingdom and Saudi Arabia (see Table 8). The first group consisted of government officials who were directly involved in applying and monitoring the recent changes to the Saudi labour laws. The second group consisted of managers at the headquarters and at the Saudi subsidiary. In selecting interviewees, I relied on sequential sampling. Beginning with an initial sample, I gradually added to the sample (based on

referrals from existing interviewees) until I hit saturation point (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). I selected interviewees based on their roles and ability to answer the research questions. It is also important to note that the saturation point is particularly difficult to reach in qualitative research, wherein the aim of the analysis is to capture different participants' perspectives. Participants in this study continued to outline interesting experiences. Data collection was concluded when no new categories emerged and the relationships between current categories were clear.

I also attempted to include multiple actors from different genders and ethnicities in order to decrease bias in answering the research questions. More specifically, as I was attempting to understand the effects of external pressures (i.e. localisation policy) on the design of diversity training, there was a need to explore the perspectives of nationals and non-nationals, as well as men and women. According to Creswell (2012), the researcher can reduce bias in data collection by including diverse interviewees or participants within the context under investigation.

The face-to-face interviews were conducted from December 2013 to January 2014, and the telephone interviews with female employees were conducted from March 2014 to April 2014. Each interview was scheduled based on participants' availability. Participation in the interview was voluntary, and each interview lasted between 45 and 90 minutes. All interviews were tape-recorded and fully transcribed. Before each interview, I stated the purpose of the research and the interviewee's right to withdraw at any time during or after the interview.

Table 8 List of the Affiliation, Nationality, and Gender of Key Informants and Details of their Interview

Key Informants	Organisation	Nationality	Gender	Method	Length of Interview
<u>Organisational Actors</u>					
1. Global Diversity Manager	Headquarters	British	Female	Telephone interview	60 – 90 minutes
2. Assistant of Global Diversity Manager	Headquarters	British	Female	Telephone interview	60 minutes
3. VP of Human Resources	Subsidiary	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
4. Head of L&D and Talent Management	Subsidiary	British	Male	Face-to-Face	90 minutes
5. Head of Saudisation	Subsidiary	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 – 90 minutes
6. Head of CSR & Diversity	Subsidiary	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 – 90 minutes
7. HR Manager	Subsidiary	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
8. Training Manager	Subsidiary	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
9. Team Leader 1	Subsidiary	British	Female	Telephone interview	60 minutes
10. Team Leader 2	Subsidiary	Saudi	Female	Telephone interview	60 minutes
11. Team Leader 3	Subsidiary	Saudi	Female	Telephone interview	60 – 90 minutes
12. Team Leader 4	Subsidiary	Saudi	Female	Telephone interview	60 – 90 minutes
<u>Institutional Actors</u>					
13. Government Actor 1	Ministry of Labour	Saudi	Female	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
14. Government Actor 2	Ministry of Labour	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
15. Government Actor 3	Ministry of Labour	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 – 90 minutes
16. Government Actor 4	Ministry of Labour	Expatriate (not given)	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes
17. Government Actor 5	Ministry of Labour	Saudi	Male	Face-to-Face	60 minutes

I piloted the original interview protocol with a sample of training manager specialists and two government actors in a large organisation in Saudi Arabia (Appendix D). Given the limited information on how organisations design training programmes in the Saudi context, piloting the interview questions was a crucial step. The final interview protocol is included in the Appendix.

4.5.5.1 Government Officials

I sent a formal letter by post to the Labour Minister in Saudi Arabia requesting his approval to interview him and nine managers who I had selected based on their relation to the study. After sending emails to each selected government actor, only five agreed to participate in the study. With this group, the interview questions were mostly focused on the new labour laws and how they had affected diversity policies and practices in private sector organisations. I decided to interview multiple government actors because each actor played a different role in the implementation of the new labour law. More specifically, when I interviewed the first government actor, I found that there was a need for more explanation on how the new labour law could influence diversity training programmes. After interviewing five actors, I decided to stop because no new information emerged, and I felt that knowledge saturation had been reached (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). Although all of the participants were able to speak English fluently, the interviews were conducted in Arabic because it is the official language of communication in Saudi Arabia. I translated the transcribed interviews into English, and then an academic fluent in both languages cross-validated the translations.

4.5.5.2 Managers at the CSO

I sent a formal letter by email to the CEO of the Saudi subsidiary requesting his approval to interview him and 20 managers. The selection of these managers was based on their insight into the research issue. The CEO accepted the invitation to interview, and one manager helped to schedule the interviews according to the availability and interest of the managers. Only seven managers agreed to participate in this study. In order to capture more information, I conducted five additional interviews with two managers from the company's headquarters in the UK and three from the Saudi subsidiary. These participants were added until a stage of knowledge saturation was reached (Creswell 2012), meaning that no more meaningful data emerged that was pertinent to the study. In total, 12 managers were interviewed. With this group, the interview questions mainly focused on: (1) the forces that promote diversity and diversity training in this MNC in the host country, and (2) how these forces influence diversity training design. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with all male participants, whereas telephone interviews were used with all female participants. In terms of the global diversity manager, I relied on telephone interview because it was difficult to arrange a face-to-face interview that suits both of us. Since the female employees at the Saudi subsidiary worked in isolated offices with access prohibited to men, it was impossible for me to conduct face-to-face interviews. The interviews with this group were conducted in English (both for locals and expatriates) because it is the official language of communication in the corporation.

4.5.5.3 Document Analysis

A number of documents were used in this research, including government reports, the CSO annual report, internal magazines, the diversity policy and strategic framework, diversity

measurement tools and the code of conduct (Table 9). Not all of the internal documents used in analysing the case study and gathering more information have been cited or included in the appendices for confidentiality reasons.

Table 9 Document Analysis

Documentation form the MNC	Documentation from the Saudi Government
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annual Report • Internal magazines • Diversity policy • Diversity strategic framework • Diversity & inclusion measurement tools • Code of conduct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annual report from the labour of forces • Annual report form central information of statistic • Internal policies

4.6 Data Analysis

If we do not know how people went about analysing their data, or what assumptions informed their analysis, it is difficult to evaluate their research, and to compare and/or synthesize it with other studies on that topic, and it can impede other researchers carrying out related projects in the future (Braun and Clarke 2006, p.80)

Analysing qualitative data is a challenging task for most qualitative researchers. Deciding on how to analyse, organise, and present the data is crucial to the success of the work undertaken. For this reason, an initial review of the available qualitative methods was conducted in order to determine the appropriate method of analysis. Table 10 lists six well-known methods of qualitative data analysis. Column one shows the method, column two offers a brief description, column three sets out a critique, and column four describes the rationale for rejection or acceptance in the context of this study.

Table 10 Summary of the Qualitative Analysis Methods

Method	Description	Critique	Rationale for rejection or acceptance
Grounded Theory	Grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) is a systematic methodology involving the finding of theory through the analysis of data (Martin and Turner 1986). Grounded theory means that the analysis is directed towards theory building in a 'bottom up' approach. This theory has since been broadened by other contributors to three paradigms: Classic, Straussian (Strauss and Corbin 1998), and Constructivist (Creswell 2012)	Ground theory is often misunderstood. There has been plenty of discussion among grounded theorists as to what constitutes grounded theory. Opponents have proposed that "it is impossible to free oneself of preconceptions in the collection and analysis of data in the way Glaser and Strauss say it is necessary" (Thomas and James 2006, p,787)	Classic grounded theory implies that I would have had to re-enter the field once I had analysed the first round of data collected and conduct additional interviews to address potential questions arising from prior analysis—a process known as “data saturation”. This option was not viable in this study, as some participants had already moved to different companies. In addition, the study’s aim was not to develop theory
Content Analysis	Content analysis was first presented by Lasswell and Casey (1946). It focuses on analysing various types of texts including writing, images, recordings, and cultural artefacts. It focuses on a more micro level, often offers counts (frequency), and allows for quantitative analyses of initially qualitative data (Creswell 2012). This approach places more emphasis on how many times an individual participant is cited with respect to a particular code.	Content analysis is normally used for the analysis of communication, such as documents, and analysts should draw distinctions between a "prescriptive analysis", the text or subject, and an "open analysis" (Easterby-Smith <i>et al.</i> 2008)	The themes are often quantified and the unit of analysis tends to be a word or phrase. Content analysis is often used if the unit of analysis is the individual. In this research project, the themes were not quantified and the unit of analysis was the organisation

<p>Discourse Analysis</p>	<p>Discourse analysis initially appeared after a publication by Harris (1952), and it captures several approaches to analysing written, vocal, or sign language, or any significant semiotic event.</p>	<p>Discourse analysis takes different forms and includes semiotics, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics to name but three. Choices must be directed by the research objective, which is not very easy to understand at the beginning (Coulthard 2014).</p>	<p>For discourse analysis (e.g. Creswell 2012), different manifestations of the method occur within a broad theoretical framework, making choice difficult. It also requires an in-depth theoretical and technological knowledge of the approach. The researcher needs to be an expert in using discourse analysis.</p>
<p>Narrative Analysis</p>	<p>Narrative analysis appeared as a discipline from within the broader ground of qualitative research in the early 20th century (Riessman 1993). Narrative analysis is a powerful tool for analysing texts, such as stories, autobiographies, journals, field notes, letters, conversations, and family stories. The unit of analysis in this approach involves understanding the ways individuals create precise meaning in their lives through narratives (Sandelowski 1991).</p>	<p>Opponents have argued that while narrative analysis contradicts the idea of quantitative objectivity, it is nonetheless deficient in theoretical insights of its own (Boje 2001)</p>	<p>For narrative analysis, diverse manifestations of the qualitative method exist within a broad theoretical framework, making choice difficult for the researcher (Easterby-Smith <i>et al.</i> 2008).</p>

<p>Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis</p>	<p>Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis is a relatively new qualitative approach developed particularly within psychology. It has an idiographic focus, which means that it aims to offer insights into how a given person, in a given context, makes sense of a given phenomenon. Wed to a phenomenological epistemology (Smith 2004), it is about understanding the individual’s daily experience of reality, specifically so as to gather a full understanding of the phenomenon in question.</p>	<p>Opponents of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis have argued that "it is kept somewhat mysterious. Guidelines are offered to the researcher who is then informed that they cannot do good qualitative research simply by following guidelines. Thus, the judgement about what is a good qualitative analysis remains rather subjective and ineffable" (Brocki and Wearden 2006, pp.100-101).</p>	<p>With this method, variability is limited and difficult to consider within its framework. With one formula guiding the analysis, the method is more appropriate for studying people phenomena (Ponterotto 2005).</p>
<p>Thematic Analysis</p>	<p>Thematic analysis has been well used in qualitative research (Luborsky 1994). Thematic analysis is a powerful tool for identifying, analysing, and reporting themes within data (Braun and Clarke 2006). The method of analysis should be driven by both theoretical assumptions and the research questions. Thematic analysis provides a flexible method of data analysis and enables researchers with various methodological backgrounds to engage in this type of analysis.</p>	<p>Opponents have argued that reliability is a major concern in thematic analysis because of the wide range of interpretations that can arise from the themes and sub-themes, and when themes are applied to large amounts of textual data. Reliability can be enhanced by having two or three researchers code the data simultaneously (Guest 2011).</p>	<p>In addition, it is often reliant on the presentation of themes arising from participant quotes as the primary form of analysis, rather than as the outcome of a rigorous data analysis process (Bazeley and Jackson 2013). Despite this argument, thematic analysis is one of a cluster of methods that focus on identifying patterned meaning across the entire dataset.</p>

After reviewing several qualitative methods, I decided that thematic analysis should be used for the following reasons:

1. It offers coherence and logic to otherwise cumbersome qualitative data (e.g., interview transcripts).
2. It facilitates a systematic way of analysis, allowing the research process to be explicit and replicable.
3. Although thematic analysis is inherently structured, the process of abstraction and conceptualisation allows the researcher to be creative with the data.

In general, thematic analysis offers a more accessible form of analysis that is relatively robust, rigorous, and coherent. Thematic analysis is a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the real-world problem (Luborsky 1994). This form of analysis is therefore flexible enough to provide deep and detailed descriptive accounts of often very complex data, while providing more room for interpretation (Richards and Morse 2012). Accordingly, this method was quite suited to the current research focus on the forces influencing the implementation and design of diversity training.

Thematic analysis has been applied across a variety of theoretical and epistemological approaches. Through the ‘top-down’ coding approach (e.g., Braun and Clarke 2006), a thematic analysis can be driven by the researcher’s analytical interest in the research issue and broader theoretical assumptions. The process mainly involves the identification of themes and sub-themes through multiple readings of transcribed interviews. It is a form of pattern recognition within the data, whereby emerging themes become the categories for analysis. When carrying out the thematic analysis, I was careful to be rigorous. Consequently, initial and final coding was done by me first

and then by my first supervisor. Tables are provided in the appendix to demonstrate that the analysis was carried out in an unbiased, in-depth, valid, reliable, and credible manner.

All data were imported and handled with NVivo, a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software program. The use of computer software enhanced the credibility of data analysis and helped to increase the rigour, reliability, and validity of the findings.

4.6.1 Thematic Analysis as Applied

Thematic analysis is often used for analysing data when prior themes cannot be derived from existing theories. In this case, an inductive approach was used in the absence of an existing theoretical framework, as it was more likely to generate rich descriptions and multiple perspectives (Luborsky 1994). Thematic analysis provided the means by which these multiple perspectives could be analysed in an organised manner and integrated into a model that seeks to explain how reality is socially constructed.

In general, thematic analysis involves filtering the raw data into discrete ‘incidents’ (Boyatzis 1998) or ‘units’ (Guba and Lincoln 1994) and coding them as categories. Two different types of categories can emerge from this process. The first type arises from the participants’ own feelings and experiences, while the second type is identified by the researcher as relevant to the research project. The main idea of participant-based categories “is to reconstruct the categories used by subjects to conceptualise their own experiences and world view” (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p.110). Researcher-based categories can develop theoretical insights by merging themes. The process of comparative analysis stimulates thought that leads to both

descriptive and explanatory categories (Creswell 2012). According to Taylor and Bogdan (1984, p.126), in using this method, “the researcher simultaneously codes and analyses data in order to develop concepts; by continually comparing specific incidents in the data, the researcher refines these concepts, identifies their properties, explores their relationships to one another, and integrates them into a coherent explanatory model”.

I used the broad categories as the units of analysis, changing their meanings several times. I compared and categorised incidents, developed visual relationships between the categories, and refined them throughout the analytical process. Table 11 provides an overall picture of the stages of analysis and processes carried out in NVivo following the practical guidelines suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The first column outlines the six steps of the thematic analysis process, while the second column shows their practical application in NVivo. The third column outlines the actual process of coding that took place—from the initial participant-led descriptive coding, to the secondary coding that was more interpretive (i.e., both participant- and researcher-led), to the final abstraction to themes, which was researcher-led only. The fourth column presents the iterative nature of the steps as the coding, analysis, and reporting proceeded towards the final report.

Table 11 Stages and Processes Involved in the Qualitative Analysis for this Study - Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006)

Analytical Process	Practical Application in NVivo	Strategic Objective	Iterative Process Throughout Analysis
1. Familiarising oneself with the data:	Phase 1 - Listening to recorded interviews, transcribing and translating data, multiple readings of the data, noting down initial thoughts and ideas, importing data into the NVivo data management tool	Data Analysis <i>(Open and hierarchical coding through NVivo)</i>	Coding data to refined concepts to portray meaning
2. Generating initial codes:	Phase 2 – Open Coding (initial codes) – systematically coding the entire data set, collecting data relevant to each code		↕ Refining and distilling more abstract concepts
3. Searching for themes:	Phase 3 – Categorisation of Codes (search for themes and sub-themes) – grouping codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme and sub-theme	Descriptive Accounts <i>(Reordering, merging and annotating through NVivo)</i>	↕ Coding data to themes/concepts to portray meaning
4. Reviewing themes:	Phase 4 – Coding on (review theme) – checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (level 1) and the entire data set (level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis		↕ Assigning meaning
5. Defining and naming themes:	Phase 5 – Data Reduction (define and name themes) – Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme and the overall story, generating clear definitions and names for each theme	Explanatory Accounts <i>(Extrapolating deeper meaning, drafting summary statements and analytical memos through NVivo)</i>	↕ Generating themes and concepts
6. Producing the report:	Phase 6 – Generating Analytical Memos Phase 7 – Validating Phase 8 - Synthesising Analytical Memos. The final opportunity for analysis – selecting vivid, compelling extract examples, searching for differences in views of groups, conducting final analysis of selected extracts, relating the analysis back to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis		

In the following sections, these phases are described in more detail (Appendix B).

Phase 1 – Familiarising oneself with the data

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), if the data have been collected by the researcher him/herself, he or she will come to the analysis with prior knowledge. For this study, although I personally conducted each interview to generate interactive meaning, several steps were undertaken to make sure that I immersed myself the data before moving on to the next phase.

First, since all of the interviews were tape-recorded and conducted on different days, I listened back to each interview before conducting the next one. In addition, I listened to the recordings multiple times before the process of transcription. This provided a great opportunity for me to begin an elaborate system of notes and memos on various understandings and explanations of the interview questions, which could be considered in subsequent interviews. The interviewees' tones of voice contained particular meanings, reflecting a richness that was essential for me to recognise and consider in the analysis process.

Second, after conducting all of the interviews, I began transcribing each interview verbatim into a written document. I did the transcriptions myself not only to preserve the anonymity and de-identification of the participants, but also to conduct preliminary analysis and an ongoing assessment of the interview schedule (Luborsky 1994).

Third, I read all transcribed documents without any note taking, which was a vital step before starting the open coding process. According to Luborsky (1994), a simple reading of all transcribed data with no note taking is an

important step in thematic analysis. Following Luborsky' technique, then I completed a second reading of all transcripts to identify main points and preliminary topic. Note were taking and preliminary topics were summarised in preparation for the next phase of data analysis.

Phase 2 – Generating Initial Codes (Codebook)

Although initial coding began as I transcribed each interview, this process became more systematic once further datasets were available. NVivo helped to code important features in a systematic way across the data. This process was the longest stage of the six phases, as I had to go through the entered dataset more than once. The initial coding process generated more than 60 codes. This is because the initial coding was more data driven and did not exclude some epistemological considerations. Therefore, the data were initially coded (occasionally multiple times) for as many relevant themes as possible. Coding for inconsistencies and contradictions across the entire dataset was also considered. Moreover, I independently annotated each item of coded data using an interpretive key related to that code and the research question (Appendix).

During this phase, I engaged my supervisors and an external expert in qualitative data analysis. I explained the rationale for my initial coding frame according to the research question, my epistemological and theoretical framework, and the data. My subsequent analysis of the data took a similar approach—something I considered important to justify to my supervisor and the external consultant.

Phase 3 – Searching for Themes – Developing Categories

This stage involved grouping the codes identified in Phase 2 into categories of preliminary themes. Most of the themes contained sub-themes. Themes and sub-themes were identified according to their similarities across the dataset and the relationships between them. Each potential theme was organised into a framework that made sense for further data analysis. This phase also included re-labelling and merging the common codes generated in Phase 2 in order to ensure that the labels and definitions accurately reflected the coded content (Appendix).

Phase 4 – Reviewing Themes – Coding on/Drilling down

This stage involved restructuring the preliminary themes by ‘coding on’ in order to examine any overlapping features. Each theme and sub-theme was examined to ensure that the interview extracts meaningfully and expressively identified with the themes, and that each theme was in line with the others. Some themes and sub-themes required some restructuring to fit the data. Sometimes I drafted a new theme, while collapsing others. Sometimes I eliminated problematic interview extracts. I then applied the reviewed themes across the entire dataset to ensure that all meaning was reflected. In doing so, overlap was diminished, and what remained reflected the complex, non-linear aspects of the research problem being explored. Another coding process was then established to capture any data that might have been missed or ignored in previous phases (Appendix).

Phase 5 - Defining and Naming Themes

This stage involved data reduction by consolidating codes from the previous phases into more philosophical and literature-based codes. I examined, named, and renamed

each theme and sub-theme in an iterative process in order to ensure consistency. This iterative process also enabled me to draft a final framework of themes for reporting purposes. As part of this process, I had to ensure that each interview extract was an exemplar for that theme/sub-theme, with each being meaningfully and not overly complex (Appendix).

Phase 6 - Writing the Report

The process of writing included editing, drafting, and re-drafting themes to ensure that the final themes provided a coherent and logical story in a non-repetitive analytic narrative. I used a sufficient number of relevant interview extracts to demonstrate the importance of the themes/sub-themes. Since context was retained in the extracts to provide a richer account, in some instances, they were quite lengthy. This stage also involved writing analytical memos on the higher level themes to summarise the content of each category and its codes, and to propose empirical findings in terms of these categories (Appendix)

Phase 7 – Validating and Revising the Analysis

This stage involved testing, validating, and revising analytical memos. This process comprised a self-audit of the proposed findings as I sought evidence in the data beyond just textual quotes and expanded on deeper meanings within the data. This process included interrogation of the data, not only drawing on relationships across and between themes, but also cross-tabulating the data with the literature. This phase resulted in evidence-based findings, as each of the proposed findings had to be validated by the data itself. This phase also relied on the creation of reports from the data to substantiate the findings. The final report was sent to the diversity manager at the Saudi subsidiary in order to ensure that the findings reflect what the CSO is facing

in terms of the implementation and design of its diversity training. The diversity manager offered minor feedbacks. At this stage, it was not possible to send the findings to multiple participants because some of them had moved to different organisations, while others were not interested. Since the data collection and analysis lasted for more than a year and a half, some of the participants had forgotten what was in the interview.

In order to enhance the reliability of the analysis, several steps were taken. First, an independent consultant who was an expert in qualitative research coded some of the transcribed data into broad categories. In the next stage, I met with him via Skype and we compared our coding. Although there was strong consensus between us, we worked out any conflicts or disagreements over the course of several meetings. Second, I asked my supervisors to review the interview transcripts and the coding. At this stage, some codes were removed and other codes were merged to enhance the relationships between the literature review and the data analysis. Third, I cross-validated my coding with some studies that used a similar approach within the same context (e.g., Forstenlechner *et al.* 2012; Luring 2013).

Phase 8 - Synthesising Analytical Memos

This stage involved synthesising the analytical memos into a coherent, cohesive, and well-supported findings report. Finally, Phase 8 ended upon report completion.

4.6.2 Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS)

NVivo is a well-recognised tool for organising qualitative data. It helps the researcher to record data movements and coding patterns, and to map conceptual categories and thought progression. In addition, the software renders the multi-step and multi-phase

approach to the analytical process traceable and transparent, facilitating the researcher in producing a more detailed and comprehensive report.

Research has argued that using CAQDAS in data analysis adds rigour to qualitative research (Bazeley and Jackson 2013). For example, NVivo software can help the researcher to achieve accuracy via some search tools designed to produce and facilitate the interrogation of data. This is especially true when data are searched in terms of attributes (e.g., how many interviewees considered the localisation policies to be a factor influencing the CSO to adopt diversity training?). Obviously, conducting such a search electronically can produce more reliable results than doing it manually, primarily because human error is ruled out.

On the other hand, one of the drawbacks of using software in data analysis is the potential loss of data and over-coding. The potential of data loss is a major risk that can happen whether the researcher is conducting quantitative or qualitative analysis. However, to reduce the risk of data loss in this study, I did regular backups of the data files, while over-coding was avoided by following the aforementioned analytical strategy.

4.7 Reflexivity in Research

The production of knowledge has largely received greater attention in the study of case study organisations (Flyvbjerg 2006). This is because organisations and the effects of external and internal environments cannot be perceived directly, but only through theory and conceptualisations. In business research, multiple lenses for evaluating organisations are available and can have a profound impact on how

researchers approach them, how researchers select the study design, and what kind of study results they obtain (Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2008).

It is also important to stress that the case study approach is largely determined by prior knowledge and concepts. For this reason, scholars are inspired by the importance of reflexivity in the contemporary discussion of qualitative research, especially in business studies. Reflexivity has been acknowledged as a critical step in the process of producing new knowledge within the areas of managing diversity (Schippers *et al.* 2003). Reflexivity “is commonly viewed as the process of a continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of a researcher’s positionality as well as active acknowledgement and explicit recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome” (Berger 2015, p.220). This is crucial in diversity research where the researcher is often aware of the context and knows the participants. Yin (2013) argued that one of the advantages of reflexivity is the ability to extend our deep understanding of how our interest and awareness of the context as researchers affect the choice of research questions, goals, sampling, data collection methods, and outcomes.

Reflecting on the process of one’s research and attempting to understand how the characteristics of the researcher may influence the research enhances the credibility of the research and should be considered by all qualitative researchers. As discussed earlier in this chapter, in qualitative research, the role of the researcher is one of insider trying to understand the construction of meaning. In this study, there are several strengths and weaknesses that I should outline before moving on to the findings chapter.

Strengths

- I was fully aware of the context under investigation, including the legal systems, cultural norms and traditions, religious beliefs, demographic changes, and characteristics of the local workforce.
- I had a good understanding of how and where to look for internal sources, such as a list of MNCs operating in Saudi Arabia, internal reports, etc.
- I had a good understanding of the national HRD system, including rules and regulations, HRD institutions, and the nature of HRD practices in Saudi Arabia.
- My understanding of how to communicate and approach government actors helped me to gather rich data.
- My ability to speak Arabic and English fluently helped me a lot in the data collection process.
- I had a good understanding of the diversity dimensions that were not acceptable socially or legally in Saudi Arabia.
- I had a good understanding of the level of diversity management practices that were implemented in public and some private organisations.
- The financial resources that I obtained from my sponsor helped me in the data collection process.
- My interest and ability to analyse and interpret textual data was one of the strongest aspects in accomplishing this study.

Weaknesses

- Due to the location of the CSO, both in Saudi Arabia and UK, and the location of the government actors, it took me a long time to complete the data collection process.
- In the interview process, it was not easy to establish trust among all participants.
- The term ‘diversity’ has no particular meaning in Arabic, which created difficulties in explaining the concept to government actors.
- Because of cultural barriers, it was not possible for me to conduct face-to-face interviews with female employees at the CSO.

4.8 Ethical Considerations

The University of Limerick’s Kemmy Business Ethics Committee granted approval to conduct the research. Participants were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity. They were de-identified through the use of pseudonyms, and I deleted any links between names and data, particularly to protect those who may have expressed negative attitudes towards government actions or the practices implemented by the CSO. I also ensured that participants could not be identified on the basis of their age, ethnicity, gender, or organisation they worked for. Since I transcribed all of the interviews personally and de-identified all of the data at that point, the assurance of protection was provided. I placed all transcribed files in a very secure area that could only be accessed by me.

4.9 Summary

The methodological approach I chose assisted me in fulfilling my research aim of exploring how the external and internal factors in Saudi Arabia influence organisations' implementation, design, and evaluation of diversity training. Interviewees' experiences and feelings, and providing an explanation for them, were central to this process. The following two chapters present the findings from the data and discuss the data in relation to HRD and diversity literature. In Chapter 6, I also conclude the thesis by drawing together and reflecting on the research findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative case study. Data are provided in order to share the participants' knowledge and experiences. In doing so, I highlight the main themes and sub-themes that emerged from the thematic analysis used in this research (Brune and Clark 2008). The hermeneutical approach to data analysis emphasised the political explanations, placing them at the centre of the analysis and exposing hidden meanings within a particular context (Luborsky 1994). The raw data were transcribed and then analysed and separated into broad categories of meaning. Coding the transcripts helped me to interpret the data and filter the categories into meaningful themes. The use of visual themes facilitated the development of a framework that reflects the interlinked themes and sub-themes. Each of these themes and sub-themes are directly connected to the research aims. Throughout this chapter, I use quotations from interviewees as evidence to support these themes. The participants' comments are presented in italics.

5.2 Overview of the Findings

The findings from the data analysis are presented in an organised manner, as themes and sub-themes. These themes and sub-themes identify the factors influencing the MNC to adopt diversity training in Saudi Arabia and explain how these factors impact the design features of the training programme. The findings also highlight different views of actors in the Saudi government and those of managers at the CSO, including managers from the headquarters and the Saudi subsidiary. Expatriate and local managers of different genders and experience levels were interviewed to gather in-depth knowledge about the factors influencing diversity training and to enhance the understanding of how those factors interact to influence diversity training

programmes. While the localisation policies appear to have directly influenced the representation of local minorities in the workplace, participants also offered different opinions as to what might influence the diversity training programmes at the CSO. This study did not examine rational structural factors (e.g., firm size, age, ownership, and type of industry) and their influence on diversity training (e.g., Rynes and Rosen 1995), but these factors are beyond the scope of a single case study.

The results of the interviews and the document analysis were organised around the research problem. Given the complexities of diversity and diversity training in Saudi Arabia, I developed a framework from the literature review and findings that outlines how external and internal factors influence the implementation and design of diversity training (Figure 3). Moreover, I cross-validated and modified this framework with the frameworks developed by other scholars who have conducted similar studies within a similar context (e.g., Forstenlechner et al., 2012; Luring, 2013). The final framework identifies three main themes: (a) rationale for introducing diversity training, (b) organisational context and diversity training, and (c) diversity training in practice.

In terms of the first theme, interviewees had conflicting perspectives on the effect of the national characteristics of workplace diversity and how the CSO deals with diverse employees. Although their perspectives differed from one another, participants described many of the same aspects that influenced workplace diversity and the impact of those aspects on the implementation of diversity training. Particularly, interviewees were eager to discuss the effects of demographic change in the workplace, the large proportion of foreign employees in the private sector, and their place within the Saudi social sphere. Managers and government actors alike argued that discussing the effect of diversity in the workplace and how MNC promote diversity and equality was, in many ways, new and should be approached with

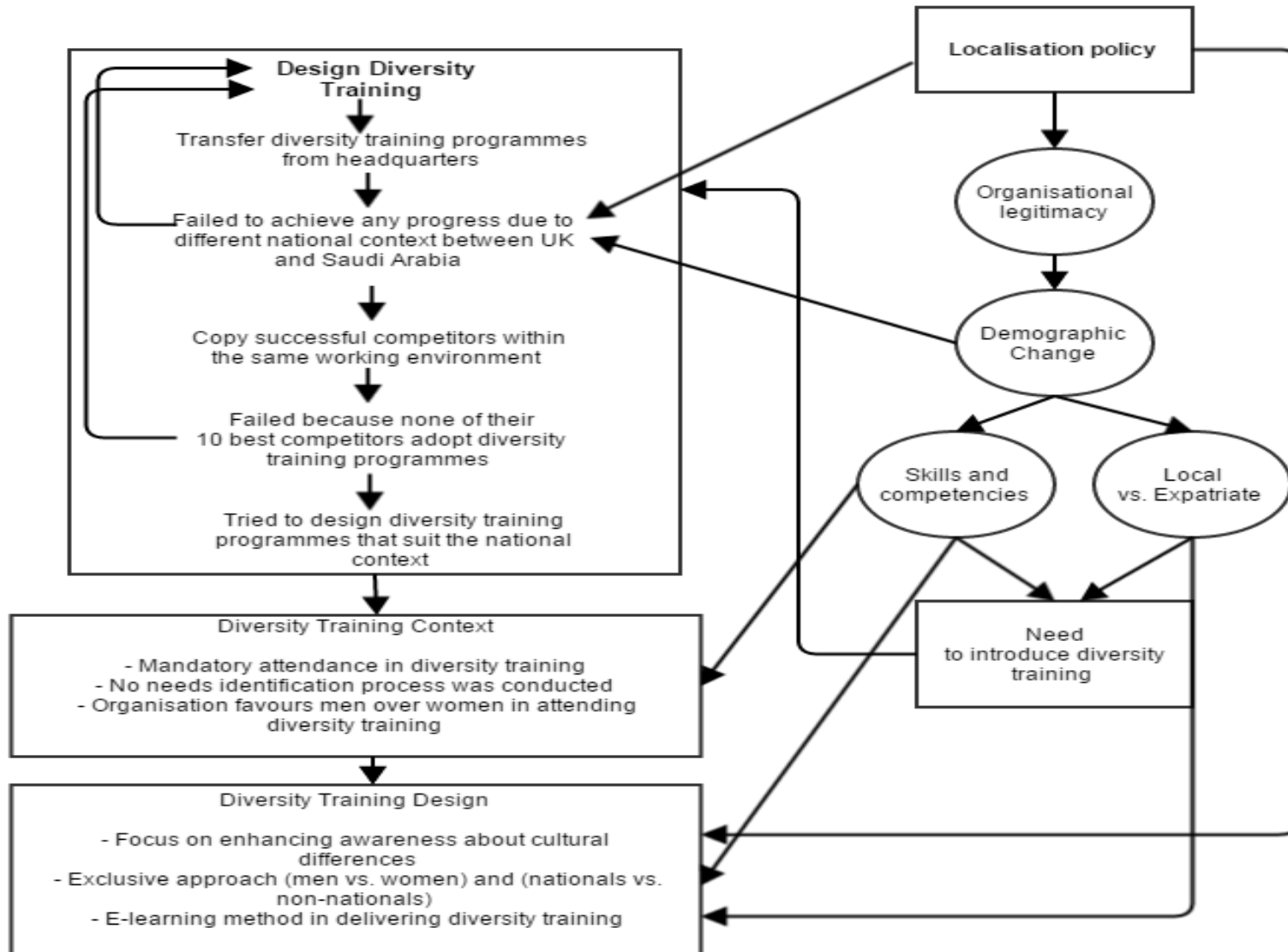
delicacy due to the unique characteristics of the Saudi workforce. Interviewees described a direct link between diversity training and the localisation policies. All respondents indicated that localisation policies were one of the main factors influencing private organisations to increase the participation of home nationals. In addition, the lack of proper diversity skills and knowledge among home nationals was an important driver of diversity training. Interviewees showed that the labour market is segmented between home nationals and expatriates, as well as between male and female employees. This segmentation has affected the organisation's diversity training programme. Finally, participants expressed how achieving diversity (localisation) was necessary for organisational survival and to become more competitive. The CSO considers recognition from the Saudi government a sign of success and achievement.

For the second theme, participants explained that national context has influenced the transfer and implementation of diversity training from the headquarters in the UK to the Saudi subsidiary. Due to the institutional distance between the home and the host countries, the diversity training programme failed when it was transferred from the headquarters. Managers discussed how the CSO was subsequently forced to adopt a multi-domestic approach to diversity and inclusion that fit the Saudi cultural and institutional context. The Saudi' subsidiary has also gained more autonomy and flexibility in implementing diversity training that is applicable to the national context.

In the final theme, participants addressed how all of these factors influenced 'diversity training in practice'. Since most interviewees were aware of the national aspects, participants believed that diversity training must be aligned with these factors in order to be successfully implemented. Participants explained that cultural factors have a strong impact on how an organisation determines its trainees' needs, how it selects

trainees, and how it identifies training attendance requirements. Legal pressure was identified by most interviewees as an aspect that shaped the design features of diversity training. The localisation policies, in particular, have influenced the organisational definition of and approach to diversity. Diversity within the Saudi subsidiary focused on two primary diversity groups: gender diversity and ethnic diversity. Diversity training programmes were only focused on increasing the awareness of cultural differences and eliminating any issues raised between local male and female employees and between national and non-national employees. Some participants explained that the definition of diversity is very narrow and only values diversity among Saudi nationals. More specifically, interviewees expressed confusion about the difference between diversity and the localisation policies, which in turn has affected diversity training design.

Figure 1 General Theme Derived from the Data Analysis



5.3 Theme#1: Rationale for Introducing Diversity Training

This theme underpins the extent to which the external and internal factors have influenced the CSO to introduce diversity training in Saudi Arabia. The findings from the data analysis revealed that there are five important drivers of diversity training programmes within the CSO, including localisation policies, demographic changes in the workforce, local vs. expatriate employees, skills and competencies, and gaining legitimacy

5.3.1 Localisation Policies, "Saudisation", and Diversity

The first objective of this study was to explore organisational rationales for introducing diversity training. In order to achieve this, I explored the factors influencing a Western MNC operating in Saudi Arabia to introduce diversity training. The findings indicated a direct relationship between legal pressure (e.g., localisation) and the implementation of diversity training. In order to fully understand the influence of legal pressure, I will first explain the perspective of institutional actors who shape policies on localisation and diversity management. Interviewing institutional actors was necessary to fully understand the effect of the macro level on the implementation of diversity training. Government actors believed that localisation was needed to overcome the lack of diversity in the private sector and the increase of the unemployment rate among home nationals. Two government actors (1, 2) stated:

The main idea of Nitaqat is to reduce the unemployment rate, but if you think about it, why do we have a high unemployment rate? Most graduate students have the same mind-set, they want to work in the public sector, and we passed this idea from generation to generation. I know some people who will wait for years to get a job in the public sector. I don't know why they prefer to wait rather than work in the

private sectors. At least they should do that to get experience before joining the public sector.

We don't have a policy called "Saudisation", we have a law that governs all employees working in Saudi Arabia (Saudi or non-Saudi), and recently there was an amendment to the labour law which favours Saudi home nationals. Some of the programmes focused on nationalising the workforce (Saudi Employment Strategy) alongside with Nitaqat programme, which intends to reserve 30% of the total workforce to home national, depending on the organisational size. We used this method to allow us to measure the implementation of the new laws. In general, we look to this new law from two sides, on one side nationalise the workforce, and on the other side change nationals' perceptions towards working in the private sector.

In addition, some institutional actors indicated that because Saudi Arabia lacked a clear equality act, there was a need to establish a new policy that allows home nationals to work in the private sector. As government actor 4 outlined:

In Saudi there is nothing called equal opportunity...and there is no law to govern these things. Every thing's, as you know, embedded within the Islamic laws and it is not clear to everybody. However, we believe that the problem is not with the Islamic law, the problem is how to interpret the law and make it clear to everybody

Organisational actors were asked to explain how the company has dealt with the ongoing implementation of the localisation policies. According to most of the managers interviewed, the localisation policies have directly affected the overall diversity strategic objectives. The training manager explicitly stated: "*Clearly, our*

diversity strategy is about Saudisation and localisation. So, we are going to make sure that we deliver what we do". Another manager stated:

I worked here for almost 11 years so I have experienced the change before, and after the new law we are as a multinational corporation trying to meet the requirement for achieving localisation, because we are supporting the government in its implementation of Saudisation and diversity (VP HR).

The business strategy recognises that we (company name) had been here over 30 years in Saudi Arabia. So, its enjoyed a long established relationship with the Saudi customers; however, it's recognised by our management board that the way we did business for the last 30 years needs to be changed, otherwise someone will come and do that....so due to the increase of political pressure and the national agenda of Saudisation is getting stronger, given the demographic change of Saudi Arabia, our business strategy focuses on localisation which leads to diversity (L&D Manager).

One critical factor that explains the relationship between achieving localisation and the increase of diverse groups was the employment of women. The CSO has employed the first group of national women after the government introduced the localisation policies in 2010. Although the employment of women was not compulsory, the CSO took this step as a way to attract the government's attention. Most of the managers who were interviewed explained that there had been considerable debate over the employment of women in this organisation. In the end, the company decided to take this step and employ the first group of Saudi women as a way to be more recognised by the government actors:

We just start recruiting females maybe 18 months ago and we started with around 15 to 17 local women, and after the success of this action the business is now looking to expand this number. I think the idea will be developed more. Nowadays, more functions are asking for female staff and that is going to be not only a corporate image but it is going to be a business need (Saudisation Manager).

The recruitment of females is a new concept but we chose to be a leader in that because that's what we do. We believe we will reap the benefit of it. Now, actually since that has been established, it has been really successful and they delivered what they are supposed to deliver and we have very little turnover and there is quite good morale within the female offices so I think the government will support us (L&D Manager).

Furthermore, some managers from the CSO indicated that the employment of disabled workers is an important aspect of localisation. This is because the government values organisations that employ more disabled workers. For example, government official 3 said:

Disability is an important part of the localisation, for example, as organisations are required to increase their Saudisation rate, we count one disabled employee as four employees in our system, so by this way will encourage organisations to recruit more disabled workers

In response to this, the CSO has employed the first group of Saudi disabled workers in collaboration with other public organisations. This action was also carried out after the introduction of the localisation policies. The HR manager said: “*We have recently*

employed disabled workers. It was not a very easy thing to do, the disabled workers are part of our society and we're happy to help them".

The findings above demonstrate that the localisation policies have forced the CSO to enhance its workforce diversity. Managers believed that achieving localisation was important for meeting organisational strategic objectives. Managers further indicated that the CSO was trying to attain legitimacy as a way to enhance its relationship with different stakeholders, including the government and customers.

5.3.2 Gaining Legitimacy

Although some private organisations view the localisation policy as an obstruction to their freedom to choose their employees in terms of quantity and quality (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014, Sadi and Henderson 2010), interviewees believed that compliance with the Saudi legal requirements was essential for the organisation's long-term survival and success. The L&D manager echoed this thought: "*So, in order to survive and grow within Saudi Arabia we have to focus on implementing the localisation policy*". The Saudisation manager further indicated that compliance with the localisation was deemed necessary for the success of the business:

One of the main objectives of the business here is transferring the technology, this on one side. On the other side, achieve the national agenda...because it's required by the government to comply with Nitaqat otherwise we won't be able to continue to operate in Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the managers who were interviewed also highlighted the strong pressure from different key shareholders, such as their customers, to achieve localisation and to

enhance workforce diversity. Since the CSO delivers a unique and expensive service, its customers tend to be powerful people who have strong relationships with the Saudi government. The managers demonstrated that maintaining a positive relationship with Saudi customers and their supply chains was important for meeting their overall strategic objectives. The L&D manager echoed this sentiment:

The business is recognised through its strategy that to continue to have a long stand relationship with Saudi Arabia we have to impress and put the centre of our strategy, so the centre of our strategy is Saudisation and industrialisation.

In the past you will find a lot of our supply chains and the value actually outside of Saudi Arabia, whereas now the focus is to bring that into Saudi Arabia in order to grow our industry within Saudi Arabia, and to do that we have to implement jobs for Saudi nationals and we seek customers support (VP HR).

We have to achieve localisation...it is very clear focus for our customers because, I guess [interviewee 2] knows that better than me, there is real pressure on us with customers and suppliers who support the Saudi national jobs (Saudisation Manager).

Analysis of the data demonstrated that the CSO officially established a Saudisation department as a way to show its support of the localisation policies. This also occurred because the government recognises companies that value diversity and achieve localisation. Thus, the CSO decided that diversity was a reality, and instead of finding ways to avoid it, the company agreed to use diversity as way to attain legitimacy. As a result of the CSO's commitment to localisation, the diversity manager stated:

The company in Saudi has a Saudisation rate of more than 60%, which contributed to the business being recognised with the Prince Nayif bin Abdulaziz Award for Saudisation and the Ministry of Labour's employer achievement award. So, we're happy that the government recognised our practices are matching government needs

5.3.3 Demographic Changes

The Saudi population has been experiencing significant demographic changes; most of the government actors and managers who were interviewed explained that these changes are considered one of the major challenges facing Saudi Arabia, as well as organisations operating within the country. As government actor 2 indicated:

The unemployment rate is increasing especially among women and youth, and this is very challenging...in the past most females graduated from university and never tried to apply to work because they believed that private organisations won't employ, but now everything has changed. Nowadays, more women are seeking employment in the private and public sectors, women are working and ready to work in factories and supermarket, sectors that women didn't used to work in. In the past women opportunities were very limited but now women can work everywhere. Women are stilling waiting and we are responsible for providing suitable jobs for them.

In response, some managers claimed that because of demographic changes (as a result of the localisation policies), the company began to look for a new pool of qualified workers. In contrast with Western countries, Saudi Arabia lacks an inflow of workers, which makes it difficult for organisations to attract and hire from an external diverse talent pool (Jackson and Manderscheid 2015). For this reason, the company has attempted to cover projected labour shortages and stay competitive by increasing its diversity through employing more home nationals. However, this decision was made

when the Saudi Government introduced an affirmative action policy that was aimed at increasing the participation of under-represented groups who historically suffered from discrimination. The VP of HR explained:

To be honest, because of two things the government agenda has changed: the majority of the Saudi population is under 30 years and around 50% female, and there is also 1.7 million disabled, so diversity was everywhere and we cannot ignore it...40 years ago we were not so diverse because we are a foreign company operating in Saudi Arabia, but now everything has changed and diversity become an important part of our business. Nowadays, there are more female and disabled workers

Given the legal pressure, some managers believed that attract more diverse employees was needed in order to cope with the demographic change:

We know that a large number of Saudis prefer to work in the public sector, we know also that expatriates are more easy to control than home nationals, but the government does not take into account these factors, so is important for us to work on how to attract and retain top talents. I think the future is not predictable and we have to be prepared (Diversity Manager).

As the organisation became more diverse, the implementation of a number of diversity management practices was deemed necessary. When managers were questioned about the CSO's rationale for introducing diversity training practices, some responded:

Given the demographic change of Saudi Arabia, the business becomes more diverse than before, so there is a need for such training. We

have to develop and build the company in Saudi Arabia through investing in diversity and equality (L&D Manager).

The increase of disabled workers in our organisation brought couple of issues, we need them to effectively interact with all employees and we need employees to look to their ability not disability, so what we are doing right now is to allow them to interact with our daily life through a number of practices....sure diversity training is one of them (Saudisation Manager).

In addition, the demographic changes in the CSO's workforce have raised two main issues that need to be addressed by implementing diversity training. The first issue is related to the cultural differences between nationals and non-nationals within the CSO. The second issue is related to the differences between local men and women, which have resulted in some communication issues.

5.3.4 Local versus Expatriate Employees

Diversity is present within Saudi Arabia, but there seems to be a two-tiered system of employment (local workers vs. foreign workers). All interviewees were aware of the role that foreigners play in Saudi Arabia's economy and in the CSO. Historically, expatriate and foreign workers have dominated the jobs in private-sector organisations, while home nationals have tended to prefer working in the public sector (Harry 2007). Interviewees indicated that the majority of home nationals seek employment in government organisations because of high job security, fewer working hours, decreased workload, pay equity, and more suitable working environments, particularly for women. Participants, however, perceived that foreign workers tended to accept working in jobs with lower salaries and poorer working conditions. Most

local interviewees indicated that the attitudes of nationals towards jobs in the private sector have traditionally affected the level of diversity in the workplace, and people still prefer to work in the public sector. One female, Team-leader 3, said: *"I will definitely go to the public sector if I am accepted"*. Another, Team-leader 4, stated: *"We all know that public jobs are more attractive to Saudis than private jobs, and we all know why"*.

The difference between employment in the public and private sectors has created a highly segmented labour market between nationals and foreigners, and a low elasticity of substitution between nationals and foreign workers. Due to the government's attempt to reduce the labour market segmentation (i.e., through localisation), more and more home nationals have entered the private sector, increasing diversity in the workplace. As government actor 1 expressed:

What we have done isn't a new thing, but to encourage job seekers to take this experience and work in private sector, there are opportunities; the private sector is much bigger than public sector.

For this reason, the CSO felt the need to implement some practices that would allow foreigners and locals to work and interact more effectively. Several interviewees described the importance of implementing diversity training in order to enhance employees' cultural awareness and to change negative attitudes towards other cultures.

The turnover rate in private sector is a problem among home nationals. Too many youth aren't willing to work very hard and compete with other people, and they want to be working in managerial or middle-management positions from the beginning. This

cannot happen easily, this takes time, you have to work very hard in order to be qualified for senior or managerial positions and subsequently CEO. People always say that I'm a Saudi and I should have the right to be promoted, why is a foreign worker my manager? But if he has the experience and the skills, you should learn from him instead of complaining, so we felt that their attitudes need to be changed we need local and non-locals to be able to work together more effectively. So, that's why we have initiated some diversity training programmes so then we eliminate any barriers (HR Manager).

We work with people who came from different countries, and the employees in our organisation speak more than one language and have different backgrounds, Asia, Europe, and America. So, to reach a point where employees can communicate perfectly and to deliver a clear message that benefits customers and colleagues, so the company came up with some diversity training (Training Manager).

However, some participants articulated that organisations alone cannot change home nationals' negative attitudes towards cultural differences; they believed that the government should initiate more training opportunities to handle this issue. As one manager observed:

Even with diversity training, I don't think the cultural difference between nationals and foreigners will change, unless government did something and this is a long-term issue. To be honest, the national HRD system has too many issues and government should take these issues into consideration (Training Manager).

5.3.5 Diversity Skills and Competencies

Another reason for the relationship between demographic change and the implementation of diversity training is employees' lack of cultural competencies. After diversity became a fact at the CSO, the data analysis indicated a lack of effective communication skills between men and women. Interviewees indicated that the CSO has faced a number of communication issues, particularly with the communication between local male and female employees. This is because the majority of local employees had not interacted with employees of different genders in the past, either within or outside of the workplace. A female manager stated:

Working with men is not something we like because we grow up like that, so it is not very easy to change our behaviour in one day. To be honest, I'm not good in communicating with males. Most women cannot work in mixed gender environment because we have to interact with male customers or colleagues...this is our culture and not everybody can communicate well with males in the workplace (Female Team-leader 2).

Some interviewees responded: "*We have some constraints in terms of being able to physically participate within the meeting and in training events*" (Saudisation Manager). Another female, Team-leader 4, stated:

In rare cases, we may meet in face-to-face with males. However in meeting with males two women should meet with two male or more not one woman with one man alone. Otherwise, we cannot proceed with process the meeting. These roles come from HR not from the government, not from the Ministry of Labour and the customer, but we do not know why they initiate these roles. However, female expatriate can meet with male alone but we are not allowed. But this is only in this company I did not face the same problem on my previous job.

Yes this is a major problem in the workplace, it is related to the way of communication between male and female and whether this communication is related to business work or another context, and we have included a number of communication skills activities in the diversity training programme efficiently (Training Manager)

We decided to initiated some training programme because there was no prior interaction before. It only happened in the workplace, because we received one complaint from a female worker about the way that her manager used to communicate with her and she felt that this is not related to the business and she felt uncomfortable (HR Manager).

The above findings demonstrate that because of the unique cultural context in Saudi Arabia, there was a need to enhance communication skills and cultural awareness through the implementation of diversity training.

In addition, managers indicated that the CSO seems more inclined to train nationals on the importance of diversity issues. According to six of the managers interviewed, this is because nationals have usually studied and worked only with indigenous people; thus, they generally lack adequate skills and the social integration necessary to work in a multicultural environment. The HR manager who was interviewed believed that the majority of local employees at different levels lack proper skills to deal with dissimilar individuals. He stated: "*to be honest not all local managers and employees are aware of diversity, so that's why we start to educate our executives about the benefit of diversity and inclusion*". Some managers asserted:

Local employees need more training on diversity than expatriate. We tend to invest in our national workforce in order to prepare them for

the future. We are not discriminating anyone but local people have less knowledge about diversity and inclusion than expatriate, and in terms of understanding differences, non-Saudi employees are more aware than Saudi employees (Training Manager).

Another manager added:

People from UK are more aware about diversity and inclusion than Saudi; this is a fact. In 2008 we don't have anything called diversity and inclusion, we have corporate social responsibility. People from UK have studied and interacted with diversity for a long time but we as Saudis don't (Diversity Manager).

I think no, we need more training on these things. Some of the managers have done something around diversity in the past in the UK...but a lot of this information is not applicable to the Saudi cultural contexts...to be honest the society in general is not aware of the diversity issues, including discrimination or the effect of discrimination in the workplace (HR Manager).

In order to enhance local skills and competencies, in 2002, the company implemented a leadership programme that was designed to accelerate the development of individuals who were perceived to have the potential to achieve higher ranking roles within the company. This programme was established specifically for future Saudi managers because the company believed that local employees required more investment in their KSAs. The Training Manager explained:

In the Saudi subsidiary, we have the flexibility to tailor the leadership framework and the L&D aspects to suit the need of particular business. And given the national agenda and the business strategy, we have a policy of focusing, not 100%, but the majority of our learning

and development efforts focus on developing diversity skills for Saudi nationals.

The leadership programme will give the selected employees the scope to implement theory into business challenges they are experiencing in their day jobs. Participants will also be able to attend networking events, and have the support of their peers through mentoring and coaching...within this programme we target some aspects of diversity but not in-depth because we have a separate diversity training course. (Diversity Manager).

5.4 Theme #2: Organisational Context

Almost all participants in this study confirmed that the institutional context has played a major role in shaping workforce diversity within the CSO. When the company decided to implement the diversity training programmes, managers indicated that they were not sure how to design diversity training programmes to fit the Saudi culture. Thus, the CSO decided to transfer all diversity training programmes from the headquarters to the Saudi subsidiary; however, this process did not yield positive outcomes because of the cultural and institutional differences between the UK and Saudi Arabia, and because of the subsidiary's autonomy. Then, the CSO decided to copy other competitors; however, this action did not succeed because none of their competitors had diversity training in place at that time. Finally, the CSO decided to design diversity training to fit the local context.

This section describes how the organisational context has influenced the implementation of diversity and diversity training. The first sub-theme describes how the institutional differences between home and host countries have influenced the

transfer and implementation of diversity training. The second sub-theme discusses how the Saudi subsidiary's autonomy has influenced diversity training. The third sub-theme outlines the role of competitors in influencing the design of diversity training programmes. The final sub-theme discusses how the CSO has dealt with global integration and local representativeness in designing diversity training.

5.4.1 Institutional Differences and Diversity Training

The data analysis revealed that formal and informal institutions between home and host countries have influenced diversity training design in the Saudi subsidiary. When the CSO discovered an urgent need to advance its diversity and inclusion strategy, barriers were discovered that needed to be addressed. In order to design diversity training, managers at the Saudi subsidiary initially sought advice and help from the managers at the headquarters. However, interviewees indicated that, as a result of the large institutional distance between the UK and Saudi Arabia, the managers at the headquarters faced a greater challenge establishing legitimacy within the host institutional context. As the global diversity manager acknowledged: *"The business units cannot effectively implement the same diversity initiatives, due to differences in regional diversity laws and regulations as well as in norms and customs"*. The assistant of the global diversity manager added: *"It's not one size fits all, we need to understand how D&I supports our strategy and the needs of the business"*.

Managers from the Saudi subsidiary also stated that the diversity training programme transferred from the UK was unsuccessful due to socio-cultural and institutional differences. Managers at the headquarters tried to transfer the same diversity training programme in order to achieve consistency throughout the organisation; however,

managing foreign affiliates and diffusing best practices to the Saudi subsidiary was difficult. According to the VP of HR in the Saudi subsidiary:

[Company name] in Saudi Arabia failed to achieve any progress in its diversity training intervention because all diversity management policies and practices were transferred from UK to Saudi Arabia and people in UK didn't consider the institutional differences between Saudi and UK.

In 2010, when they gave me that role, I said to the CEO this doesn't work in Saudi Arabia because we are different, our culture is different, our people are different even our strategy, our government and national agenda is different. In the UK, they do not have something called localisation (Saudisation), whereas here in Saudi Arabia we have a large number of foreign and expatriate workers, we have non-qualified Saudis, we have a high unemployment rate among Saudi nationals, so our agenda is different (Diversity Manager).

The data also showed that some forms of the diversity training programmes from the UK implemented in other subsidiaries with similar cultural and institutional contexts had been successful, but that was not the case in Saudi Arabia. Interviewees also described how the home country could enforce policies in other subsidiaries with lower levels of autonomy, such as in India. The global diversity manager stated:

For example the unconscious bias training, which is part of diversity training practices, start in the USA and then recommended in the UK, but I don't think that it goes further to Saudi or other business. Normally, we do get an update from Saudi Arabia to get an understanding about what they are doing, but in some business units we cannot force them to do what we want because their business is not big and easy to manage.

5.4.2 Local Subsidiary Autonomy

Another cause of the failure of the transferred diversity management policies and practices was the headquarters' limited monitoring of the subsidiary's practices. This relative autonomy was due to the Saudi subsidiary's unique national context and positive financial achievements. Respondents at the headquarters explained that it was particularly difficult to introduce diversity training in the Saudi subsidiary because the Saudi managers were interested in maintaining the status quo. The global diversity manager explained:

The way we work is, each of our what we call it 'home market' has their own diversity and inclusion team...we just try to link people together, make sure they share best practices and get an overall picture of what we are doing in [company name]. We don't run any programmes of any other countries, it's all quite independent with some overarching similar goals and we try to learn from each other...we can duplicate work if that's a practice appropriate to the culture and situation across different markets, but we tried to help people in Saudi but we couldn't.

The assistant of the global diversity manager added:

For example, in Saudi Arabia I believe it is just one person who looks at diversity and inclusion and he probably has support from his HR colleagues, but he hasn't got a huge team of people. Whereas in America, there is one person who leads it and there is a team of people who help and support. In the UK we have a team of people who do report to us but we do it in addition to normal day jobs across each of our business units, so it depends on the country, how it runs, and how they manage diversity training...it also depends on the leaders in different countries as to what objectives they have that

would be relevant for their market so we cannot also implement similar diversity practices.

The above findings demonstrate that a high institutional distance between the UK and Saudi Arabia forced the CSO to give the Saudi subsidiary more flexibility and autonomy in order to successfully implement diversity training practices. The CSO preferred this approach to accomplishing its common diversity training objectives. These objectives are founded on the most stringent regulations within the different countries that it operates in. The findings suggest that when high formal institutional distance occurs, this MNC acquiesce to local labour laws and regulations, in order to avert legal penalties and sanction costs.

5.4.3 Competitive Pressure

Once the transfer of diversity training from headquarters failed, respondents indicated that there was a need to visit successful competitors in Saudi Arabia to see how they were applying diversity training. To do this, one manager visited a number of competitors with an attempt to copy their diversity policies and practices. However, there seemed to be few diversity practices available from organisations operating in Saudi Arabia. As a result, the CSO was not threatened by local competitors. The diversity manager explained:

In 2010, in the first 8 months, I was looking for diversity and inclusion within other business in Saudi. So, I visited the top ten Saudi companies in Saudi, I saw their best practices in diversity and inclusion. To be honest there is nothing called diversity and inclusion in Saudi Arabia. In 2010 I was struggling, most diversity and

inclusion practices were under HR and I think this is a big mistake.

Diversity and inclusion should not be under HR.

In fact, most of the managers who were interviewed did not consider the local companies strong competitors:

Our local competitors are not so advanced like us in terms of size and contract and even in terms of their diversity practices. They are smaller than us and they are here for only one project. In 2010, [foreign company name] came to Saudi Arabia for a massive contract and some big multinational companies as well...to be honest, we do not have any strong local competitors and most of them they come here for short-term contract, but there is international competition (Diversity Manager).

Nonetheless, when other MNCs entered the Saudi market offering similar products, the CSO felt the need to sustain the company's competitive advantage through the achievement of the localisation policies. For this reason, the CSO decided to become the top industrial company and to sustain its competitive advantage through the implementation of effective diversity management practices. The VP HR stated: *"I guess we have the choice of business, we could have waited for someone else to do it and then followed, but we chose to be leader in this and we dealt with all the sensitivity and seeking the customer support"*. Likewise, the L&D manager mentioned: *"We believe we are the first in a defence industry in Saudi Arabia to embark on the implementation of diversity, including the employment of females"*. He further commented:

Particularly in Saudi Arabia, the recruitment of females is a new concept, but we chose to be a leader in that because that's what we do...we chose to lead this way; in this we believe we will reap the

benefit of it and that's why we have implemented diversity training so then female employees can stay.

5.4.4 Thinking Globally, Acting Locally

The above findings demonstrate that a variety of corporate guidelines were not implemented in the Saudi subsidiary due to perceived differences in the local business environment. Thus, the local subsidiary management reasoned that it was important to select local adjustments over global integration in diversity training. The assistant of the global diversity manager supported this decision:

Yes, exactly, diversity training needs to be appropriate for their home market and appropriate for their business and managers need to make sure that diversity training supports the business strategy for their market which obviously would be very different what is happening in Saudi Arabia as it might be in America, as it might be in the UK

We have a huge different market we do have an overarching policy and strategy within different businesses, such as diversity and inclusion, but there is a recognition that Saudi Arabia needs to define what diversity and inclusion (D&I)² mean. There will be sometimes some difficulties, but flexible enough to allow us to work...because there are different factors everywhere, culture and religion (Global Diversity Manager).

For this reason, interviewees at the Saudi subsidiary believed that an effective diversity strategy should be internally driven, not enforced by a global framework. As the diversity manager explained:

² Although “D&I” was used by the manager to denote “diversity and inclusion,” my study is focused on diversity training.

In 2010, the first 8 months I was looking for diversity and inclusion within other business, we were trying to define diversity that recognizes our culture differences this was an important step to consider when designing diversity training.

In order to advance the diversity training strategy, interviewees revealed that defining diversity in a manner that suited the cultural and institutional context was essential.

We are part of a global company, but we are also looking at diversity from local perspective. What it specifically means in Saudi Arabia, so what it does mean in Saudi Arabia would not mean the same in the UK (L&D Manager).

Locally, we tried to define our policies and values that are more appropriate to the cultural contexts. For example, within the CSR and diversity department in Saudi Arabia, obviously they have to be compatible with Saudi labour law more than anything else, which is obviously different than any other labour market we operate in (HR Manager).

Similar to the definition of diversity, four managers stated that the diversity training programme was designed at the corporate level and then tailored to fit the national context. According to the diversity manager: *"We have some relationships with people from the UK, but we tailor all our diversity training design issues to fit the local culture"*. The VP of HR echoed this idea: *"It gets designed corporately and then tailor them locally by local managers to make sure it fit within the Saudi context"*.

Expatriate team-leader 1 commented:

The diversity training that is implemented in Saudi should be different than in the UK. It has to be different because in UK the company has

different nationalities working there is very diverse organisations, but here in Saudi Arabia expatriate come here for specific reasons and we should be moving out. So, the aim and goal of diversity training in Saudi would be different than in UK.

5.5 Theme #3: Diversity Training in Practice

The data analysis has shown that the contextual categories discussed above have impacted on diversity training programme. Six major themes have emerged in this section: diversity training learning objectives, approach to diversity training utilised, nature of the needs identification process, participation and take-up requirement, diversity learning methods, and selection of trainees. These themes and sub-themes were defined in line with the literature review conducted in Chapter 2.

5.5.1 Diversity Training Learning Objectives

Managers' responses indicated that diversity training within the organisation mainly focused on increasing the cultural awareness of diversity issues and enhancing employees' communication skills. Participants attended diversity training to receive basic information and knowledge about how diversity can affect performance at the individual, group, and organisational levels. The L&D manager explained: *"Increasing employees' cultural awareness is the main aim of a diversity programme. At this moment, it's really just to introduce people to this subject and what it means to the business".* Another manager acknowledged: *"I think the starting point is to get everybody's awareness around the subject, we had this with many other aspects in our business in the past"* (Training Manager).

However, the analysis of the data here indicated the introduction of diversity training was strongly influenced by the necessary to comply with localisation as well as to enhance employees' diversity skills, particularly with regard to traditional managers' negative perceptions of diversity and equality. Within the CSO, diversity training is considered one of the most effective strategies that an organisation can use to achieve its diversity goals and objectives. An expatriate female team-leader echoed this argument:

Yes, absolutely there needs to be change there is no doubt about that, managers and employees' attitudes need to be changed otherwise the problem will be forever, and I think that's what the government is trying to do is to change people's attitude by law enforcement. Otherwise, nothing will change and I think that's why our organisation has asked managers to attend diversity training and I think the organisation should provide more training on these things.

All these obstacles will vanish in the future, people in this society will accept the idea of women working in the private sector even working in leadership position. To me, I think male attitudes towards women needs to be changed. There are some people who still think that the housework is the only role of women and this is a mistake (Female Team-leader).

As outlined above, interviewees indicated that, given the increased participation of local employees at the CSO, they believed that diversity training was necessary to enable local and foreign workers to effectively interact and work together (for more information see section 4.2.2 above). One manager explicitly stated:

We know there is a difference between local and non-local employees, so developing everybody's skills is important for the company success. Diversity training can solve some part of the problem but we

do have different diversity forms, such as communication events...as you know it is very important to be able to communicate with those diverse groups of people between all different background (Training Manager).

5.5.2 Approach to Diversity Training Utilised

Diversity training approaches can be inclusive or group specific. The interview data revealed that the CSO adopts a group-specific approach to diversity. Interviewees did not explicitly indicate that their approach to diversity only targeted specific groups, such as Saudi nationals; however, this was apparent from the data. This is because the legal pressure has limited the organisation's choices for dealing with workplace diversity. This organisation, in a host country, has attempted to legitimise its diversity focus and practices in order to survive and sustain its competitive advantage. For this reason, diversity within the CSO has primarily focused on gender and nationality differences. When the training manager was asked to outline the extent to which the employees are diverse within the organisation, he replied: "*Well I think, when the company recruits more women so there is diversity in terms of gender and we have more than one nationality, so we have diversity*". Another manager responded to the same question:

We know diversity is very broad and in UK they may have different perspective than in Saudi Arabia. That is the global view and then we look locally and what it does mean in Saudi Arabia, but it will probably very focus on the male/female aspect, given the government agenda...there may be a focus on making sure that we represent the community where we operate in making sure that we draw people in from the whole community (L&D Manager).

Since government pressure is increasing, the CSO has focused on achieving Saudisation as an important part of its overall diversity strategy. According to the diversity manager: *"Even within Saudi nationals there is diversity, including colour, race, and tribe"*. Another interviewee said, *"Saudisation is important for us, even diversity and inclusion is a legal requirement one way or another"*. Another example of the relationship between diversity and localisation was expressed by the VP of HR: *"When the government launched the Saudisation scheme, we start to think about equal employment opportunities more specifically Saudi vs. expatriate and Saudi male vs. Saudi female"*. Another manager added:

In 2007, the King announced the Saudisation scheme, so part of diversity is Saudisation, so because 40 years ago we weren't so diverse because we're a foreign company operating in Saudi Arabia, so it's totally different. So, when the King announced Saudisation, we start thinking about diversity and how we diverse our business, and even within Saudi home nationals there is diversity (Diversity Manager).

In light of the findings outlined in section 4.3.2, these findings confirmed that the CSO aims to achieve more equality among two primary diversity groups: gender diversity and ethnic diversity. This is a narrow interpretation of diversity, representing another form of affirmative action. These findings also indicate that legal pressure (localisation) has had a direct influence on how the Saudi' subsidiary defines diversity. Due to pressure from external factors, this company has limited organisational choice in hiring from a diverse talent pool and complying with legal pressures.

5.5.3 Nature of the Needs Identification Process

Interviewees highlighted that the organisation does not conduct needs assessments to determine the knowledge and skills gaps that must be addressed. This is because most of the training programmes have been implemented due to external pressures rather than business needs. Almost all of the interviewees indicated that the needs identification process was rarely conducted at the Saudi subsidiary. According to the diversity manager:

We do not often conduct a need assessment process, most training is initiated from top management so there is less need for such action, we do however collect some basic information but it's not in a systematic way as you explained to me (Training Manager).

I don't think the needs assessment process has come to our organisation, even in most organisations in Saudi Arabia, this is for sure what is missing in the context of HRD, but we do our best to design diversity training that might suit our organisational need (VP HR)

The above findings demonstrate that the CSO collected little information prior to the introduction of the diversity training. This might also explain why the diversity training programme initially failed when transferred from the headquarters.

5.5.4 Participation and Take-up Requirement

The CSO has implemented a number of voluntary and mandatory training programmes. Since diversity training is relatively new, mandatory practices have been implemented for managers and executives. In order to emphasise the importance of diversity training, the CSO has linked the training programme to performance appraisal, a reward system, and promotions. The diversity manager stated: "For

leadership, we made it mandatory so they do have to attend the training and that's really to make sure that we catch everybody's skills". He further added: "It's part of their performance development review (PDR), so every manager has to attend it".

Another manager commented:

In this organisation, the CEO is recognised as a powerful person, so if the training is supported from the higher people in the organisation, managers and employees will take diversity training more seriously. So any practices that came from the CEO are considered as important but again as the organisation is getting more diverse and the percentage of females has increased, so there was a need for such training (Female Team-leader 4).

I have attended diversity training and still running for all new managers. They have to attend this programme, so it is mandatory it isn't elective. So, all experienced managers and new managers in our organisation should attend this programme because it is part of our performance appraisal (VP of HR).

Interviewees further indicated that it is normal in Saudi culture for top management or the responsible department to collect the information an informal ways and then to introduce the training. This means that any voluntary practice that did not come from top management is considered unimportant, and few employees will be motivated to attend. In addition, participants also stated that for diversity training to be successful, the higher managers must be involved and must support the implementation of the training:

I'm sure few people would love to attend a communication skills training or diversity training if it was optional. I'm sure most of them won't attend the training. Some of them to be honest don't want to be

blamed for doing something bad and asked to attend diversity training, so they sometimes take it from this perspective. If we didn't select trainee to attend diversity training they will think that attending this training means that you're not qualified to be a good communicator, especially managers, they will believe that and they won't feel happy to attend but they know that this training comes from the top management (Training Manager).

The diversity manager further stated that the diversity training programme will eventually be implemented on a mandatory basis to all employees. This is because the CSO considers diversity to be an important factor for the success of the organisation, locally and internationally.

In the next two years, diversity training will be mandatory to all employees, like the ethical training, so managers and executives will be required to sign a slip that requires him or her to attend a diversity course in the first stage, then to ensure that every employee in their department has attended the training.

5.5.6 Diversity Learning Methods

The diversity training methods are organised into two different categories: lecture-based strategies or blended strategies. As outlined above, the CSO has implemented a number of diversity training practices; some of them have specifically discussed diversity, and others have been broad training programmes that included diversity as a component. This section focuses on diversity training programmes only. Interviewees indicated that the diversity training programme targeting managers was implemented as a web-training course. The diversity manager stated: *"All managers have to attend e-learning programme in diversity and inclusion across the whole [company name],*

and every manager in this company in different locations gets this programme".

Moreover, the L&D manager explained: *"We have started with managers, they have three months to undertake this e-learning package, and they can take it any time they want".* Another manager added:

Our employees receive training on the benefits of diversity and inclusion for our business. Many of our businesses have introduced training workshops and e-learning tools for managers to help them understand their roles in promoting diversity and inclusion, as well as meeting regulatory requirements.

Five local managers also reacted positively to this teaching style, which included interactive e-learning methods. Although respondents indicated that, in general, the teaching style in Saudi Arabia was often formal and presented as a one-way lecture, the CSO seemed to be implementing a new teaching style. Most of the employees who attended the diversity training programme favoured this type of method and preferred the innovative method to a normal lecture:

Yes, actually the teaching style is something that we did not used to do... so I keep saying why they don't just give us the normal lecture. But when I used the e-learning method, I liked it. I also believe that our teaching style should be changing to case study and group discussion, so it is definitely an interesting method but at the beginning I tried to avoid it (Saudisation Manager).

I have heard that managers like the e-learning method, which is better than just listening and not communicating with the material instead of one person delivering the program. Actually they are motivated to have different methods even the training games some people think that they are adult and they are old enough to participate in some games, but the majority loves these activities, which are different than the

normal lecture. Some they don't but very few so this type of training gives more interaction than the normal (Training Manager).

In addition, some managers outlined different learning methods that have been used in order to achieve inclusivity in the long term:

We have used a number of communication tools within the business in order to increase people's awareness about diversity...we focus more on diversity training awareness and how this can benefit the business, how cultural awareness can support the diversity and inclusion. This is part of the CSR, so some people start to think about the benefit of diversity. Now we are hoping to move towards inclusion and that's why we have to engage the women in our events, training, conferences, and other. But I think a lot of work needs to be done in order to have an inclusive work environment.

Interviewees also indicated that diversity training was implemented as a stand-alone initiative that could take up to three hours. In addition, managers must attend the diversity training once during their working life. Four participants expressed that the length of diversity training was a weakness. They believed that this short training was not adequate to change negative attitudes and for employees to receive all of the important knowledge and skills:

So, these are short courses and in such short courses will not be able to gain the skills. So, in short courses we are only focusing on awareness and information and not focusing on attitudes. We try to change some of the attitudes but we really needed to follow up and keep teaching these skills with regarding to the participant themselves and also to the manager or supervisor in the implementation of these skills (Training Manager).

To be honest...I didn't notice any change in my colleagues' behaviour, because as I said it is only few hours training. For me I learned interesting information, but there isn't much change (HR Manager).

5.5.6 Selection of Trainees

Although the attendance of the training is mandatory for managers, interviewees indicated that male managers should be given priority for attending diversity training. This is because male managers are dominating key positions at the CSO. As such, they have the power to change and implement any practices that value diversity and inclusion. In addition, some female participants still believed that if managers' attitudes changed, then the organisation would advance towards its goals of diversity and inclusion:

In terms of selecting the employees, we target those important people and then we look beyond this and involve managers from different departments, especially those who deal with diverse employees and customers. And in the second step, we will provide diversity training for everyone - but because this is the first step we take male managers as the priority (Diversity Manager).

Moreover, the data analysis found that male managers needed to attend diversity training in order to change their negative attitudes towards gender diversity. The data demonstrated that male managers did not give women an equal chance at attending training or development courses. Most interviewees indicated that male employees received more training opportunities than female employees. This is because male managers often select male employees to attend diversity training programs.

If a male is working in a managerial position and if the majority of workers are male so by default women will receive less training opportunity and less development courses. But to be honest, I think males should attend diversity training before females simply because they have the power (Female Team-leader 2).

Here in [company name] we have had the same problem where male get more training courses in the UK and women had little courses here in Riyadh. So a man can travel and get more training, whereas we are different. I mean we can feel that males are more favourable in this company because of outside and inside factors, so I think males should attend diversity training to change their behaviour (Female Team-leader 3).

5.6 Different Views

Despite the fact that I interviewed multiple actors to fully understand how the reality is socially constructed, different views of the key issues varied from one participant to the next. Tables 12 and 13 summarise these different views on the factors influencing the implementation, design, and outcomes of diversity training.

Table 12 Factors Influencing the CSO to Adopt Diversity Training

Issues identified	Inter 1	Inter 2	Inter 3	Inter 4	Inter 5	Inter 6	Inter 7	Inter 8	Inter 9	Inter 10	Inter 11	Inter 12
	F	F	M	M	M	M	M	M	F	F	F	F
Localisation policies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gaining legitimacy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	X
Demographic changes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lack of diversity skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> /X
Pressure from headquarters	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	X	-	-	-	X	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	-
Business focus	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		X	X	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competitive pressure	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-
It is a good thing to do	-	-	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note:

- Inter Interviewee
- M/F Male/Female
- Participant agrees
- X Participant does not agree
- /X Participant partly agrees
- Participant did not answer the question

Table 13 Factors Influencing the CSO to Design Diversity Training

Issues identified	Inter 1	Inter 2	Inter 3	Inter 4	Inter 5	Inter 6	Inter 7	Inter 8	Inter 9	Inter 10	Inter 11	Inter 12
	F	F	M	M	M	M	M	M	F	F	F	F
Localisation policies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural norms	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Men's attitudes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-
Pressure from headquarters	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	<input type="checkbox"/>		X	-	-	X	<input type="checkbox"/>	X
Business focus	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	X	X	-	-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-	-
Competitive pressure	X	X	X	<input type="checkbox"/> /X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note:

- Inter Interviewee
- M/F Male/Female
- Participant agrees
- X Participant does not agree
- /X Participant partly agrees
- Participant did not answer the question

Tables 12 and 13 show that the majority of participants considered localisation policies to be an important driver of diversity training practices. Most interviewees responded that the localisation policies had influenced the CSO to implement and design the diversity training. Participants also held different viewpoints on factors influencing the design and outcomes of diversity training. These will be discussed further in Chapter 6. Given the nature of this project, the focus is on the views of the majority. Surprisingly, from the analysis there is little difference between the views of the managers and the views of the government actors

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the views of the respondents from the case study. I acted as a narrator of events allowing for a more rich understanding of the multiple factors that influenced the implementation and design of a diversity program in an MNC subsidiary in Saudi Arabia.

The findings were organised and discussed in a way that highlighted the impact of the national, cultural, and institutional contexts influencing diversity training programmes. By exploring the case of a real organisation, I have presented a number of common issues facing the national HRD system in Saudi Arabia and how these have impacted on the implementation of diversity training. In addition, I have provided a concrete view of the national implications of increasing workplace diversity, particularly in the area of gender diversity, through the eyes of female and male managers. Furthermore, the views of government actors and policy on the introduction of localisation policies and how these might impact diversity training were also outlined.

The above findings lead to the conclusion that demographic changes in the population, national culture, and the legal system play major roles in the implementation of diversity

training and influence diversity training design and outcomes in organisations operating in Saudi Arabia.

These findings demonstrate that demographic changes, particularly the increased participation of women and minorities in the workplace, have had a direct influence on the implementation of diversity training. Within most private organisations, including MNCs, men dominate the jobs, are prioritised for promotions, and are selected for training opportunities. The data analysis also outlined the issue of racial mix in Saudi Arabia's private sector organisations. With the increase of the number of home nationals in the private sector, the CSO felt the need to implement diversity training practices that could eliminate workplace conflicts or disagreements between nationals and non-nationals.

The findings also examine the influence of national culture on workplace diversity. The majority of participants believed that culture has historically blocked females from working in mixed-gender environments, particularly within the private sector. When the CSO decided to employ the first group of women, the company faced cultural resistance from people inside and outside of the company. A number of managers rejected the idea of recruiting women, and even when these women entered the workforce, some male employees refused to communicate with them. The company decided to implement a diversity training programme to increase cultural awareness, change negative attitudes, and allow managers to understand the value of diversity in the workplace. Interviewees also described how some external stakeholders, such as customers and government actors, were not initially supportive of the idea of gender balance in the workplace.

Although not all of them did, most participants reinforced the importance of appreciating and complying with the legal requirements in order to keep the organisation competitive. Most managers, especially those who held high positions, believed that achieving localisation

would lead to better financial outcomes. Consequently, Saudi employees accounted for more than 60% of employees at the local CSO. Segregating genders in different offices no longer means that females will be overlooked in organisational activities, including training opportunities and meetings. The CSO has realised that employing more women and achieving localisation will allow the organisation to sustain a competitive advantage.

Although this study uses a single-case study design to understand how these factors interact with each other and influence diversity training, many MNCs that adopt diversity training may experience similar pressures when operating within the same context.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION &

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, I pointed out the critical weaknesses of existing research related to diversity training in the organisational context. First, existing research studies have only investigated a few countries and regions. Aycan *et al* (2000) noted, however, that the diversity training practices that have evolved in Western cultures may not be as effective in non-Western cultures. Therefore, research into such practices should have greater geographic coverage to include all of Asia, Africa, and mainland Europe. Second, some scholars have recognised the need to conduct research on a wider spectrum of organisations (Nishii and Özbilgin 2007; Shore *et al.* 2009). Existing studies have predominantly focused on public sector organisations and on a relatively narrow set of job types. This thesis responded to these issues by investigating how a MNC has implemented and designed diversity training programmes in its Saudi subsidiary.

More specifically, this research sought to identify how the MNC has adapted to the national, cultural, and institutional contexts of Saudi Arabia in its diversity training. Researchers have generally agreed that diversity training programmes will not be implemented unless they are designed to reflect their local context (Holladay and Quiñones 2005). However, exploring how the local context influences diversity training design is fraught with many challenges that are further exacerbated by the multiplicity of interlinked factors. Moreover, understanding diversity training in the organisational context is a sensitive area of research that is very difficult to grasp through a single study, particularly given the pivotal role played by governmental pressure in influencing diversity and diversity management. In the context of this study, therefore, it was crucial to gain access to key managers at the as well as government actors in order to understand the full picture of how MNC in Saudi Arabia design diversity training.

In this chapter, I present the data collected, detailing the interviewees' accounts of how external and internal factors have influenced the CSO's decision to implement and design diversity training. The discussion offers a critical examination of this process through the participants' views in order to understand the multiple factors across various levels of meaning. In this section, it is vital to raise the question "so what?" when presenting the discussion, as this may answer the question: how can we learn from the various participants, and from the HRD and cross-cultural literature on training? In doing so, the central question of this thesis will be addressed: How do the external and internal forces in Saudi Arabia promote diversity training, and how do these forces influence diversity training design?

Using a systematic approach, the same broad themes from Chapter 5 are used to frame the analysis, with each theme numbered the same in both chapters. The discussion reveals how the current study confirms, challenges, or adds to previous literature in the field of diversity training. Since this study focused on a real case study operating in Saudi Arabia, which has experienced a number of challenges in designing diversity training, the data in this study should make a valuable and specific contributions to research and practice in this area.

6.2 Rationale for Introducing Diversity Training Initiatives

This section discusses the CSO's rationale for introducing diversity training programme. Identifying and recognising factors that influence organisations to adopt new practices is very important for both practising managers and those researching the domain of management practices (Daniel *et al.* 2012). As discussed in Chapter 2, multiple factors have been identified to explain organisational rationales for adopting diversity training (Mor Barak 2005; Rynes and Rosen 1995). Gentile (1996), for example, suggested eight different rationales that motivated organisations to invest in diversity training: legal pressure,

demographic change in the workforce, diversity in customers and suppliers, globalisation, internal pressure (e.g., lack of diversity skills and cultural awareness), external pressure (e.g., religious or political groups), and the business case. Kulik and Roberson (2008) argued that different rationales for adopting diversity training can lead to different design features.

This study, therefore, sought to investigate the multiple factors that have influenced the CSO to adopt diversity training in Saudi Arabia, and how those factors have influenced diversity training design. The findings of this study suggest that understanding organisational rationales for adopting diversity training programmes is essential to understanding how organisations design and evaluate training outcomes. In other words, for diversity training to be effective, managers and HRD practitioners must first of all understand why organisations adopt diversity training. The discussion of themes in this section continues to mirror the findings as set out in Chapter 5, grouped under the following subheadings:

- The influence of localisation policies
- Getting legitimacy
- Demographic change in the workforce
- Lack of diversity skills and awareness
- Local employees vs. expatriates

6.2.1 The Influence of Localisation Policies

This study extends our understanding of how institutional pressure can be viewed as a practical rationale for introducing diversity training programmes. As discussed in Chapter 2, formal institutions have directly influenced the adoption of diversity management programmes, for example through affirmative action and equal opportunity policies (Kalev *et al.* 2006). Effective formal institutions and legislation continue to be key issues in the development of diversity training. Given that such institutions vary from country to country,

local diversity practices reflect the conditions under which they operate. In the absence of equal opportunity policies in Saudi Arabia, it would seem that diversity training programmes have largely been influenced by localisation policies. In light of this unique context, I was keen to interview institutional actors in this study, as they were in the position to shed light on how legal pressures influence organisational management practices. Furthermore, it was very important for me to understand the government rationale for introducing localisation policies in order to understand how organisations design and evaluate the effectiveness of their diversity training.

All of the government actors interviewed indicated that the localisation policies were necessary for overcoming the lack of representation of home nationals in the private sector. As shown in Chapter 3, the private sector in Saudi Arabia has lacked a high proportion of multicultural groups, as male expatriates have made up more than 80% of the workforce for a long period of time (Ramady 2013). Three government actors indicated that, despite many voluntary actions implemented to enhance diversity, mandatory policies (e.g., localisation policies) were the only solution for enhancing workforce diversity among private sector organisations. This finding suggests that, in a high power distance society such as Saudi Arabia, a respected individual (“person of a high rank”) such as the King must convince the largely private organisations to enhance their level of diversity. In addition, Dieleman and Boddewyn (2012) argued that, in emerging countries, regulatory pressure plays a major role because governments control access to major resources, government contracts, capital, protection against competitors, and the like. The government actors interviewed pointed out that organisations are required to comply with the localisation policies if they wish to continue operating in Saudi Arabia. These findings indicate that compliance with localisation policies in Saudi Arabia is essential for an organisation’s survival. They also illustrate the

determination of the Saudi government to increase the percentage of home nationals in the private sector workforce and to enforce organisations' investment in national HRD.

Moreover, the CSO managers interviewed indicated that the introduction of the localisation 'quota system' has directly influenced the level of diversity in the workforce. Eight managers explained that the increased participation of home nationals in the CSO was initially mandated by the government and not by top management. The results provide strong support for the relationship between the effort exerted by the regulator and diversity training. In effect, regulatory efforts motivated the CSO to increase its workforce diversity, which in turn necessitated its adoption of diversity training. The findings in this study also concur with Pitts *et al* (2010) who suggested that regulatory force is a particularly significant driver of diversity training in the organisational context.

6.2.2 Gaining Legitimacy

As presented in Chapter 2, institutional theory suggests that organisations tend to adopt new practices for two reasons: to improve organisational efficiency, and to acquire and maintain legitimacy (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Zucker 1987). Collings and Dick (2011, p.3851) outlined that early adopters of new practices aim at "meeting a particular technical need". In this case, efficiency is the main reason motivating organisations to adopt such practices, whereas later adopters of the new practices do so to maintain legitimacy. In this study, respondents explained that, early on, the focus of diversity training in the CSO was on meeting the needs of the more diverse workforce, and on providing the necessary skills for managers and employees to deal with those diverse employees. Three managers who were interviewed explained that the focus of diversity training shifted from an initial compliance orientation (i.e., influenced by localisation policies) towards the enhancement of employee working relationships (i.e., more business-oriented) within the context of localisation.

Criticising such an approach, Agócs and Burr (1996) argued that diversity management should not represent the next generation of legal pressure, but should be seen as an approach to management. Kramar (1998, p.141) stated that diversity training should be implemented as part of the continuing search for better organisational performance—a clearly different motivation to affirmative action:

Diversity management will provide an opportunity to manage a workforce which emphasizes organizational and individual performance and at the same time acknowledges individual needs. This approach to management requires building a culture which supports diversity among organizational contributors.

In addition, the presence of early and later adopters of organisational practices indicates that the process of adoption is often in transition from one stage to another. As such, as Lounsbury (2007) pointed out, efficiency and legitimacy are not two totally separate mechanisms. For example, when the CSO adopted diversity training programmes in response to legal and demographic changes, it is likely that diversity training was also underpinned by a goal of generating efficiency.

As indicated in Chapter 2, the success of diversity training is often measured by the increase in the number of women and minorities in the workplace (Kalev *et al.* 2006), the decrease in the number of discrimination lawsuits (Hemphill and Haines 1997), and/or improvements in the knowledge, behaviours, and attitudes of employees (Jackson and Deeg 2008). Similarly, seven respondents noted that the success of diversity training in the CSO is often measured by the increase in participation of home nationals, particularly women. At the same time, four respondents indicated that the CSO offered diversity training programmes as a way to legitimise its practices and to enhance its relationships with key customers (e.g., the

government). Moreover, as this study found, the implementation of diversity training programmes is a key strategy for organisations in Saudi Arabia to obtain legitimacy.

6.2.3 Demographic Change and Diversity Training

Interestingly, of those who believed that governmental pressures have influenced the level of diversity in the workforce, the majority (90%) indicated a positive relationship between the introduction of diversity training and demographic change in the workforce. Fourteen interviewed managers outlined that diversity training was needed to manage the highly diverse workforce. Likewise, Burke and Ng (2006) argued that demographic change is one of the most powerful forces affecting organisational diversity practices. Since male expatriates and foreign workers have historically dominated the jobs in this CSO, the increased participation of local employees was found to be an important organisational rationale for implementing diversity training programmes. In similar studies in the region (e.g., Forstenlechner *et al.* 2012; Yaghi and Yaghi 2013), researchers have found that the increased participation of home nationals in private sectors (as a response to governmental pressures) was deemed to be an important factor influencing organisations to adopt some form of diversity management practice.

Of those who believed that diversity training was implemented by the CSO as a response to demographic change, 13 respondents indicated that the increased level of gender diversity was a major driver of diversity training. The CSO only employed its first group of local women just after the introduction of the localisation policies. Therefore, this finding is consistent with Richard and Johnson's (2001) suggestion that diversity management practices are often a response to increased gender diversity in the workplace. Furthermore, Agócs and Burr (1996, p.30) pointed out that "managing diversity is primarily a response to demographic changes including the increasing presence of women, racial minorities and

immigrants in the workplace”. Diversity training, therefore, has been introduced at the CSO as part of an organisational response to legal mandates and a heterogeneous workforce.

6.2.4 Local Employees vs. Expatriates

Diversity management literature has acknowledged the importance of the expatriate–local relationship (Showail *et al.* 2013). With respect to the expatriate–local relationship, the findings in this study highlight two interesting aspects influencing the adoption of diversity training programmes. The first issue relates to home nationals’ negative attitudes towards jobs in the private sector. As discussed in Chapter 3, home nationals tend to prefer working in the public sector. They consider jobs in the private sector to be of lower status, which has resulted in a highly segmented labour market between national and non-national employees (Al-Asfour and Khan 2014; Sadi and Henderson 2010). In this study, 15 interviewees argued that the segmentation of the labour market in this way was an issue that needed to be addressed. Of those 15 interviewees, almost half of them indicated that diversity training was essential for changing home nationals’ negative attitudes towards jobs in the private sector, as well as to enhance their diversity cultural awareness and skills in dealing with dissimilar individuals. This finding reflects Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner’s (2010) argument that employees raised in traditional, conservative, or tribal societies, who only socialise with indigenous people (e.g., Saudi citizens), often need to be taught more diversity skills.

The second issue relates to expatriate employees’ negative attitudes towards the localisation policies. As discussed in Chapter 3, the localisation policies were implemented to reduce private organisations’ over-reliance on non-nationals (Ramady 2013). However, three non-national interviewees criticised these policies for favouring Saudi citizens. A similar finding was reported by Forstenlechner *et al* (2012) who concluded that localisation policies in GCC countries have resulted in more negative attitudes towards home nationals, instead of an

enhancement of diversity and equality. Four managers highlighted that this issue could affect national employees' ability to adjust to the CSO. These findings, therefore, reveal that the increase of home nationals in the private sector increases the need for diversity training to eliminate any cultural differences between local and non-local employees.

6.2.5 Diversity Skills and Competencies

As discussed in Chapter 2, diversity training programmes might be implemented as a response to internal needs (e.g., lack of employees' diversity skills) (Holladay and Quiñones 2005). The findings of this study extend our understanding of how cultural differences between local men and women in Saudi Arabia have been important drivers of diversity training programmes. Metcalfe (2007) highlighted that diversity management is needed in the Middle East particularly to prevent any cultural clashes between genders. In this study, 13 respondents indicated that diversity training was needed to overcome issues arising from local female and male employees working together. More specifically, five female interviewees highlighted that they had faced some difficulties communicating with local male managers when they first entered the CSO, and in total seven participants explained that male managers had demonstrated poor communication skills when communicating with female employees. Moreover, the local men at the company had initially resisted the idea of enhancing gender diversity at the CSO.

Four respondents explained how miscommunication between men and women had resulted in workplace conflicts, supporting Pelled's (1996) argument that the increase in demographic diversity variables is more likely to increase the level of conflict among groups. Similarly, Jehn (1997) found that mixed-sex groups experience more conflict than same-sex groups as a result of divergent viewpoints. As three respondents explicitly indicated, enhancing employees' awareness of workplace diversity at the CSO was deemed necessary due to these

conflicts. Thus, the increased level of gender diversity was found to be an important driver of diversity training programmes, and a positive relationship was found between the level of gender diversity and the implementation of diversity training.

6.3 Organisational Context and Diversity Training

Continuing the examination of organisational rationales for adopting diversity training and how those rationales influence diversity training design and outcomes, this section discusses how institutional differences between the home and host countries impact diversity training design. Mirroring the sequence of Chapter 5, the discussion of themes in this section is organised under the following subheadings:

- Institutional differences
- Local subsidiary autonomy
- Competitive pressure
- Thinking globally, acting locally

6.3.1 Institutional Differences and Diversity Training

As discussed in Chapter 2, organisations often face a variety of challenges when designing diversity training programmes (Roberson *et al.* 2013). According to the training literature, training design is an important aspect that influences training transfer (Velada *et al.* 2007). In this study, five participants outlined that, when the CSO decided to adopt diversity training programmes, all of the policies and practices were simply transferred from the home country to the host country without taking into consideration the particular institutional pressures in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, the initial diversity training programme failed to achieve any progress. The findings of this study offer two critical explanations for this failure.

The first explanation is related to the great degree of institutional distance between UK and Saudi Arabia. Özbilgin *et al* (2012) and Luring (2013) found evidence that high institutional differences can determine the ways in which diversity training programme is applied in host countries. In this study, five respondents explained that the differences between the legal frameworks of the two countries meant that the diversity training programme had to be designed differently. They recognised that cultural and institutional differences had had a direct influence on the failure of diversity training. Since, as Kostova and Roth (2002) posited, countries' institutional profiles can directly influence MNCs' management practices, organisations' acknowledgement of both the impact of countries' national institutions and the potential to create advantages through their own initiatives is essential for the success of diversity management programmes (Eden and Miller 2004).

The second explanation for the initial failure of the diversity programme was that the headquarters and the Saudi subsidiary had two different rationales for introducing diversity training. In the home country, five participants explained that the headquarters had implemented diversity training with the aim to enhance individual, group, and organisational performance (i.e., with a business focus). Respondents from the headquarters indicated that there had been a positive relationship between diversity training and business outcomes. By contrast, almost all participants from the Saudi subsidiary highlighted that there had been a positive relationship between localisation policies and diversity training. These findings are in agreement with Ferner *et al* (2004) who argued that it is crucial for MNCs to understand organisational rationales for adopting diversity management practices before transferring them to host countries.

For this reason, the interviewees explained that the CSO had then decided to design diversity training that suited the cultural and institutional contexts of Saudi Arabia. According to

DiMaggio and Powell (1983), mirroring the characteristics of the host culture enables MNCs to gain legitimacy and be perceived as appropriate within the local culture. However, as Steer and Sen (2010) argued, since diversity is embedded within social structures and represents people's values, it is quite challenging for outsiders to code and interpret the local needs related to diversity training programmes. The difficulties foreigners may have understanding and comprehending such aspects of another culture (Dickson *et al.* 2008) can shape a MNC's objectives with regard to diversity training. The findings of this study suggest that, when a great degree of institutional distance occurs, MNC acquiesce to local institutions in order to circumvent the high costs and risks associated with imposing the home country's approaches on the overall diversity and inclusion strategy. Respondents suggested that the subsidiary preferred this approach to the achievement of common diversity training objectives; it founded local training initiatives on the most stringent regulations in the different countries it operated in.

6.3.2 Local Subsidiary Autonomy

Previous studies have attempted to examine how organisations deal with host countries' institutional environments in order to consistently enable local institutions to attain legitimacy and thereby ensure organisational survival (Forstenlechner and Mellahi 2011). This stream of research has suggested that organisations can ensure their survival if their processes and structures align with the external environment and are easy to understand (DiMaggio and Powell 1991; Scott 1995). Seven interviewees indicated that the parent company in UK did not go into detail about its diversity training programmes because the Saudi subsidiary was institutionally and culturally different. In light of this, this study suggests that, in the case of high institutional distance between the home and host countries, MNCs have limited control over their foreign affiliation. This greater institutional distance

gives the subsidiary more autonomy to design diversity training to fit the cultural and institutional contexts, with limited control from the parent company.

6.3.3 Competitive Pressure

As discussed in section 2.7.3, organisations adopt diversity training because they are subject to normative and mimetic forces (Scott 2001). Normative forces result in organisations adopting diversity training on the basis that it is best practice, thereby helping organisations to change. Mimetic forces result in organisations adopting diversity training because similar organisations have adopted such practices. These practices are assumed to be new, innovative, and effective because other organisations have implemented them. In the context of this study, five respondents indicated that, although the CSO was trying to copy other competitors in order to avoid uncertainty in the context of diversity training, this was not possible in the Saudi organisational context due to the limited diversity training implementation in the country. This finding supports Jamali *et al's* (2010) observation that the concept of diversity management is rarely emphasised in organisations operating in the Middle East. This study, therefore, suggests that organisations attempting to implement diversity training programmes in Saudi Arabia are less likely to copy local competitors.

6.3.4. Thinking Globally, Acting Locally

This thesis concurs that one of the key focuses of MNCs is being able to leverage diversity training policies and practices while maintaining organisation-wide consistency (Lauring 2013). This was evident in the design of the CSO's integration process in which there was limited information on how to design diversity training programmes. This study showed that even if managers at the subsidiary had no previous experience in designing diversity training, they could copy the general guidance and tailor the specific design elements (outlined in

Chapter 2) to fit the local cultural context. The CSO's blend of standardised and locally adapted practices seems to agree with the SHRM and cross-cultural arguments for conceptualising HR activities as internally differentiated, whereby a single practice, such as diversity training, is less applicable in a global context (Bae and Rowley 2001). The case-study evidence clearly supports the assertion that diversity training programmes are more prone to cultural and institutional influences (and hence adaptation) than diversity training at the global level (Sippola and Smale 2007).

6.4 Diversity Training in Practice

As can be seen from Chapters 2 and 5, an important aspect of diversity training design understands the national cultural and institutional contexts. Culture matters because it affects the context in which diversity training occurs and shapes the design features of diversity training programmes. It is important to understand how culture influences diversity training simply because, as Scott (1983, p.16) pointed out, "beliefs, norms, rules and understandings are not just out there but are carried by organizational members". It has been well established that national culture shapes the basic assumptions of organisational members. Therefore, key organisational decision makers who are socialised within a particular culture will hold specific views about the relevance and value of diversity training. These views will affect their choices of diversity training practices. National culture also influences the ways in which diversity training policies and practices function within a particular culture.

The institutional context determines how organisations approach diversity training given institutional variations. The literature has developed different frameworks to analyse how different national institutions can influence management practices. Cross-cultural perspectives assume that societies or countries vary in the types of institutions and approaches to diversity training, and those variations reflect different traditions, values,

attitudes, and experiences. This approach is not, however, without criticism, as national institutions can be highly elusive, and difficult to operationalise and measure.

The literature review in Chapter 2 largely discussed aspects that organisations need to consider in designing and implementing diversity training programmes. This section will discuss the same themes presented in Chapter 5, revealing how the current study challenges or supports the HRD and cross-cultural literature. This section is organised into the following subsections:

- Diversity training learning objectives
- Approach to diversity training utilised
- Nature of the needs identification process
- Participation and take-up requirement
- Diversity learning methods
- Selection of trainees

6.4.1 Diversity Training Learning Objectives

As discussed on section 2.8.6, the majority of organisations provide diversity training to enhance employees' awareness of diversity issues or cultural competencies (e.g Armour *et al.* 2004; Brathwaite 2005; Smith 2001). However, analysis of the articles included in the literature review revealed that most organisations do not go further than cultural awareness. In this study, although the findings revealed that the CSO implemented diversity training with a focus on awareness and some skills, the awareness focus was emphasised more by respondents than the skills or legal focus. This finding supports Fowler's (2006) proposition that organisations in collectivistic cultures (i.e. Saudi Arabia) are more likely to emphasise a diversity awareness focus. As Mor Barak (1998) argued, diversity training is largely

influenced by the organisational philosophy about what constitutes diversity. Most respondents believe that diversity needs and challenges vary across the global and within regions. According to Roberson *et al* (2003), organisations that introduce diversity training as a reaction to government pressure may be most likely to benefit from skills training with an awareness focus in order to avoid any negative and unlawful behaviour. Indeed, the findings indicated that diversity training was implemented at the CSO in response to legal pressure (e.g. localisation) and with the aim of changing employees' negative attitudes towards cultural difference.

In addition, the findings of this study reveal that diversity training was implemented to enhance gender and ethnic diversity. This concurs with Luring's (2013) finding that private organisations in Saudi Arabia, particularly MNCs, need to invest more in their diversity management programmes in order to enhance the intercultural adjustment of expatriate managers and local employees.

6.4.2 Approach to Diversity Training Utilised

According to section 2.8.7, the approach to diversity is an important aspect to consider when designing diversity training programmes. This approach can be either inclusive or group-specific. Roberson *et al* (2003) argued that many large organisations adopt an inclusive approach when designing diversity training programmes. In addition, the majority of studies reviewed in Chapter 2 showed that most organisations apply broad definitions of diversity when designing diversity training. This study, however, revealed that the inclusive approach to diversity was not applicable in the Saudi' subsidiary. Five managers indicated that the inclusive approach adopted in the home country failed to transfer to the host country due to cross-cultural and institutional differences. These findings are in agreement with Syed's

(2008) view that diversity training implemented in Western countries cannot be applied in Muslim countries due to socio-economic and cultural differences. In this study, most respondents (12) strongly believed that diversity training should suit the cultural context, and indicated that, in Saudi Arabia, this cultural context is mainly related to gender and ethnic differences. The study, therefore, proposes that the diversity approach in the Saudi cultural context is more likely to focus on a particular group, such as a gender or ethnicity, because the challenges associated with these groups are more unique to the Saudi workforce and demographic characteristics.

This study additionally extends our understanding of how organisations in Muslim country (i.e. Saudi Arabia) approach diversity. According to Holladay and Quiñones (2005), organisations in collectivistic cultures are more likely to emphasise inclusive approaches because the focus is on the benefit to the group. This study contradicts those findings, as most respondents indicated that the inclusive approach to diversity includes dimensions of diversity that are socially and legally not specific to the Saudi cultural context. Therefore, the inclusive approach to diversity is not always applicable in countries (e.g. Saudi Arabia) that are classified as high in collectivistic values.

6.4.3 Nature of the Needs Identification Process

As explained in section 2.9.1, most organisations that conduct diversity training do not pay enough attention to the training needs identification process. Many training programmes come about as a result of suggestions from managers or requests from employees. These sources are sub-optimal because the learning needs may not have been fully analysed. Needs identification, if systematically undertaken, helps to bring clarity to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that the diversity training should address. According to Roberson *et al* (2003, p.165)

“needs assessment can indeed help trainers and human resource practitioners resolve common controversies in training design, but it must be more broadly conceived than in the past”. Salas *et al* (2012, p.93) proposed that the needs analysis process should “differentiate between what trainers will need to know versus what they need to access”. Needs data will help training specialists to select the most appropriate training strategies for addressing these specific needs and producing the most important outcomes.

However, the analysis of the diversity training literature indicated that organisations rarely conduct systematic needs assessments prior to designing their diversity training. The findings of this study showed similar results. Almost all of the managers (14) agreed that needs assessment was not considered an important step prior to the implementation of diversity training. The findings of this study support the argument made by Selmer (2000) that, in highly collectivistic cultures, training needs assessments tend to be less formal and do not often follow task-based methods.

6.4.4 Participation and Take-up Requirements

As discussed in section 2.9.2, trainee attendance requirement is an important aspect of diversity training design, yet Kulik and Roberson (2008) noted that the issue of training attendance (mandatory vs. voluntary) has not been well considered in diversity training research. The literature outlined in Chapter 2 indicated that organisations often design their diversity training to be voluntary so as to eliminate any negative reactions that might emerge when employees are forced to attend the training and change their attitudes and behaviours. This study, however, generated different findings, suggesting rather that mandatory attendance was the only option to enhance the effectiveness of diversity training in the CSO.

Furthermore, in order for diversity training to be effective, organisations must account for cultural differences when designing training programmes, as cultural dimensions play an important role in the context, design, and outcomes of diversity training. Dimensions of national culture impact the ways in which trainees are selected for diversity training, e.g., mandatory versus voluntary attendance. In a cross-cultural study, Jaw *et al* (2007) found that Chinese employees are more motivated to attend mandatory training. This is because employees within high power distance cultures such as China place greater value on decisions that come from higher authorities. In this study, 12 managers stated that diversity training was mandatory, and almost all of them preferred it as such. Three interviewees explained that some managers had negative reactions towards attending the training, but agreed when asked by the CEO. In addition, five interviewees suggested that if diversity training were voluntary, few employees would be motivated to attend because they would consider the training to be less important. This finding is in line with Niehoff *et al* (2001) who found a positive relationship between mandatory attendance requirement and motivation to attend in high power distance cultures. Although Paluck (2006) and Kellough and Naff (2004) argued that mandatory training negatively affects employees' motivation to attend training and to learn, this thesis argues that the efficacy of mandatory training is influenced by the context of national culture, and employees with high power distance values will accept mandatory participation requirements for diversity training.

6.4.5 Diversity Learning Method

As outlined in section 2.9.5, diversity training is primarily delivered in formal rather than in on-the-job settings. These formal settings are not always the most appropriate in terms of enabling learning transfer, as formal courses may be viewed as ceremonial events rather than as intrinsically linked to a continuous learning culture. Most studies reviewed showed a

strong reliance on a formal method of delivery and limited use of technology to deliver diversity training (Hite and McDonald 2006). Doorenbos *et al* (2010) argued that e-learning, if effectively designed, can be highly effective in stimulating learning and contributing to the development of learning communities and communities of practice. In such communities of practice, employees engage in peer learning and secure support from colleagues to implement and experiment with new diversity skills. In this study, 14 interviewees who attended the e-diversity training had a positive reaction to this type of method, challenging Yamazaki's (2005) claim that only employees from individualistic cultures (i.e. UK) will prefer individual learning methods such as e-learning.

As discussed in section 2.9.6, Roberson *et al* (2001) proposed that organisations are no longer treating diversity training as a single short seminar. Instead, a number of organisations have been implementing diversity training as continuing education programs. The integration of diversity issues with other training practices, such as leadership training for management, is well developed in some organisations (Kormanik and Rajan 2010). In this study, however, 16 respondents indicated that the diversity training in the CSO was implemented as a one-shot course. In addition, almost all respondents explained that the diversity training was implemented as a stand-alone initiative. Some scholars have argued that it is fundamentally difficult to change people's behaviours and attitudes in a half-day training seminar (Curtis and Dreachslin 2008). Therefore, HRD practitioners have emphasised the need for multiple courses on diversity (Kormanik and Rajan 2010). Cox and Blake (1991) argued that, in order to achieve the desired goals of diversity training, organisations should include diversity training in their training programs and treat it as an ongoing education process. In this study, eight respondents concurred that, although one-short training is enough to enhance employees' awareness, it is not suitable for enhancing diversity skills over the long-term.

6.4.6 Selection of Trainees

This study also extends our understanding of the relationship between gender and diversity training needs in Saudi Arabia. The findings revealed that the male managers were considered to be less capable at interacting and communicating with dissimilar individuals. Almost all of the female interviewees believed that if male managers changed their attitudes, most of the diversity issues would vanish. Three male interviewees also agreed that the male managers should be the primary targets of diversity training. The findings of this study support Elamin and Omair's (2010) conclusion that male managers in Saudi Arabia still perceive themselves as more qualified for training and promotion than female managers. Elamin and Omair further suggested that Saudi men should attend more training to change their negative attitudes and behaviours in more diverse workplaces. Similarly, this study suggests that organisations in Saudi Arabia should select more male managers to attend diversity training than any other diverse group.

6.5 Contribution of Dissertation

6.5.1 Conceptual and Empirical Contribution

This thesis makes a number of conceptual and empirical contributions to the literature on diversity training. This study is the first synthesise of empirical studies analysed diversity training design in organisational settings. The review sought to enhance the understanding of the organisational setting, research focus, type of information provided, and methodological issues central to diversity training design research. Previous studies have attempted to understand some of these aspects separately; however, no study has attempted to capture multiple aspects in an overall framework. A number of trends emerged from this study: (1) relatively little diversity training research has emerged from an HRD perspective, (2) the majority of diversity training literature has focused on the public sector, (3) organisations

have utilised a wide range of methods to deliver diversity training to employees, (4) methodologically, studies have suffered from significant limitations, including small sample sizes, overreliance on quantitative methods, and little use of qualitative or longitudinal designs, and (5) the majority of diversity training literature has emerged in Western cultural contexts, giving their findings limited applicability to non-Western cultural contexts.

In order to fill this gap, I reviewed 61 articles on diversity training design implemented in the organisational settings from an HRD perspective. To achieve this, I integrated ideas from recent scholars in the HRD field and analysed each article in order to determine the gaps in the current literature and to offer suggestions for future research. This review revealed that the literature on diversity training design is fragmented, and lacks theoretical underpinning and diversity in terms of its publication outlets.

Second, I attempted to qualitatively examine the effects of external and internal factors on diversity training design. Previous literature on diversity training design has largely focused on quantitative methods (e.g., self-report questionnaires). The qualitative approach utilised in this study allowed me to develop a deep understanding of how multiple factors can affect diversity training design. Particularly, understanding organisation's rationale for adopting and implementing diversity training was a crucial aspect to consider in the design process.

Third, this study attempted to fill the gaps in the diversity training literature by drawing on an MNC operating in Saudi Arabia. As discussed in Chapter 2, almost all diversity training literature has emerged in Western contexts. This study is the first to analyse diversity training programmes implemented in a non-Western cultural context. In addition, the majority of diversity training studies have not been conducted in private-sector business settings, but rather in public-sector organisations. In this thesis, I attempted to provide a deep understanding of how the national context can influence and shape diversity training

programmes. The findings of this study support the argument that diversity training is culturally specific and that organisations must consider the cultural context of the countries in which they operate. This is an important step, as national culture could directly influence diversity training design.

6.5.2 Practical Contribution

As well as the conceptual and empirical contributions of this thesis, there is also a practical contribution. The present study adds to extant literature on diversity training on MNCs by analysing factors influence the transfer of diversity training programmes from a home country to a host county. A critical implication is that the direct transportation of diversity training programmes from a Western MNC to a subsidiary in Saudi Arabia is not possible. Although previous studies (e.g., Luring, 2013) have reported that the majority of diversity management programmes implemented in Western societies cannot be transferred to non-Western countries, the present dissertation deepens our understanding into why these programmes are difficult to implement. These insights are helpful for government actors and organisational decision-makers as they locate the right diversity practices that are appropriate for the local culture.

In addition, this research also has practical implications for managers. International managers must comply with legal requirements in order to have continued access to valuable resources and to ensure the long-term survival of their firms (Chao and Kumar 2010; Xu and Shenkar 2002). When there is high institutional distance between the home and host countries, it is often most effective for managers to adapt to the local legal requirements of the host country and to promote approaches to diversity that complement local cultures and norms. Headquarters should strive to avoid the risk of misunderstanding locally embedded

conditions by allowing the manager operating in the host country to design the diversity training programmes (subsequently supervised by the headquarters).

6.6 Limitations

Despite the important findings of this study, there are several limitations that should be highlighted. First, there are a number of difficulties associated with undertaking research on MNCs and on the cross-cultural dimensions of diversity. These difficulties include access to organisations and the availability of key managers in the data collection process. Second, the study relies on only one British MNC operating in Saudi Arabia. Although a single case has enabled me to develop a deep understanding of the influence of national institutions on diversity training, the results of this study may not be generalisable to other MNCs operating in Saudi Arabia under different conditions in terms of size, type of industry, and relationship to the parent company. In terms of data collection, I was unable to interview some key people, such as the Saudi Minister of Labour and the CEO of the CSO, which might have provided some interesting insights. Being able to interview key individuals for research purposes has been identified as a major obstacle in the Middle East (Clark 2006; Karam and Afiouni 2013). However, I was able to interview the direct assistants and/or advisors of these key individuals. Consequently, the respondents represented the most influential actors in both groups. In addition, I was unable to conduct more interviews with female executives and leaders because of cultural barriers. I was unable to reach female employees directly or access their contact details because they were located in isolated offices where access for men was prohibited. Nevertheless, despite all of these limitations, this study has revealed interesting and reliable findings.

6.7 Future Research

This research has extended our understanding of the factors that influence MNCs operating in Saudi Arabia to introduce diversity training programmes and how those factors may influence diversity training design. The findings of this study showed that localisation was an important force that justified the MNC's rationale to adopt diversity training, as indicated by most participants. Further research may assist in examining the relationship between localisation policies and diversity training outcomes at the individual, group, and organisational levels.

Further research should extend this study to include other private organisations (e.g., family organisation, SMEs, and MNCs) in Saudi Arabia in order to see whether or not the introduction of localisation policies has influenced their diversity management practices, and whether or not diversity training design has been shaped by the localisation policies. Future research should also consider how the localisation policies influence diversity training practices that include a bundle of individual and group-focused training and development practices, and address individual, team, and organisational needs. Other diversity training practices may include coaching, mentoring, personal development planning, team development workshops, and organisational development interventions focused on diversity issues.

Although a lot of HRD and diversity research exists, there have been very few studies conducted from a global perspective, particularly in Middle East countries (Achoui 2009; Luring 2013; Nishii and Özbilgin 2007). Although there is a growing amount of research on diversity in the Middle East, most of the research output has concentrated on the United Arab Emirates (e.g., Alserhan *et al.* 2009; Forstenlechner *et al.* 2012; Goby *et al.* 2015; Yaghi and Yaghi 2013). Nishii and Özbilgin (2007) argued that the lack of theoretical and empirical knowledge on diversity in Middle East countries makes it very difficult to inform Western managers on how best to design and implement diversity management practices, including

diversity training programmes. Therefore, there is also a call to explore more case study organisations from Middle East countries. This in turn will allow us to better understand how external and internal factors influence diversity training programmes in the organisational context.

Future research may also consider focusing in depth on the context of diversity training programmes (i.e. moving from cultural awareness and cultural competence to facilitating mental models and behaviour changes). In other words, future studies should focus on understanding how the content of diversity training programmes and how it is delivered (i.e. through different learning interventions) create the possibilities for more effective design and ultimately more effective outcomes for the training.

6.8 Summary

Within the HRD and cross-cultural literature, few studies have focused on diversity training programmes in international MNCs (e.g. Ellis and Sonnenfield 1994; Ely 2004; Hanover and Cellar 1998). To address this gap, this study sought to contribute to the current literature by analysing how external and internal pressures in Saudi Arabia shape MNCs' adoption and design of diversity training programmes. The findings of this study show that international diversity training programmes differ from domestic diversity training programmes mainly due to the different rationales for the introduction of the programmes. Those different rationales directly affect various elements in diversity training design, and in turn impact the outcomes. MNCs that operate in Saudi Arabia need to consider institutional and cultural differences prior to implementing diversity training programmes. This study was designed to alert both researchers and practitioners to some of the issues that need to be addressed and to make a stronger case for the value of diversity training in organisations. The rationale for conducting this research was as follows.

First, I attempted to fill a research gap by considering the effects of the national context on the implementation and design of diversity training in organisations operating in Saudi Arabia. Whether studies have been about a single country or cross-national comparison, most extant studies have been confined to European countries and the United States. Accordingly, little is known about the situation in non-Western countries. In other advanced and globalised economies, the developmental paths of politics and welfare as well as the cultural values of learning have given rise to different sets of institutional arrangements for employment relations. These arrangements in turn affect diversity training provision by employers.

Second, increased globalisation has made the understanding of the influence of cultural dimensions on diversity training paramount. Yet, most theoretical and empirical work has adopted a national focus or assumed that universal approaches to diversity training exist. This study has built on prior research on national culture, providing new insights into the cross-cultural generalisation of the four characteristics of diversity training.

Finally, it is very important to note that this study did not explore the diversity training outcomes at the CSO. This is because measuring performance at the firm-level is very complex. In addition, the measurement of diversity training outcomes has been methodologically deficient. Studies to date have utilised different types of outcomes (Wang and Wilcox 2006) and measured them in different ways. Few studies have utilised objective measures of outcomes. Although researchers have attempted to provide a number of models for measuring outcomes (Schippers *et al.* 2003), there is a need for more effective metrics and additional tools with which HRD academics and practitioners can examine both the tangible and intangible returns of diversity management practices. Guest (2011) suggested that longitudinal studies can improve the understanding of the relationship between individual and organisational outcomes.

For more discussion on the issues related to diversity training outcomes, please refer to my first publication in the Human Resource Development Quarterly (HRDQ) journal, entitled “Diversity training outcomes: A systematic review”.

Aspects of Personal Learning

The PhD journey has been a very interesting and challenging experience. The journey began with a small idea that turned into a major contribution to the literature as well as to management practices. When I started my PhD, I thought that my supervisor would give me the ‘recipe for success’; however, I have learned that a PhD is not always a straightforward process. I have learned how to challenge my own thinking, my abilities, and my overall learning process. During these past four years, I have worked very hard to produce work that can add valuable insight to the existing knowledge on diversity training. This journey has also fostered my conceptual, methodological, and skills development. Some of these lessons are presented in the following section.

Conceptual Learning

Initially, I planned to build and develop my PhD as an article-based PhD, publishing three academic papers in ISI-ranked journals. Given the timeframe, however, I decided to construct my PhD using the traditional route, while simultaneously working on my publications. As such, the first two years of my PhD were focused on developing three academic papers for publication. To date, I have successfully published one paper in the HRDQ journal and two other papers are under review. These three papers make a number of theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions to the existing knowledge on diversity training.

My first paper gave me the opportunity to learn how to conduct a systematic literature review. At the same time, it enabled me to identify major gaps in the literature and provided

directions for future research. The paper suggested a number of future theoretical, methodological, and content developments.

My second paper broadened the conception of diversity training practices to include job-based, relationship-based, individual, team, and organisational-level interventions. I drew on theoretical, empirical, and practitioner literatures to identify gaps and propose issues that organisations should consider to enhance the effectiveness of their diversity training practices.

My third paper integrated the national culture and diversity training literature, and explored the influence of individualism–collectivism and power distance on four dimensions of diversity training design: (1) context of diversity training; (2) design considerations; (3) trainer/trainee behaviour; and (4) evaluation. I made a number of propositions informing both research and practice.

I also drafted an empirical paper exploring the influence of the institutional distance between home and host countries on equality policies and practices. In doing so, I, along with my co-supervisors, adopted a case study of a British MNC operating in Saudi Arabia and investigated how the distances in formal and informal institutions, as well as the HR system, influenced approaches to gender equality.

Methodological Learning

The process of collecting and analysing a large set of qualitative data from a large MNC in Saudi Arabia was another learning experience that challenged my overall skills and abilities to deal with sensitive data. The processes of ethical consideration, and sampling and contacting managers and institutional actors were challenging. I have learned that gaining access to a good case study and being able to gather as much information as possible are not

easy tasks. For example, since ‘diversity’ is a sensitive area, I needed to be able to build trust, confidentiality, and honesty. I feel that I now have more confidence and experience to conduct further research in the areas of diversity and diversity training.

Selecting the proper methodological approach for analysing my data was also a challenging and difficult task. I had to read a large number of books and journal articles on research methods and consult with experts in data analysis. In order to effectively analyse my data and to enhance my qualitative skills, I attended the Essex Summer School in Social Science Data Analysis for two weeks. This experience significantly enhanced my capacity to understand and assess qualitative data. Those two weeks provided me with substantial information on how to transcribe and interpret this type of data by applying various methods to textual and interview data. In addition, I have attended a number of training courses at the University of Limerick to enhance my qualitative skills.

Skills Development

Throughout my PhD life, I have also learned crucial skills, such as time management and how to remain consistent and focused. I have also learned how to extend my academic networks through participating in well-respected academic conferences and meetings. Being able to more deeply understand my areas of interest and make connections with those who share similar interests was a remarkable achievement. I feel that I am ready to enter the academic world as an active and valuable person.

In addition, I have also enhanced my teaching and presentation skills. I have successfully taught a variety of topics to both undergraduate and postgraduate students, including human resource management, human resource development, managing workplace diversity, cross-cultural work, and organisational behaviour. These various modules have given me the opportunity to broaden my knowledge on different aspects of HRM and related disciplines,

and to develop my teaching skills. My teaching style incorporates multiple methodologies, stimulates discussion, encourages students to contribute, and is sensitive to students' level of knowledge and experience. I have also learned how to use some technological tools to create learning opportunities, provide prompt feedback, and improve student engagement with content material. I have participated in developing a number of modules for undergraduate and graduate students.

Professional Training

- Research methodology
- Qualitative data analysis
- Introduction to NVivo
- Analysing Data with NVivo
- Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using MPlus
- Advanced MPlus Course
- EndNote
- Questionnaire Design
- Working with Long Documents
- Introduction to SPSS
- Intercultural Awareness Training
- Journal Citation Reports and Scopus

Publications

Journal Articles

Alhejji, H, Garavan, T, Carbery, R, O'Brien, F and McGuire, D (2015) 'Diversity training programme outcomes: a systematic review', *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. DOI: 10.1002/hrdq.21221

Alhejji, H., Ng, E. and Garavan, T. (2015) 'The impact of formal and informal distance on gender equality approaches: the case of a British MNC in Saudi Arabia', *Thunderbird International Business Review* (revised and re-submit).

Alhejji, H. Garavan, T, Carbery, R. 'Understanding diversity training through the lens of individualism-collectivism and power distance: country and individual level perspectives' *Personnel Review* (revised and re-submit).

Alhejji, H. Garavan, T, Carbery, R and McGuire, D. 'Diversity training practices in organisations: leveraging theory to enhance effectiveness', *Human Resource Development Review* (under review).

Book Chapters

Alhejji, H, Garavan, T (2015). 'Human Resources in North Africa', in Garavan, T, McCarthy, A and Morley, M, *Global Human Resource Development: Regional and Country Perspectives*, Routledge (In press)

Alhejji, H, Garavan, T (2015). 'Human Resources in Middle East', in Garavan, T, McCarthy, A and Morley, M, *Global Human Resource Development: Regional and Country Perspectives*, Routledge (In press)

McGuire, D, Dusoye, I, Garavan, T, Alhejji, H, 'Talent development in the United Kingdom', in Dirani, K, *Global Issues and Talent Development* (forthcoming)

Refereed Conference Papers

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2014) 'Institutional theory and diversity management practices: the case of an MNC subsidiary in Saudi Arabia', 6th Equality, Diversity and Inclusion International Conference, 8-10 June 2014, Munich, Technische University.

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2014) 'Diversity management practices: a single case of a UK owned MNC in Saudi Arabia', 15th International Conference on Human Resources Development Research and Practice Across Europe, 4-6 June 2014, Edinburgh, Edinburgh Napier University.

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2013) 'Diversity training: an integrated model of diversity training design', UFHRD Conference, 5-7 June 2013, London, Brighton Business School, University of Brighton.

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2012) 'The influence of cross cultural differences on the design of diversity training practices', The 6th Saudi Scientific International Conference (SIC), 11-13 October 2012, London, Brunel University.

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2012) 'The influence of cross-cultural differences on the design of diversity training programs', 5th Equality, Diversity and Inclusion International Conference, 23-25 July 2012, Toulouse, Toulouse Business School.

Alhejji, H., & Garavan, T. (2012) 'Studying diversity training: insights form institutional and national business system perspectives', The 11th World Congress of the International Federation of Scholarly Associations of Management, 26-29 June 2012, Limerick, Ireland, Kemmy Business School.

Stream Proposal

Alhejji, H., Klarsfeld, A., & Ng, E. (2014) 'Diversity policies and practice: Cross cultural and comparative perspectives', 7th Equality, Diversity and Inclusion International Conference, 8-10 June 2014, Munich.

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Appendix A

Table 14 Summary of Studies on Diversity Training

Author(s)	Year	Journal	Journal Categorisation	Country of Authors	Country where Data Collected	Type of organization	Type of Training
Abernethy	2005	Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development	Social Science	US	US	Public	Cultural proficiency
Armour, Rubio and Bain	2004	Journal of Social Work Education	Social Science	US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Bailey, Barr and Bunting	2001	Journal of Intellectual Disability Research	Social Science	UK, UK, UK	UK	Public	Disabilities
Bassey and Melliush	2012	Counselling Psychology Quarterly	Psychology	UK, UK	UK	Public	Cultural competence
Case (1) Bendick, Egan and Lofhjelm	2001	Human Resource Planning	Management	US, US, US	US	Manufacturing	Cultural diversity
Case (2) Bendick, Egan and Lofhjelm	2001	Human Resource Planning	Management	US, US, US	US	Family-owned	Anti-discrimination

Bennett (2013)	2013	International Journal of Culture and Mental Health	Social Science	Jamaica	Jamaica	Public	Cultural competence
Berlin, Nilsson and Törnkvist	2010	Nursing & Health Sciences	Medical	Sweden, Sweden, Sweden	Sweden	Public	Cultural competence
Brathwaite	2005	Journal of Transcultural Nursing	Medical	Canada	Canada	Public	Cultural diversity
Burch	2008	Physical therapy	Medical	US	US	Public	LGBT
Carr and Seto	2013	International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring	Management	Canada, Canada	Canada	Public	Cultural awareness
Celik, Abma, Klinge and Widdershoven	2012	Evaluation and Program Planning	Management	Netherlands, Netherlands, Netherlands, Netherlands	Netherlands	Public	Diversity sensitivity training
Chevannes	2002	Journal of Advanced Nursing	Medical	UK	UK	Public	Ethnic minority

Combs and Luthans	2007	Human Resource Development Quarterly	HRD	US, US	US	Medium-sized & public	Cultural diversity
Cornett-DeVito and McGlone	2000	Criminal Justice Policy Review	Social Science	US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Costello, Bouras and Davis	2007	Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities	Social Science	UK, UK, UK	UK	Public	Mental health
Cunningham	2012	Journal of Sport Management	Management	US	US	Public	Legal understanding and cultural awareness
De Meuse, Hostager and O'Neill	2007	Human Resource Planning	HRM	US, US, US	US	Manufacturing	Cultural diversity
Doorenbos, Lindhorst, Schim, Schaik, Demiris, Wechkin and Curtis	2010	Journal of Social Work in End-Of-Life & Palliative Care	Sociology	US, US, US, US, US, US, US,	US	Public	Cross-cultural communication
Downing and Kowal	2011	Contemporary Nurse: A Journal for the Australian Nursing Profession	Medical	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Indigenous cultural training

Dugmore and Cocker	2008	Social Work Education	Social Science	UK, UK	UK	Public	Lesbian and Gay
<i>Case (1)</i> Ellis and Sonnenfeld	1994	Human Resource Management	Management	US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
<i>Case (2)</i> Ellis and Sonnenfeld	1994	Human Resource Management	Management	US, US	US	MNC	Race & gender
<i>Case (3)</i> Ellis and Sonnenfeld	1994	Human Resource Management	Management	US, US	US	Family-owned	Cross-cultural training
Ely	2004	Journal of Organizational Behavior	HRM	US	US	MNC	Cultural diversity
Ferguson, Keller, Haley and Quirk	2003	Academic Medicine: Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges	Medical	US, US, US, US	US	Mixed public	Culture

Flavin	1997	The American Journal of Hospice & Palliative Medicine	Medical	US	US	Public	Race, LGBT
Gany and Bocanegra	1996	Patient Education and Counseling	Social Science	US, US	US	Public	Diversity sensitivity training & communication skills
Gendron, Maddux, Krinsky, White, Lockeman, Metcalfe and Aggarwal	2013	Educational Gerontology	Social Science	US, US, US, US, US, US, US,	US	Public	LGBT
Hanover and Cellar	1998	Human Resource Development Quarterly	HRD	US, US	US	MNC	Cultural diversity
Study (1) Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald	2010	Military Psychology	Psychology	US, US, US	US	SMEs	None given
Study (2) Hauenstein, Findlay and McDonald	2010	Military Psychology	Psychology	US, US, US	US	SMEs	None given
Hayes, Bissett, Roget, Padilla, Kohlenberg, Fisher, Masuda, Pistorello, Rye Berry and Niccolls	2004	Behaviour Therapy	Psychology	US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US	US	Public	Age, race, religion, LGBT, ethnicity, gender

Hill and Augoustinos	2001	Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology	Psychology	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Ethnicity
Hite and McDonald	2006	Human Resource Development International	HRD	US, US	US	SMEs	Cultural diversity
Holladay and Quiñones	2005	Human Resource Development Quarterly	HRD	US, US	US	MNC	Cultural diversity
Israel, Harkness, Delucio, Ledbetter and Avellar	2013	Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology	Psychology	US, US, US, US, US	US	Public	Training on LGBTQ
Jain	2013	Journal of cultural diversity	Management	US	US	Public	Intercultural sensitivity
Johnstone and Kanitsaki	2007	Journal of Transcultural Nursing	Medical	Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Cultural safety
Juarez, Marvel, Brezinski, Glazner, Towbin and Lawton	2006	Residency Education	Social Science	US, US, US, US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Khanna, Cheyney and Engle	2009	Journal of the National Medical Association	Medical	US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural competence

Study (1) Kulik, Pepper, Roberson and Parker	2007	Journal of Organizational Behavior	HRM	Australia, US, US, UK	UK	Public	Gender
Study (2) Kulik, Pepper, Roberson and Parker	2007	Journal of Organizational Behavior	HRM	Australia, US, US, UK	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Lee, Anderson and Hill	2006	Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing	Medical	US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural sensitivity
Majumdar, Browne, Roberrs and Carpio	2004	Journal of Nursing Scholarship	Medical	Canada, Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	Public	Diversity sensitivity training
McDougle, Ukockis and Adamshick	2010	Journal of the National Medical association	Medical	Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	public	Cultural competence
Mooney, Bauman, Westwood, Kelaher, Tibben and Jalaludi	2005	Aboriginal and Islander Health Worker Journal	Social Science	Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia, Australia	Australia	Public	Aboriginal cultural awareness
Motsoaledi and Cilliers	2012	South African Journal of Industrial Psychology	Psychology	South Africa, South Africa	South Africa	Not for profit	Cultural diversity

Paez, Allen, Carson and Coope	2008	Social Science & Medicine	Medical	US, US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural competence
Pfund, House, Spencer, Asquith, Carney, Masters, McGee, Shanedling, Vecchiarelli and Fleming	2009	Clinical and Translational Science	Medical	US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US, US	US	Mixed public	Mentor training curriculum (communication, cultural awareness & professional development)
Psalti	2007	School Psychology International	Psychology	Greece	Greece	Public	Cultural awareness
Reynolds, Imran and Stacey	2014	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Management	US, US, US	US	Mixed Private	Cultural diversity
Reynolds	2010	Activities, Adaptation & Aging	Medical	US	US	Public	Age, disabilities
Roberson, Kulik and Pepper	2001	Journal of Organizational Behavior	HRM	US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity

Sanchez and Medkik	2004	Group & Organization Management	Management	US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Schim, Doorenbos and Borse	2005	Journal of Nursing Scholarship	Medical	US, US, US	US	Mixed Public	Cultural competence
Schim, Doorenbos and Borse	2006	American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine	Medical	US, US, US	US	Not for profit	Cultural diversity, awareness, sensitivity, competence
Smith and Bahr	2014	Professional Development in Education	Education	US, US	US	Public	Cultural competence
Stanhope, Solomon, Finley, Pernell-Arnold, Bourjolly and Sands	2008	American Journal of Psychiatric Rehabilitation	Medical	US, US, US, US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural diversity
Thomas and Cohn	2006	Journal of Advanced Nursing	Medical	UK, UK	UK	Public	Race, culture, religion
Tsiantis, Diareme, Dimitrakaki, Kolaitis, Flios, Christogiorgos, Weber, Salvador-	2004	Journal of Learning Disabilities	Social Science	Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Greece, Austria,	Greece	Public	Disability

Carulla, Hillery and Costello					Spain, Ireland, UK			
Vogt, Barry and King	2008	Journal of Health Psychology	Psychology	US, US, US	US	Two Public facilities	Gender awareness	
Webb and Sergison	2003	Archives of disease in childhood	Medical	UK, UK	UK	Public	Cultural competence & antiracism	
Williams	2005	Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in Social Work	Social Science	Canada	Canada	Not for profit	Cultural diversity	
Wilson, Sanner and McAllister	2010	Journal of cultural diversity	Social Science	US, US, US	US	Public	Cultural competence	
Yap, Holmes, Hannan and Cukier	2010	European Journal of Training and Development	HRD	Canada, Canada, Canada, Canada	Canada	Private	Cultural diversity	

Table 15 Design Features and Trainee/Trainer Characteristics

Dimensions of Diversity Training Programmes							Trainee/Trainer Characteristics				
Author(s)	Nature of Needs Identification Process	Nature of Learning Objective	Approach to Diversity Utilised	Location of Training	Program me Duration	Learning methods	Occupational Background of Trainees	Gender	Ethnicity	Averag e age	Trainer Background
Abernethy (2005)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	20 hours	Blended learning strategy	Mental health managers	21 females, 10 males	27 White, 3 African American, 1 none given	42	External/Internal (mixed)
Armour et al. (2004)	Nominated by organisation	Awareness about diversity	Inclusive	Off-the-job	18 hours	Blended learning strategy	Field instructors	8 females, 3 males	8 White, 3 Hispanic	41	Professionals (external)
Bailey et al. (2001)	Request by employee	Disability awareness training	Group specific	On-the-job	None given	Simulation exercise	Police officers	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Bassey and Melluish, (2012)	None given	Cultural awareness, knowledge and skills	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Psychological therapists	None given	None given	None given	None given
Bendick et al. (2001)- Case 1	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	None given	Two-days	Lecture based	All employees at manufacture Co	None given	Mixed	None given	Internal
Bendick et al. (2001)- Case 2	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	One-day	Blended learning strategy	All restaurant managers and employees	None given	None given	None given	Internal

Bennett (2013)	Request by employee	knowledge and skills	Group specific	Off-the-job	None given	None given	Mental health professionals	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Berlin et al b (2010)	Randomly selected	Cultural awareness, knowledge and skills	Inclusive	Off-the-job	3 days	Lecture and group discussion	Child health nurse	None given	41 Sweden, 4 Hungary, 1 Europe, 1 Middle East	None given	external
Brathwaite (2005)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	2-hour session over 5 weeks	Lecture based	Nurses	75 females, one male	None given	41	Professionals (external)
Burch (2008)	None given	Knowledge, attitude and self-efficacy towards LGBT patients	Group specific	None given	None given	Videotape	Health care providers	362 females, 40 males	273 white, 70 black, 53 Asian, 6 Hispanic	None given	external
Carr and Seto (2013)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness and skills	Inclusive	On-the-job	1.5 hour	Blended learning strategy	14 internal coaches	13 females, one male	One aboriginal women, one minority women and one gay	32-58	Three lead coaches (internal)
Celik et al. (2012)	Nominated by manager	Diversity sensitivity training	Inclusive	Off-the-job	16 hours	Blended learning strategy	Nurses	18 females, 13 males	None given	25-60	Professionals (external)
Chevannes (2002)	Request by employee	Develop Knowledge, skills and attitudes towards ethnic minorities	Group specific	Off-the-job	10- week	Lectures and discussion	Health professionals	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external) & community workers (internal)

Combs and Luthans (2007)	Availability	Diversity self-efficacy	Inclusive	Off-the-job	6 hours	Blended learning strategy	Mixed employees (government, insurance, manufacturing)	157 males, 119 females	93 % white, 7 % racial/ethnic minorities	None given	Professionals (external)
Cornett-DeVito and McGlone (2000)	Nominated by organisation	Multicultural communication training	Inclusive	Off-the-job	8 hours	Blended learning strategy	Police officers	None given	None given	None given	None given
Costello et al. (2007)	Nominated by organisation	Awareness of mental health issues	Group specific	Off-the-job	49 hours	Lecture based	Community care staff	77 females, 54 males	None given	37.5	Professionals (external)
Cunningham (2012)	None given	Cultural sensitivity and awareness	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Senior level administrator, athletic directors	None given	None given	None given	None given
De Meuse et al (2007)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	1.5 day	Blended learning strategy	Managers at a manufacturing company	50 males, 7 females	None given	None given	White woman and a black man (external)
Doorenbos et al. (2010)	Announcement by the medical director at meetings	Multicultural communication training	Group specific	On-the-job	3 hours	Online delivery	Hospice providers	None given	19 White, 1 African American, 1 Asian, 1 Hispanic	42	Professionals (external)
Downing and Kowal (2010)	Request by employee	Attitude towards Indigenous cultural	Group specific	None given	None given	None given	Nurses	6 female	Non-indigenous workers	None given	None given

Dugmore and Cocker (2008)	None given	Awareness of gay and lesbian issues	Group specific	Off-the-job	One day	Blended learning strategy	Social workers	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external gay/lesbian)
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)- Case 1	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Group specific	None given	One-day	Lecture based	Managers at national transportation systems	None given	None given	None given	Internal
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)- Case 2	Request by employee	Cultural awareness	Group specific	Off-the-job	Two-days	Lecture based	Employees at Computer Co.	None given	None given	None given	Internal
Ellis and Sonnenfled (1994)- Case 3	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	None given	Lecture based	Managers at communications Co.	None given	None given	None given	Internal
Ely (2004)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	None given	Varies by training type	Blended learning strategy	Managers and employees at financial service	None given	None given	None given	None given
Ferguson et al. (2003)	Nominated by manager	Cultural awareness	Group specific	Off-the-job	10 hours	Blended learning strategy	Family physicians, pediatricians, internists	83 females, 54 males	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Flavin (1997)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Group specific	Off-the-job	2 sessions	Blended learning strategy	Hospice nurses	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)

Gany and de Bocanegra (1996)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, skills building	Group specific	Off-the-job	Five-session	Blended learning strategy	Maternity infant care centre employees (clerical, nurses, doctors)	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Gendron et al. (2013)	staff member working with older adult	Awareness of LGBT	Group specific	Off-the-job	2 hours	Blended learning strategy	Health professionals	123 female, 26 male	73 Caucasian, 76 African American, 4 Asian, 1 Latino, 4 Other	44	Professionals (external)
Hanover and Cellar (1998)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	Four module	Blended learning strategy	Research and engineering managers	95% males	95% White, 5% people of color	None given	Professionals (external)
Hauenstein et al (2010, study 1)	Request by employee	Not specified	None given	On-the-job	16 weeks	Online delivery	Military equal-opportunity advisors	30 males, 16 females	22 African American, 16 Caucasians, 6 Hispanic American, 1 American, 1 other	None given	None given
Hauenstein et al (2010, study 2)	Request by employee	Not specified	None given	On-the-job	16 weeks	Online delivery	Military equal-opportunity advisors	40 males, 15 females	32 African American, 16 Caucasians, 2 multiracial, 1 Asian American, 4 other	None given	None given
Hayes et al. (2004)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, cultural competence	Inclusive	Off-the-job	6 hours	Blended learning strategy	Substance abuse counsellors	56 females, 34 males	84% Caucasian	53	Professionals (external)
Hill and Augoustinos (2001)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness, knowledge change	Group specific	Off-the-job	3 days	Blended learning strategy	Judiciary and court employees	39 females, 23 males	None given	41.9	One women and two men (Aboriginal employees)

Hite and MacDonald (2006)	Varies by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Varies by organisation	Varies by organisation	Varies by organisation	Varies by organisation	8 females, 3 males	None given	None given	Varies by organisation
Holladay and Quiñones (2005)	Not specified	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	One day	Lecture based	Managers & non managers	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Israel et al. (2013)	None given	Cultural awareness	Group specific	Off-the-job	5 hours	None given	Policy officer	88 male, 32 female	63% White, 16% Hispanic, 2.5% African American, 2.5% Asian	41	Professionals (external)
Jain (2013)	None given	Cultural sensitivity	Inclusive	Off-the-job	None given	Blended learning strategy	Health care providers	None given	9 Caucasian	23-76	Professionals (external)
Johnstone and Kanitsaki (2007)	None given	Cultural knowledge and perceptions	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Health care providers	None given	None given	None given	None given
Juarez et al. (2006)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	36 hours	Blended learning strategy	Family physicians	None given	None given	None given	Internal
Khanna et al (2009)	Request by employee	Cultural knowledge and skills	Inclusive	Off-the-job	4 hours	Lecture based	Health care providers, administrators and managers	32 females, 11 males	39 Euro American, 2 Hispanic, 1 African American, 1 Asian	None given	Professionals (external)
Kulik et al. (2007, study 1)	Not specified	Equal opportunity training	Group specific	None given	None given	None given	Police officers	None given	None given	None given	Internal

Kulik et al. (2007, study 2)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	4 hours	Blended learning strategy	Graduate research assistants	None given	None given	None given	Internal
Lee et al. (2006)	Not specified	Diversity sensitivity training	Group specific	Off-the-job	3 hours	Blended learning strategy	Nurses	7 females	White	None given	Professionals (external)
Majumdar et al. (2004)	Nominated by organisation	Diversity sensitivity training	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Health care provider	72 females, 42 males	The majority Canadian	41	External & internal
McDougle et al (2010)	None given	Cultural awareness, knowledge and attitude	Inclusive	Off-the-job	3 hours	Lecture and exercises	Health care providers, HR staff and administrators	281 females, 56 males, 42 did not answer	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Mooney et al. (2005)	None given	Cultural knowledge and attitude	Group specific	Off-the-job	Half-day	Blended learning strategy	Health professionals	63 females, 21 males	None given	<40	Aboriginal trainer
Motsoaledi and Cilliers (2012)	Invited participants based on their coaching experience	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	On-the-job	10 months	Coaching	Executive from three states departments	3 females, 3 males	3 black, 2 white, 1 coloured man	None given	Professionals (external)
Paez et al (2008)	Invited by letter	Measure the relationship between cultural competence and work location	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Health care providers	30 females, 19 males	24 White, 10 Black, 9 Asian, 5 East Indian, 1 Hispanic	44	None given

Pfund et al (2013)	Invited based on their relevance to the study	Cultural awareness and behaviour	Inclusive	On-the-job	8 hours	Mentoring	Faculty at academic institutions	93 males, 51 females	94% White, 2% Asian Indian, 1% African American, 2% Chinese, 1% Japanese, 1% Korean, 8% Hispanic	50	Internal
Psalti (2007)	None given	Cultural awareness, knowledge and skills	Inclusive	Off-the-job	48 hours	Lecture and activities	Teachers	41 females, 29 males	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Reynolds et al. (2014)	None given	None given	Inclusive	None given	None given	None given	Hotel managers	135 males, 99 females	191 White, 51 non-White	None given	None given
Reynolds (2010)	Nominated by organisation	Disability awareness training	Group specific	Off-the-job	4.5 hours	Blended learning strategy	Taxi drivers	None given	None given	None given	None given
Roberson et al. (2001)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	4 hours	Blended learning strategy	Teaching assistants	68 males, 30 females	19.4% Non-White, 18.4% Non-North American	None given	Professionals (external)
Sanchez and Medkik (2004)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	Full day	Blended learning strategy	County government supervisors and managers	82 males, 40 females	50 homogeneous, 48 heterogeneous	41-50	Professional (external)
Schim et al. (2005)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness	Inclusive	Off-the-job	None given	Blended learning strategy	Health care providers	None given	118 White, 3 Latino, 8 African American, 7 Asian 9 Other	40	Professional (external)
Schim et al. (2006)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, skills building	Group specific	Off-the-job	One hours	Lecture based	Hospice staff	None given	102 White, 25 African American, 2 American Indian, 1 Hispanic	47.8	Professional (external)

Smith and Bahr (2014)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, knowledge, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	8 hours	Blended learning strategy	School mental health professionals	81% female, 19% male	58% White, 37% African American, 1% multiracial, 1% Asian Americans	None given	Professionals (external+ internal)
Stanhope et al. (2008)	None given	Cultural competence	Inclusive	Off-the-job	18 sessions over nine-month	None given	Health care providers	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Thomas and Cohn (2006)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, knowledge, skills building	Inclusive	Off-the-job	3 days	Blended learning strategy	Healthcare professionals	44 females, 3 males	24 White, 6 Black Caribbean, 5 Black African, 1 Asian, 1 Irish, 10 other	20-50	Internal
Tummala–Narra et al. (2012)	None given	Self-perceived cultural competence	Inclusive	None given	None given	Course work discussions in supervision, and workshops/seminars	Clinicians	147 females, 49 males	64.3 % White, 8.7% African-American, 10.7% Latino, 4.1% Asian, 2.6% Asian-Indian, 4.6% Jewish, 1% Middle Eastern, 4.1% biracial	None given	None given
Tsiantis et al. (2004)	Nominated by organisation	Cultural awareness training	Group specific	Off-the-job	13 hours	Lecture based	Staff from residential and community centre	None given	None given	None given	Professionals (external)
Vogt et al. (2008)	Invited based on their job roles (have direct contact with patients)	Gender awareness	Group specific	Off-the-job	30 minutes	Computerized education program	Health care workers	89 female, 69 males	None given	45	None given

Webb and Sergison (2003)	Request by employee	Knowledge and behaviour and attitude of disabled child	Group specific	Off-the-job	One day	Lecture	Health professionals, nurses, support workers and managers	None given	None given	None given	None given
Williams (2005)	Request by employee	Cultural awareness, knowledge, skills building	Group specific	Off-the-job	12 hours	Blended learning strategy	Social workers	41 females, 6 males	38 non-racial, 9 racial minority	20-50	None given
Wilson et al. (2010)	Recruited based on their experience on mentoring	Mentoring program to increase diversity	Inclusive	Off-the-job	One day	Focus group discussion	Faculty mentor	None given	None given	None given	None given
Yap et al. (2010)	None given	Cultural awareness training	Inclusive	Off-the-job	Half-day	Blended learning strategy	Managers	None given	None given	None given	None given

Appendix B

Table 16 Phase 2 – Generating Initial Codes (Codebook)

Generating Initial Codes	Excerpts from Data Set	Number and Percentage of Interviews Coded	Number of Code Cited
1. Differences between host and home cultures in terms of diversity	The similarity/dissimilarity between host and home countries' attitudes towards diversity	14 (82%)	53
2. Demographic changes	The changes in the characteristics of the workforce	14 (82%)	49
3. Localisation	The official national policy of Saudi Arabia	13 (76%)	40
4. Organisational legitimacy	The degree that an organisation views diversity practices as important for its long-term survival	11 (65%)	35
5. Male attitude towards diversity	The attitude of male employees towards diverse employees at the organisation	12 (71%)	34
6. Coercive pressure and diversity training	How the company deals with the recent changes in the labour laws	12 (71%)	30
7. Diversity training methods	The learning methods used in diversity training	9 (53%)	26
8. Approach to diversity utilised	Whether the company adopts an inclusive or group-specific approach towards diversity	10 (59%)	23
9. Organisational attitude towards diversity	The attitude of the general population in the organisation towards diversity	10 (59%)	22
10. Headquarters–subsidiary relationship	The degree of dependency between the headquarters and the subsidiary in Saudi Arabia	8 (47%)	21
11. Managerial support for diversity training	Top management and organisational support for diversity	11(65%)	21
12. Expatriate vs. Local	How the company manages ethnic diversity	9 (53%)	20
13. Differences in managerial attitudes towards diversity between home and host	The similarity/dissimilarity of managerial support for diversity between the headquarters and the subsidiary	7 (41%)	19
14. Gender segregation in the workplace	How the company deals with gender segregation and employees' attitudes	12 (71%)	18
15. Multi-domestic strategy for diversity	The degree that the company emphasises local responsiveness	5 (29%)	17
16. Differences in diversity practices between home and host	The similarity/dissimilarity of diversity practices between the headquarters and the subsidiary	4 (24%)	17
17. Diversity in recruitment and selection	Challenges and opportunities faced by the organisation in increasing diversity	8 (47%)	17
18. Diversity in public and private sector	Challenges and opportunities faced by organisations in Saudi Arabia in promoting diversity	7 (41%)	16
19. Differences in diversity approaches between headquarters and subsidiary	The similarity/dissimilarity of diversity approaches between the headquarters and the subsidiary	6 (35%)	15
20. Differences in gender roles between home and host	The similarity/dissimilarity of gender roles between the headquarters and the subsidiary	8 (47%)	15
21. Goal of diversity training	Increased cultural awareness, skills development, and/or behavioural and attitude change	7 (41%)	15
22. Diversity in leadership	Challenges and opportunities faced by the organisation in increasing diversity in leadership	8 (47%)	14
23. Trainee attendance requirement	Whether diversity training is voluntary or mandatory	7 (41%)	14
24. Islam and diversity training	The relationship between Islamic religious beliefs and diversity	5 (29%)	13

25. Diversity training needs	How the organisation conducted training needs assessments prior to diversity training	6 (35%)	13
26. Reaction to diversity training	Participants' reactions towards diversity after completing the diversity training	7 (41%)	12
27. Ethical aspects of diversity training	Interviewees cite ethical aspects of diversity	7 (41%)	12
28. Diversity and communication	The degree that the organisation uses communication tools to enhance the diversity climate	7 (41%)	12
29. Gender roles	The roles and positions of women in the workplace	7 (41%)	11
30. Training evaluation method	The method used to evaluate diversity training	6 (35%)	11
31. Diversity competence	The degree that employees are aware of diversity issues	7 (41%)	11
32. Competitive pressure	The degree that competitors affect firms' behaviours and performance related to diversity	3 (18%)	10
33. Resistance to diversity and equality	The resistance to diversity and equality emerging from the external and internal environment	6 (35%)	8
34. Knowledge base, skills, and education level	The degree that local employees lack proper skills and knowledge	7 (41%)	8
35. Selection of trainees	The process of selecting participants for diversity training	4 (24%)	7
36. Informal diversity training practices	Development tools used to enhance diversity and equality	5 (29%)	7
37. History of diversity	The history of diversity in the organisation (before and after implementing diversity training)	4 (24%)	6
38. Trainer characteristics	The characteristics of the trainer and how they impact diversity training outcomes	5 (29%)	5
39. Imitating other organisations	The degree that the organisation attempts to copy other organisations in their implementation of diversity practices	3 (18%)	5
40. Working environment	The degree that the working environment impacts the effectiveness of diversity practices	2 (12%)	5
41. Role of family	The difficulties in balancing between family and work roles	2 (12%)	5
42. Different business units	Different business functions and departments within the organisation	2 (12%)	4
43. Demographic changes in the Saudi workforce	The characteristics of the local workforce	3 (18%)	4
44. Standardised policies	The degree that the headquarters attempts to achieve consistency among all subsidiaries	2 (12%)	4
45. Home market strategy	The organisation is based around six home markets in Australia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Sweden, the UK, and the US.	2 (12%)	4
46. Diversity behaviours after diversity training	The change in participants' behaviour after diversity training	3 (18%)	4
47. Diversity and career advancement	The degree that the organisation attempts to adopt equal procedures in promotion	3 (18%)	4
48. Transportation	The degree that transportation can impact workforce diversity	2 (12%)	3
49. Alignment of diversity training	The degree that diversity training is aligned with other diversity and/or HRM practices	3 (18%)	3
50. Total		17	821

Table 17 Codes and Sample Excerpts

Initial Codes	Code Definition
1. Differences between host culture and home culture in terms of diversity	“People in the UK are pushing diversity and inclusion everywhere, but they do not go deep in our strategy because they know that we are different cultures“
2. Demographic change	“40 years ago we were not so diverse because we are a foreign company operating in Saudi Arabia, but now everything has changed and diversity become an important part of our business. Nowadays, there are more female and disabled workers”
3. Saudisation	“The business is recognised through its strategy that to continue to have a long standing relationship with Saudi Arabia we have to impress and put the centre of our strategy, so the centre of our strategy is Saudisation and industrialisation”
4. Organisational legitimacy	“ In order to survive and grow within Saudi Arabia we have to do that otherwise someone else will come and do that and that will be much more attractive because it’s very clear what the national agenda is, this a clarity around that”
5. Male attitude towards diversity	Yes, absolutely needs to be change there is no doubt about that, managers and employees’ attitude needs to be changed otherwise the problem will be forever,
6. Coercive pressure and diversity training	“We are very conscious we are in a leading position so we are careful about that and clearly we make sure we fully comply with law given the nature of our business”
7. Diversity training methods	“All the managers have to attend e-learning and interactive programs in diversity and inclusions across the whole (company name) and every manager in this company gets this program”
8. Approach to diversity utilised	“We come to Saudi Arabia to training Saudi and work towards localisation, [...], so to me that is not diversity because of Saudisation; we came here only to train Saudi and we leave so how this is a diversity, there is a difference between Saudisation and diversity”
9. Organisational attitude towards diversity	“ [...] but we have said that we are going to make sure there is a female voice and remember that there is only small percentage of our overall business, but we recognise the value of diversity so we are going to have female voice in that group”
10. Headquarters–subsidiary relationship	“ <i>We don’t run any programmes of any other countries, it’s all quite independent with some overarching similar goals and we try to learn from each other...we can duplicate work if that’s a practice appropriate to the culture and situation across different markets, but we tried to helped people in Saudi but we couldn’t</i> ”
11. Managerial support for diversity training	“Where we start really is by educating managers what diversity and inclusion is. It is not about males and females and particular groups, but different background, education, ages whether you are married; so we starting to get this appreciation with our managers through these training programmes”
12. Expatriate vs. Local	“Well I believe the company still does not recruit expatriate females in full contract; expatriate women they came here as business visitors not on a full contract”
13. Differences in managerial attitudes towards diversity between home and host	“ [...] we are not in the UK; most of our senior and executives have limited information about diversity and inclusion”
14. Gender segregation in the workplace	“We are starting to meet their needs; they have special needs compared to males because this is a requirement from the government like an isolated office”
15. Multi-domestic strategy to diversity	“At the local level, we have the flexibility to tolerate that to the need of particular business and giving the national agenda and the business strategy; we have a policy of focusing not 100% but focusing the majority of our learning and development effort budgets on Saudi nationals”
16. Differences in diversity practices between home and host	“When I was in the UK, I worked in the recruitment and I recruited people to come to Saudi Arabia and at that time we only recruited males because of the contract, although we are an equal opportunity employee; only males can be recruited in these positions”
17. Diversity in recruitment and selection	“ [...] educate our leadership about diversity and inclusion; everyone knows diversity and inclusion, but we want to let them know how

	diversity and inclusion can benefit the business for example the benefit of recruiting people from different backgrounds and tribes and what diversity and inclusion mean in our culture”
18. Diversity in public and private sector	“In our society the idea of working in private sectors, unfortunately, is not in the most job seekers’ options; still people are thinking straightaway of how to find a job in public sectors, because they believe it is more secure, less working hours, more easier, and more comfortable; what we are trying to do is [...] to encourage job seekers to take this experience and work in private sector”
19. Differences in diversity approach between headquarters and subsidiary	“We know diversity is very broad and in UK they may have different perspective than in Saudi Arabia; that’s the global view and then we look locally and what it does mean in Saudi Arabia; but it will be probably very focused on male/female aspect given the government agenda”
20. Differences in gender roles between home and host	“Every job we have in this company is available to females; it does not mean that here, it would mean that in the UK, definitely mean that in the UK, because we just cannot do that here because there are some constraints”
21. Goal of diversity	“Increasing your cultural awareness is the main aim of this programme at this moment in time; it’s really to introduce people to this subject”
22. Diversity in leadership	“We do not have any family at the management board level; within the female office we do have team lead and executive and those jobs in the female office range from lower level administrative to professional HR and finance jobs”
23. Trainee attendance requirement	“It is mandatory; if they do not attend they will face some negative consequences; it is part of everyone’s performance appraisal [...]”
24. Islam and diversity training	“ [...] and we are still obedient to the religious roles and regulations”
25. Diversity training needs	“Yes absolutely needs to be change; there is no doubt about that; managers and employees’ attitudes need to be changed, otherwise the problem will be forever; and I think that is what the government is trying to do is to change people’s attitude by law enforcement, otherwise nothing will change in the long-term. In terms of the organisation level, managers should provide more training on these things”
26. Reaction to diversity training	“First they hate me because of these programmes, but then there were some positive reactions”
27. Ethical aspects of diversity training	“We should have diverse employees; this is our ethical goal to have diversity; we should have more disabled people, more women, and this is why we have diversity”
28. Diversity and communication	“We do not meet them [female] face-to-face, but we meet them via video conferences and phone conferences”
29. Gender roles	“The females mainly work in administrative type roles; it is quite a professional level in HR and finance we do have back office engineering around one or two”
30. Training evaluation method	“Yes we evaluate the programmes [...] we fill a questionnaire on a scale of 1 to 5 about the content of the training and the material the teaching style and etc.”
31. Diversity competence	“Well to be honest I don’t know too much about it because the role that I am doing does not involve diversity and inclusion; it is very specific around leave and travel”
32. Competitive pressure	“[...] however it’s recognised by our management board that the way we did business for the last 30 years needs to change; now we have competitor pressure”
33. Resistance to diversity and equality	“Our customers were not happy; there was challenging everywhere, everybody asking the same question what is the benefit from recruiting females”
34. Knowledge base, skills, and educational level	“People always say that I am a Saudi, I should have the right to be promoted, why is foreign worker or expatriate my manager or supervisor; but if he has the experience and you don’t, you should learn from him instead of complaining”
35. Informal diversity training practices	“We have female visual meetings; all females around the world can get together and discuss their issues via a conference call”
36. History of diversity	“The diversity and inclusion it is a hot topic for us; we start in 2008 to discuss diversity and inclusion within corporate review, so diversity has been assigned to be in (company name) Saudi Arabia in 2010 and we have every 2 years strategy”
37. Trainer characteristics	“It depends on the program, so the unconscious bias we have someone externally and help us make the tool but then internal people deliver

	it; some of them are only done by external and some of them internal people”
38. Imitating other organisations	“In 2010 first 8 months I was looking for diversity and inclusion within other business in Saudi, so I visited the top 10 Saudi companies in Saudi; I saw their best practices in diversity and inclusion; to be honest, there was nothing called diversity and inclusion in Saudi Arabia in 2010, I was struggling”
39. Working environment	“Working with men is not something we like because we grow up like that, so it is not very easy to change our behaviour in one day”
40. Role of family	“I think also the family tradition can lead to something like that. For example, most husbands and fathers will not allow their wives or daughters to work in a mixed gender environment”
41. Different business units	“It will be different, depends on different business units [...] for example we have one called military air mission, we have one called marine services, one is called navy shipments, and then we have one called artificial applied intelligence; they have different percentages [female]”
42. Demographic changes in Saudi workforce	“It is couple of things to be honest: the government agenda changed the majority of the Saudi population under 30 years and 55% family we have around 1.7 million disabled”
43. Standardised policies	“Operational framework is the same with every single business system over the world. In that it sets out broad principle in how we operate business; it’s not very detailed, however there are certain policies in there which are the same across the whole of the company”
44. Home market strategy	“The way we work is each of our what we call ‘home market’, so our key markets they have their own diversity and inclusion team”
45. Diversity behaviours after diversity training	“Training does not necessarily change people’s attitude because that is a longer term issue to change”
46. Diversity and career advancement	“The focus now shifted to developing the female office; there is a continuous challenge in business can we grow in this and put more activities in there, and the female themselves welcome that, quite often seeking to take new things; we’ve got some constraints to manage in terms of labour law, continue to make sure to keep our customer supportive of what we do and not go to fast”
47. Transportation	“The company’s location sometimes could be an issue; I have refused to work in a good Saudi company because of the location, it will take me one hour to get there and it is very difficult to arrange that with a driver every day”
48. Alignment of diversity training	“The training is implemented as one short course and we have not yet link the training or let’s say incorporated the training with other practices because it is a very new practice and we are not yet sure of the outcomes”

Table 18 Phase 3 – Searching for Themes – Developing Categories and Sample Excerpts

Searching for Theme	Theme Definition	Number and Percentage of Interviews Coded	Number of Theme Coded
1. Informal Institutions	Informal institutions include social norms, behaviour, and attitude in the host country	16* (94%)	157*
1.1 Cultural norms and diversity training		16	56
1.2 Challenging of achieving equality		14	49
1.3 Male attitude towards diversity		12	34
1.4 Islam and diversity training		5	13
1.5 Role of family		2	5
2. Diversity Training Designs	How organisation designs and implements diversity training, type of diversity training available, and trainer characteristics	11* (65%)	100*
2.1 Diversity training method		9	26
2.2 Approach to diversity utilised		10	23
2.3 Managerial support for training		11	21
2.4 Goal of diversity training		7	15
2.5 Informal diversity training practices		5	7
2.6 Trainer characteristics		5	5
2.7 Alignment of diversity training		3	3
3. Formal Institutions	Formal institutions include laws, regulatory frameworks, court systems, and written contracts	14* (82%)	97*
3.1 Localisation		13	40
3.2 Coercive pressure and diversity training		12	30
3.3 Gender segregation in the workplace		12	18
3.4 Organisational legitimacy		5	9
4. Distance in Informal Institutions	The similarity and dissimilarity in norms, values, and tradition between home and host countries, which affect diversity training practices	14* (82%)	72*
4.1 Differences between host and home cultures in terms of diversity		14	53
4.2 Differences in managerial attitudes towards diversity between headquarters and subsidiary		7	19

5. HRM Practices	Describe the relationship between diversity and HRM in the subsidiary and how these practices impact diversity training	12* (71%)	58*
5.1 Diversity in recruitment and selection		8	17
5.2 Diversity in leadership		8	14
5.3 Diversity and communication		7	12
5.4 Gender roles		7	11
5.5 Diversity in career advancement		3	4
6. National Characteristics	Refer to the workforce characteristics of the workforce in the host country	14* (82%)	51*
6.1 Expatriate vs. local		9	20
6.2 Diversity in public and private sector		7	16
6.3 Knowledge base, skills, and educational levels		7	8
6.4 Demographic changes in the Saudi workforce		3	4
6.5 Transportation		2	3
7. Organisational Characteristics	Refer to the structure of the organisation and how this structure influences diversity training	16* (94%)	50*
7.1 Organisational attitude towards diversity		10	22
7.2 Diversity competence		7	11
7.3 Resistance to diversity and equality		6	8
7.4 Working environment		2	5
7.5 Different business units		2	4
8. Business Case vs. Social Justice Perspectives	Describe whether the subsidiary implements diversity training for a business focus or moral focus	12* (71%)	47*
8.1 Diversity training and business outcomes		11	35
8.2 Ethical aspects of diversity training		7	12
9. Distance in HRM Practices	The similarity/dissimilarity of HRM practices between headquarters and subsidiary, and how this distance impacts diversity training	12* (71%)	47*
9.1 Differences in diversity practices between headquarters and subsidiary		4	17
9.2 Differences in diversity approach between headquarters and subsidiary		6	15
9.3 Differences in gender roles between headquarters and subsidiary		8	15

10. Headquarter Pressure	Describe the relationship between the headquarters and the subsidiary in relation to HRM and diversity management practices	8* (47%)	46*
10.1 Headquarters–subsidiary relationship		8	21
10.2 Multi-domestic approach		5	17
10.3 Standardisation policies		2	4
10.4 Home market strategy		2	4
11. Diversity Training Contexts	Refer to the broad aspects of diversity training	13* (76%)	40*
11.1 Trainee attendance requirement		7	14
11.2 Diversity training needs		6	13
11.3 Selection of trainees		4	7
11.4 History of diversity		4	6
12. Diversity Training Outcomes	Refer to the individual, group, and organisational outcomes of diversity training	9* (53%)	27*
12.1 Reaction to diversity training		7	12
12.2 Diversity training evaluation method		6	11
12.3 Diversity behaviour after training		3	4
13. Mimetic Pressure	It comes from the pressure to imitate what other organisations are doing in relation to diversity and inclusion	5* (29%)	15*
13.1 Competitive pressure		3	10
13.2 Imitating other organisations		3	5

* Refer to the total number of sources and references in each Theme.

Table 19 Phase 4 – Reviewing Themes – Coding on/Drilling down

Searching for Broad Theme	Broad Theme Definition	Number and Percentage of Interviews Coded	Reference
1. Rationale for introducing diversity training	Formal and informal institutions that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	16* (94%)	254*
1.1 Formal institutions		16	157
1.2 Gaining legitimacy		14	97
1.3 Demographic change			
1.4 Local vs. expatriate			
1.5 Lack of diversity awareness			
2. Learning perspective	Emphasise the learning designs and outcomes derived from diversity training and their impact on the rationale for introducing diversity training	17* (100%)	167*
2.1 Diversity training design		17	100
2.2 Diversity training context		13	40
2.3 Diversity training outcomes		9	27
3. Organisational context	External factors outside the organisation that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	15*(88%)	133*
3.1 Distance in informal institutions		14	72
3.2 Local subsidiary autonomy		12	47
3.3 Thinking globally, acting locally		8	14
3.4 Competitor pressure			
4. Internal Factors	Factors inside the organisation that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	17* (100%)	108*
4.1 HRM practices		12	58
4.2 Organisational characteristics		16	50
5. Business Case Perspective	Business factors that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	11* (65%)	35*
5.1 Business case for diversity		11	35
6. Social Justice Perspective	Social and ethical stance that impacts the rationale for introducing diversity training	7* (41%)	12*
6.1 Ethical focus of diversity		7	12

* Refer to the total number of sources and references in each Theme.

Table 20 Phase 5 - Defining and Naming Themes (final stage)

Final Theme	Final Theme definition	Number and Percentage of Interviews Coded	Reference
1. Rationale for introducing diversity training	External and internal factors that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	16 (94%)	254
2. Organisational context	The difference/similarity between the regulatory, cognitive, and normative institutions of host and home countries that impact the rationale for introducing diversity training	17 (100%)	167
3. Diversity training context	Emphasise the learning perspective derived from diversity training and its impact on the context diversity training	15 (88%)	133
4. Diversity training design	Emphasise the learning perspective derived from diversity training and their impact on the design diversity training	15 (88%)	112

Appendix C

Interview Questions (Company)

Opening questions

1. What is your role in this organisation?
2. How many years working experience do you have in this role?
3. There is a large discussion around diversity and inclusion in the workplace in most countries, what is your opinion regarding these movements?
4. Do you think (company name) is attempting to make progress on its diversity & inclusion globally? Why is that important?

Exploring the rationale: External

5. Why do you think the company has implemented diversity training?
6. How does the national policy influence (legal or normative pressure) the diversity training in your organisation, e.g. the role of women at the workplace?
7. Is there any pressure from the parent company to implement diversity training?
8. Is there any influence from the public opinion to implement diversity training?
9. Do you follow other organisations in their diversity management practices?

Exploring the rationale: Internal

10. To what extent does your organisation need diversity training?
11. To what extent are managers in this organisation committed to making diversity progress?
12. To what extent are the employees at this organisation aware of the diversity issues, including discrimination, prejudice, bias, and stereotype?
13. To what extent do the employees in your organisation view diversity as valuable for the organisation and committed to diversity training?

Rationale context

14. Does your organisation rely on, and is contingent on, the support of the parent company for providing major resources, including technology, capital, and expertise? Is there any pressure from the parent company to implement diversity management practices?
15. Are managers accountable for diversity from CSO or from the parent company?
16. Does your organisation implement diversity training that is exported from a parent company?
17. Do you think your employees feel that they belong to the parent organisation?

Questions related to diversity training programmes

1. How do you define diversity in designing diversity training?
2. What type of diversity approach have you used in designing diversity training?
3. Does (company name) implement diversity training as a stand-alone practice or integrated with other HR management practices?
4. Do you conduct a needs identification process?
5. What type of method do you use in delivering diversity training?
6. Does (company name) often implement mandatory practices, e.g. diversity training, legal/cultural awareness, or voluntary programmes?
7. Who delivers diversity training or any training practices that might include diversity components?
8. How do you select trainer/trainees?
9. What about your management development programmes, do they include diversity modules?
10. Do you think the diversity practices may conflict with other strategies?
11. How do you measure the effectiveness of your diversity practices?

Interview questions (government actors in Saudi Arabia)

1. Why is Saudi Arabia attempting to pursue a policy of Saudiaation?
2. What types of regulations are implemented to pursue Saudisation?
3. Why do you think that Saudi employees prefer to work in the public sector?
4. Some private organisations find it very difficult to retain Saudi nationals, why is that the case?
5. Why is advancing diversity in the private sector so important to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?
6. What do you perceive to be the greatest obstacles to women's advancement in the workplace?
7. What are the government plans to manage gender issues in the workplace, especially women in the private sector?
8. What type of benefits do private organisations acquire when they recruit more women and disabled workers?
9. What are the government plans that aim to increase people with disabilities in the workforce?
10. Are there any mandatory practices that private organisations must implement in their organisations in order to ensure equality and diversity?
11. What type of legislation is in place which protects employees/employers rights?
12. Saudi Arabia is moving towards new labour laws that regulate the employment contract, employment relations, and well-being. Could you provide more information about these schemes?
13. What equal employment opportunity legislation exists in Saudi Arabia that protects employees from discrimination and harassment?

Sample letter sent to the CSO in Saudi Arabia

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a PhD researcher in the Kemmy Business School at the University of Limerick in Ireland. I am inviting you to participate in my study which looks at factors that influence subsidiaries of multinational cooperation in Saudi Arabia in their implementation of diversity training. [Company name] considered as one of the best organisations that value and encourage diversity at the workplace. The company has won a number of award and recognition for having an inclusive global work environment where all individual are valued and respected. Therefore, this study will examine the external and internal factors influencing [company name] in Saudi Arabia to implement diversity practices, including diversity training, cultural awareness training, training for cultural competence, communication skills, etc.

While I recognise that diversity is a sensitive issue at work, I am not looking for evidence of discrimination at [company name]; I simply want to know how diversity managed and what the practices that have been used at the organisation. Participants' responses will not be identified with you personally, nor will anyone else be able to determine which company you work for. You and your company will remain completely anonymous. This study will also benefit your organisation as it will underline the importance of diversity and how effectively it can be managed.

My research interest in [company name] would involve me doing an interview with some staff from the Human Resources Development department. The interview will be in your work location. It will only take you a few minutes to do the interview, but your cooperation will make a contribution to the academic literature, as well as a difference to the practical management of the workforce in Saudi Arabia. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, you may contact me at hussain.alhejji@ul.ie or 00966546647555.

You, of course, have the right to refuse to participate, or to withdraw at any time.

Yours Faithfully,
Hussain Alhejji

Sample letter sent to the Minster of Labour in Saudi Arabia

المحترم،،،،،

سعادة معالي وزير العمل المهندس عادل محمد فقيه

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أود القيام برحلة علمية إلى المملكة العربية السعودية وذلك من أجل عمل دراسة بحثية على السياسات التي تتبعها المملكة في تطبيق مفاهيم العدالة الوظيفية خصوصاً أن القوى العاملة أصبحت متنوعة من حيث الجنس واللغة والقدرة على الحركة (المعاقين) والتفكير والفئة العمرية وغيرها من الاختلافات. بالإضافة لذلك المملكة تهدف إلى تطبيق مفهوم الموازنة والعدالة الوظيفية وإتاحت الفرص لجميع فئات المجتمع للعمل في القطاعين العام والخاص. لذلك هذا البحث سوف يعود بفائدة على القطاعات الحكومية والخاصة في المملكة كما ان نتائج هذا البحث سوف تنشر في المجلات العلمية وسوف تقدم على شكل توصيات إلى الإدارات التالية في وزارة العمل: الإدارة العامة لتخطيط القوى العاملة - الإدارة العامة لعلاقات العمل - الإدارة العامة للتخطيط الإداري - إدارة الموارد البشرية وإدارة توظيف السعوديين من أجل النهوض بمثل هذه البحوث الأكاديمية والتي تعكس مدى التطور الإقتصادي التي تعيشها المملكة في عهد خادم الحرمين الشريفين / الملك عبدالله بن عبد العزيز ال سعود حفظه الله.

سبب الدراسة

مع تقدم المملكة العربية السعودية إقتصادياً تواجه المملكة تنوع كبير في القوى العاملة. المنظمات أصبحت تواجه تحديات كبيرة بما في ذلك تعزيز التفاهم بين فئات المجتمع ، والحد من الصراعات داخل ساحة العمل ، وإستيعاب الاختلافات في التفكير والسلوك وخلق المناخ الذي يساهم في توفير بيئة عمل صحية تقوم على مبدأ احترام وتقدير الثقافات المختلفة.

الهدف من البحث

تحليل العوامل الداخلية والخارجية التي تأثر على قرارات المملكة العربية السعودية في خلق بيئة عمل صحية

عينة البحث

وزارة العمل (معالي الوزير ومدراء الإدارات)
عدد من الجامعات السعودية (تم الحصول على الموافقة من هذه الجهات - تم التحفظ على أسماء الجامعات)
شركة من القطاع الخاص (تم الحصول على موافقة من شركة أجنبية في المملكة - تم التحفظ على أسم الشركة)

طريقة جمع المعلومات

سوف نقوم بإجراء مقابلات شخصية مع معالي وزير العمل (15-30 دقيقة) وبعض مدراء الإدارات (حسب الامكانية) وسوف يتم تحديد وقت عمل المقابلات في موعد يتم الإتفاق عليه لاحقاً بعد أخذ الموافقة من معالي الوزير.

نوعية الاسئلة

سوف تتركز الأسئلة على أربع محاور:

المحور الاول: السياسات التي تتبعها المملكة في تطبيق مفهوم العدالة الوظيفية من ناحية توفير الفرص الوظيفية لجميع فئات المجتمع وتدريب وتطوير القوى العاملة وإيجاد جهة مسؤولة لحماية حقوق الموظف وصاحب العمل.

المحور الثاني: البرامج التي تقوم بها وزارة العمل في تطبيق هذه السياسات – الإيجابيات والسلبيات , المعوقات و الخطط المستقبلية وكيفية تقييم مدى فاعلية هذه البرامج.

المحور الثالث: تأثير مفهوم "السعودة" على سياسات الشركات الخاصة والعامة والأجنبية.

موافقتكم على هذه الدراسة سوف تساهم في تقدم مفاهيم العدالة الوظيفية في المملكة العربية السعودية كما إنها سوف تساهم في زيادة البحوث الأكاديمية التطويرية في هذا المجال وسوف نكون لكم شاكرين على إتاحة الفرصه لنا في خدمة الوطن في جميع مجالاته. علماً بأن للجهات كامل الصلاحية في طلب نتيجة الدراسة قبل نشرها في مجلة علمية وكما يحق للجهات التحفظ ببعض المعلومات اذا كان هناك ما يستوجب ذلك.

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

مقدم الطلب/ حسين علي الحجي

Appendix D

First acceptance letter received from a large organisation, giving me permission to conduct interviews with HRD practitioners (pilot interview)

<p>KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA Ministry of Higher Education KING FAISAL UNIVERSITY (037)</p>		<p>المملكة العربية السعودية وزارة التعليم العالي جامعة الملك فيصل (٠٣٧)</p>
<p>الموضوع:.....</p>		
<p>إلى من يهمه الأمر</p>		
<p>السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ... وبعد ،</p>		
<p>إشارة إلى الطلب المقدم من سعادة الأستاذ حسين الحجى طالب الدراسات العليا في جامعة ليمرك في إيرلندا في مجال إدارة الموارد البشرية حيث أوضح رغبته في إجراء بعض المقابلات مع موظفي عمادة تطوير التعليم الجامعي بما يخدم أغراض البحث العلمي. عليه نحيطكم علماً بموافقتنا على ذلك.</p>		
<p>هذا وتقبلوا خالص التحية والتقدير ،،،</p>		
<p>عميد تطوير التعليم الجامعي</p>		
		
<p>د. سميحان بن ناصر الرشيد</p>		
<p>المرفقات:</p>	<p>التاريخ:</p>	<p>الرقم:</p>
<p>www.kfu.edu.sa</p>		
<p>المملكة العربية السعودية ص. ب. 100 الأحساء - 31982 - 31982 Tel: 035800000 Fax: 035816980 - 25811580 فاكس : 25811580 هاتف : 035800000 مطبع جامعة الملك فيصل 340</p>		

Second acceptance letter received from a large organisation, giving me permission to conduct interviews with HRD practitioners (pilot interview)

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



المملكة العربية السعودية
معهد الإدارة العامة
الإدارة العامة للتخطيط والتطوير
إدارة الإتصال والتعاون الخارجي

١٤٣٤/٥/٢٠ هـ

المحترم

الأستاذ / حسين علي الحجري
طالب دكتوراه
جامعة ليمرك - إيرلندا

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ،،،

إشارة إلى خطابكم الموجه إلى معالي مدير عام المعهد بشأن رغبتكم الحصول على الموافقة لإجراء مقابلات مع منسوبي الإدارة العامة للتخطيط والتطوير في المعهد بشأن موضوع بحثكم والمتعلق بواقع التدريب والتطوير في المملكة لخلق بيئة عمل صحية .

أود أن أفيدكم بموافقة المعهد على طلبكم ومقابلتكم فيما يتعلق بأغراض بحثكم وذلك في مقر معهد الإدارة العامة بالرياض.

ولمزيد من المعلومات، أمل التواصل معنا . متمنين لكم التوفيق في بحثكم .

وتقبلوا تحياتي وتقديري.

مدير عام التخطيط والتطوير



د. بندر بن أسعد السجّان

07777

